

2017-11

# Tropical forest light regimes in a human-modified landscape

Fauset, S

<http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/12896>

---

10.1002/ecs2.2002

Ecosphere

Ecological Society of America

---

*All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.*

# 1 Tropical forest light regimes in a human-modified landscape

2  
3  
4 Sophie Fauset<sup>1,2</sup>, †, Manuel U. Gloor<sup>1</sup>, Marcos P.M. Aidar<sup>3</sup>, Helber C. Freitas<sup>4,5</sup>, Nikolaos M.  
5 Fyllas<sup>1,6</sup>, Mauro A. Marabesi<sup>3</sup>, André L.C. Rochelle<sup>2</sup>, Alexander Shenkin<sup>6</sup>, Simone A. Vieira<sup>7</sup>,  
6 Carlos A. Joly<sup>2</sup>  
7

8 <sup>1</sup> School of Geography, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK.

9 <sup>2</sup> Departamento de Biologia Vegetal, Instituto de Biologia, Universidade Estadual de Campinas,  
10 Rua Monteiro Lobato, Cidade Universitária, Campinas, São Paulo, 13083-862, Brazil.

11 <sup>3</sup> Instituto de Botânica de São Paulo, Avenida Miguel Stéfano, São Paulo, 04301-902, Brazil.

12 <sup>4</sup> Departamento de Física, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade Estadual Paulista, Av. Eng. Luiz  
13 Edmundo Carrijo Coube, 14-01, Bauru, São Paulo, 17033-360, Brazil.

14 <sup>5</sup> Centro de Meteorologia - IPMet/UNESP, Estrada Municipal José Sandrin, Bauru, São Paulo,  
15 17048-699, Brazil.

16 <sup>6</sup> Environmental Change Institute, School of Geography and the Environment, University of  
17 Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3QY, UK.

18 <sup>7</sup> Núcleo de Estudos e Pesquisas Ambientais, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Rua dos  
19 Flamboyants, 155, Campinas, São Paulo, 13083-867 Brazil.  
20

21 † E-mail: s.fauset@leeds.ac.uk.  
22

23 **Abstract**

24 Light is the key energy input for all vegetated systems. Forest light regimes are complex, with  
25 the vertical pattern of light within canopies influenced by forest structure. Human disturbances in  
26 tropical forests impact forest structure, and hence may influence the light environment and thus  
27 competitiveness of different trees. In this study we measured vertical diffuse light profiles along  
28 a gradient of anthropogenic disturbance, sampling intact, logged, secondary and fragmented sites  
29 in the biodiversity hotspot of the Atlantic forest, south-east Brazil, using photosynthetically  
30 active radiation (PAR) sensors and a novel approach with estimations of vertical light profiles  
31 from hemispherical photographs. Our results show clear differences in vertical light profiles with  
32 disturbance – fragmented forests are characterized by rapid light extinction within their low  
33 canopies, while the profiles in logged forests show high heterogeneity and high light in the mid  
34 canopy despite decades of recovery. The secondary forest showed similar light profiles to intact  
35 forest, but with a lower canopy height. We also show that in some cases the upper canopy layer  
36 and heavy liana infestations can severely limit light penetration. Light extinction with height  
37 above the ground and depth below the canopy top was highest in fragmented forest and  
38 negatively correlated with canopy height. The novel, inexpensive, and rapid methods described  
39 here can be applied to other sites to quantify rarely measured vertical light profiles.

40 **Key Words:** Atlantic forest; Brazil; canopy; degraded; disturbance; extinction coefficient;  
41 fragment; montane; radiation; secondary; structure; vertical profile.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Light is a key environmental variable driving plant productivity by providing energy for  
45 photosynthesis. Photosynthetic rates respond to changes in incoming radiation, and plants also

46 show acclimation to the prevailing growth irradiance, with lower rates of photosynthesis and  
47 respiration and altered leaf structure under shaded conditions (Chen et al. 2014). In tropical  
48 forests, which constitute a globally significant store of carbon (Pan et al. 2011) and biodiversity  
49 (Dirzo and Raven 2003), the light environment is highly complex (Chazdon and Fetcher 1984)  
50 and tree species life histories are often associated with light availability (e.g. Poorter et al. 2006).  
51 Diurnal and seasonal patterns of incoming radiation can be easily understood based on solar  
52 geometry and the movements of clouds. However, the attenuation of light within the forest  
53 canopy is determined by the vertical structure of stems, leaves, and their optical properties  
54 (Binkley et al. 2013). Hence, forest structure is a driver of light availability within canopies,  
55 which can then impact the physiological rates of trees.

56

57 Anthropogenic disturbances, such as selective logging, clear felling, fragmentation, and fire,  
58 affect forest structure. For example, secondary, logged, fragmented forests, and forest edges  
59 typically contain fewer large trees than intact forest (e.g. Laurance et al. 1997, Paula et al. 2011,  
60 Berenguer et al. 2014). The structure of trees themselves may also be different in disturbed  
61 forests due to changes in species composition with the proliferation of pioneers (Michalski et al.  
62 2007, Paula et al. 2011, Laurance et al. 2011). Early successional species have different  
63 architectures to shade tolerant species with narrower crowns and taller heights (Poorter et al.  
64 2006, Montgomery and Chazdon, 2001), and tree architecture has been shown to change after  
65 selective logging with lower tree heights for a given diameter (Rutishauser et al. 2016). Hence,  
66 light regimes in human-modified forests may differ from those in intact forests due to differences  
67 in tree size-class distributions, species composition, and allometry.

68

69 The majority of research conducted thus far into light environments in human-modified forests  
70 focuses on the understory due the logistical challenges of working in the canopy. Even with  
71 differing structures, the percentage of light reaching the forest floor (transmittance) is typically  
72 low (1-2 %) and may vary little between intact, secondary and selectively logged forest (Nicotra  
73 et al. 1999, Montgomery and Chazdon 2001). However, others have shown higher understory  
74 light levels in selectively logged forests (Yamada et al. 2014, Osazura-Peters et al. 2015) and  
75 decreasing light with secondary forest age (Denslow and Guzman 2000, Lebrija-Trejos et al.  
76 2011). Spatial heterogeneity in understory light transmittance between gap and closed areas  
77 within intact forest has been quantified (e.g. Chazdon and Fetcher 1984, Canham et al. 1990,  
78 Rich et al. 1993), and shows less variation in secondary forests (Nicotra et al. 1999). Fragment  
79 edges are known to have brighter, hotter microclimates compared with forest interiors (Newmark  
80 2001, Ewers and Banks-Leite 2013, Magnago et al. 2015), although time and structure  
81 development since fragmentation, and land-use adjacent to the fragment affect the strength of the  
82 difference (Didham and Lawton 1999).

83

84 Much less information is available on the vertical profile of light, especially in human-modified  
85 forests. The vertical pattern of light transmission is important for our understanding of forest  
86 productivity, growth and dynamics (as inferred from LiDAR data, Stark et al. 2012, Stark et al.  
87 2015). A small number of datasets have been collected for intact tropical forests with direct  
88 measurements of light profiles (Yoda 1974, Torquebiau 1988, Maass et al. 1995, Anhuf and  
89 Rollenbeck 2001, Wirth et al. 2001, Parker et al. 2005) or of leaf area profiles Clark et al. 2008).  
90 However, most studies are limited to very small sample numbers (but see Parker et al. 2005,  
91 Clark et al. 2008), or to a small footprint from crane-based studies (Anhuf and Rollenbeck 2001,

92 Kitajima et al. 2005). Data on 3D forest structure (Lefsky et al. 2002) and associated light  
93 environments (Parker et al. 2001, Stark et al. 2012) can be estimated from LiDAR (light  
94 detection and ranging), which increases the spatial coverage of measurements. However, LiDAR  
95 technology remains expensive and produces vast datasets that can be challenging to analyse.  
96 Diffuse light conditions (as opposed to direct light conditions) are convenient for the direct  
97 measurement of vertical light profiles because it avoids the high variability in light conditions  
98 due to sun-flecks (e.g. Parker et al. 2002 found profiles measured under an overcast sky where  
99 smoother than those under clear sky) and the profiles produced reflect the under-lying forest  
100 structure. Further, diffuse light can penetrate deeper into forest canopies than direct light  
101 resulting in more efficient canopy light use under diffuse light (Alton et al. 2007). Therefore,  
102 here we focus on diffuse light.

103

104 With this paper, we tackle the data-gap concerning vertical light profiles for intact and human-  
105 modified Atlantic forests. This work will add to previous knowledge of understory light patterns  
106 in intact and human-modified forests and provide valuable new data for a threatened biodiversity  
107 hotspot which has experienced substantial deforestation (Ribeiro et al. 2009). As datasets on  
108 vertical light profiles are rare, especially in disturbed forests, the results will be of use to test  
109 light interception schemes for forest models. We use two methods to measure light profiles –  
110 directly with photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) sensors, and indirectly with vertical  
111 profiles of hemispherical photographs. Both methods are low-cost and repeatable across  
112 landscapes. The aim of the paper is to characterize the vertical light environments of forests  
113 along a disturbance gradient of intact, selectively logged, secondary, and fragmented forest,  
114 accounting for spatial variation within sites. We expect that along the gradient from least to most

115 disturbed forests (intact < logged < secondary < fragment) light will penetrate further into the  
116 canopy due lower canopy closure and smaller tree crowns with increasing severity of  
117 disturbance.

118

## 119 Materials and Methods

### 120 *Study sites*

121 The study was carried out in and around Núcleo Santa Virginia of the Serra do Mar State Park in  
122 the municipality of São Luis do Paraitinga, São Paulo state, Brazil. The park is home to the  
123 largest contiguous patch of Atlantic forest remaining, running along a steep coastal mountain  
124 range. The forest is classified as montane moist dense forest (Veloso et al. 1991, Oliveira-Filho  
125 and Fontes 2000) and contains palms, tree ferns, bamboos, epiphytes and lianas in addition to  
126 dicot trees. Mean annual precipitation is 2300 mm with a dry season in July and August, mean  
127 annual temperature is 17°C (Joly et al. 2012) and fog occurs frequently (Rosado et al. 2010).  
128 Inland from the park the landscape is pastoral with patches of privately owned forest within a  
129 matrix of cattle pasture and occasional eucalyptus plantations. Terrain both inside and outside the  
130 park is hilly. Climate of the inland fragmented area is drier and hotter than the continuous forest,  
131 with the presence of some deciduous tree species and no tree ferns.

132

133 The sampling took advantage of a network of 1-ha permanent forest inventory plots within the  
134 Serra do Mar State Park (established under the Biota Functional Gradients project, Joly et al.  
135 2012) and newly established plots within fragments outside the reserve (Table 1). Data was  
136 collected from four plots within the continuous forest of the park, two in an area of intact forest  
137 (plots K and M in Joly et al. 2012), one in an area that had been selectively logged before the

138 establishment of the park in 1977 (plot N in Joly et al. 2012), and one in a regenerating area clear  
139 cut for charcoal production before park establishment that is considered a mid-stage secondary  
140 forest (Marchiori et al. 2016). These plots are referred to as intact-K, intact-M, logged and  
141 secondary in the text. Two forest fragments were also sampled, one near the community of  
142 Catuçaba (fragment-C) and one near the town of Lagoinha (fragment-L). In fragments, two plots  
143 of 10 x 250 m were established, one at the edge (approx. 30 m from edge) and one in the interior  
144 (approx. 100 m from edge). Both fragments are adjacent to cattle pasture. Whilst the precise  
145 history of the fragments is unknown, historical aerial imagery show that fragment-C has been  
146 forested since before 1962, whilst in fragment-L the edge plot was pasture and the interior plot  
147 forested in 1962. All trees > 4.8 cm diameter at breast height (dbh) were inventoried with  
148 diameter, species identification and co-ordinates in the plot recorded.

149

#### 150 *Light profile measurements*

151 19 PAR sensors were built following the method of Fielder and Comeau (2000). For each sensor  
152 a gallium arsenide phosphorus (GaAsP) photodiode (G1118, Hamamatsu, Japan) was housed in  
153 acrylic and aluminium with a cos-sine correcting diffuser. Each sensor was individually  
154 calibrated against a LI-COR 190 quantum sensor (LI-COR Inc., Nebraska, USA). One sensor  
155 connected to a CR200 datalogger (Campbell Scientific, Utah, USA) was used as an open sky  
156 reference located either in a clearing or atop a canopy tower located in the secondary plot. All  
157 other sensors were connected to an AM16/32 multiplexer and CR800 datalogger (Campbell  
158 Scientific, Utah, USA) to take simultaneous measurements from each sensor. Differential voltage  
159 measurements were used for the profile sensors and single ended measurements for the open sky  
160 sensor. To measure a profile a thin rope was installed over a high tree branch using a Big Shot



161 catapult (Sherrill Tree, North Carolina, USA) from which the sensors were suspended. Each  
162 sensor was positioned on a support structure consisting of a plastic bar bolted to a plastic ring,  
163 with each support connected to the next at 1 m intervals with Kevlar tape (Fig. 1). Data were  
164 collected every 30 seconds and the average was recorded each minute.

165

166 Fieldwork was carried out between March and October 2016. Within each plot, 10 – 12 locations  
167 were sampled. Each sampling point was at least 20 m away from other sampling points to ensure  
168 the independence of the light environments. For each sampling point, a 20 x 20 m subplot (10 x  
169 10 m for fragments) was preselected under a stratified design to evenly cover each plot. Within  
170 the chosen subplot, the tallest suitable tree for measurements was selected. Trees considered  
171 suitable possessed a strong branch with a clear line of sight from the ground to enable rope and  
172 sensor installation. For one sample (point 2 in the secondary plot) the sensors were suspended  
173 from a narrow canopy tower. The profile sensor was 18 m long, so for branches higher than 18 m  
174 the sensors were pulled to the highest possible position and the bottom portion of the profile  
175 (maximum 6 m) were not measured. Each point was sampled for a minimum of one hour and  
176 maximum of 3 days, always including a period of diffuse light conditions (either an overcast sky  
177 or dawn/dusk). The height of the highest leaves of the sampled tree was measured either with a  
178 laser rangefinder (Forestry Pro, Nikon, Japan), hypsometer (Vertex IV, Haglof, Sweden) or  
179 visual estimation.

180

181 To produce the light profile for each point, the data was manually examined to locate time  
182 periods of measurements under diffuse conditions (in order to avoid the influence of sunflecks  
183 and sun angle on the light profiles). The mean PAR recorded by each sensor as a percentage of

184 the open sky reference PAR (% transmission) was calculated across all data points collected  
185 under diffuse conditions.

186

187 Measuring light profiles during different times of day and months of the year could lead to  
188 inaccurate determination of vertical profiles if varying sun angle influences the profile even  
189 under diffuse conditions. Strongly seasonal leaf phenology could also result in seasonal variation  
190 in the light profile. We collected light profile data continuously from November 2015 – July  
191 2016 from a narrow canopy tower in the secondary forest plot. This showed that the light profiles  
192 determined at dusk and at dawn were very similar (Appendix S1: Fig. S1), hence change in sun  
193 angle during the day does not affect the profile. Comparing profiles produced for different  
194 months showed that the shape of the profile was consistent over the year, but that the extent of  
195 light transmission varied over the year (Appendix S1: Fig. S2), likely due to seasonality of leaf  
196 phenology. Light transmission was lowest, and therefore leaf area highest, in April, coincident  
197 with austral autumn and the transition to the drier, cooler season. The reduction in transmission  
198 between months of highest and lowest value (November - April) was low (mean 7.2 % across all  
199 heights), but quite variable (sd 7.6 %) with higher reductions in the upper canopy (above 13 m)  
200 than lower down. Hence, the general shape of the profile does not vary over the year, but the  
201 absolute values of % transmission may slightly alter.

202

203 To calculate a mean light profile for each plot, the % transmission at each 1 m height above the  
204 ground was averaged across each sampling point. For fragments, data from the edge and interior  
205 transects were combined. For heights above the top of the sampled tree % transmission was  
206 assumed to be 100 %. As the highest sensor was necessarily below a branch, there was an

207 unsampled section of the light profile between the top sensor and the top of the tree. The %  
208 transmission for these unsampled sections was estimated using a linear interpolation from 100 %  
209 transmission at the top of the tree to the % transmission measured at the height of the top sensor.  
210 For profiles where the bottom sensor was above 1 m, transmission values for all heights below  
211 the bottom sensor were assumed to be equal to that at the bottom sensor. In the figures measured  
212 data points and interpolated or extrapolated data points are differentiated with different symbols.  
213

214 In addition to the mean profile based on height above the ground, a mean profile using depth  
215 from the canopy top (d) was also produced. This means that all data points collected at the top of  
216 each sampled tree are at the same depth (0 m), rather than at different heights above the ground.  
217 We included depths up to the mean sample tree height for each plot (i.e. all data points from the  
218 canopy top downwards over a vertical distance equal to the plot mean sample tree height). Where  
219 the sample tree was shorter than the plot mean sample tree height % transmission was  
220 extrapolated downwards.

221

## 222 *Quantitative comparison of light profiles between sites*

223 To quantify differences in the mean light profiles between sites, we estimated the extinction  
224 coefficient ( $k_z$ ) with height above the ground ( $z$ ) for each mean plot profile using equation 1  
225

$$226 \quad \% \text{ Transmission } (z) = a + \exp(k_z z) \quad \text{equation 1}$$

227

228 The parameter  $a$  is the % transmission at ground level. As not all upper sections of the plot mean  
229 profile fit the exponential decay function (section *Variation in light profiles with disturbance*  
230 *history*), we excluded such sections from the analysis.

231

232 In order to include all the upper profile in an estimation of the extinction coefficient, we also  
233 estimate the extinction coefficient with depth ( $d$ ) from the top of the canopy ( $k_d$ ). using equation  
234 2. Note also the negative use of the extinction coefficient in comparison to equation 1.

235

236 % *Transmission* ( $d$ ) =  $a + (100 - a) \cdot \exp(-k_d d)$  equation 2

237

238 Parameters ( $a, k_z, k_d$ ) were estimated using non-linear least squares with the function ‘nls’ in the  
239 statistical program R 2.15.1 (R Core Team 2012).

240

241 *Light profiles from hemispherical photos*

242 In addition to the data collected using PAR sensors, for 45 profiles we also collected a vertical  
243 profile of hemispherical photos. Photographs were taken with a digital SLR camera (D3100,  
244 Nikon Corporation, Japan) and 4.5mm circular fisheye lens (F2.8 EX DC, Sigma, USA) using  
245 mode P and exposure compensation of -1 EV. One of the PAR sensor support structures was  
246 adapted to serve as a cradle for the camera which was then attached to the rope; a gimbal was  
247 considered unnecessary since hand-leveling has proven reliable for plant area index estimates  
248 from hemispherical photos (Origo et al. 2017). The camera was programmed to take one photo  
249 every 2 minutes, and was pulled higher into the canopy (at *c.* 2 m intervals in the continuous  
250 forest and 1 m intervals in the fragments) between each photo. The 2 minute interval was

251 typically long enough for the camera to stop rotating on the rope which was a common  
252 occurrence. The photographs were then used to estimate % transmission. The images were  
253 thresholded (converted to black for vegetation and white for sky) using only the blue channel  
254 following Pfeifer et al. (2012) using the Ridler and Calvard (1978) thresholding algorithm. The  
255 thresholded images were then analysed in the program Hemisfer (WSL, Switzerland) to  
256 determine % transmission (Schleppi et al. 2007, Thimonier et al. 2010). All five annuli of the  
257 image were used, corresponding to 180° field of view. The apparatus support strings were visible  
258 in the image and were classified as vegetation. A separate analysis of 8 manipulated images of  
259 strings only showed that they covered 8 % of the image. As it is likely that at least some of the  
260 support strings covered vegetation area in the image, we did not attempt to correct for them. As  
261 such, the % transmission estimations from the images may underestimate up to 8 %, but only in  
262 cases where the transmission is very high.

263

264 All data analyses were carried out in R 2.15.1 (R Core Team 2012).

265

## 266 Results and Discussion

### 267 *The shapes of light profiles*

268 The light profiles for each sample point are presented in Appendix S1: Fig. S3 and examples  
269 from each plot in Fig. 2. We believe this is the first study to present spatially replicated vertical  
270 light profiles along a degradation gradient. The most obvious pattern in Appendix S1: Fig. S3 is  
271 the decrease in sample tree height along the disturbance gradient, being tallest in the intact plots  
272 and shortest in the fragments (Table 2). The low canopy heights in the fragments are likely a  
273 reflection of the high level of degradation in these small fragmented forests. Other studies have

274 shown that short-statured, pioneer and early successional species typically dominate Atlantic  
275 forest fragments (e.g. Tabarelli et al. 1999, Oliveira et al. 2008, Paula et al. 2011) as a result of  
276 altered seed dispersal (Costa et al. 2012) and a hotter, drier microclimate (Kapos 1989) causing  
277 biotic homogenization and a shift towards composition typical of secondary forests (Joly et al.  
278 2014).

279

280 A second point of interest is the variation in the shapes of the light profiles (Fig. 2, Appendix S1:  
281 Fig. S3). Considering all profiles, we can qualitatively split the samples into three categories:  
282 profiles that are dark throughout (e.g. Fig. 2a,e), profiles that decline from high to low light (e.g.  
283 Fig. 2b,f,k), and profiles that show inversions, or points where the available light is greater than  
284 at heights above (e.g. Fig. 2c,h,j). All three categories occur in all plots, except for dark profiles  
285 in the logged plot. The dark profiles can be considered, to a certain extent, a consequence of our  
286 sampling methodology that necessarily requires the top measurement to be below a branch. As it  
287 was not possible to sample through the top of the crown to the canopy top we miss the initial  
288 light attenuation, though we can still estimate this using our data. As we use a linear interpolation  
289 between the top of the tree and the top sensor, we could slightly overestimate % transmission in  
290 the estimations at these heights, as the decline is unlikely to be completely linear, and we are  
291 assuming that there will be 100 % transmission at the top of the sample tree, whereas in reality  
292 there is likely already some shading from neighbouring crowns of tall trees. As these interpolated  
293 points are a minority compared with the measured points (on average 2.3 m of each profile is  
294 interpolated), this likely does not strongly influence our results. Dark profiles in the fragments  
295 were typically found in subplots with a dense liana layer covering the tree crowns. Lianas are  
296 known to be particularly abundant in disturbed areas (Schnitzer and Bongers 2011), and high

297 abundances of small lianas have been found in other studies of forest fragments (Oliveira-Filho  
298 et al. 1997, Laurance et al. 2001, Farah et al. 2014). This high liana abundance can have a strong  
299 impact on the light environment, restricting the penetration of light even very close to the canopy  
300 top, supporting other work that showing that lianas can reduce forest productivity (van der  
301 Heijden et al. 2015, Lai et al. 2017). Whilst lianas, or high epiphyte loads which are common in  
302 the continuous forest, may also be a cause of the dark profiles in the continuous plots, our  
303 inability to reach the canopy top was more prevalent in the continuous forest than in the  
304 fragments, and the influence of the interpolations is likely higher. Despite this limitation, the  
305 dark profiles are still of interest as they show that in some cases the % transmission is already  
306 very low just below the canopy top; light transmission can be less than 5 % as high up as 18 m,  
307 or 5 m below the top of the crown (Fig. 2a). This is due to the dense upper canopy absorbing  
308 substantial light – up to 95 % in this study.

309

310 The profiles with inversions were somewhat unexpected as they do not conform to the broadly-  
311 assumed exponentially decaying light availability profile. Some of the inverted profiles may be a  
312 result of the methodology with direct shading of the top sensor by the branch from which the  
313 sensors were suspended (e.g. Fig. 2h). However, in others the inversion occurs further down (e.g.  
314 Fig. 2c). Whilst there is little data available on light profiles with spatially extensive sampling  
315 from other sites, inversions in the light profile have been observed in intact tropical forest in  
316 Venezuela (Anhuf and Rollenbeck 2001) and in temperate coniferous (Parker 1997) and  
317 deciduous (Parker et al. 1996) forests. These inversions are due to incoming light through lateral  
318 canopy gaps. In this study, the inversions are a particularly common occurrence in the logged  
319 plot; selective logging removes large crowns creating gaps in the upper canopy.

320

321 *Variation in light profiles with disturbance history*

322 A feature of the mean height - % Transmission profile produced for each plot (Fig. 3) is the  
323 initial small declines in available light before rapid light attenuation occurs. This is due to the  
324 averaging across individual profiles with different canopy heights, and the extent of this effect  
325 reflects spatial heterogeneity in tree height. In contrast, the mean depth - % Transmission profiles  
326 are not affected by heterogeneity in tree height and show exponential decline in light from  
327 canopy top downwards. In plots where there are few tall sample trees and many shorter ones  
328 (e.g. logged and fragment-L) this slow attenuation in height-based profiles continues further  
329 down the canopy. Interestingly, fragment-C also shows this slow decline, but without the  
330 characteristic pattern of few large trees to explain it. The distribution of sample tree size is quite  
331 different between fragment-C and fragment-L, yet fragment-C does not have higher attenuation  
332 in its upper canopy. This may be due to an effect of season of sampling as, whilst in the  
333 continuous plots all species are evergreen, deciduous species are present in the fragments and  
334 some had lost their leaves at the time of sampling fragment-C (end of the dry season). Leaf  
335 shedding alters the patterns of light below tree crowns (Gandolfi et al. 2007) and hence likely  
336 influenced our measurements in fragment-C. In fragment-L, there is strong light attenuation  
337 between 6 to 8 m height, just below the median sample tree height. In this plot, especially in the  
338 edge transect, trees were similarly sized with a homogenous canopy layer around 8 m high,  
339 resulting in strong light absorption at this height.

340

341 The mean profiles of both height and depth show that the inversions seen in the individual  
342 profiles are maintained in mean profile for the logged plot (Fig. 3c). While inversions are to be



343 expected in any forests with a heterogeneous canopy, the pattern should not be visible in the  
344 mean profile given sufficient sampling otherwise it would suggest a source of light within the  
345 forest (Parker 1997). The fact that this has occurred in the logged forest only suggests that the  
346 canopy in this plot is more heterogenous than all other forest types studied. This prevalence of  
347 inverted profiles in the logged plots is despite the fact that the logging occurred over 40 years  
348 ago. One might expect that gaps produced by logging (or natural tree death) would be filled in  
349 over this timescale by the remaining trees growing laterally (Young and Hubbell 1991) or new  
350 trees filling the space, thereby removing these light gaps. However, recovery of forest structure  
351 (biomass and/or basal area) in selectively logged forests takes considerable time, with  
352 estimations in the order of decades, ranging from 10 – *c.* 100 years depending on the logging  
353 intensity (Blanc et al. 2009, Huang and Asner 2010, Bonnelli et al. 2011, West et al. 2014,  
354 Rutishauser et al. 2015). In this case, the biomass of the logged plot (274 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>, Vieira et al.  
355 2011) is similar to three intact plots (including the two in this study) at the site (242-323 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>,  
356 Vieira et al. 2011) suggesting that the biomass at least has recovered in this plot (though the pre-  
357 logging biomass of the plot is unknown). Rutishauser et al. (2016) show that the diameter –  
358 height allometry of trees of remnant trees in logged forest varies from intact forest, with shorter  
359 trees for a given diameter in logged forest, an effect that was present even 25 years after the  
360 disturbance. They suggest that the height reduction is a consequence of crown development at  
361 lower heights due to the altered light environment. This reduction in height growth could  
362 maintain canopy heterogeneity rather than filling in gaps.

363

364 Both of the intact plots show a similar pattern, with a sharp initial decline in light through the  
365 upper canopy and a slower decline below (Fig. 3a,b). The profile shapes of the intact plots are

366 similar to those directly measured from other sites in Venezuela (Anhuf and Rollenbeck 2001)  
367 and estimated from LiDAR in the central Amazon (Stark et al. 2012).

368

369 Interestingly, within the continuous forest, the shape of the secondary forest profile is more  
370 similar to the intact forest than the logged forest (Fig. 3a-d). Below 10 m height, there is very  
371 little difference between the secondary and intact profiles whilst there is considerably more light  
372 transmission in the logged plot, with significantly higher % Transmission at 10 m height in  
373 logged plot  $37.6 \pm 23.1$  % (mean  $\pm$  sd) than in the secondary, intact-K and intact-M plots with  
374  $13.3 \pm 9.9$ ,  $14.8 \pm 12.3$ ,  $13.3 \pm 9.1$  respectively (Anova,  $F = 7.1$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p < 0.001$  with logged  
375 significantly to other plots in Tukey post-hoc test). This is surprising considering that regrowth  
376 from clear felling could be considered a greater disturbance than selective logging, and that the  
377 secondary plot contains *c.* 68 % of the intact plot biomass (Marchiori et al. 2016). This shows  
378 that despite recovery of some characteristics (e.g. biomass), logged forest can still show  
379 structural differences long after the logging event. Further, despite the difference in biomass  
380 between the secondary and intact plots, the conditions for the understory may be quite similar.  
381 Whilst logged forests will have a composition more similar to intact forest than secondary forest  
382 (Gibson et al. 2011), the mid-canopy light conditions can be brighter and may be less conducive  
383 to the growth of shade tolerant species than the darker mid-canopy of a recovering secondary  
384 forest. Further understanding is needed on patterns of structural forest recovery after disturbance  
385 and the consequences for the vertical light environment and tree growth.

386

387 To quantitatively compare light profiles between plots we estimated the extinction coefficient  
388 ( $k_z$ ) of light attenuation with canopy height (using only the profile data at and below rapid light

389 attenuation) and with canopy depth ( $k_d$ , using only the profile data from the canopy top to the  
390 mean tree height) (Table 2, Fig. 3). The height-based extinction coefficient increased along the  
391 disturbance gradient, intact-K < intact-M < logged < secondary < fragment-C < fragment-L, and  
392 from examination of the 95% CI around  $k_z$  estimates, the extinction coefficients varied  
393 significantly between all plots except intact-M and logged. The variance explained ( $R^2$ ) by  $k_z$  for  
394 the logged plot was low compared to the other plots due the inversion section of the logged  
395 profile. Results based on  $k_d$  were similar to  $k_z$ , but without significant differences in  $k_d$  between  
396 logged, secondary, and fragment-C. Both  $k_z$  and  $k_d$  were significantly negatively correlated with  
397 canopy height (Pearson's correlation,  $k_z - r = -0.98$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $k_d - r = -0.88$ ,  $p = 0.02$ , Table 2).  
398 This reflects the fact that % Transmission at the understory is low at all sites, but the canopy  
399 heights are quite different; at the lower canopy forests a similar total amount of light is absorbed  
400 to tall forests, but over a shorter vertical distance and hence  $k_z$  and  $k_d$  are higher. This may  
401 indicate that many small dense crowns can absorb a similar amount of light to fewer large but  
402 sparse canopies.  $K_d$  is probably a better descriptor of differences in light extinction between sites  
403 than  $k_z$  because it includes all data-points from the top of the canopy.

404

405 To compare with data typically reported in other studies, we present the % Transmission at 1 m  
406 above the ground in each plot (Table 2). The intact and secondary plots show low transmission,  
407 with higher transmission in the logged and fragment plots. The differences between plots are  
408 significant (Anova,  $F=3.2$ ,  $df=5$ ,  $p=0.013$ ), however, only intact-K and fragment-L were  
409 significantly different in a post-hoc test (Tukey,  $p=0.035$ ). The lack of significant differences is  
410 partly a result of high variance within plots, but does highlight that light measurements of the  
411 understory cannot necessarily inform about the light environment above that sample point. For

412 example, even with a similar LAI below the canopy, the light profiles of two Amazonian forests  
413 showed different patterns (Stark et al. 2012).

414

#### 415 *Comparison of profiles from PAR sensors and hemispherical images*

416 Transmission as estimated from the PAR sensors and the vertical profiles of hemispherical  
417 photos show good agreement (Fig. 2, Appendix S1: Fig. S4, Fig. 4). The  $R^2$  of the relationship  
418 between % transmission as measured with the PAR sensors and estimated from the  
419 hemispherical images was 0.59 (Fig. 4). Of the 44 individual samples that had both sensor and  
420 image profiles, the sensor and image transmission values were significantly correlated in 25  
421 (Appendix S1: Fig. S4). Those that were not significantly correlated typically had few images  
422 and/or showed little within profile variation. Even for those that were not correlated, the  
423 transmission values were similar.

424

425 We believe this is the first study to estimate forest vertical light environments using profiles of  
426 hemispherical images. Accessing the forest canopy is prohibitively difficult, and hence there are  
427 few data on vertical patterns of canopy structure and light (Parker 1995). Previous attempts (in  
428 temperate and boreal regions) have typically used cameras mounted on telescoping poles that can  
429 only reach limited heights (e.g. 16 m, Wang et al. 1992; 10 m, Zhu et al. 2003; 6.8 m, Domke et  
430 al. 2007), or from a single sample point using a tower (Strachan & McCaughey 1996). Recent  
431 work has shown such knowledge can aid understanding of tropical forest dynamics (Stark et al.  
432 2012, 2015), and light interception is a key aspect of vegetation models, from individual-based  
433 forest simulators to dynamic global vegetation models. Whilst the burgeoning field of forest  
434 canopy science (Nadkarni et al. 2011) will no doubt continue to be influenced by the high

435 resolution data available from LiDAR, such technology is still expensive and intensive data  
436 processing and analysis is required to determine light environments from it. The method we  
437 developed during this study enables rapid estimation of vertical light profiles from the ground  
438 that can be repeated within and between sites to encompass spatial heterogeneity. The method is  
439 inexpensive - the camera and lens used here costing around £1000 (less than the data loggers  
440 required for the PAR sensors) – and the equipment is readily available. This could be a very  
441 useful method to extend our understanding of vertical profiles of light (or leaf area) from more  
442 locations, either in its own right or to compliment LiDAR-based data acquisition.

443

#### 444 *Conclusions*

445 This study has measured patterns of vertical light penetration along a disturbance gradient in the  
446 biodiversity hotspot of the Atlantic forest. Our results show that there is spatial variation in  
447 vertical light patterns both within (Fig. 2) and between plots with different disturbance histories  
448 (Fig. 3). Logging in particular has an impact on vertical light patterns, with greater within plot  
449 heterogeneity and inversions in the profile due to lateral light from upper canopy gaps. This  
450 pattern is still present despite 40 years of recovery from the logging event. We show that despite  
451 similarities in transmission to the forest floor across all disturbances there are differences in  
452 vertical structure and light extinction (Table 2) that may influence the light availability and hence  
453 growth of mid-canopy trees. We also show the importance of non-tree life forms (e.g. lianas) for  
454 light transmission and tree productivity in forest fragments. Finally, we recommend the rapid and  
455 inexpensive methodology using hemispherical photographs for the characterization of forest  
456 vertical light regimes, which are rarely measured.

457

458 Acknowledgements

459 This research was co-supported by the Natural Environment Research Council/NERC  
460 (NE/K016431/1 and NE/M017389/1) and the State of São Paulo Research Foundation/FAPESP  
461 (2012/51509-8, 2012/51872-5 and 2014/13322-9) as part of the projects ECOFOR and BIORED,  
462 by the Brazilian National Research Council/CNPq (PELD Process 403710/2012-0) within the  
463 BIOTA/FAPESP Program - The Biodiversity Virtual Institute, [www.biota.org.br](http://www.biota.org.br)), and by the  
464 European Research Council project GEM-TRAIT awarded to Yadvinder Malhi. Research was  
465 performed with permits COTEC/IF 002.766/2013, 010.631/2013 and 230/2015. We  
466 acknowledge the help of David Ashley for sensor design and production, Marion Pfeifer for  
467 advice on analysing hemispherical photographs, and Wagner Toledo, Lino, Freddie Draper,  
468 Renato Bellinelo, Edicson Párra Sanchez and Manon Czuckerman for assistance in the field, the  
469 Serra do Mar State Park, and local landowners for access to the study sites. We acknowledge  
470 helpful comments from two reviewers, which have improved the manuscript.

471

472 Data availability

473 The data is publicly available through deposit to NERC's Environmental Information Data  
474 Centre (EIDC, Fauset et al. 2017).

475

476 Literature Cited

477 Alton, P. B., P. R. North, and S. O. Los. 2007. The impacts of diffuse sunlight on canopy light-  
478 use efficiency, gross photosynthetic product and net ecosystem exchange in three forest biomes.  
479 *Global Change Biology* 13:776-787.

480

481 Anhuf, D., R. Rollenbeck. 2001. Canopy structure of the Rio Surumoni rain forest (Venezuela)  
482 and its influence on microclimate. *Ecotropica* 7:21-32.  
483

484 Berenguer, E., J. Ferreira, T. A. Gardner, L. E. O. C. Aragão, O. C. De Carmargo, C. E. Cerri,  
485 M. Durigan, R. C. De Oliveira Junior, I. C. G. Vieira, and J. Barlow. 2014. A large-scale field  
486 assessment of carbon stocks in human-modified tropical forests. *Global Change Biology*  
487 20:3713-3726.  
488

489 Binkley, D., O. C. Campoe, M. Gspaltl, and D. I. Forrester. 2013. Light absorption and use  
490 efficiency in forests: Why patterns differ for trees and stands. *Forest Ecology and Management*  
491 288:5-13.  
492

493 Blanc, L., M. Echard, B. Herault, D. Bonal, E. Marcon, J. Chave, and C. Baraloto. 2009.  
494 Dynamics of aboveground carbon stocks in a selectively logged tropical forest. *Ecological*  
495 *Applications* 19:1397-1404.  
496

497 Bonnell, T. R., R. Reyna-Hurtado, and C. A. Chapman. 2011. Post-logging recovery time is  
498 longer than expected in an East African tropical forest. *Forest Ecology and Management*  
499 261:855-864.  
500

501 Canham, C. D., J. S. Denslow, W. J. Platt, J. R. Runkle, T. A. Spies, and P. S. White. 1990. Light  
502 regimes beneath closed canopies and tree-fall gaps in temperate and tropical forests. *Canadian*  
503 *Journal of Forest Research* 20:620-631.

504

505 Chazdon, R. L., and N. Fetcher. 1984. Photosynthetic light environments in a lowland tropical  
506 rain forest in Costa Rica. *Journal of Ecology* 72:553-564.

507

508 Chen, A., J. W. Lichstein, J. L. D. Osnas, and S. W. Pacala. 2014. Species-independent down-  
509 regulation of leaf photosynthesis and respiration in response to shading: evidence from six  
510 temperate tree species. *PLoS ONE* 9:e91798, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0091798.

511

512 Clark, D. B., P. C. Olivas, S. F. Oberbauer, D. A. Clark, and M. G. Ryan. 2008. First direct  
513 landscape-scale measurement of tropical rain forest Leaf Area Index, a key driver of global  
514 primary productivity. *Ecology Letters* 11:163-172.

515

516 Costa, J. B. P., F. L. P. Melo, B. A. Santos, and M. Tabarelli. 2012. Reduced availability of large  
517 seeds constrains Atlantic forest regeneration. *Acta Oecologica* 39:61-66.

518

519 Denslow, J. S., and S. G. Guzman. 2000. Variation in stand structure, light and seedling  
520 abundance across a tropical moist forest chronosequence, Panama. *Journal of Vegetation Science*  
521 11:201-212.

522

523 Didham, R. K. and J. H. Lawton. 1999. Edge structure determines the magnitude of changes in  
524 microclimate and vegetation structure in tropical forest fragments. *Biotropica* 31:17-30.

525



526 Dirzo, R., and P. H. Raven, 2003. Global state of biodiversity and loss. *Annual Review of*  
527 *Environment and Resources* 28:137-167.

528

529 Domke, G. M., J. P. Caspersen, and T. A. Jones. 2007. Light attenuation following selection  
530 harvesting in northern hardwood forests. *Forest Ecology and Management* 239:182-190.

531

532 Ewers, R. M. and C. Banks-Leite. 2013. Fragmentation impairs the microclimate buffering effect  
533 of tropical forests. *PLOS One* 8:e58093.

534

535 Farah, F. T., R. R. Rodrigues, F. A. M. Santos, J. Y. Tamashiro, G. J. Shepherd, T. Siqueira, J. L.  
536 F. Batista, and B. J. F. Manly. 2014. Forest destructuring as revealed by the temporal dynamics  
537 of fundamental species – Case study of Santa Genebra forest in Brazil. *Ecological Indicators*  
538 37:40-44.

539

540 Fauset, S., M. U. Gloor, M. P. M. Aidar, H. C. Freitas, N. M. Fyllas, C. A. Joly, M. A. Marabesi,  
541 A. L.C. Rochelle, A. Shenkin, S. A. Vieira. 2017. Vertical profile data of light transmission in  
542 Atlantic forests along a disturbance gradient. NERC Environmental Information Data Centre.  
543 <https://doi.org/10.5285/4f3cf9f6-d7e5-4ae0-87c9-064b4e66a92a>.

544

545 Fielder, P. and P. Comeau. 2000. Construction and testing of an inexpensive PAR sensor.  
546 Research Branch, Ministry of Forests, British Columbia, Working Paper 53/2000.

547

548 Gandolfi, S., C. A. Joly, and R. R. Rodrigues. 2007. Permeability – impermeability: canopy trees  
549 as biodiversity filters. *Scientia Agricola* 64:433-438.

550

551 Gibson, L., T. M. Lee, L. P. Koh, B. W. Brook, T. A. Gardner, J. Barlow, C. A. Peres, C. J. A.  
552 Bradshaw, W. F. Laurance, T. E. Lovejoy, and N. S. Sodhi. 2011. Primary forests are  
553 irreplaceable for sustaining tropical biodiversity. *Nature* 478:378-381.

554

555 Huang, M., and G. P. Asner. 2010. Long-term carbon loss and recovery following selective  
556 logging in Amazon forests. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles* 24:GB3028.

557

558 Joly, C. A., M. A. Assis, L. C. Bernacci, J. Y. Tamashiro, M. C. Rodrigues de Campos, J. A. M.  
559 A. Gomes, M. S. Lacerda, F. A. M. dos Santos, F. Pedroni, L. S. Pereira, M. C. G. Padgurschi, E.  
560 M. B. Prata, E. Ramos, R. B. Torres, A. Rochelle, F. R. Martins, L. F. Alves, S. A. Vieira, L. A.  
561 Martinelli, P. B. Camargo, M. P. M. Aidar, P. V. Eisenlohr, E. Simões, J. P. Villani, R. Belinello.  
562 2012. Florística e fitossociologia em parcelas permanentes da Mata Atlântica do sudeste do Brasil  
563 ao longo de um gradient altitudinal. *Biota Neotropica* 12:123-145.

564

565 Joly, C. A., J. P. Metzger, and M. Tabarelli. 2014. Experiences from the Brazilian Atlantic  
566 Forest: ecological findings and conservation initiatives. *New Phytologist* 204:459-73.

567

568 Kapos, V. 1989. Effects of isolation on the water status of forest patches in the Brazilian  
569 Amazon. *Journal of Tropical Ecology* 5:173-185.

570

571 Kitajima, K., S. S. Mulkey, and S. J. Wright. 2005. Variation in crown light utilization  
572 characteristics among tropical canopy trees. *Annals of Botany* 95:535-547.  
573

574 Lai, H. R., and J. S. Hall, B. L. Turner, and M. van Breugel. 2017. Liana effects on biomass  
575 dynamics strengthen during secondary forest succession. *Ecology* 98:1062-1070.  
576

577 Laurance, W. F., S. G. Laurance, L. V. Ferreira, J. M. Rankin-de Merona, C. Gascon, and T. E.  
578 Lovejoy. 1997. Biomass collapse in Amazonian forest fragments. *Science* 278:1117-1118.  
579

580 Laurance, W. F., D. Pérex-Salicrup, P. Delamônica, P. M. Fearnside, S. D'Angelo, A.  
581 Jerozolinski, L. Pohl, and T. E. Lovejoy. 2001. Rain forest fragmentation and the structure of  
582 Amazonian liana communities. *Ecology* 82:105-116.  
583

584 Laurance, W. F., J. L. C. Camargo, R. C. C. Luizão, S. G. Laurance, S. L. Pimm, E. M. Bruna, P.  
585 C. Stouffer, G. B. Williamson, J. Benitez-Malvido, H. L. Vasconcelos, K. S. Van Houtan, C. E.  
586 Zartman, S. A. Boyle, R. K. Didham, A. Andrade, and T. E. Lovejoy. 2011. The fate of  
587 Amazonian forest fragments: A 32-year investigation. *Biological Conservation* 144:56-67.  
588

589 Lebrija-Trejos, E., E. A. Pérez-García, J. A. Meave, L. Poorter, and F. Bongers. 2011.  
590 Environmental changes during secondary succession in a tropical dry forest in Mexico. *Journal*  
591 *of Tropical Ecology* 27:477-489.  
592

593 Lefsky, M. A., W. B. Cohen, G. G. Parker, and D. J. Harding. 2002. Lidar remote sensing for  
594 ecosystem studies. *BioScience* 52:19-30.  
595

596 Maass, J. M., J. M. Vose, W. T. Swank, and A. Martínez-Yrizar. 1995. Seasonal changes of leaf  
597 area index (LAI) in a tropical deciduous forest in west Mexico. *Forest Ecology and Management*  
598 74:171-180.  
599

600 Magnago, L. F. S., M. F. Rocha, L. Meyer, S. V. Martins, and J. A. A. Meira-Neto. 2015.  
601 Microclimatic conditions at forest edges have significant impacts on vegetation structure in large  
602 Atlantic forest fragments. *Biodiversity and Conservation* 24:2305-2318.  
603

604 Marchiori, N. M., H. R. Rocha, J. Y. Tamashiro, and M. P. M. Aidar. 2016. Tree community  
605 composition and aboveground biomass in a secondary Atlantic forest, Serra do Mar state park,  
606 São Paulo, Brazil. *CERNE* 22:501-514.  
607

608 Michalski, F., I. Nishi, and C. A. Peres. 2007. Distance-mediated drift in tree functional groups  
609 in Amazonian forest fragments. *Biotropica* 39:691-701.  
610

611 Montgomery, R. A., and R. L. Chazdon. 2001. Forest structure, canopy architecture, and light  
612 transmittance in tropical wet forests. *Ecology* 82:2707-2718.  
613

614 Nadkarni, N. M., G. G. Parker, and M. D. Lowman. 2011. Forest canopy studies as an emerging  
615 field of science. *Annals of Forest Science* 68:217-224.

616

617 Newmark, W. D. 2001. Tanzanian forest edge microclimatic gradients: dynamic patterns.

618 *Biotropica* 33:2-11.

619

620 Nicotra, A. B., R. L. Chazdon, and S. V. B. Iriarte. 1999. Spatial heterogeneity of light and

621 woody seedling regeneration in tropical wet forests. *Ecology* 80:1908-1926.

622

623 Oliveira, M. A., A. M. M. Santos, and M. Tabarelli. 2008. Profound impoverishment of the

624 large-tree stand in a hyper-fragmented landscape of the Atlantic forest. *Forest Ecology and*

625 *Management* 256:1910-1917.

626

627 Oliveira-Filho, A. T., J. M. Mello, and J. R. S. Scolforo. 1997. Effects of past disturbance and

628 edges on tree community structure and dynamics within a fragment of tropical semideciduous

629 forest in south-eastern Brazil over a five-year period (1987-1992). *Plant Ecology* 131:45-66.

630

631 Oliveira-Filho, A. T., and M. A. L. Fontes. 2000. Patterns of floristic differentiation among

632 Atlantic Forests in southeastern Brazil and the influence of climate. *Biotropica* 32:793-810.

633

634 Origo, N., K. Calders, J. Nightingale, and M. Disney. 2017. Influence of leveling technique on

635 the retrieval of canopy structural parameters from digital hemispherical photography.

636 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 237:143-249.

637

638 Osazuwa-Peters, O. L., C.A. Chapman, and A. E. Zanne. 2015. Selective logging: does the  
639 imprint remain on tree structure and composition after 45 years? *Conservation Physiology* 3 doi:  
640 10.1093/conphys/cov012  
641  
642 Pan, Y., R. A. Birdsey, J. Fang, R. Houghton, P. E. Kauppi, W. A. Kurz, O. L. Phillips, A.  
643 Shvidenko, S. L. Lewis, J. G. Canadell, P. Ciais, R. B. Jackson, S. W. Pacala, A. D. McGuire, S.  
644 Piao, A. Rautiainen, S. Sitch, and D. Hayes. 2011. A large and persistent carbon sink the world's  
645 forests. *Science* 333:988-003.  
646  
647 Parker, G. G. 1995. Structure and microclimate of forest canopies. Pages 73-106 *in* M. D.  
648 Lowman, and N. M. Nadkarni, editors. *Forest Canopies*. Academic Press, San Diego, USA.  
649  
650 Parker, G. G. 1997. Canopy structure and light environment of an old growth Douglas-  
651 fir/western hemlock forest. *Northwest Science*, 71:261-270.  
652  
653 Parker, G. G., M. M. Davis, and S. M. Chapotin. 2002. Canopy light transmittance in Douglas-  
654 fir-western hemlock stands. *Tree Physiology*, 22:147-157.  
655  
656 Parker, G. G., M. A. Lefsky, and D. J. Harding. 2001. Light transmittance in forest canopies  
657 determined using airborne laser altimetry and in-canopy quantum measurements. *Remote*  
658 *Sensing of Environment* 76:298-309.  
659

660 Parker, G. G., P. J. Stone P, and D. Bowers. 1996. A balloon for microclimate observations  
661 within the forest canopy. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 33:173-177.  
662

663 Parker, G. G., C. Tinoco-Ojanguren, A. Martínez-Yrizar, and M. Maass. 2005. Seasonal balance  
664 and vertical pattern of photosynthetically active radiation within canopies of a tropical dry  
665 deciduous forest ecosystem in Mexico. *Journal of Tropical Ecology* 21:283-295.  
666

667 Paula, M. D., C. P. A. Costa, and M. Tabarelli. 2011. Carbon storage in a fragmented landscape  
668 of Atlantic forest: the role played by edge-affected habitats and emergent trees. *Tropical*  
669 *Conservation Science* 3:349-358.  
670

671 Pfeifer, M., A. Gonsamo, M. Disney, P. Pellikka, and R. Marchant. 2012. Leaf area index for  
672 biomes of the Eastern Arc Mountains: Landsat and SPOT observations along precipitation and  
673 altitude gradients. *Remote Sensing of Environment* 118:103-115.  
674

675 Poorter, L., L. Bongers, and F. Bongers. 2006. Architecture of 54 moist-forest tree species: traits,  
676 trade-offs, and functional groups. *Ecology* 87:1289-1301.  
677

678 R Development Core Team. 2012. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R  
679 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.  
680

681 Ribeiro, M. C., J. P. Metzger, A. C. Martensen, F. L. Ponzoni, and M. M. Hirota. 2009. The  
682 Brazilian Atlantic Forest: How much is left, and how is the remaining forest distributed?  
683 Implications for conservation. *Biological Conservation* 142:1141-1153.  
684

685 Rich, P. M., D. B. Clark, D. A. Clark, and S. F. Oberbauer. 1993. Long-term study of solar  
686 radiation regimes in a tropical wet forest using quantum sensors and hemispherical photography.  
687 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 65:107-127.  
688

689 Ridler, T. W., and S. Calvard. 1978. Picture thresholding using an iterative selection method.  
690 *IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics* SMC-8:630-632.  
691

692 Rosado, B. H. P., R. S. Oliveira, and M. P. M. Aidar. 2010. Is leaf water repellency related to  
693 vapor pressure deficit and crown exposure in tropical forests? *Acta Oecologica* 36:645-649.  
694

695 Rutishauser, E., B. Hérault, C. Baraloto, L. Blanc, L. Decroix, E. D. Sotta, J. Ferreira, M.  
696 Kanashiro, L. Mazzei, M. V. N. d'Oliveira, M. Peña-Claros, F. E. Putz, A. R. Ruschel, K.  
697 Rodney, A. Roppsind, A. Shenkin, K. A da Silva, C. R. de Souza, M. Toledo, E. Vidal, T. A. P.  
698 West, V. Wortel, and P. Sist. 2015. Rapid tree carbon stock recovery in managed Amazonian  
699 forests. *Current Biology*, 25:R787.  
700

701 Rutishauser, E., B. Hérault, P. Petronelli, and P. Sist. 2016. Tree height reduction after selective  
702 logging in a tropical forest. *Biotropica* 48:285-289.  
703



704 Schleppi, P., M. Conedera, I. Sedivy, and A. Thimonier. 2007. Correcting non-linearity and  
705 slope effects in the estimation of the leaf area index of forests from hemispherical photographs.  
706 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 144:236-242.  
707

708 Schnitzer, S. A., and F. Bongers. 2011. Increasing liana abundance and biomass in tropical  
709 forests: emerging patterns and putative mechanisms. *Ecology Letters* 14:397-406.  
710

711 Stark, S. C., B. J. Enquist, S. R. Saleska, V. Leitold, J. Schietti, M. Longo, L. F. Alves, P. B.  
712 Carmago, and R.C. Oliveira. 2015. Linking canopy leaf area and light environments with tree  
713 size distributions to explain Amazon forest demography. *Ecology Letters* 18:636-645.  
714

715 Stark, S. C., V. Leitold, J. L. Wu, C. V. de Castilho, F. R. C. Costa, S. M. McMahon, G. G.  
716 Parker, M. T. Shimabukuro, M. A. Lefsky, M. Keller, L.F. Alves, J. Schietti, Y. E Shimabukuro,  
717 D. O. Brandão, T. K. Woodcock, N. Higuchi, P.B. de Camargo, R. C. de Oliveira, and S. R.  
718 Saleska. 2012. Amazon forest carbon dynamics predicted by profiles of canopy leaf area and  
719 light environment. *Ecology Letters* 15:1406-1414.  
720

721 Strachan, I. B., and J. H. McCaughey. 1996. Spatial and vertical leaf area index of a deciduous  
722 forest resolved using the LAI-2000 plant canopy analyzer. *Forest Science* 42:176-181.  
723

724 Tabarelli, M., W. Mantovani, and C. A. Peres. 1999. Effects of habitat fragmentation on plant  
725 guild structure in the montane Atlantic forest of southeastern Brazil. *Biological Conservation*  
726 91:119-127.

727

728 Thimonier, A., I. Sedivy, and P. Schleppi. 2010. Estimating leaf area index in different types of  
729 mature forest stands in Switzerland: a comparison of methods. *European Journal of Forest*  
730 *Research* 129:543-562.

731

732 Torquebiau, E.F. 1988. Photosynthetically active radiation environment, patch dynamics and  
733 architecture in a tropical rainforest in Sumatra. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology* 15:327-  
734 342

735

736 van der Heijden, G., J. S. Powers, and S. A. Schnitzer. 2015. Lianas reduce carbon accumulation  
737 and storage in tropical forests. *PNAS* 112:13267-13271.

738

739 Veloso, H. P., A. L. R. Rangel Filho, and J. C. A. Lima. 1991. Classificação da vegetação  
740 brasileira, adaptada a um sistema universal. Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, Rio de  
741 Janeiro, Brazil.

742

743 Vieira, S. A., L F. Alves, P.J. Duarte-Neto, S. C. Martins, L. G. Veiga, M. A. Scaranello, M. C.  
744 Picollo, P. B. Camargo, J. B. do Carmo, E. Sousa Neto, F. A. M. Santos, C. A. Joly, and L. A.  
745 Martinelli. 2011. Stocks of carbon and nitrogen and partitioning between above- and  
746 belowground pools in the Brazilian coastal Atlantic Forest elevation range. *Ecology and*  
747 *Evolution* 1:421-434.

748

749 Wang, Y. S., D. R. Miller, J. M. Welles, and G. M. Heisler. 1992. Spatial variability of canopy  
750 foliage in an oak forest estimated with fisheye sensors. *Forest Science* 38:854-865.  
751

752 West, T.A.P., E. Vidal, and F. E. Putz. 2014. Forest biomass recovery after conventional and  
753 reduced-impact logging in Amazonian Brazil. *Forest Ecology and Management* 314:59-63.  
754

755 Wirth, R., B. Weber, and R. J. Ryel. 2001. Spatial and temporal variability of canopy structure in  
756 a tropical moist forest. *Acta Oecologica* 22:1-10.  
757

758 Yamada, T., A. Yoshioka, M. Hashim, N. Liang, and T. Okuda. 2014. Spatial and temporal  
759 variations in the light environment in a primary and selectively logged forest long after logging  
760 in Peninsular Malaysia. *Trees* 28:1355-1365.  
761

762 Yoda, K. 1974. Three-dimensional distribution of light intensity in a tropical rain forest of west  
763 Malaysia. *Japanese Journal of Ecology* 24:247-254.  
764

765 Young, T. P, and S. P. Hubbell. 1991. Crown asymmetry, treefalls, and repeat disturbance of  
766 broad-leaved forest gaps. *Ecology* 72:1464-1471.  
767

768 Zhu, J. J., T. Matsuzaki, and Y. Gonda. 2003. Optical stratification porosity as a measure of  
769 vertical canopy structure in a Japanese coastal forest. *Forest Ecology and Management* 173:89-  
770 104.  
771

772 Tables

773 Table 1. Details of study plots.

Plot name	Plot code	Latitude/Longitude (decimal degrees)	Plot area (ha)	Fragment area (ha)	No. profile samples	No. hemispherical image profile samples	Dates of data collection (DD/MM, all 2015)
Intact-K	NSV-01	23.326 S / 45.068 W	1	Continuous	12	12	26/10 – 05/11
Intact-M	NSV-02	23.328 S / 45.073 W	1	Continuous	12	5	29/04 – 06/05
Logged	NSV-04	23.327 S / 45.076 W	1	Continuous	11	0	05/03 – 13/03; 28/04 – 29/04
Secondary	NSV-05	23.325 S / 45.094 W	1	Continuous	10	4	06/05 – 07/05; 20/05 – 21/05; 18/06 – 25/06
Fragment-C	SDM-11 / SDM-12	23.276 S / 45.241 W	2 x 0.25	12.2	12	12	14/10 – 22/10
Fragment-L	SDM-17 / SDM-18	23.100 S / 45.183 W	2 x 0.25	60.2	12	11	29/06 – 04/07

774

775 Table 2. Metrics of the light environment in plots along a degradation gradient.

Plot	% Transmission at 1 m (mean $\pm$ sd)	$k_z \pm 95\%$ CI ( $R^2$ )	$k_d \pm 95\%$ CI ( $R^2$ )	Max. sample tree height (m)	Mean sample tree height (m)
Intact-K	2.5 $\pm$ 1.7	0.190 $\pm$ 0.002 (0.98)	0.219 $\pm$ 0.012 (0.98)	28	23.1
Intact-M	3.8 $\pm$ 2.1	0.208 $\pm$ 0.004 (0.96)	0.194 $\pm$ 0.013 (0.98)	26	21.3
Logged	6.2 $\pm$ 6.2	0.213 $\pm$ 0.010 (0.85)	0.269 $\pm$ 0.038 (0.89)	27	20.2
Secondary	2.4 $\pm$ 2.0 <sup>†</sup>	0.246 $\pm$ 0.004 (0.98)	0.265 $\pm$ 0.007 (0.99)	25	19.2
Fragment-C	5.8 $\pm$ 3.0	0.329 $\pm$ 0.014 (0.92)	0.290 $\pm$ 0.023 (0.98)	20	14.6
Fragment-L	7.5 $\pm$ 5.7	0.474 $\pm$ 0.019 (0.95)	0.653 $\pm$ 0.035 (0.99)	17	10.5

776 <sup>†</sup> One value was excluded from the secondary forest mean % transmission at 1m as an outlier  
777 which had been extrapolated from a relatively high (4m) lowest measurement (profile secondary-  
778 8).

779

780

781 Figure Legends

782

783 Figure 1. Schematic and photograph of support structure for PAR sensors. Each structure is 1m  
784 in length.

785

786 Figure 2. Example light profiles from each plot. Closed points - % transmission measured using  
787 PAR sensors, grey – interpolated or extrapolated data points, open blue points - % transmission  
788 estimated from hemispherical images (no profiles from hemispherical images were available  
789 from the logged plot), red line – height of sample tree. Lower panels refer to the same plot as the  
790 upper panel.

791

792 Figure 3. Observed mean light profiles with height (left panel) and depth below the canopy (right  
793 panel) for forest plots along a disturbance gradient. Open circles represent data points where 3 or  
794 more subplot profile measurements are based on interpolations or extrapolations due to  
795 estimation of the top or bottom sections of the profiles. Dashed lines show standard deviation  
796 between observed transmission values of different samples within the plot. Purple line -  
797 extinction coefficient fit to mean light profile using height above the ground. Green line -  
798 extinction coefficient fit to mean light profile using depth from top of canopy. Middle panels  
799 show histograms of the sample tree heights within each plot.

800

801 Figure 4. Relationship between % Transmission measured from PAR sensors and estimated from  
802 hemispherical images. Grey line –  $y=x$ , black dashed line – regression line.