



RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Analysis of vegetation and plant diversity in high conservation value areas in oil palm plantations

Erwin Dafis Nasution<sup>1,4</sup>, Akhmad R. Saidy<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Bambang J. Priatmadi<sup>2</sup>, Hafizianor<sup>3</sup>, Suwardi<sup>4</sup>, Sukarman<sup>4</sup>, Moch. Dasrial<sup>4</sup>, Himmatul Ulya Alfiana<sup>4</sup> & Rahman Jailani<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Lambung Mangkurat University, Jalan Jend. A. Yani KM 36, Banjarbaru 70714, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup>Faculty of Agriculture, Lambung Mangkurat University, Jalan Jend. A. Yani KM 36 Banjarbaru 70714, Indonesia

<sup>3</sup>Faculty of Forestry, Lambung Mangkurat University, Jalan Jend. A. Yani KM 36 Banjarbaru 70714, Indonesia

<sup>4</sup>Wilmar International Limited, Central Kalimantan Project, Indonesia

\*Email: [asaidy@ulm.ac.id](mailto:asaidy@ulm.ac.id)

 OPEN ACCESS

## ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: 04 September 2023

Accepted: 13 November 2023

Available online

Version 1.0 : 26 November 2023

Version 2.0 : 05 January 2024



## Additional information

**Peer review:** Publisher thanks Sectional Editor and the other anonymous reviewers for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

**Reprints & permissions information** is available at [https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/open\\_access\\_policy](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/open_access_policy)

**Publisher's Note:** Horizon e-Publishing Group remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

**Indexing:** Plant Science Today, published by Horizon e-Publishing Group, is covered by Scopus, Web of Science, BIOSIS Previews, Clarivate Analytics, NAAS, UGC Care, etc See [https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/indexing\\_abstracting](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/indexing_abstracting)

**Copyright:** © The Author(s). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)

## CITE THIS ARTICLE

Nasution E D, Saidy A R, Priatmadi B J, Hafizianor, Suwardi, Sukarman, Dasrial M, Alfiana H U, Jailani R. Analysis of vegetation and plant diversity in high conservation value areas in oil palm plantations. *Plant Science Today*. 2024; 11(1): 296–307. <https://doi.org/10.14719/pst.2924>

## Abstract

The expansion of oil palm plantations is often rumored to impact the destruction of forests and other ecosystems with high conservation value (HCV). This study aimed to analyze the vegetation and plant diversity in the HCV area of oil palm plantations. The research was conducted on an oil palm plantation in Seruyan District, Central Kalimantan Province, Indonesia with an HCV area of 5,379 ha. The research was carried out using the grid transect method on various types of vegetation, divided into four plots: seedlings, saplings, poles, and trees. Parameters observed included the number of species, the number of individuals, and the level of plant diversity. The results showed that the research location had good vegetation and plant diversity in the HCV area. There were 25 plant species from 17 families with a total of 355 plants. The number of species found in the seedling plots was 11 species (6 families) with a total of 38 plants; in the sapling plots was 16 species (12 families) with a total of 159 plants; in the pole plots was 14 species (11 families) with a total of 43 plants, and in the tree plots was 13 species (10 families) 115 plants. There was variation in the number of species and families in each plot. The overall plant diversity index was low. The diversity index of plants in the plots of seedlings, saplings, poles, and trees (and the average) was in the low category.

## Keywords

Diversity; HCV; Oil Palm; Plantation; Vegetation

## Introduction

Palm oil is a leading commodity in Indonesia, covering approximately 14.99 million hectares (ha) in 2022. This figure reflects a 2.49 percent increase compared to the previous year (1). Currently, the palm oil industry is Indonesia's largest contributor to foreign exchange. The contribution of the Indonesian palm oil industry to the national economy is significant and far reaching, encompassing employment, increasing people's welfare, regional development, technology transfer, and investment inflows (2–4). Additionally, the industry has adopted the concept of a circular economy to mitigate its environmental footprint and enhance resource efficiency (5–7).

However, as the palm oil industry in Indonesia continues to grow, the expansion of oil palm plantations directly impacts deforestation (8). The expansion of oil palm plantations is frequently linked to the destruction of

forests and other ecosystems with high conservation value, or HCV (9-10). The expansion of oil palm plantations leads to the loss of extensive forested areas, deforestation, soil erosion, biodiversity loss, alterations in ecological landscapes, shifts in land use cover, and environmental issues (11-13). Moreover, deforestation negatively impacts indigenous tribes and local communities that rely on the forest for their livelihoods, limiting their access to natural resources and jeopardizing the sustainability of their culture and traditions (14-16).

Hence it is imperative for the government and relevant stakeholders to implement sustainable and environmentally responsible policies in the management of the palm oil industry. This is essential to minimize its adverse effects on the environment and society (16-17).

Oil palm plantations can result in the loss of endangered species of flora and fauna, followed by an ecological imbalance (18-20). The loss of forests and natural habitats causes climate change because of the reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity (21-22). The loss of tall plants is another factor in climate change, as they maintain a moderate temperature in tropical areas by their canopy (23). Large land clearing for various human interests also affects soil quality and the microclimate in the region (24-26). All of these factors ultimately have an impact on the level of global climate change, which significantly disrupts environmental conditions (27-29).

Based on the above facts, it is important to manage the expansion of oil palm plantations appropriately (30-31). The integration of sustainable principles in the planning and operation of agricultural practices is a key aspect

of maintaining a sustainable environment and the active participation of governmental bodies, companies, communities, and environmental NGOs is required to achieve this goal (32-34). Implementation of sustainable and innovative technologies, such as the use of advanced technology in land management, irrigation, environmental monitoring, and palm kernel sorting, is also necessary to reduce the negative impacts of plantations (35-37). This effort is an integral part of economic, social, and ecological relationships to minimize damage (38,39). By adopting a sustainable approach to planning and operating, oil palm plantations can contribute positively to the economy without compromising the preservation of the environment and biodiversity which are very valuable (40-42). This study aimed to analyze vegetation and plant diversity in high conservation value areas within a 15-year-old oil palm plantation.

## Materials and Methods

### Study Site and Time

The study was conducted on an oil palm plantation in Seruyan District, Central Kalimantan Province, Indonesia, covering a HCV area of 5,379 ha (Fig. 1). The study lasted for 12 months, from September 2021 to November 2022. The topography of the study site consisted of flat (0-4%) to undulating (4-12%) land, with undulating terrain predominantly located in the north and east. The majority of the area comprised undulating to flat alluvial plains bisected by a river. The elevation in the area ranges from around 5 – 30 meters, and during the rainy season, most of the low-lying areas were susceptible to flooding.

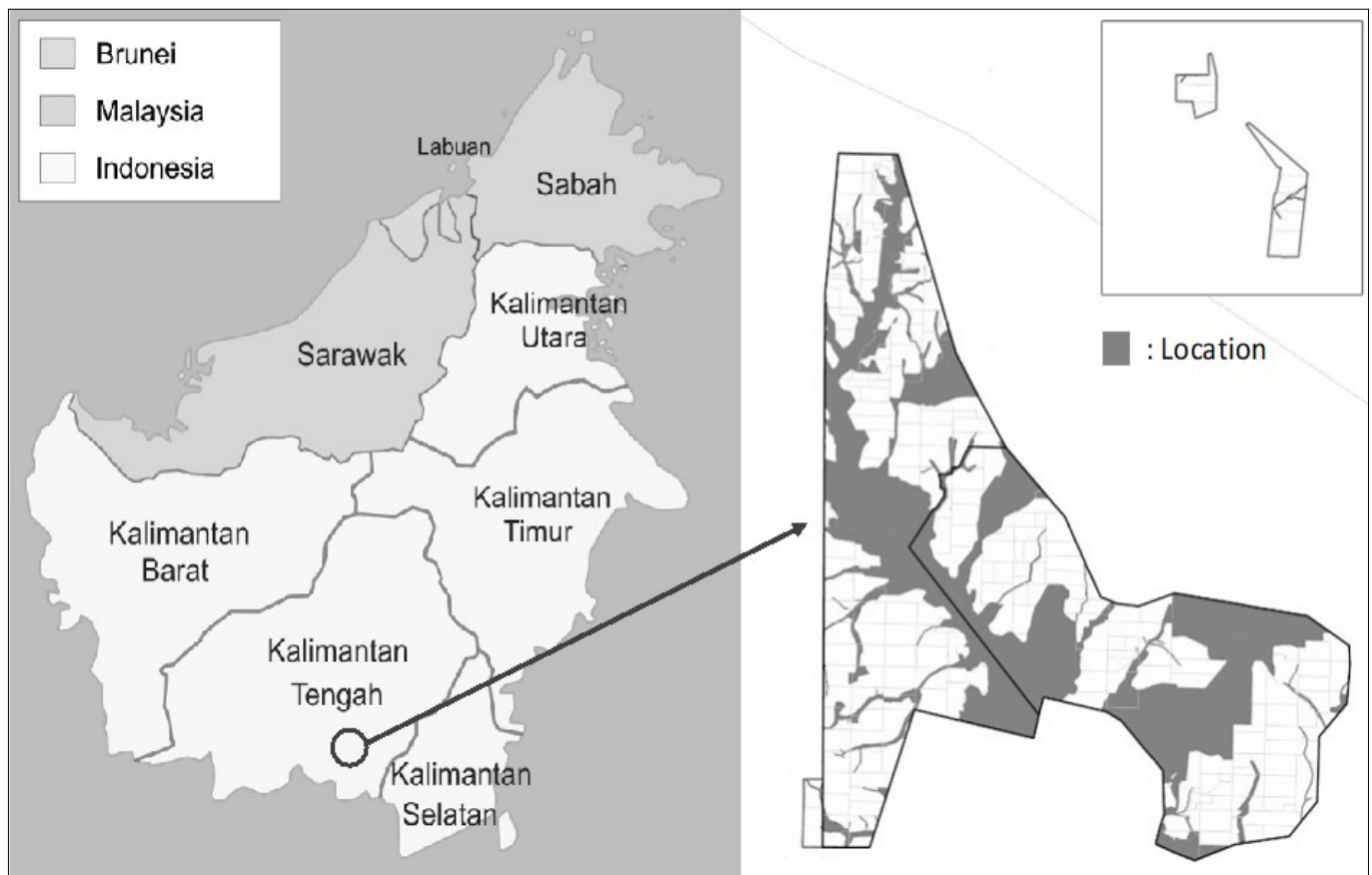


Fig. 1. The Site Map of Oil Palm Plantations, Central Kalimantan

### Data Collection Methods

This research employed a descriptive quantitative approach, focusing on vegetation analysis using the grid transect method on various ecosystems/vegetation types. The objective was to gather data on vegetation composition and structure. The quadrat transect method, as the chosen research technique, involved selecting the research site through purposive sampling and dividing it into four predetermined observation points (stations). The square size for each station was determined based on plant habitus, namely: seedling plot (2 x 2 m<sup>2</sup>), sapling plot (5 x 5 m<sup>2</sup>), pole plot (10 x 10 m<sup>2</sup>) and tree plot (20 x 20 m<sup>2</sup>) (Fig. 2).

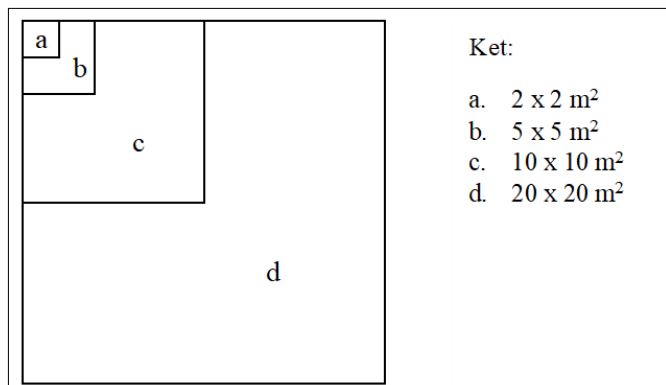


Fig. 2. Research Sampling Sketch

The plant diversity levels in this study were categorized as follows:

1. Seedlings are saplings starting to germinate to a height of less than 1.5 m
2. Saplings are saplings with a height of  $\geq 1.5$  m and a diameter of  $< 10$  cm.
3. Poles are saplings with a diameter of 10 cm to  $< 20$  cm
4. Trees are mature trees with a diameter of  $\geq 20$  cm

The sample plots were placed systematically by making each transect to the north, south, west, and east. Each observation station was placed in as many as four quadratic transects. To facilitate data collection, each plant observed in every plot was labelled. Individual data within each plot at every observed station were recorded on the observation sheet. Subsequently, the number of individuals per species in each square was calculated to determine the importance value of each. Plant species obtained were documented using a photo camera, and identification was conducted directly by using an identification book. The observed research parameters included the number of species, the number of individuals, and the level of plant diversity.

### Data analysis

Data analysis was carried out qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative analysis was carried to describe the types of plants (herbs, shrubs, poles, and trees). Quantitative analysis aimed to assess the diversity value and plant vegetation structure. Plant vegetation assessment involved parameters like density, frequency, dominance, important value index (IVI), and Diversity Index.

### Density

Density represents the number of individuals of each species in the sample plot. To facilitate the process of density analysis, AD notation is often used. The ratio of the density of a species to the density of all species expressed in percent is called relative density (RD). The density of plant species and the relative density of species can be calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{Absolute Density (AD)} = \frac{\text{Number of a Species}}{\text{Total Area Sampled}}$$

$$\text{Relative Density (RD)} = \frac{\text{Density of a Species}}{\text{Total Density of all Species}} \times 100\%$$

### Frequency

Frequency is the number of occurrences of each species found in all sample plots. Frequency is the intensity of the discovery of a species of organism in observing the presence of organisms in an ecosystem community. The species frequency and species relative frequency can be calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{Absolute Frequency (AF)} = \frac{\text{Area of Plots in which a Species Occurs}}{\text{Total Area Sampled}}$$

$$\text{Relative Frequency (RF)} = \frac{\text{Frequency of a Species}}{\text{Total Frequency of all Species}} \times 100\%$$

### Dominance

Dominance is the basal area of the tree or the crown cover area of each species found in the plot. Dominance can also be called the cover area. Coverage area is the proportion between the area covered by plant species and the total area of the habitat. The species dominance and species relative dominance can be calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{Absolute Dominance (AD)} = \frac{\text{Total Basal Area of a Species}}{\text{Total Area Sampled}}$$

$$\text{Relative Dominance (RDO)} = \frac{\text{Dominance of a Species}}{\text{Total Dominance of all Species}} \times 100\%$$

### Importance Value Index

The importance value index (IVI) is a quantitative parameter that can indicate the species that predominate at the study site. The important value index is calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{Importance Value Index (IVI) of Herbs/Seedling} = \text{Relative Density (\%)} + \text{Relative Frequency (\%)}$$

$$\text{Importance Value Index (IVI) of Samplin, Pole, \& Tree} = \text{Relative Density (\%)} + \text{Relative Frequency (\%)} + \text{Relative Dominance (\%)}$$

### Diversity Index

After obtaining the results of the Importance Value Index (IVI) for each type, the diversity index of each plant species is sought. The diversity of a plant community can be determined using the Shannon-Wiener ( $\hat{H}$ ) information theory, which aims to measure the level of regularity and irregularity in a system. The diversity index is determined using the formula:

$$\hat{H} = - \sum p_i \ln p_i$$

Note:  $\hat{H}$  = Shannon-Wiener diversity index,  $p_i$  = the proportion of the entire community made up of species,  $\ln$  = natural logarithm

High species diversity indicates a community has high complexity because the species interactions in that community are very high. The results obtained can then be categorized into three groups:

1. If  $\hat{H} < 1$ , then the diversity index is categorized as Low
2. If  $\hat{H} 1 < \hat{H} < 3$ , then the diversity index is categorized as Medium
3. If  $\hat{H} > 3$ , then the diversity index is categorized as High

The collected data were tabulated and processed. Subsequently, the data were analyzed using qualitative descriptive analysis, which includes the calculation of density, frequency, dominance, important value index, and species diversity index.

## Results

### Plant Species

The results revealed the presence of 25 plant species in the study area, representing 17 families with a total of 355 plants. The distribution across different developmental stages included 11 species (from 6 families) with a total of 38 plants in seedling plots, 16 species (from 12 families) with 159 plants in sapling plots, 14 species (from 11 families) with 43 plants in pole plots, and 13 species (from 10 families) with 115 plants in tree plots (Table 1). According to Table 1, the sapling level exhibited the highest dominance among the four plant levels. This can be attributed to the faster growth of saplings, facilitated by their robust stems and efficient root systems, enabling better absorption of nutrients and water from the soil. Additionally, saplings possess more leaves, facilitating enhanced photosynthesis and promoting taller and more substantial growth.

The *Myrtaceae* family was with the highest number

**Table 1.** The types and numbers of plants found in the sampling plots

Species	Indonesian names	Families	Number of Plants in Plots				
			1*	2*	3*	4*	Total
<i>Aporosa</i> sp.	Hampuk	Phyllanthaceae	-	1	2	-	3
<i>Calophyllum hosei</i> Ridley	Bintangur	Guttiferae	-	-	-	1	1
<i>Calophyllum</i> sp.	Penaga	Clusiaceae	5	6	-	2	13
<i>Canarium</i> sp.	Pantis	Burseraceae	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Combretocarpus rotundatus</i> Miq.	Tumih	Anisophylleaceae	-	-	3	7	10
<i>Cratoxylon arborescens</i> Vahl.	Geronggang	Hypericaceae	-	-	5	17	22
<i>Diospyros pseudomalabarica</i> Desr.	Kayu Arang	Ebenaceae	-	1	-	-	1
<i>Garcinia</i> sp.	Manggis Hutan	Clusiaceae	1	-	-	-	1
<i>Garcinia xanthochymus</i> Hook.	Asam Kemanjing	Clusiaceae	-	2	1	-	3
<i>Gordonia</i> sp.	Pelampang	Theaceae	4	19	1	-	24
<i>Horsfieldia glabra</i> Warb.	Kumpang	Myristicaceae	-	1	6	9	16
<i>Lithocarpus bancanus</i> Scheff.	Pampaning	Fagaceae	-	2	3	1	6
<i>Macaranga gigantea</i> Mull.	Mahang	Euphorbiaceae	-	1	-	-	1
<i>Melulaeca cajuputi</i> Sub Sp. Cajuputi	Galam	Myrtaceae	-	-	1	-	1
<i>Pternandra coerulea</i> Jack.	Pasolan	Melastomataceae	4	40	1	-	45
<i>Rhodamnia cinerea</i> Jack.	Rasak	Myrtaceae	-	-	1	20	21
<i>Rothmannia</i> sp.	Kopi-Kopi	Gardenieae	-	7	-	-	7
<i>Shorea balangeran</i> Korth.	Belangeran	Dipterocarpaceae	2	5	6	37	50
<i>Stemonurus scorpiodes</i> Becc.	Bedaru	Stemonuraceae	2	27	-	2	31
<i>Syzygium antisepticum</i> Blume	Galam Tikus	Myrtaceae	3	3	-	1	7
<i>Syzygium</i> sp	Ubar Putih	Myrtaceae	5	12	3	16	36

<i>Syzygium tawahense</i> Korth	Ubar Merah	Myrtaceae	8	29	9	1	47
<i>Syzygium zeylanicum</i> Linn	Nasi-Nasi	Myrtaceae	3	-	-	-	3
<i>Tristaniopsis obovata</i> Benn	Pelawan	Myrtaceae	1	3	-	-	4
<i>Xylopia malayana</i> Hook.f. & Thomson	Jangkang	Annonaceae	-	-	-	1	1

Note: **1\*** = Seedling plots, **2\*** = Sapling plots, **3\*** = Pole plots, **4\*** = Tree plots

of plants. Identified species from the this family included *Melulaeca cajuputri*, *Syzygium antisepticum* Blume., *Syzygium* sp., *Syzygium tawahense* Korth., *Syzygium zeylanicum* Linn., and *Tristaniopsis obovate*. While the most commonly found species was *Shorea bangeran* from the *Belangeran* family. *Shorea bangeran*, locally known as Bangeran, thrives in peatlands and can grow up to 20-25 meters, with a branch-free stem reaching 15 meters. Balangeran is known as a pioneer species capable of forming initial conditions for degraded peatlands due to its good adaptability. The second most common species was *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. from the *Myrtaceae* family, which is endemic to Kalimantan.

### Importance Value Index (IVI)

The IVI of plant species in HCV is one of the important parameters, indicating the role of plant species and the stability of the ecosystem in the HCV region. The existence of plant species in this setting demonstrates their adaptability and tolerance to the environment. The higher the IVI value of a species, the greater its mastery over the HCV. Certain species can dominate an HCV community by effectively securing the majority of available resources compared to other species.

According to Figure 3, in the seedling plots, *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. exhibited the highest IVI value (113.4%), followed by *Calophyllum* sp. (49.5%), *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (21.4%), and then other species. The IVI value is the sum of the RD, RF, and RDO values. Therefore, a high IVI value suggests high RD, RF, and RDO values.

*Syzygium tawahense* Korth. demonstrated higher RD (38.1%) and RF (54.2%) compared to other species in the community. *Calophyllum* sp. also displayed elevated RD (18.6%) and RF (17.7%). *Semonurus scorpiodes* occupied the third highest percentage in RD value (9.3%).

In the sapling plots, the highest IVI was observed in *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (58.5%), followed by *Stemonurus scorpiodes* Becc. (46.6%), and *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (44.4%). *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. also displayed the highest RD (13.9%) and RF (25.5%) values, followed by *Semonurus scorpiodes* (12.5% and 17.0%), *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (11.5% and 18.2%) along with other plant species. The highest RDO values were recorded for *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (19.5%) and *Syzygium* sp. (17.8%), followed by *Stemonurus scorpiodes* Becc. (17.1%) and other plants (Fig. 3).

In the pole plots, the highest IVI value was found in *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (58.2%), followed by *Horsfieldia glabra* Warb. (38.3%), *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (37.3%) along with other plants. *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. and *Horsfieldia glabra* Warb. exhibited high RD (14.5%, 9.6%), RF (20.9%, 14.0%), and RDO (22.8%, 14.7%) values. *Shorea balangeran* Korth. displayed relatively high RF (14.0%) and RDO (16.2%) values. Notably, the RD value of *Lithocarpus bancanus* Scheff. (14.5%) was also higher than *Horsfieldia glabra* Warb. (9.6%). In the tree plots, the highest IVI was found in *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (110.4%), surpassing *Rhodamnia cinerea* Jack. (41.5%) and *Syzygium* sp. (3.9%). Both *Shorea balangeran* Korth. and *Rhodamnia cinerea*

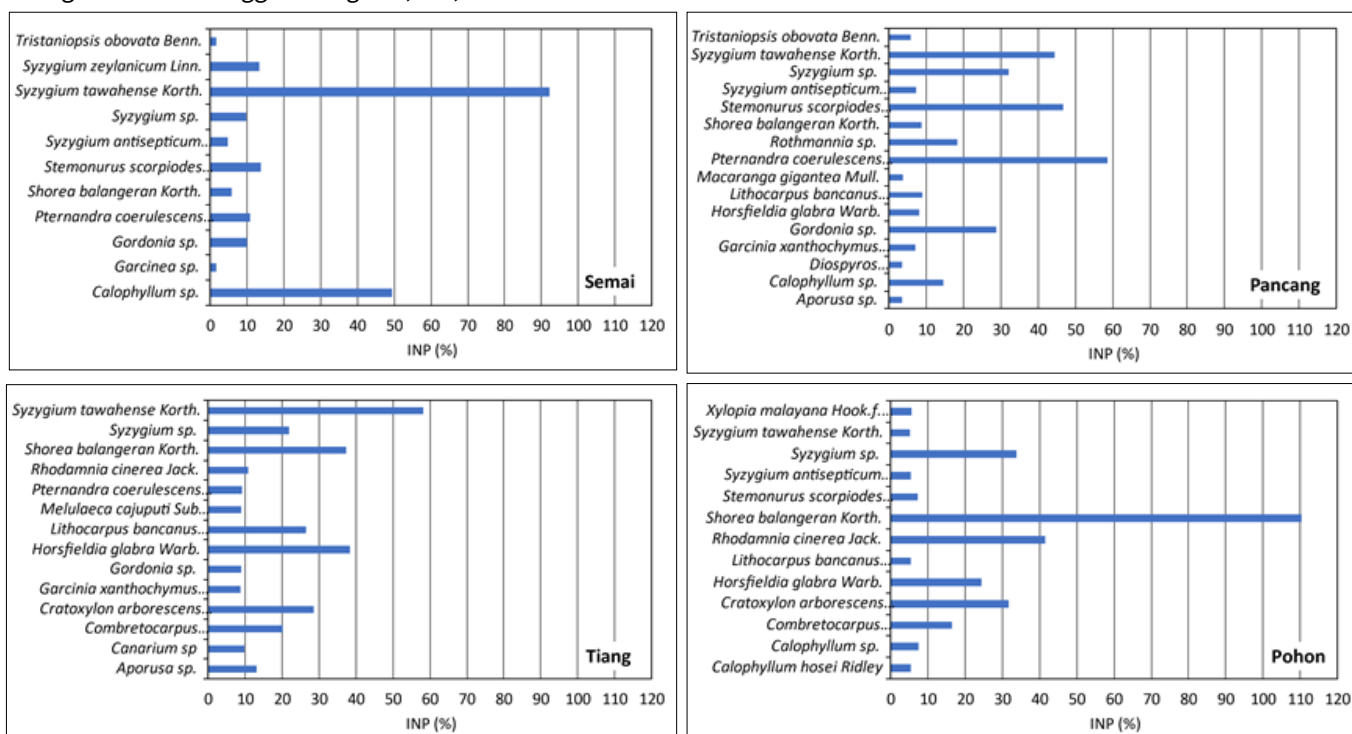


Fig. 3. The Importance Value Index (IVI) based on sampling plots.

Jack. exhibited high RD (19.0%, 11.7%), RF (32.2%, 17.4%), and RDO (59.2%, 12.3%) values. *Shorea balangeran* Korth. had a higher RD value (19.0%) compared to *Rhodamnia cinerea* Jack. (11.7%).

Based on the Fig. 4, Overall, the highest IVI was found in *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (76.9%), followed by *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (20.9%), *Rhodamnia cinerea* Jack. (23.6%), *Syzygium* sp. (23.7%), and *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (20.6%). Notably, *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. had the highest IVI in seedling and pole plots, showcasing its adaptability across different plot types.

**Diversity Index ( $H'$ )**

The diversity index of a plant community in HCV areas re-

(species richness) and the balance of the number of these species (species evenness). A higher diversity index value indicates a more diverse and stable ecosystem with more species richness and species evenness distribution. The Diversity Index is an important tool for HCV management because it provides a quantitative measure of the state of an ecosystem. It aids in identifying areas of critical importance for biodiversity conservation.

Based on the Table 2, the plant diversity index in the HCV at the study site was classified into the low category ( $H' = 0.96$ ). The index value of plant diversity in the plots of seedlings, saplings, poles, and trees was also low. This low diversity index indicated that the HCV in the study area was dominated by several species that dominated the

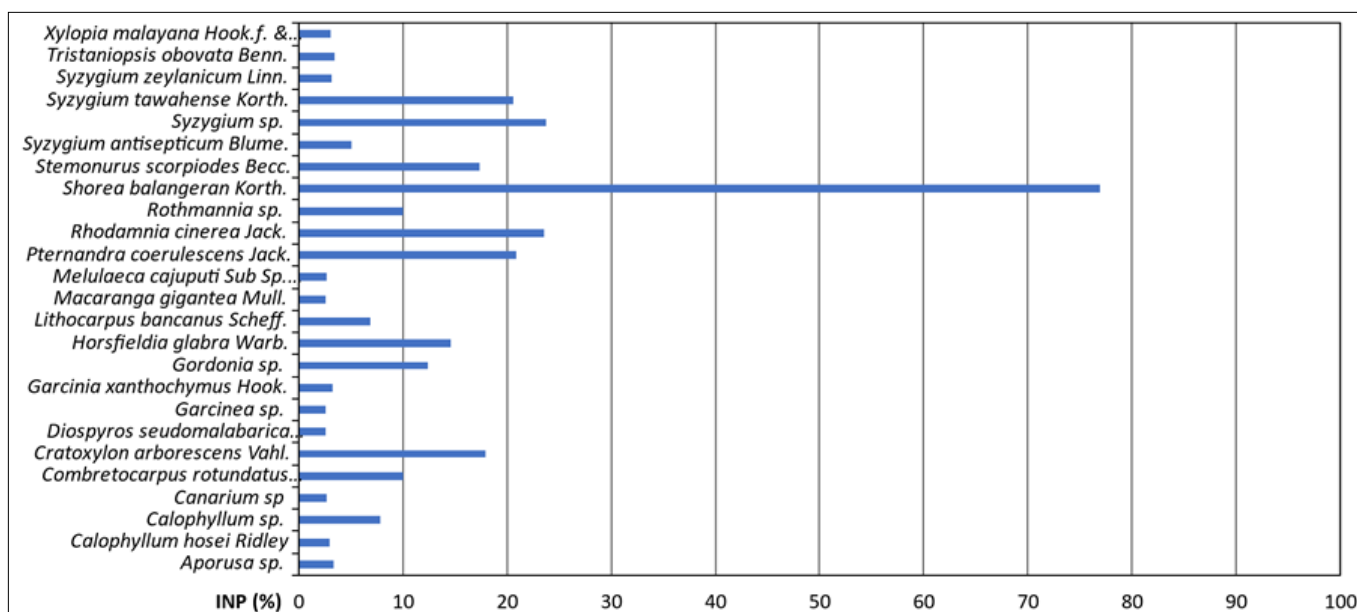


Fig. 4. The overall Important Value Index (IVI) of HCV at the study site

lies on the count of species and individuals of each type, offering a measure for expressing community structure. Species Diversity is a valuable metric for assessing community stability and monitoring changes over time. It can be useful for monitoring the impacts of human activities such as habitat degradation, pollution, and climate change. Two main factors in evaluating the diversity index are the number of different species present in an area

HCV community. As reported in the IVI study, these species are *Syzygium tawahense* Korth., *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack., and *Shorea balangeran* Korth (Fig. 5). The reasons behind the dominance of these species are further discussed in the following section.

**Discussion**

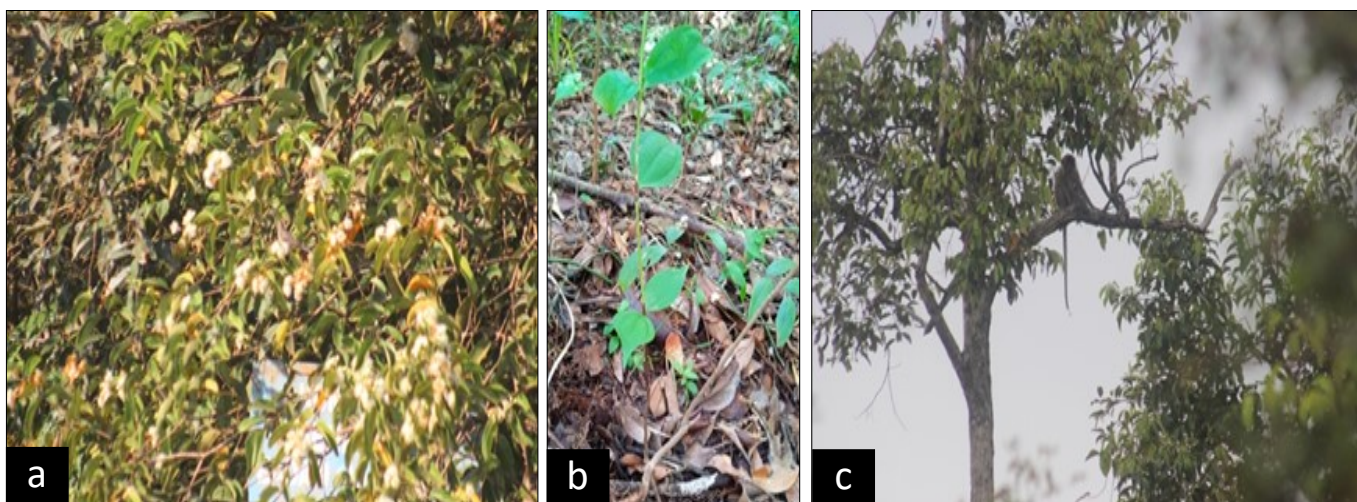


Fig. 5. *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (a), *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (b), dan *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (c)

The dominant species in the area are *Syzygium tawahense* Korth., *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack., and *Shorea balangeran* Korth., as indicated by the study results. *Syzygium* is a genus within the *Myrtaceae* family, boasting around 1200 to 1800 species. *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. is reported to be an endemic plant in Kalimantan, known by various Indonesian names such as Lunoh-lunoh, Obah, Obah bukit, Obah merah, Obar, and Sulang-sulang (43, 44). An inventory at Gunung Baung Purwodadi Natural Tourism Mountain found *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. to be the dominant species at the seedling and understorey levels (45, 46). Similarly, in Lembonah Forest (East Kalimantan), an inventory at the pole level reported domination by *Polalthia rumphii*, *Alseodaphne* sp., and *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. Interestingly, *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. thrives in undisturbed mixed dipterocarp forests up to 1000 m asl, on sandy and alluvial soils near rivers and streams (43).

*Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. identified as one of the plants with a high Importance Value Index (IVI) in the study, contrasts with the findings in a separate study conducted in the Riparian Kahala River area (47). In the latter study, *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. was among the less frequently encountered plant types. This plant is known by various local names such as *Benaun*, *loho*, *bisalu*, *puloh*, *sari-sari*, *dulang-dulang*, *kalomnayng*, *sireh-sireh* and *ubah meskala*, *Ladek*, *Meransi*, *Mempuyang*, and *Kayu Jame*. *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. naturally thrives in mixed dipterocarp heath forests at an altitude of 900 m, encompassing swamp forests and peat swamps (48). The genus is widely distributed, stretching from tropical China (Hainan Island), represented by *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. across the Malay Peninsula (including Singapore), extending to Borneo, tropical Australia, and New Guinea (49). The species frequently encountered in these forests are present in the Pangkor Selatan Forest Reserve, located in Perak, Peninsular Malaysia (50). In the Australian Arnhem Coast Bioregion, both *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. and *Sticherus flabellatus* var. *compactus* have been observed and documented to be commonly found in association with riparian vine forests and drainage systems (51).

*Shorea balangeran* Korth. has the Indonesian names *Angi*, *Ensurut*, *Marijang*, *Sepetir*, *Sindur*, *Tampar antu*, *Tampar hantu*. According to the research (52), the results of an inventory in the Sultan Adam Mandiangin Forest Park (South Kalimantan) reported that *Shorea balangeran* Korth. is the dominant plant species. At a different location, namely in the Mount Soka Customary Forest in Landak District, West Kalimantan, (53) has reported that there were at least 23 types of tree vegetation consisting of 13 families (741 individual trees), with the largest tree vegetation still belonging to the *Shorea* genus, namely *Shorea pinanga* Scheff (Engkabang Bukit). *Shorea balangeran* Korth. at the research site can grow well because it is based on the habitat and ecological conditions, namely in secondary forest, undisturbed mixed dipterocarp forest, and heath forest reaching a height of 100 m asl. This plant is reported to have good regeneration ability in peat forests, mainly due to the dispersal of its seeds by the wind. *S. balangeran* is among the plants with promising potential

as a source of endophytic fungi (54). *Shorea balangeran* Korth. is a member of the *Diptero-carpaceae* family, naturally distributed in Indonesia, and adapted to a diverse range of ecological conditions, including peat swamps and heath forests (55).

Apart from this, several factors can cause a low Biodiversity Index (BI) in a particular ecosystem or HCV, namely as follows:

#### 1. Habitat Loss and Fragmentation

Biodiversity Index (IB) is an important parameter for assessing the level of biodiversity in an ecosystem or a specific region. IB can be influenced by various factors, and one of the factors that can lead to low IB in an ecosystem is habitat loss and fragmentation (56–58). Habitat degradation is a serious problem caused by human activities, such as large-scale deforestation for logging purposes, urbanization converting land into urban areas, and land-use changes for agriculture or industry (59, 60). These activities result in the loss or reduction of natural habitats for animals and plants, leading to fragmentation (61).

When habitats become fragmented, populations of various species become separated and isolated, making genetic exchange between different populations difficult. As a result, species that cannot adapt to these changes tend to experience a decline in their population or even face the risk of extinction (62). Moreover, the reduction in habitat area can cause certain species to lose their homes and sources of food, which in turn dramatically impacts global habitat loss and fragmentation (63). Consequently, the number of species in a particular area may decrease, leading to a lower IB. Preserving natural habitats and managing areas sustainably becomes crucial to protect biodiversity and maintain ecosystem balance (64). Gradual conservation efforts focusing on habitat restoration, protected area conservation, and sustainable land management are essential steps in preserving life on Earth (65).

#### 2. Invasive Species

Invasive species refers to non-native species introduced into an ecosystem that is not their natural habitat. The presence of invasive species can exert significant negative impacts on the existing ecosystem (66). Typically possessing rapid reproductive and growth abilities, invasive species can outcompete and outpace slower-developing native species (67). Their aggressive competition for resources such as food, water, and nesting sites often results in a decline in the abundance and diversity of native species, sometimes leading to changes in biomass (68). This disruption in food chains and species interactions can cause drastic alterations in ecosystem structure, population decline, and even the extinction of native species (69). Additionally, natural disasters have also been reported to impact the low biodiversity (70).

The presence of invasive species can also cause economic, social, agricultural, ecological, and environmental losses (71). Some invasive species can damage crops, forests, or gardens, reducing the productivity and income of farmers (72). To address the issue of invasive species and preserve biodiversity, appropriate conserva-

tion measures must be taken. Strict monitoring and prevention are necessary to avoid the introduction of new invasive species into a region. If invasive species are already present, control and eradication measures can be implemented to mitigate their impacts. Errors in species identification have been reported to hinder conservation management and delay the detection of invasive species (73). Moreover, it is important to raise public awareness about the significance of protecting and conserving biodiversity to maintain a balanced and sustainable ecosystem. Livestock grazing has been reported to contribute to the management of multifunctional floodplains (74).

### 3. Pollution

High levels of pollution in an ecosystem can have serious negative impacts on the lives of organisms within it (75). Pollution can take the form of air, water, or soil pollution, caused by various human activities such as industries, motor vehicles, agriculture, electronic waste, and domestic waste (76). For example, air pollution can contain toxic particles or hazardous chemical compounds such as carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, and sulfur dioxide. Inhalation of these particles by living beings can lead to respiratory disturbances, irritation of the eyes, nose, and throat, as well as chronic respiratory diseases (77). Water pollution, such as the uncontrolled discharge of industrial or domestic waste, can contain toxic substances and contaminate water bodies, threatening the biodiversity dependent on that water (78,79). It has also been reported that lower biodiversity and dominance in polluted sites are interpreted as negative consequences of metal pollution (80).

The impacts of pollution are not only felt by the organisms directly exposed but also affect the food chain and the ecosystem as a whole, including marine litter pollution (81). Some species sensitive to pollution may be replaced by species that are more tolerant to the polluted environment, leading to an overall decline in biodiversity. Therefore, efforts to prevent and control pollution become crucial in preserving biodiversity and ecosystem health. Regulation and enforcement of environmental policies by government officials need to be strengthened to limit pollution from potential sources that may damage the ecosystem (82). Strategies are also required to reduce the release of chemicals into the environment and mitigate their potential impacts (83). Moreover, awareness and public participation in maintaining cleanliness and environmental conservation are also key to addressing pollution issues and preserving biodiversity for a sustainable future.

### 4. Overexploitation

Overexploitation occurs when humans excessively harvest a species or remove key ecosystem components uncontrollably. This can lead to a drastic decline in the population of a species or even extinction. One example of overexploitation is the excessive harvesting of natural resources such as fish, forests, and medicinal plants. For instance, overfishing can cause a significant decrease in the population of certain fish species, disrupting the marine food chain and ecosystem balance (84). Overexploita-

tion and uncontrolled tree cutting for the timber industry or agricultural land conversion can result in habitat destruction and a reduction in the number of plant and animal species residing in it.

To address the issue of overexploitation and preserve biodiversity, it is crucial to implement sustainable resource management policies. Additionally, raising public awareness about the importance of conserving natural resources and protecting wildlife species is essential to achieve a sustainable balance between humans and their environment by equipping the necessary resources and equipment (85). Preserving microhabitat corridors can also be an efficient strategy to integrate forestry activities and biodiversity conservation (86). In transformative national planning efforts, it is important to address institutional constraints and empower stakeholders to create innovative solutions (87).

### 5. Global Climate Change

Global climate change, caused by human activities such as increased greenhouse gas emissions, leads to changes in temperature, rainfall patterns, and other environmental factors in various regions (88,89). Extreme temperature changes and fluctuations in rainfall patterns can cause shifts in the life cycles and behaviors of various species due to their sensitivity to climate change (90,91). Global climate change and disruptions in agriculture have also been reported to affect changes in freshwater biodiversity (92). Some species may become unable to adapt to the new conditions and eventually experience population decline or even extinction. Moreover, climate change can cause future shifts in the geographical distribution of certain species (93). Some species may move towards areas more suitable for the new climate, while others may not be able to disperse and become trapped in regions that no longer meet their needs. The impacts of climate change leading to biodiversity loss can weaken ecosystem functions and services, potentially causing environmental crises worldwide (94). If climate change is not controlled, around 20% and 32% of endemic species on land and in the sea are at risk of extinction. However, with appropriate climate actions, the risk can be reduced by more than tenfold (95).

To address the issue of climate change and preserve biodiversity, mitigation and adaptation efforts are necessary (96). It is essential to understand the causes and impacts of climate change on biodiversity, and mitigation involves measures to reduce greenhouse gas emissions to slow down the rate of global climate change (97). Meanwhile, adaptation involves actions to cope with the unavoidable impacts of climate change. An agroecological approach and prioritizing sustainable agriculture are needed to preserve biodiversity, accelerate innovation, and benefit science and society at large (98). Protecting and restoring habitats, integrating agriculture, sustainable natural resource management, and increasing awareness of the importance of environmental conservation are crucial steps to maintain biodiversity and ecosystem balance amidst ongoing climate change challenges (99).

It is essential to address the above factors and take



steps for biodiversity conservation management to maintain healthy and stable ecosystems in HCVs. It can be done with efforts such as habitat restoration, control of invasive species, pollution reduction, and sustainable natural resource management.

## Conclusion

This research underscores the presence of well-preserved vegetation and plant diversity in areas of high conservation value. A total of 25 plant species from 17 families, comprising 355 plants, were identified. The distribution across different developmental stages included 11 species (6 families) with 38 plants in seedling plots, 16 species (12 families) with 159 plants in sapling plots, 14 species (11 families) with 43 plants in pole plots, and 13 species (10 families) with 115 plants in tree plots. Despite variation in the number of species and families in each plot, the overall plant diversity index remained low. The diversity index of plants in the plots of seedlings, saplings, poles, and trees (and the average) was in the low category ( $H' = 0.96$ ).

Several species exhibited the highest IVI were found in the seedling plots, including *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (113.4%), *Calophyllum* sp. (49.5%), and *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (21.4%). In the sapling plots, the highest IVI was found in *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (58.5%), *Semonurus scorpiodes* (46.6%), and *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (44.4%). In the pole plots, the highest IVI was found in *Syzygium tawahense* Korth. (58.2%), *Horsfieldia glabra* Warb. (38.3%), and *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (37.3%). In the tree plots, the highest IVI was found in *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (110.4%), *Rhodamnia cinerea* Jack. (41.5%), and *Syzygium* sp. (3.9%). The overall IVI was highest in *Shorea balangeran* Korth. (76.9%), followed by *Pternandra coerulescens* Jack. (20.9%), and *Rhodamnia cinerea* Jack. (23.6%). Some of these plants demonstrate the capacity to accumulate nutrients, suggesting their potential utility in environmental conservation and restoration management, particularly in phytoremediation or cleaning up contaminated environments.

## Acknowledgements

This project becomes possible because of the financial support of PT. Rimba Harapan Sakti. Special thanks also go to the study participants for sharing experiences crucial to the understanding of the research subject, and Mr. Hairul Fatah and others for the technical support that enhances the rigor of the work.

## Authors contributions

Conceptualization, EDN, ARS, BJP, H; methodology, EDN, ARS, BJP, H; and S; validation, EDN, ARS, and S; formal analysis, EDN, ARS, RJ, and S; investigation, EDN, ARS, S, and H; SW; resources, EDN, SW; data curation, EDN, ARS, RJ, S, MD; writing—original draft preparation, S, RJ, and HUA; writing—review and editing, ARS, S, and RJ; supervi-

sion, BJP, and H; project administration, EDN, RJ, and S; funding acquisition, EDN. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

## Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of interest:** Authors do not have any conflict of interests to declare.

**Ethical issues:** None.

## References

1. Mustajab R. Luas kebun kelapa sawit Indonesia hampir 15 juta hektare pada; 2022. Available from: <https://dataindonesia.id/sektor-riil/detail/luas-kebun-sawit-indonesia-hampir-15-juta-hektare-pada-2022>
2. Krishna VV, Kubitza C. Impact of oil palm expansion on the provision of private and community goods in rural Indonesia. *Ecol Econ.* 2021;179:106829. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2020.106829>
3. Abdul-Hamid AQ, Ali MH, Osman LH, Tseng ML, Lim MK. Industry 4.0 quasi-effect between circular economy and sustainability: Palm oil industry. *Int J Prod Econ.* 2022;253:108616. Available from: <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2022.108616>
4. Rajakal JP, Hwang JZH, Hassim MH, Andiappan V, Tan QT, Ng DKS. Integration and optimisation of palm oil sector with multiple-industries to achieve circular economy. *Sustain Prod Consum.* 2023;40:318-36. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2023.06.022>
5. Foong SY, Chan YH, Lock SSM, Chin BLF, Yiin CL, Cheah KW et al. Microwave processing of oil palm wastes for bioenergy production and circular economy: Recent advancements, challenges and future prospects. *Bioresour Technol.* 2023;369:128478. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2022.128478>
6. Cheah WY, Siti-Dina RP, Leng STK, Er AC, Show PL. Circular bioeconomy in palm oil industry: Current practices and future perspectives. *Environ Technol Innov.* 2023;30:103050. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eti.2023.103050>
7. Waudby H, Zein SH. A circular economy approach for industrial scale biodiesel production from palm oil mill effluent using microwave heating: Design, simulation, techno-economic analysis and location comparison. *Process Safety and Environmental Protection.* 2021;148:1006-18. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.psep.2021.02.011>
8. Dermawan A, Hospes O, Termeer CJAM. Between zerodeforestation and zero-tolerance from the state: Navigating strategies of palm oil companies of Indonesia. *For Policy Econ.* 2022;136:102690. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forpol.2022.102690>
9. Lieke SD, Spiller A, Busch G. Can consumers understand that there is more to palm oil than deforestation?. *Sustain Prod Consum.* 2023;39:495-505. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2023.05.037>
10. Leijten F, Lantz C Baldos U, Johnson JA, Sim S, Verburg PH. Projecting global oil palm expansion under zero-deforestation commitments: Direct and indirect land use change impacts. *iScience.* 2023;26(6):106971. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2023.106971>
11. Cisneros E, Kis-Katos K, Nuryartono N. Palm oil and the politics of deforestation in Indonesia. *J Environ Econ Manage.* 2021;108:102453. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeem.2021.102453>
12. Li X, Zhang X, Yang H. Estimating the opportunity costs of avoiding oil palm-based deforestation in Indonesia: Implications for REDD+. *Chinese JPop, Res and Environ.* 2020;18(1):9-15. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cjpre.2021.04.010>
13. Papilo P, Marimin M, Hambali E, Machfud M, Yani M, Asrol M et

- al. Palm oil-based bioenergy sustainability and policy in Indonesia and Malaysia: A systematic review and future agendas. *Heliyon*. 2022;8(10):e10919-e10919. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e10919>
14. da Silva CFA, de Andrade MO, dos Santos AM, de Melo SN. Road network and deforestation of indigenous lands in the Brazilian Amazon. *Transp Res D Transp Environ*. 2023;119:103735. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trd.2023.103735>
  15. Bose P. Equitable land-use policy? Indigenous peoples' resistance to mining-induced deforestation. *Land use policy*. 2023;129:106648. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2023.106648>
  16. Camino M, Aceves PAV, Alvarez A, Chianetta P, de la Cruz LM, Alonzo K et al. Indigenous Lands with secure landtenure can reduce forestloss in deforestation hotspots. *Global Environmental Change*. 2023;81:102678. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2023.102678>
  17. Silva JG da, Almeida RB de, Carvalho LV. An economic analysis of a zero-deforestation policy in the Brazilian Amazon. *Ecological Economics*. 2023;203:107613. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2022.107613>
  18. Fortin D, Cimon-Morin J. Public opinion on the conflict between the conservation of at-risk species and the extraction of natural resources: The case of caribou in the boreal forest. *Sci Tot Environ*. 2023;897:165433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.165433>
  19. Pardo LE, Roque F de O, Campbell MJ, Younes N, Edwards W, Laurance WF. Identifying critical limits in oil palm cover for the conservation of terrestrial mammals in Colombia. *Biol Conserv*. 2018;227:65-73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2018.08.026>
  20. Ancrenaz M, Oram F, Nardiyono N, Silmi M, Jopony ME, Voigt M, Seaman DJ, Sherman J, Lackman I, Traeholt C, Wich SA. Importance of small forest fragments in agricultural landscapes for maintaining orangutan metapopulations. *Fron Forests and Gl Change*. 2021;4:560944. <https://doi.org/10.3389/ffgc.2021.560944>
  21. Sharma S, MacKenzie RA, Tieng T, Soben K, Tulyasuwan N, Resanond A et al. The impacts of degradation, deforestation and restoration on mangrove ecosystem carbon stocks across Cambodia. *Sci Tot Environ*. 2020;706:135416. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.135416>
  22. Silva RM da, Lopes AG, Santos CAG. Deforestation and fires in the Brazilian Amazon from 2001 to 2020: Impacts on rainfall variability and land surface temperature. *J Environ Manage*. 2023;326:116664. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.116664>
  23. Chaddad F, Mello FAO, Tayebi M, Safanelli JL, Campos LR, Amorim MTA et al. Impact of mining-induced deforestation on soil surface temperature and carbon stocks: A case study using remote sensing in the Amazon rainforest. *J South Am Earth Sci*. 2022;119:103983. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsames.2022.103983>
  24. Davari M, Gholami L, Nabiollahi K, Homae M, Jafari HJ. Deforestation and cultivation of sparse forest impacts on soil quality (case study: West Iran, Baneh). *Soil Tillage Res*. 2020;198:104504. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.still.2019.104504>
  25. Dietz J, Treydte AC, Lippe M. Exploring the future of Kafue National Park, Zambia: Scenario-based land use and land cover modelling to understand drivers and impacts of deforestation. *Land Use Policy*. 2023;126:106535. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2023.106535>
  26. Khodadadi M, Alewell C, Mirzaei M, Ehssan-Malahat E, Asadzadeh F, Strauss P et al. Understanding deforestation impacts on soil erosion rates using <sup>137</sup>Cs, <sup>239+240</sup>Pu and <sup>210</sup>Pbex and soil physicochemical properties in western Iran. *J Environ Radioact*. 2023;257:107078. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2022.107078>
  27. Nordhaus I, Toben M, Fauziyah A. Impact of deforestation on mangrove tree diversity, biomass and community dynamics in the Segara Anakan lagoon, Java, Indonesia: A ten-year perspective. *Estuar Coast Shelf Sci*. 2019;227:106300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2019.106300>
  28. Peña-Arancibia JL, Bruijnzeel LA, Mulligan M, van Dijk AIJM. Forests as sponges and pumps: Assessing the impact of deforestation on dry-season flows across the tropics. *J Hydrol (Amst)*. 2019;574:946-63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.04.064>
  29. Rico-Straffon J, Wang Z, Panlasigui S, Loucks CJ, Swenson J, Pfaff A. Forest concessions and eco-certifications in the Peruvian Amazon: Deforestation impacts of logging rights and logging restrictions. *J Environ Econ Manage*. 2023;118:102780. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeem.2022.102780>
  30. Gatti RC, Velichevskaya A. Certified "sustainable" palm oil took the place of endangered Bornean and Sumatran large mammals habitat and tropical forests in the last 30 years. *Sci Total Environ*. 2020;742:140712. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.140712>
  31. Rocha MH, Capaz RS, Silva Lora EE, Horta Nogueira LA, Vicente Leme MM, Grillo Reno ML et al. Life cycle assessment (LCA) for biofuels in Brazilian conditions: AF meta-analysis. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 2014;7:435-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2014.05.036>
  32. Konczal AA, Derks J, de Koning JHC, Winkel G. Integrating nature conservation measures in European forest management – An exploratory study of barriers and drivers in 9 European countries. *J Environ Manage*. 2023;325:116619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2022.116619>
  33. Rajarajeswari C, Anbalagan C. Integration of the green and lean principles for more sustainable development: A case study. *Mater Today Proc*. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2023.03.275>
  34. Ashiagbor G, Asante WA, Forkuo EK, Acheampong E, Foli E. Monitoring cocoa-driven deforestation: The contexts of encroachment and land use policy implications for deforestation free cocoa supply chains in Ghana. *Applied Geography*. 2022;147:102788. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2022.102788>
  35. Zovko K, Šerić L, Perković T, Belani H, Šolić P. IoT and health monitoring wearable devices as enabling technologies for sustainable enhancement of life quality in smart environments. *J Clean Prod*. 2023;413:137506. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.137506>
  36. Contini G, Peruzzini M, Bulgarelli S, Bosi G. Developing key performance indicators for monitoring sustainability in the ceramic industry: The role of digitalization and industry 4.0 technologies. *J Clean Prod*. 2023;414:137664. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.137664>
  37. Chibueze Izah S, Omozemoje Aigberua A, Lal Srivastava A. Microbial fuel cells: Potentially sustainable technology for bioelectricity production using palm oil mill effluents. *Artificial Intelligence for Renewable Energy systems*. 2022;105-29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-90396-7.00014-6>
  38. Castellanos-Navarrete A. Oil palm dispersal into protected wetlands: Human-environment dichotomies and the limits to governance in southern Mexico. *Land Use Policy*. 2021;103:105304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2021.105304>
  39. Sakai K, Hassan MA, Vairappan CS, Shirai Y. Promotion of a green economy with the palm oil industry for biodiversity conservation: A touchstone toward a sustainable bioindustry. *J Biosci Bioeng*. 2022;133(5):414-24. Available from: <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiosc.2022.01.001>
  40. Nicholas KM, Fanzo J, MacManus K. Palm oil in Myanmar: A spatiotemporal study of how industrial farming affects biodiversity loss and the sustainable diet. *Ann Glob Health*. 2017;83(1):188.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aogh.2017.03.473>

41. Ayompe LM, Schaafsma M, Egoh BN. Towards sustainable palm oil production: The positive and negative impacts on ecosystem services and human wellbeing. *J Clean Prod.* 2021;278:123914. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.123914>
42. Hamzah A, Salleh SNM, Sarmani S. Enhancing biodegradation of crude oil in soil using fertilizer and empty fruit bunch of oil palm. *Sains Malays.* 2014;43(9):1327-32.
43. Adman B, Muslim, Muslim T, Arifin Z, Priyono, Rengku MT et al. Kawasan wana patra lestari gunung sepuluh timur PT pertamina RU V. Yassir I, editor. *Balickpapan: Balai Penelitian Teknologi Konservasi Sumber Daya Alam.* 2018;1-132. p.
44. Uddin ABMN, Hossain F, Reza ASMA, Nasrin MS, Alam AHMK. Traditional uses, pharmacological activities and phytochemical constituents of the genus *Syzygium*: A review. Vol. 10, *Food Science and Nutrition.* John Wiley and Sons Inc. 2022; p. 1789-819. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.2797>
45. Usmadi D, Witono JR, Siregar M, Purnomo DW. Keanekaragaman dan status konservasi tumbuhan di hutan in situ kebun raya tanjung puri tabalong, kalimantan selatan. In: *Pros Sem Nas Masy Biodiv Indon.* 2018;304-09.
46. Atmoko T, Gunawan W, Emilia F, Mukhlisi, Prayana A, Arifin Z. Budaya masyarakat dayak benuaq dan potensi flora hutan lembonah. Suttedjo, editor. *Balickpapan: Balai Penelitian Teknologi Konservasi Sumber Daya Alam.* 2016;1-108 p.
47. Basrowi M, Qayim I, Raffiudin R. Pemodelan habitat potensial tumbuhan lebah apis dorsata di membalong, Belitung. *Jurnal Ilmu Pertanian Indonesia.* 2022;27(4):562-73. <https://doi.org/10.18343/jipi.27.4.562>
48. Patomihardjo T, Hermawan E, Wira Pradana E, Widiastuti Y. Flora riparian dan hutan rawa gambut untuk restorasi area dengan nilai konservasi tinggi (NKT) terdegradasi. Buchori D, Patomihardjo T, ed. *Zoological Society of London (ZSL) Indonesia Programme.* 2020;1-277 p.
49. Renner SS. The subfamily kibessioideae, its tribe pternandreae and its sole genus, pternandra. *Systematics, Evolution and Ecology of Melastomataceae.* 2022;193-95. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-99742-7\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-99742-7_7)
50. Fitri ZA, Hazlan NHN, Norafida NAN, Nizam MohdS, Latiff A. A preliminary checklist of flowering plants in pangkor selatan forest reserve, Perak, Peninsular Malaysia. *Am J Agric Forest.* 2021;9(4):258. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajaf.20210904.23>
51. Harvey J. Groote Eylandt Mining Company (GEMCO). South32 Australia Region; 2016.
52. Phuspa MM, Kissinger, Asyari M. Karakteristik vegetasi sekitar jenis balangeran (*Shorea balangeran* korth) di taman hutan raya sultan adam mandiangan kabupaten banjar provinsi kalimantan selatan. *Jurnal Sylva Scientee.* 2021;4(6):1092-101. <https://doi.org/10.20527/jss.v4i6.4612>
53. Tarsius, Hardiansyah G, Husni H. Keanekaragaman jenis vegetasi tingkat pohon di hutan adat gunung soka dusun padang sebatik kecamatan air besar kabupaten landak. *Jurnal Hutan Lestari.* 2019;7(1):559-68. <https://doi.org/10.26418/jhl.v7i1.32712>
54. Istikorini Y, Sari OY. Identification of endophytic fungi of balangeran (*Shorea balangeran* Korth.) by morphological characterization. *Jurnal Sylva Lestari.* 2022;10(2):211-22. <https://doi.org/10.23960/jsl.v10i2.547>
55. Indriani F, Siregar UJ, Matra DD, Siregar IZ. Ecological aspects and genetic diversity of *Shorea balangeran* in two forest types of Muara Kendawangan Nature Reserve, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Biodiversitas.* 2019;20(2):482-88. <https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d200226>
56. Shipley JR, Gossner MM, Rigling A, Krumm F. Conserving forest insect biodiversity requires the protection of key habitat features. *Trends Ecol Evol.* 2023; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2023.05.015>
57. Fahrig L, Arroyo-Rodríguez V, Bennett JR, Boucher-Lalonde V, Cazetta E, Currie DJ et al. Is habitat fragmentation bad for biodiversity?. *Biol Conserv.* 2019;230:179-86. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2018.12.026>
58. Al-Amin AQ, Azam MN, Kari F, Leal Filho W. Assessing the scenario concerning environmental sustainability in Malaysia. *Scientific Research and Essays.* 2011;6(1):103-09.
59. Xu X, Xie Y, Qi K, Luo Z, Wang X. Detecting the response of bird communities and biodiversity to habitat loss and fragmentation due to urbanization. *Sci Total Environ.* 2018;624:1561-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.12.143>
60. Ramalho WP, With KA, de Sousa Mesquita G, de Arruda FV, Guerra V, Ferraz D et al. Habitat fragmentation rather than habitat amount or habitat split reduces the diversity and abundance of ground-dwelling anurans within forest remnants of the Brazilian Cerrado. *J Nat Conserv.* 2022;69:126259. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnc.2022.126259>
61. Fletcher RJ, Didham RK, Banks-Leite C, Barlow J, Ewers RM, Rosindell J et al. Is habitat fragmentation good for biodiversity?. *Biol Conserv.* 2018;226:9-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2018.07.022>
62. Banks-Leite C, Ewers RM, Folkard-Tapp H, Fraser A. Countering the effects of habitat loss, fragmentation and degradation through habitat restoration. *One Earth.* 2020;3(6):672-76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2020.11.016>
63. Rogan JE, Lacher TE. Impacts of habitat loss and fragmentation on terrestrial biodiversity. Reference Module in Earth Systems and Environmental Sciences. 2018; <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.10913-3>
64. Pardini R, Nichols E, Püttker T. Biodiversity response to habitat loss and fragmentation. *Encyclopedia of the Anthropocene.* 2018;1(5):229-39. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-809665-9.09824-4>
65. Synes NW, Ponchon A, Palmer SCF, Osborne PE, Bocedi G, Travis MJM et al. Prioritising conservation actions for biodiversity: Lessening the impact from habitat fragmentation and climate change. *Biol Conserv.* 2020;252:108819. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2020.108819>
66. Padalia H, Bahuguna U. Spatial modelling of congruence of native biodiversity and potential hotspots of forest invasive species (FIS) in central Indian landscape. *J Nat Conserv.* 2017;36:29-37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnc.2017.02.001>
67. Piironen R, Fassnacht FE, Heiskanen J, Maeda E, Mack B, Pellikka P. Invasive tree species detection in the Eastern Arc Mountains biodiversity hotspot using one class classification. *Remote Sens Environ.* 2018;218:119-31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2018.09.018>
68. Mancuso FP, D'Agostaro R, Milazzo M, Badalamenti F, Musco L, Mikac B et al. The invasive seaweed *Asparagopsis taxiformis* erodes the habitat structure and biodiversity of native algal forests in the Mediterranean Sea. *Mar Environ Res.* 2022;173:105515. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2021.105515>
69. Gross M. How to stop species invasions. *Current Biology.* 2022;32(24):R1325-28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2022.11.065>
70. Mou AT, Uddin MT, Rahman MH. Empirical assessment of species vulnerability for biodiversity conservation: A case study on Chalan beel of Bangladesh. *Heliyon.* 2023;9(4):e15251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e15251>
71. Alharbi W, Petrovskii S. Effect of complex landscape geometry on the invasive species spread: Invasion with stepping stones. *J Theor Biol.* 2019;464:85-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/>

- [j.jtbi.2018.12.019](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtbi.2018.12.019)
72. Shabani F, Ahmadi M, Kumar L, Solhjuy-fard S, Shafapour Tehrani M, Shabani F et al. Invasive weed species' threats to global biodiversity: Future scenarios of changes in the number of invasive species in a changing climate. *Ecol Indic.* 2020;116:106436. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2020.106436>
  73. Steinhagen S, Hoffmann S, Pavia H, Toth GB. Molecular identification of the ubiquitous green algae *Ulva* reveals high biodiversity, crypticity and invasive species in the Atlantic-Baltic Sea region. *Algal Res.* 2023;73:103132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.algal.2023.103132>
  74. Demeter L, Molnár ÁP, Bede-Fazekas Á, Öllerer K, Varga A, Szabados K et al. Controlling invasive alien shrub species, enhancing biodiversity and mitigating flood risk: A win-win-win situation in grazed floodplain plantations. *J Environ Manage.* 2021;295:113053. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.113053>
  75. Hale SS, Buffum HW, Hughes MM. Six decades of change in pollution and benthic invertebrate biodiversity in a southern New England estuary. *Mar Pollut Bull.* 2018;133:77-87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2018.05.019>
  76. Wang X, Teng Y, Wang X, Xu Y, Li R, Sun Y et al. Effects of combined pollution of organic pollutants and heavy metals on biodiversity and soil multifunctionality in e-waste contaminated soil. *J Hazard Mater.* 2022;440:129727. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2022.129727>
  77. Barton MG, Henderson I, Border JA, Siriwardena G. A review of the impacts of air pollution on terrestrial birds. *Sci Total Environ.* 2023;873:162136. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.162136>
  78. Zhang W, Shen J, Wang J. Linking pollution to biodiversity and ecosystem multifunctionality across benthic-pelagic habitats of a large eutrophic lake: A whole-ecosystem perspective. *Environmental Pollution.* 2021;285:117501. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2021.117501>
  79. Dulsat-Masvidal M, Ciudad C, Infante O, Mateo R, Lacorte S. Water pollution threats in important bird and biodiversity areas from Spain. *J Hazard Mater.* 2023;448:130938. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2023.130938>
  80. Abdelhady AA, Khalil MM, Ismail E, Mohamed RSA, Ali A, Snousy MG et al. Potential biodiversity threats associated with the metal pollution in the Nile-Delta ecosystem (Manzala lagoon, Egypt). *Ecol Indic.* 2019;98:844-53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2018.12.002>
  81. Soto-Navarro J, Jordá G, Compa M, Alomar C, Fossi MC, Deudero S. Impact of the marine litter pollution on the Mediterranean biodiversity: A risk assessment study with focus on the marine protected areas. *Mar Pollut Bull.* 2021;165:112169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2021.112169>
  82. Farooq U, Ashfaq K, Rustamovna RD, Al-Naimi AA. Impact of air pollution on corporate investment: New empirical evidence from BRICS. *Borsa Istanbul Review.* 2023;23(4):876-86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bir.2023.03.004>
  83. Feckler A, Wolfram J, Schulz R, Bundschuh M. Reducing pollution to levels not harming biodiversity and ecosystem functions – one perspective on the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework. *Curr Opin Environ Sci Health.* 2023;100495. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coesh.2023.100495>
  84. Shannon L, Coll M. Assessing the changing biodiversity of exploited marine ecosystems. *Curr Opin Environ Sustain.* 2017;29:89-97. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2018.01.008>
  85. Katic PG, Cerretelli S, Haggard J, Santika T, Walsh C. Mainstreaming biodiversity in business decisions: Taking stock of tools and gaps. *Biol Conserv.* 2023;277:109831. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2022.109831>
  86. Duchesne T, Rault PA, Quistinic P, Dufrêne M, Lourdaïs O. Combining forest exploitation and heathland biodiversity: Edges structure drives microclimates quality and reptile abundance in a coniferous plantation. *For Ecol Manage.* 2023;544:121188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2023.121188>
  87. Pröbstl F, Paulsch A, Zedda L, Nöske N, Cardona Santos EM, Zinggreh Y. Biodiversity policy integration in five policy sectors in Germany: How can we transform governance to make implementation work?. *Earth System Governance.* 2023;16:100175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esg.2023.100175>
  88. Bush J, Doyon A. Tackling intersecting climate change and biodiversity emergencies: Opportunities for sustainability transitions research. *Environ Innov Soc Transit.* 2021;41:57-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eist.2021.09.010>
  89. Muluneh MG, Worku BB. Contributions of urban green spaces for climate change mitigation and biodiversity conservation in Dessie city, Northeastern Ethiopia. *Urban Clim.* 2022;46:101294. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2022.101294>
  90. Dueñas A, Jiménez-Uzcátegui G, Bosker T. The effects of climate change on wildlife biodiversity of the Galapagos islands. *Climate Change Ecology.* 2021 Dec 1;2:100026. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecochg.2021.100026>
  91. He X, Ziegler AD, Elsen PR, Feng Y, Baker JCA, Liang S et al. Accelerating global mountain forest loss threatens biodiversity hotspots. *One Earth.* 2023;6(3):303-15. Available from: <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2023.02.005>
  92. Dai Q, Cao Y, Chu ML, Larson ER, Suski CD. Agricultural conservation may not help Midwestern US freshwater biodiversity in a changing climate. *Sci Total Environ.* 2023;872:162143. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.162143>
  93. Fonseca A, Santos JA, Mariza S, Santos M, Martinho J, Aranha J et al. Tackling climate change impacts on biodiversity towards integrative conservation in Atlantic landscapes. *Glob Ecol Conserv.* 2022;38:e02216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2022.e02216>
  94. Farooqi TJA, Irfan M, Portela R, Zhou X, Shulin P, Ali A. Global progress in climate change and biodiversity conservation research. *Glob Ecol Conserv.* 2022;38:e02272. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2022.e02272>
  95. Manes S, Grey KA, Debnath A, Costello MJ, Vale MM. Imperiled by climate change: Global biodiversity rich-spots. *Imperiled: The Encyclopedia of Conservation.* 2022;1-3:609-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-821139-7.00162-8>
  96. Wu H, Yu L, Shen X, Hua F, Ma K. Maximizing the potential of protected areas for biodiversity conservation, climate refuge and carbon storage in the face of climate change: A case study of Southwest China. *Biol Conserv.* 2023;284:110213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2023.110213>
  97. Talukder B, Ganguli N, Matthew R, vanLoon GW, Hipel KW, Orbinski J. Climate change-accelerated ocean biodiversity loss & associated planetary health impacts. *The Journal of Climate Change and Health.* 2022;6:100114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joclim.2022.100114>
  98. Bohan DA, Richter A, Bane M, Therond O, Pocock MJO. Farmer-led agroecology for biodiversity with climate change. *Trends Ecol Evol.* 2022;37(11):927-30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2022.07.006>
  99. Filho WL, Nagy GJ, Setti AFF, Sharifi A, Donkor FK, Batista K et al. Handling the impacts of climate change on soil biodiversity. *Sci Total Environ.* 2023;869:161671. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.161671>