

Combining global tree cover loss data with historical national forest-cover maps to look at six decades of deforestation and forest fragmentation in Madagascar

Ghislain Vieilledent^{1,2,*} Clovis Grinand³

Fety A. Rakotomalala³ Rija Ranaivosoa⁴ Jean-Roger Rakotoarijaona⁴

Thomas F. Allnutt^{5,6} and Frédéric Achard¹

[1] **Joint Research Center of the European Commission** – Bio-economy Unit, I-21027 Ispra (VA), ITALY

[2] **Cirad** – UPR Forêts et Sociétés, F-34398 Montpellier, FRANCE

[3] **ETC Terra**, F-75020 Paris, FRANCE

[4] **Office National pour l'Environnement**, 101 Antananarivo, MADAGASCAR

[5] **Wildlife Conservation Society**, 101 Antananarivo, MADAGASCAR

[6] **GreenInfo Network**, Oakland, California, USA

[*] **Corresponding author:** \E-mail: ghislain.vieilledent@cirad.fr \Phone: +39.033.278.3516

Running headline: *Six decades of deforestation in Madagascar*

Abstract

1
2 1. The island of Madagascar has an unparalleled biodiversity, mainly located in
3 the tropical forests of the island, which is highly threatened by anthropogenic defor-
4 estation. Scattered forest maps from past studies at national level with substantial
5 gaps (due to presence of cloud cover on satellite imagery) prevent the analysis of
6 long-term deforestation trends in Madagascar.

7 2. In this study, we propose a new approach combining historical (1953-2000)
8 national forest-cover maps with recent (2001-2014) global annual tree cover loss data
9 to look at six decades (1953-2014) of deforestation and forest fragmentation in Mada-
10 gascar. We produced new forest-cover maps at 30 m resolution over the full territory
11 of Madagascar for the year 1990, and annually from 2000 to 2014.

12 3. We estimated that Madagascar has lost 44% of its natural forest cover over
13 the period 1953-2014 (including 37% over the period 1973-2014). Natural forests
14 cover 8.9 Mha in 2014 (15% of the national territory) which are divided into 4.4
15 Mha (50%) of moist forests, 2.6 Mha (29%) of dry forests, 1.7 Mha of spiny forests
16 (19%) and 177,000 ha (2%) of mangroves. Since 2005, the annual deforestation
17 rate has progressively increased in Madagascar to reach 99,000 ha/yr during 2010-
18 2014 (corresponding to a rate of 1.08%/yr). This increase is probably due to rapid
19 population growth (close to 3%/yr) and to poor law enforcement in the country.
20 Around half of the forest (46%) is now located at less than 100m from the forest
21 edge.

22 4. *Policy implications:* Accurate forest-cover change maps can be used to as-
23 sess the effectiveness of past and current conservation programs and implement new
24 strategies for the future. In particular, forest maps and estimates can be used in
25 the framework of the REDD+ (“Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest
26 Degradation”) initiative and for optimizing the current protected area network.

27 *Keywords:* biodiversity, climate-change, deforestation, Madagascar, tropical forest

1 Introduction

Separated from the African continent and the Indian plate about 165 and 88 million years ago respectively (Ali & Aitchison, 2008), the flora and fauna of Madagascar followed its own evolutionary path. Isolation combined with a high number of micro-habitats (Pearson & Raxworthy, 2009) has led to Madagascar's exceptional biodiversity both in term of number of species and endemism in many taxonomic groups (Crottini *et al.*, 2012; Goodman & Benstead, 2005). Most of the biodiversity in Madagascar is concentrated in the tropical forests of the island which can be divided into four types: the moist forest in the East, the dry forest in the West, the spiny forest in the South and the mangroves on the West coast (Vieilledent *et al.*, 2016). This unparalleled biodiversity is severely threatened by deforestation (Harper *et al.*, 2007; Vieilledent *et al.*, 2013) associated with human activities such as slash-and-burn agriculture and pasture (Scales, 2011). Tropical forests in Madagascar also store a large amount of carbon (Vieilledent *et al.*, 2016) and high rates of deforestation in Madagascar are responsible for large CO₂ emissions in the atmosphere (Achard *et al.*, 2014). Deforestation threatens species survival by directly reducing their available habitat (Brooks *et al.*, 2002; Tidd *et al.*, 2001). Forest fragmentation can also lead to species extinction by isolating populations from each other and creating forest patches too small to maintain viable populations (Saunders *et al.*, 1991). Fragmentation also increases forest edge where ecological conditions (such as air temperature, light intensity and air moisture) can be dramatically modified, with consequences on the abundance and distribution of species (Murcia, 1995). Forest fragmentation can also have substantial effects on forest carbon storage capacity, as carbon stocks are much lower at the forest edge than under a closed canopy (Brinck *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, forest carbon stocks vary spatially due to climate or soil factors (Saatchi *et al.*, 2011; Vieilledent *et al.*, 2016). As a consequence, accurate and spatially explicit maps of forest-cover and forest-cover change are necessary

53 to monitor biodiversity loss and carbon emissions from deforestation and forest fragmen-
54 tation, assess the efficiency of present conservation strategies (Eklund *et al.*, 2016), and
55 implement new strategies for the future (Vieilledent *et al.*, 2016, 2013). Simple time-series
56 of forest-cover estimates, such as those provided by the FAO Forest Resource Assessment
57 report (Keenan *et al.*, 2015) are not sufficient.

58 Unfortunately, accurate and exhaustive forest-cover maps are not available for Mada-
59 gascar for the last fifteen years (2000-2015). Harper *et al.* (2007) produced maps of forest
60 cover and forest cover changes over Madagascar for the years *c.* 1953, *c.* 1973, 1990 and
61 2000. The *c.* 1953 forest map was derived from the visual interpretation of aerial photog-
62 raphy at coarse scale (1/1,000,000). Forest maps for the years *c.* 1973, 1990, and 2000
63 were obtained from supervised classification of Landsat satellite images at 60 m resolution
64 (for the year 1973) or 30 m resolution (for years 1990 and 2000) and can be used to derive
65 more accurate estimates of forest cover (89.5% accuracy reported for the forest/non-forest
66 map of year 2000). Nonetheless, maps provided by Harper *et al.* (2007) are not exhaustive
67 (due to the presence of clouds in the satellite imagery), e.g. 11 244 km² are mapped as un-
68 known cover type for the year 2000. Using a similar supervised classification approach as in
69 Harper *et al.* (2007), more recent maps have been produced for the periods 2000-2005-2010
70 by national institutions, with the technical support of international environmental NGOs
71 (MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009; ONE, DGF, FTM, MNP, and CI, 2013). Another set of
72 recent forest-cover maps using an advanced statistical tool for classification, the Random
73 Forest classifier (Grinand *et al.*, 2013; Rakotomala *et al.*, 2015), was produced for the peri-
74 ods 2005-2010-2013 (ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015). However, these maps
75 are either too old to give recent estimates of deforestation (MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009;
76 ONE, DGF, FTM, MNP, and CI, 2013), include large areas of missing information due to
77 images with high percentage of cloud cover (ONE, DGF, FTM, MNP, and CI, 2013), or
78 show large mis-classification in specific areas, especially in the dry and spiny forest domain

79 for which the spectral answer has a strong seasonal behavior due to the deciduousness of
80 such forests (overall accuracy is lower than 0.8 for the dry and spiny forests for the maps
81 produced by ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra (2015)). Moreover, the production
82 of such forest maps from a supervised classification approach requires significant resources,
83 especially regarding the image selection step (required to minimize cloud cover) and the
84 training step (visual interpretation of a large number of polygons needed to train the clas-
85 sification algorithm) (Rakotomala *et al.*, 2015). Most of this work of image selection and
86 visual interpretation would need to be repeated to produce new forest maps in the future
87 using a similar approach.

88 Global forest or tree cover products have also been published recently and can be
89 tested at the national scale for Madagascar. Kim *et al.* (2014) produced a global forest-
90 cover change map from 1990 to 2000 (derived from Landsat imagery). This product was
91 updated to cover the period 1975-2005 (<http://glcf.umd.edu/data/landsatFCC/>) but
92 forest-cover maps after 2005 were not produced. Moreover, the approach used in Kim *et al.*
93 (2014) did not accurately map the forests in the dry and spiny ecosystems of Madagascar
94 (see Fig. 8 in Kim *et al.* (2014)). Hansen *et al.* (2013) mapped tree cover percentage,
95 annual forest loss and forest gain from 2000 to 2012 at global scale at 30 m resolution.
96 This product has since been updated and is now available up to the year 2014 (Hansen
97 *et al.*, 2013). To map forest cover from the Hansen *et al.* (2013) product, a tree cover
98 threshold must be selected (that defines forest cover). Selecting such a threshold is not
99 straightforward as the accuracy of the global tree cover map strongly varies between forest
100 types, and is substantially lower for dry forests than for moist forests (Bastin *et al.*, 2017).
101 Moreover, the Hansen *et al.* (2013) product does not provide information on land-use. In
102 particular the global tree cover map does not separate tree plantations such as oil palm
103 or eucalyptus plantations from natural forests (Tropek *et al.*, 2014). Thus, the global tree
104 cover map from Hansen *et al.* (2013) cannot be used alone to produce a map of forest cover

105 (Tyukavina *et al.*, 2017). In complement to the tree cover percentage provided in Hansen
106 *et al.* (2013), a layer of annual tree cover loss is also provided (i.e. complete loss of tree
107 cover from a value higher than 10% to zero) for the period 2001-2014.

108 In this study, we present a simple approach which combines the maps from Harper
109 *et al.* (2007) and products from Hansen *et al.* (2013) to derive annual wall-to-wall forest-
110 cover change maps over the period 2000-2014 for Madagascar. We use the forest-cover map
111 provided by Harper *et al.* (2007) for the year 2000 (defining the land-use) with the tree
112 cover loss product provided by Hansen *et al.* (2013) that we apply only inside forest areas
113 identified by Harper *et al.* (2007). Similar to the approach of Harper *et al.* (2007), we also
114 assess trends in deforestation rates and forest fragmentation from *c.* 1953 to 2014. The
115 approach described in this study can help assess the effectiveness of current conservation
116 strategies, and assist the implementation of future strategies. Our approach could be easily
117 extended to other tropical countries that have at least one forest-cover map between 2000
118 and 2014. This approach can easily be repeated in the future when the Hansen *et al.* (2013)
119 products are updated.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Creation of new forest-cover maps of Madagascar from 1953 to 2014

We produced annual forest/non-forest maps at 30 m resolution for the full territory of Madagascar for the period 2000-2014 by combining the forest map of year 2000 from Harper *et al.* (2007), and the tree cover percentage and annual forest cover loss maps over the period 2000-2014 from Hansen *et al.* (2013). The 2000 Harper's forest map includes 208,000 ha of unclassified areas due to the presence of clouds on satellite images, mostly (88%) within the moist forest domain which covered 4.17 Mha in total in 2000. To provide a label (forest or non-forest) to these unclassified pixels, we used the 2000 tree cover percentage map of Hansen *et al.* (2013) by selecting a threshold of 75% tree cover to define forest cover as recommended by other studies for the moist domain (Achard *et al.*, 2014). We thus obtained a forest-cover map for the year 2000 covering the full territory of Madagascar. We then combined this forest-cover map of the year 2000 with the annual tree cover loss maps from 2001 to 2014 provided by Hansen *et al.* (2013) to create annual forest-cover maps from 2001 to 2014 at 30 m resolution. We also completed the Harper's forest map of year 1990 by filling unclassified areas (due to the presence of clouds on satellite images) using our forest-cover map of year 2000. To do so, we assumed that if forest was present in 2000, the pixel was also forested in 1990. The remaining unclassified pixels were limited to a relatively small total area of *c.* 8,000 ha. We labeled these residual pixels as non-forest as for the year 2000. Similarly we completed the Harper's forest map of year 1973 by filling unclassified areas using our forest-cover map of the year 1990 assuming that if forest was present in 1990, it was also present in 1973. Contrary to the year 1990, the remaining unclassified pixels for year 1973 corresponded to a significant total area of 3.32 million ha. We also reprojected the forest-cover map of year 1953 to a common projection in order to

145 compare the forest-cover area in 1953 with forest-cover areas at the following dates. This
146 map was produced by scanning a paper map derived from aerial photos, and thus could not
147 be perfectly aligned with the other maps produced through digital processing of satellite
148 imagery (Harper *et al.*, 2007). Finally for all forest-cover maps from 1973, the isolated
149 single non-forest pixels (i.e. fully surrounded by forest pixels) were removed, assuming
150 that single non-forest pixels inside a forest patch were not corresponding to deforestation
151 (they might correspond to selective logging activities). This allowed us to avoid counting
152 very small scale events (<0.1 ha such as selective logging) as forest fragmentation. All the
153 resulting maps are freely available at <https://bioscenemada.cirad.fr/forestmaps>.

154 2.2 Computing forest-cover areas and deforestation rates

155 From these new forest-cover maps, we calculated the total forest-cover area for seven avail-
156 able years (1953-1973-1990-2000-2010-2005-2014), and the annual deforested area and an-
157 nual deforestation rate for the corresponding six time periods between 1953 and 2014. The
158 annual deforestation rates were calculated as follows (Puyravaud, 2003; Vieilledent *et al.*,
159 2013):

$$\theta = 100 \times [1 - (1 - (F_{t_2} - F_{t_1})/F_{t_1})^{1/(t_2-t_1)}]$$

160 where θ is the annual deforestation rate (in %/yr), F_{t_2} and F_{t_1} are the forest cover free
161 of clouds at both dates t_2 and t_1 , and $t_2 - t_1$ is the time-interval (in years) between the
162 two dates.

163 Because of the large unclassified area (3.32 million ha) in 1973, the annual deforestation
164 areas and rates for the two periods 1953-1973 and 1973-1990 are only indicative estimates.
165 For these two periods the annual deforestation rates are computed as the ratio $(F_{t_2} -$
166 $F_{t_1})/F_{t_1}$ considering only the mapped forest pixels. Area and rate estimates are produced

167 at the national scale and for the four forest ecosystems present in Madagascar: moist forest
168 in the East, dry forest in the West, spiny forest in the South, and mangroves on the Western
169 coast (Fig. 1). To define the forest domains, we used a map from the MEFT (*“Ministère de*
170 *l’Environnement et des Forêts à Madagascar”*) with the boundaries of the four ecoregions
171 in Madagascar. Ecoregions were defined on the basis of climatic and vegetation criteria
172 using the climate classification by Cornet (1974) and the vegetation classification from
173 the 1996 IEFN national forest inventory (Ministère de l’Environnement, 1996). Because
174 mangrove forests are highly dynamic ecosystems that can expand or contract on decadal
175 scales depending on changes in environmental factors (Armitage *et al.*, 2015), a fixed
176 delimitation of the mangrove ecoregion on six decades might not be fully appropriate. As
177 a consequence, our estimates of the forest-cover and deforestation rates for mangroves in
178 Madagascar must be considered with this limitation.

179 **2.3 Comparing our forest-cover and deforestation rate estimates** 180 **with previous studies**

181 We compared our estimates of forest-cover and deforestation rates with estimates from the
182 three existing studies at the national scale for Madagascar: (i) (Harper *et al.*, 2007), (ii)
183 (MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009) and (iii) (ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015).
184 Harper *et al.* (2007) provides forest-cover and deforestation estimates for the periods c.
185 1953-c. 1973-1990-2000. MEFT, USAID, and CI (2009) provides estimates for the periods
186 1990-2000-2005 and ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra (2015) provides estimates
187 for the periods 2005-2010-2013. To compare our forest-cover and deforestation estimates
188 over the same time periods, we consider an additional time-period in our study (2010-
189 2013) by creating an extra forest-cover map for the year 2013. We computed the Pearson’s
190 correlation coefficient and the root mean square error (RMSE) between our forest-cover

191 estimates and forest-cover estimates from previous studies for all the dates and forest types
192 (including also the total forest cover estimates). For previous studies, the computation of
193 annual deforestation rates (in %/yr) is not always detailed and might slightly differ from one
194 study to another (see [Puyravaud, 2003](#)). [Harper *et al.* \(2007\)](#) also provide total deforested
195 areas for the two periods 1973-1990 and 1990-2000. We converted these values into annual
196 deforested area estimates. When annual deforested areas were not reported (for 1953-1973
197 in [Harper *et al.* \(2007\)](#) and in [MEFT, USAID, and CI \(2009\)](#) and [ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS,
198 and Etc Terra \(2015\)](#)), we computed them from the forest-cover estimates in each study.
199 These estimates cannot be corrected from the potential bias due to the presence of residual
200 clouds. Forest-cover and deforestation rates were then compared between all studies for
201 the whole of Madagascar and the four ecoregions. The same ecoregion boundaries as in
202 our study were used in [ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra \(2015\)](#) but this was not
203 the case for [Harper *et al.* \(2007\)](#) and [MEFT, USAID, and CI \(2009\)](#), which can explain
204 part of the differences between the estimates.

205 **2.4 Fragmentation**

206 We also conducted an analysis of changes in forest fragmentation for the years 1953, 1973,
207 1990, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2014. We applied the method developed by [Riitters *et al.*
208 \(2000\)](#) which uses a moving window to characterize the fragmentation around each forested
209 pixel. Computations were done using the function `r.forestfrag` of the GRASS GIS
210 software ([Neteler & Mitasova, 2008](#)). Six categories of fragmentation were identified from
211 the amount of forest and its occurrence as adjacent forest pixels: “interior”, “perforated”,
212 “edge”, “transitional”, “patch”, and “undetermined”. We used a moving window of 7x7
213 pixels (4.4 ha). Using this window size, forest edge had a width of about 90m ([Riitters
214 *et al.*, 2000](#)). The “interior” category can be interpreted as the most intact forest ([Potapov
215 *et al.*, 2017](#)). The “patch” and “transitional” categories correspond to isolated small forest

216 patches. We reported the area of forest in each fragmentation category for the six years
217 and analyzed the dynamics of fragmentation over the six decades. We also computed the
218 distance to forest edge for all forest pixels for the years 1953, 1973, 1990, 2000, 2005,
219 2010 and 2014. For that, we used the function `gdal_proximity.py` of the GDAL software
220 (<http://www.gdal.org/>). We computed the mean and 90% quantiles (5% and 95%) of
221 the distance to forest edge and looked at the evolution of these values with time.

222 **3 Results**

223 **3.1 Dynamics of forest cover and deforestation intensity**

224 Natural forests in Madagascar covered 16.0 Mha in 1953, about 27% of the national terri-
225 tory of 587,041 km². In 2014, the forest cover dropped to 8.9 Mha, corresponding to about
226 15% of the national territory (Fig. 2 and Tab. 1). Madagascar has lost 44% and 37% of
227 its natural forests between 1953 and 2014, and between 1973 and 2014 respectively (Fig. 2
228 and Tab. 1). In 2014 the remaining 8.9 Mha of natural forest were distributed as: 4.4 Mha
229 of moist forest (50% of total forest cover), 2.6 Mha of dry forest (29%), 1.7 Mha of spiny
230 forest (19%) and 0.18 Mha (2%) of mangrove forest (Fig. 1 and Tab. 2). Regarding the
231 deforestation trend, we observed a progressive decrease of the deforestation rate after 1990
232 from 205,000 ha/yr (1.63%/yr) over the period 1973-1990 to 44,300 ha/yr (0.43%/yr) over
233 the period 2000-2005 (Tab. 1). Then from 2005, the deforestation rate has progressively
234 increased and has more than doubled over the period 2010-2014 (98,700 ha/yr, 1.08%/yr)
235 compared to 2000-2005 (Tab. 1). The deforestation trend characterized by a progressive
236 decrease of the deforestation rate over the period 1990-2005 and a progressive increase of
237 the deforestation after 2005 is valid for all four ecoregions (Tab. 3), with the exception of
238 the spiny forest domain for which the deforestation rate during the period 2010-2013 was
239 lower than during 2005-2010 (Tab. 3).

240 **3.2 Comparison with previous forest-cover change studies in Mada-** 241 **gascar**

242 Forest-cover maps provided by previous studies over Madagascar were not exhaustive (un-
243 classified areas) due to the presence of clouds on satellite images used to produce such
244 maps. In Harper *et al.* (2007), the maps of years 1990 and 2000 include 0.5 and 1.12 Mha

245 of unknown cover type respectively. Proportions of unclassified areas are not reported in
246 the two other existing studies by MEFT, USAID, and CI (2009) and ONE, DGF, MNP,
247 WCS, and Etc Terra (2015). With our approach, we produced wall to wall forest-cover
248 change maps from 1990 to 2014 for the full territory of Madagascar (Tab. 1). This allowed
249 us to produce more robust estimates of forest-cover and deforestation rates over this period.
250 Our forest-cover estimates over the period 1953-2013 (considering forest cover estimates at
251 national level and by ecoregions for all the available dates) were well correlated (Pearson's
252 correlation coefficient = 0.99) to estimates from the three previous studies (Tab. 2) with a
253 RMSE of 300,000 ha (6% of the mean forest cover of 4.8 Mha when considering all dates
254 and forest types together). These small differences can be partly attributed to differences
255 in ecoregion boundaries. Despite significant differences in deforestation estimates (Tab. 3),
256 a similar deforestation trend was observed across studies with a decrease of deforestation
257 rates over the period 1990-2005, followed by a progressive increase of the deforestation
258 after 2005.

259 **3.3 Evolution of forest fragmentation with time**

260 In parallel to the dynamics of deforestation, forest fragmentation has progressively in-
261 creased since 1953 in Madagascar. We observed a continuous decrease of the mean dis-
262 tance to forest edge from 1953 to 2014 in Madagascar. The mean distance to forest edge
263 has decreased to *c.* 300 m in 2014 while it was previously *c.* 1.5 km in 1973 (Fig. 3).
264 Moreover, a large proportion (73%) of the forest was located at a distance greater than
265 100 m in 1973, while almost half of the forest (46%) was at a distance lower than 100 m
266 from forest edge in 2014 (Fig. 3). The percentage of forest that can be considered intact in
267 Madagascar has continuously decreased since 1953. The percentage of forest belonging to
268 the "interior" category (most intact forests) has fallen from 68% in 1973 to 50% in 2014.
269 In 2014, more than 16% of the forest belonged to the "patch" and "transitional" categories

270 (isolated small forest patches) compared to 9.5% in 1973 (Tab. 4).

271 4 Discussion

272 4.1 Benefits of the combined use of recent global annual tree 273 cover loss data with historical national forest-cover maps

274 In this study, we combined recent (2001-2014) global annual tree cover loss data ([Hansen](#)
275 [et al., 2013](#)) with historical (1953-2000) national forest-cover maps ([Harper et al., 2007](#)) to
276 look at six decades (1953-2014) of deforestation and forest fragmentation in Madagascar.
277 We produced annual forest-cover maps at 30 m resolution covering Madagascar for the
278 period 2000 to 2014. Our study extends the forest-cover monitoring on a six decades period
279 (from 1953 to 2014) while harmonizing the data from previous studies ([Harper et al., 2007](#);
280 [MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009](#); [ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015](#)). We propose
281 a generic approach to solve the problem of forest definition which is needed to transform
282 the 2000 global tree cover dataset from [Hansen et al. \(2013\)](#) into a forest/non-forest map
283 ([Tropek et al., 2014](#)). We propose to use a historical national forest-cover map, based on a
284 national forest definition, as a forest cover mask. This approach could be easily extended
285 to other regions or countries for which an accurate forest-cover map is available at any date
286 within the period 2000-2014, but preferably at the beginning of the period to profit from
287 the full record and derive long-term estimates of deforestation. Moreover, this approach
288 can be repeated in the future if and when the global tree cover product is updated. We
289 have made the R/GRASS code used for this study freely available in a GitHub repository
290 (see Data availability statement) to facilitate application to other study areas or repeat
291 the analysis in the future for Madagascar.

292 The accuracy of the derived forest-cover change maps depends directly on the accuracies
293 of the historical forest-cover maps and the tree cover loss dataset. The reported global
294 accuracy of the tree cover loss dataset is 99.6% (see Tab. S5 in [Hansen et al. \(2013\)](#)).
295 [Verhegghen et al. \(2016\)](#) have compared deforestation estimates derived from the global

296 tree cover loss dataset (Hansen *et al.*, 2013) with results derived from semi-automated
297 supervised classification of Landsat satellite images (Achard *et al.*, 2014) for six countries
298 in Central Africa and they found a good agreement between these two sets of estimates.
299 Consistent with Harper *et al.* (2007), we did not consider potential forest regrowth in
300 Madagascar (although Hansen *et al.* (2013) provided a tree cover gains layer for the period
301 2001-2013) for several reasons. First, the tree gain layer of Hansen *et al.* (2013) includes
302 and catches more easily tree plantations than natural forest regrowth (Tropek *et al.*, 2014).
303 Second, there is little evidence of natural forest regeneration in Madagascar (Grouzis *et al.*,
304 2001; Harper *et al.*, 2007). This can be explained by several ecological processes following
305 burning practice such as soil erosion (Grinand *et al.*, 2017) and reduced seed bank due to
306 fire and soil loss (Grouzis *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, in areas where forest regeneration is
307 ecologically possible, young forest regrowth are more easily re-burnt for agriculture and
308 pasture. Third, young secondary forests provide more limited ecosystem services compared
309 to old-growth natural forests in terms of biodiversity and carbon storage.

310 **4.2 Dynamics of forest-cover in Madagascar from 1953 to 2014**

311 We estimated that natural forests in Madagascar cover 8.9 Mha in 2014 (corresponding
312 to 15% of the country) and that Madagascar has lost 44% of its natural forest since 1953
313 (37% since 1973). There is ongoing scientific debate about the extent of the “original”
314 forest cover in Madagascar, and the extent to which humans have altered the natural
315 forest landscapes since their large-scale settlement around 800 CE (Burns *et al.*, 2016; Cox
316 *et al.*, 2012). Early French naturalists stated that the full island was originally covered by
317 forest (Humbert, 1927; Perrier de La Bâthie, 1921), leading to the common statement that
318 90% of the natural forests have disappeared since the arrival of humans on the island (Kull,
319 2000). More recent studies counter-balanced that point of view saying that extensive areas
320 of grassland existed in Madagascar long before human arrival and were determined by

321 climate, natural grazing and other natural factors (Virah-Sawmy, 2009; Vorontsova *et al.*,
322 2016). Other authors have questioned the entire narrative of extensive alteration of the
323 landscape by early human activity which, through legislation, has severe consequences on
324 local people (Klein, 2002; Kull, 2000). Whatever the original proportion of natural forests
325 and grasslands in Madagascar, our results demonstrate that human activities since the
326 1950s have profoundly impacted the natural tropical forests and that conservation and
327 development programs in Madagascar have failed to stop deforestation in the recent years.
328 Deforestation has strong consequences on biodiversity and carbon emissions in Madagascar.
329 Around 90% of Madagascar's species are forest dependent (Allnutt *et al.*, 2008; Goodman
330 & Benstead, 2005) and Allnutt *et al.* (2008) estimated that deforestation between 1953 and
331 2000 led to an extinction of 9% of the species. The additional deforestation we observed
332 over the period 2000-2014 (around 1Mha of natural forest) worsen this result. Regarding
333 carbon emissions, using the 2010 aboveground forest carbon map by Vieilledent *et al.*
334 (2016), we estimated that deforestation on the period 2010-2014 has led to 40.2 Mt C of
335 carbon emissions in the atmosphere (10 Mt C /yr) and that the remaining aboveground
336 forest carbon stock in 2014 is 832.8 Mt C. Associated to deforestation, we showed that the
337 remaining forests of Madagascar are highly fragmented with 46% of the forest being at
338 less than 100m of the forest edge. Small forest fragments do not allow to maintain viable
339 populations and "edge effects" at forest/non-forest interfaces have impacts on both carbon
340 emissions (Brinck *et al.*, 2017) and biodiversity loss (Gibson *et al.*, 2013; Murcia, 1995).

341 **4.3 Deforestation trend and impacts on conservation and devel-** 342 **opment policies**

343 In our study, we have shown that the progressive decrease of the deforestation rate on
344 the period 1990-2005 was followed by a continuous increase in the deforestation rate on

345 the period 2005-2014. In particular, we showed that deforestation rate has more than
346 doubled on the period 2010-2014 compared to 2000-2005. Our results are confirmed by
347 previous studies ([Harper *et al.*, 2007](#); [MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009](#); [ONE, DGF, MNP,](#)
348 [WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015](#)) despite differences in the methodologies regarding (i) forest
349 definition (associated to independent visual interpretations of observation polygons to train
350 the classifier), (ii) classification algorithms, (iii) deforestation rate computation method,
351 and (iv) correction for the presence of clouds. Our deforestation rate estimates from 1990 to
352 2014 have been computed from wall to wall maps at 30 m resolution and can be considered
353 more accurate in comparison with estimates from these previous studies. Our forest-cover
354 and deforestation rate estimates can be used as source of information for the next FAO
355 Forest Resources Assessment project ([Keenan *et al.*, 2015](#)). Current rates of deforestation
356 can also be used to build reference scenarios for deforestation in Madagascar and contribute
357 to the implementation of deforestation mitigation activities in the framework of REDD+
358 ([Olander *et al.*, 2008](#)).

359 The increase of deforestation rates after 2005 can be explained by population growth
360 and political instability in the country. Nearly 90% of Madagascar's population relies on
361 biomass for their daily energy needs ([Minten *et al.*, 2013](#)) and the link between popu-
362 lation size and deforestation has previously been demonstrated in Madagascar ([Gorenflo](#)
363 [*et al.*, 2011](#); [Vieilledent *et al.*, 2013](#)). With a mean demographic growth rate of about
364 2.8%/yr and a population which has increased from 16 to 24 million people on the period
365 2000-2015 ([United Nations, 2015](#)), the increasing demand in wood-fuel and space for agri-
366 culture is likely to explain the increase in deforestation rates. The political crisis of 2009
367 ([Ploch & Cook, 2012](#)), followed by several years of political instability and weak governance
368 could also explain the increase in the deforestation rate observed on the period 2005-2014
369 ([Smith *et al.*, 2003](#)). These results show that despite the conservation policy in Madagas-
370 car ([Freudenberger, 2010](#)), deforestation has dramatically increased at the national level

371 since 2005. Results of this study, including recent spatially explicit forest-cover change
372 maps and forest-cover estimates, should help implement new conservation strategies to
373 save Madagascar natural tropical forests and their unique biodiversity.

374 5 Author's contribution

375 All authors conceived the ideas and designed methodology; GV analysed the data and
376 wrote the **R**/GRASS script; GV drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed critically
377 to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

378 6 Acknowledgements

379 This study is part of the Cirad's BioSceneMada project ([https://bioscenemada.cirad.](https://bioscenemada.cirad.fr)
380 [fr](https://bioscenemada.cirad.fr)) and the Joint Research Center's ReCaREDD project ([http://forobs.jrc.ec.europa.](http://forobs.jrc.ec.europa.eu/recaredd)
381 [eu/recaredd](http://forobs.jrc.ec.europa.eu/recaredd)). The BioSceneMada project is funded by FRB (Fondation pour la Recherche
382 sur la Biodiversité) and the FFEM (Fond Français pour l'Environnement Mondial) under
383 the project agreement AAP-SCEN-2013 I. The ReCaREDD project is funded by the Eu-
384 ropean Commission.

385 7 Data accessibility

386 All the data and codes used for this study are made publicly available in the `deforestmap`
387 GitHub repository (<https://github.com/ghislainv/deforestmap.git>). The results are
388 fully reproducible running the **R** script `deforestmap.R` located inside the `deforestmap`
389 repository.

8 References

- 390
- 391 Achard, F., Beuchle, R., Mayaux, P., Stibig, H.J., Bodart, C., Brink, A., Carboni, S.,
392 Desclée, B., Donnay, F., Eva, H.D., Lupi, A., Raši, R., Seliger, R. & Simonetti, D.
393 (2014) Determination of tropical deforestation rates and related carbon losses from 1990
394 to 2010. *Global Change Biology*, **20**, 2540–2554.
- 395 Ali, J.R. & Aitchison, J.C. (2008) Gondwana to Asia: Plate tectonics, paleogeography and
396 the biological connectivity of the Indian sub-continent from the Middle Jurassic through
397 latest Eocene (166–35 Ma). *Earth-Science Reviews*, **88**, 145–166.
- 398 Allnutt, T.F., Ferrier, S., Manion, G., Powell, G.V.N., Ricketts, T.H., Fisher, B.L., Harper,
399 G.J., Irwin, M.E., Kremen, C., Labat, J.N., Lees, D.C., Pearce, T.A. & Rakotondrainibe,
400 F. (2008) A method for quantifying biodiversity loss and its application to a 50-year
401 record of deforestation across Madagascar. *Conservation Letters*, **1**, 173–181.
- 402 Armitage, A.R., Highfield, W.E., Brody, S.D. & Louchouart, P. (2015) The contribution of
403 mangrove expansion to salt marsh loss on the Texas Gulf Coast. *PloS One*, **10**, e0125404.
- 404 Bastin, J.F., Berrahmouni, N., Grainger, A., Maniatis, D., Mollicone, D., Moore, R.,
405 Patriarca, C., Picard, N., Sparrow, B., Abraham, E.M., Aloui, K., Atesoglu, A., Attore,
406 F., Bassüllü, Ç., Bey, A., Garzuglia, M., García-Montero, L.G., Groot, N., Guerin, G.,
407 Laestadius, L., Lowe, A.J., Mamane, B., Marchi, G., Patterson, P., Rezende, M., Ricci,
408 S., Salcedo, I., Diaz, A.S.P., Stolle, F., Surappaeva, V. & Castro, R. (2017) The extent
409 of forest in dryland biomes. *Science*, **356**, 635–638.
- 410 Brinck, K., Fischer, R., Groeneveld, J., Lehmann, S., Dantas De Paula, M., Pütz, S.,
411 Sexton, J.O., Song, D. & Huth, A. (2017) High resolution analysis of tropical forest
412 fragmentation and its impact on the global carbon cycle. *Nature Communications*, **8**,
413 14855.
- 414 Brooks, T.M., Mittermeier, R.A., Mittermeier, C.G., da Fonseca, G.A.B., Rylands, A.B.,
415 Konstant, W.R., Flick, P., Pilgrim, J., Oldfield, S., Magin, G. & Hilton-Taylor, C. (2002)
416 Habitat loss and extinction in the hotspots of biodiversity. *Conservation Biology*, **16**,
417 909–923.
- 418 Burns, S.J., Godfrey, L.R., Faina, P., McGee, D., Hardt, B., Ranivoharimanana, L. &
419 Randrianasy, J. (2016) Rapid human-induced landscape transformation in Madagascar
420 at the end of the first millennium of the Common Era. *Quaternary Science Reviews*,
421 **134**, 92 – 99.
- 422 Cornet, A. (1974) Essai de cartographie bioclimatique à Madagascar. , Orstom.
- 423 Cox, M.P., Nelson, M.G., Tumonggor, M.K., Ricaut, F.X. & Sudoyo, H. (2012) A small
424 cohort of Island Southeast Asian women founded Madagascar. *Proceedings of the Royal
425 Society B: Biological Sciences*, **279**, 2761–2768.

- 426 Crottini, A., Madsen, O., Poux, C., Strauß, A., Vieites, D.R. & Vences, M. (2012) Verte-
427 brate time-tree elucidates the biogeographic pattern of a major biotic change around the
428 K–T boundary in Madagascar. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **109**,
429 5358–5363.
- 430 Eklund, J., Blanchet, F.G., Nyman, J., Rocha, R., Virtanen, T. & Cabeza, M. (2016)
431 Contrasting spatial and temporal trends of protected area effectiveness in mitigating
432 deforestation in Madagascar. *Biological Conservation*, **203**, 290 – 297.
- 433 Freudenberger, K. (2010) Paradise Lost? Lessons from 25 years of USAID environment
434 programs in Madagascar. *International Resources Group, Washington DC*.
- 435 Gibson, L., Lynam, A.J., Bradshaw, C.J., He, F., Bickford, D.P., Woodruff, D.S., Bum-
436 rungsri, S. & Laurance, W.F. (2013) Near-complete extinction of native small mammal
437 fauna 25 years after forest fragmentation. *Science*, **341**, 1508–1510.
- 438 Goodman, S.M. & Benstead, J.P. (2005) Updated estimates of biotic diversity and en-
439 demism for Madagascar. *Oryx*, **39**, 73–77.
- 440 Gorenflo, L.J., Corson, C., Chomitz, K.M., Harper, G., Honzák, M. & Özler, B. (2011)
441 *Exploring the Association Between People and Deforestation in Madagascar*, vol. 1650.
442 Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- 443 Grinand, C., Le Maire, G., Vieilledent, G., Razakamanarivo, H., Razafimbelo, T. &
444 Bernoux, M. (2017) Estimating temporal changes in soil carbon stocks at ecoregional
445 scale in Madagascar using remote-sensing. *International Journal of Applied Earth Ob-*
446 *servation and Geoinformation*, **54**, 1–14.
- 447 Grinand, C., Rakotomalala, F., Gond, V., Vaudry, R., Bernoux, M. & Vieilledent, G.
448 (2013) Estimating deforestation in tropical humid and dry forests in Madagascar from
449 2000 to 2010 using multi-date Landsat satellite images and the Random Forests classifier.
450 *Remote Sensing of Environment*, **139**, 68–80.
- 451 Grouzis, M., Razanaka, S., Le Floch, E. & Leprun, J.C. (2001) Évolution de la végétation
452 et de quelques paramètres édaphiques au cours de la phase post-culturale dans la région
453 d’Analabo. *Sociétés paysannes, transitions agraires et dynamiques écologiques dans le*
454 *Sud-Ouest de Madagascar, Antananarivo, IRD/CNRE*, pp. 327–337.
- 455 Hansen, M.C., Potapov, P.V., Moore, R., Hancher, M., Turubanova, S.A., Tyukavina, A.,
456 Thau, D., Stehman, S.V., Goetz, S.J., Loveland, T.R., Kommareddy, A., Egorov, A.,
457 Chini, L., Justice, C.O. & Townshend, J.R.G. (2013) High-Resolution Global Maps of
458 21st-Century Forest Cover Change. *Science*, **342**, 850–853.
- 459 Harper, G.J., Steininger, M.K., Tucker, C.J., Juhn, D. & Hawkins, F. (2007) Fifty years
460 of deforestation and forest fragmentation in Madagascar. *Environmental Conservation*,
461 **34**, 325–333.

- 462 Humbert, H. (1927) La destruction d'une flore insulaire par le feu. Principaux aspects de
463 la végétation à Madagascar. *Mémoires de l'Académie Malgache*, **5**, 1–80.
- 464 Keenan, R.J., Reams, G.A., Achard, F., de Freitas, J.V., Grainger, A. & Lindquist, E.
465 (2015) Dynamics of global forest area: Results from the FAO Global Forest Resources
466 Assessment 2015. *Forest Ecology and Management*, **352**, 9 – 20.
- 467 Kim, D.H., Sexton, J.O., Noojipady, P., Huang, C., Anand, A., Channan, S., Feng, M. &
468 Townshend, J.R. (2014) Global, Landsat-based forest-cover change from 1990 to 2000.
469 *Remote Sensing of Environment*, **155**, 178–193.
- 470 Klein, J. (2002) Deforestation in the Madagascar Highlands – Established ‘truth’ and
471 scientific uncertainty. *GeoJournal*, **56**, 191–199.
- 472 Kull, C.A. (2000) Deforestation, erosion, and fire: degradation myths in the environmental
473 history of Madagascar. *Environment and History*, **6**, 423–450.
- 474 Perrier de La Bâthie, H. (1921) *La végétation malgache*, vol. 23. Musée Colonial.
- 475 MEFT, USAID, and CI (2009) *Evolution de la couverture de forêts naturelles à Madagas-*
476 *car, 1990-2000-2005*.
- 477 Ministère de l'Environnement (1996) IEFN: Inventaire Ecologique Forestier National. Min-
478 istère de l'Environnement de Madagascar, Direction des Eaux et Forêts, DFS Deutsch
479 Forest Service GmbH, Entreprise d'études de développement rural “Mamokatra”, FTM.
- 480 Minten, B., Sander, K. & Stifel, D. (2013) Forest management and economic rents: Evi-
481 dence from the charcoal trade in Madagascar. *Energy for Sustainable Development*, **17**,
482 106 – 115.
- 483 Murcia, C. (1995) Edge effects in fragmented forests: implications for conservation. *Trends*
484 *in Ecology & Evolution*, **10**, 58 – 62.
- 485 Neteler, M. & Mitasova, H. (2008) *Open source GIS: a GRASS GIS approach*. Springer.
- 486 Olander, L.P., Gibbs, H.K., Steininger, M., Swenson, J.J. & Murray, B.C. (2008) Reference
487 scenarios for deforestation and forest degradation in support of REDD: a review of data
488 and methods. *Environmental Research Letters*, **3**, 025011.
- 489 ONE, DGF, FTM, MNP, and CI (2013) *Evolution de la couverture de forêts naturelles à*
490 *Madagascar 2005-2010*.
- 491 ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra (2015) *Changement de la couverture de forêts*
492 *naturelles à Madagascar, 2005-2010-2013*.
- 493 Pearson, R.G. & Raxworthy, C.J. (2009) The evolution of local endemism in Madagascar:
494 watershed versus climatic gradient hypotheses evaluated by null biogeographic models.
495 *Evolution*, **63**, 959–967.

- 496 Pekel, J.F., Cottam, A., Gorelick, N. & Belward, A.S. (2016) High-resolution mapping of
497 global surface water and its long-term changes. *Nature*, **540**, 418–422.
- 498 Ploch, L. & Cook, N. (2012) Madagascar’s Political Crisis.
- 499 Potapov, P., Hansen, M.C., Laestadius, L., Turubanova, S., Yaroshenko, A., Thies, C.,
500 Smith, W., Zhuravleva, I., Komarova, A., Minnemeyer, S. & Esipova, E. (2017) The
501 last frontiers of wilderness: Tracking loss of intact forest landscapes from 2000 to 2013.
502 *Science Advances*, **3**.
- 503 Puyravaud, J.P. (2003) Standardizing the calculation of the annual rate of deforestation.
504 *Forest Ecology and Management*, **177**, 593–596.
- 505 Rakotomala, F., Rabenandrasana, J., Andriambahiny, J., Rajaonson, R., Andriamalala, F.,
506 Burren, C., Rakotoarijaona, J., Parany, B., Vaudry, R., Rakotoniaina, S., Ranaivosoa,
507 R., Rahagalala, P., Randrianary, T. & Grinand, C. (2015) Estimation de la déforestation
508 des forêts humides à Madagascar entre 2005, 2010 et 2013: combinaison multi-date
509 d’images LANDSAT, utilisation de l’algorithme Random Forest et procédure de valida-
510 tion. *Revue Française de Photogrammétrie et de Télédétection*, pp. 11–23.
- 511 Riitters, K., Wickham, J., O’Neill, R., Jones, B. & Smith, E. (2000) Global-scale patterns
512 of forest fragmentation. *Conservation Ecology*, **4**, 3.
- 513 Saatchi, S.S., Harris, N.L., Brown, S., Lefsky, M., Mitchard, E.T.A., Salas, W., Zutta,
514 B.R., Buermann, W., Lewis, S.L., Hagen, S., Petrova, S., White, L., Silman, M. &
515 Morel, A. (2011) Benchmark map of forest carbon stocks in tropical regions across three
516 continents. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **108**, 9899–9904.
- 517 Saunders, D.A., Hobbs, R.J. & Margules, C.R. (1991) Biological Consequences of Ecosys-
518 tem Fragmentation: A Review. *Conservation Biology*, **5**, 18–32.
- 519 Scales, I.R. (2011) Farming at the Forest Frontier: Land Use and Landscape Change in
520 Western Madagascar, 1896-2005. *Environment and History*, **17**, 499–524.
- 521 Smith, R.J., Muir, R.D.J., Walpole, M.J., Balmford, A. & Leader-Williams, N. (2003)
522 Governance and the loss of biodiversity. *Nature*, **426**, 67–70.
- 523 Tidd, S.T., Pinder, J. & Ferguson, G.W. (2001) Deforestation and habitat loss for the
524 Malagasy flat-tailed tortoise from 1963 through 1993. *Chelonian Conservation and Bi-
525 ology*, **4**, 59–65.
- 526 Tropek, R., Sedláček, O., Beck, J., Keil, P., Musilová, Z., Šímová, I. & Storch, D. (2014)
527 Comment on ”High-resolution global maps of 21st-century forest cover change”. *Science*,
528 **344**, 981–981.

- 529 Tyukavina, A., Hansen, M.C., Potapov, P.V., Stehman, S.V., Smith-Rodriguez, K., Okpa,
530 C. & Aguilar, R. (2017) Types and rates of forest disturbance in Brazilian Legal Amazon,
531 2000–2013. *Science Advances*, **3**.
- 532 United Nations (2015) *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision, Key Findings and*
533 *Advance Tables. Working Paper No. ESA/P/WP.241*.
- 534 Verhegghen, A., Eva, H., Desclée, B. & Achard, F. (2016) Review and Combination of Re-
535 cent Remote Sensing Based Products for Forest Cover Change Assessments in Cameroon.
536 *International Forestry Review*, **18**, 14–25.
- 537 Vieilledent, G., Gardi, O., Grinand, C., Burren, C., Andriamanjato, M., Camara, C., Gard-
538 ner, C.J., Glass, L., Rasolohery, A., Rakoto Ratsimba, H., Gond, V. & Rakotoarijaona,
539 J.R. (2016) Bioclimatic envelope models predict a decrease in tropical forest carbon
540 stocks with climate change in Madagascar. *Journal of Ecology*, **104**, 703–715.
- 541 Vieilledent, G., Grinand, C. & Vaudry, R. (2013) Forecasting deforestation and carbon
542 emissions in tropical developing countries facing demographic expansion: a case study
543 in Madagascar. *Ecology and Evolution*, **3**, 1702–1716.
- 544 Virah-Sawmy, M. (2009) Ecosystem management in Madagascar during global change.
545 *Conservation Letters*, **2**, 163–170.
- 546 Vorontsova, M.S., Besnard, G., Forest, F., Malakasi, P., Moat, J., Clayton, W.D., Ficinski,
547 P., Savva, G.M., Nanjarisoa, O.P., Razanatsoa, J., Randriatsara, F.O., Kimeu, J.M.,
548 Luke, W.R.Q., Kayombo, C. & Linder, H.P. (2016) Madagascar’s grasses and grasslands:
549 anthropogenic or natural? *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological*
550 *Sciences*, **283**.

551 9 Tables

Year	Forest (ha)	Unmapped (ha)	Annual defor. (ha/yr)	Rate (%/yr)
1953	15968176	0	-	-
1973	14242592	3316531	86279	0.57
1990	10762442	0	204715	1.63
2000	9879031	0	88341	0.85
2005	9667553	0	42296	0.43
2010	9319851	0	69540	0.73
2014	8925246	0	98651	1.08

Table 1: **Evolution of the forest cover and deforestation rates from 1953 to 2014 in Madagascar.** Forest map for the year 1973 has 3.3 Mha of unclassified areas due to the presence of clouds on satellite images. As a consequence, deforestation rates for the periods 1953-1973 and 1973-1990 are indicative. The two last columns indicate the annual deforested areas and annual deforestation rates on the previous time-period (e.g. 1953-1973 for year 1973, 1973-1990 for year 1990, etc.).

Forest type	Source	1953	1973	1990	2000	2005	2010	2013	2014
Total	Harper2007	15995900	14173100	10605700	8982100	-	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	10650142	9678402	9413218	-	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	9451350	8977337	8485509	-
	this study	15968176	14242592	10762494	9879031	9667553	9319851	9051029	8925246
Moist	Harper2007	8765600	6876000	5234300	4166800	-	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	5270599	4787771	4700430	-	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	4555788	4457184	4345093	-
	this study	8578299	6989942	5270169	4872016	4767876	4633104	4470194	4409842
Dry	Harper2007	4252100	4027700	2711800	2457000	-	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	3320582	3084976	3027505	-	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	3223028	2970192	2678640	-
	this study	4761551	4434871	3224917	2940970	2880819	2734639	2642253	2595621
Spiny	Harper2007	2978200	3029800	2420000	2132200	-	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	2123630	1871735	1756884	-	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	1681527	1558533	1466765	-
	this study	2462830	2582880	2054724	1857628	1810704	1744427	1731308	1712731
Mangroves	Harper2007	-	-	239600	226100	-	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	173564	171220	169877	-
	this study	143412	199853	181226	177708	177492	177149	176890	176718

Table 2: **Comparing our estimates of forest-cover (in ha) for Madagascar with previous studies on the period 1953-2014.** We compared our estimates of forest-cover with the estimates from three previous studies ([Harper *et al.*, 2007](#); [MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009](#); [ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015](#)). We obtained a Pearson’s correlation coefficient of 0.99 between our forest-cover estimates and forest-cover estimates from previous studies. The increase in mangrove and spiny forest covers from *c.* 1953 to *c.* 1973 in [Harper *et al.* \(2007\)](#) and our study is most probably due to differences in forest definition and mapping methods between the 1953 aerial-photography derived map and the 1973 Landsat image derived map.

Forest type	Source	1953-1973	1973-1990	1990-2000	2000-2005	2005-2010	2010-2013
Total	Harper2007	91140 (0.30)	200206 (1.70)	80740 (0.90)	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	97174 (0.83)	53037 (0.53)	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	94803 (1.18)	163943 (1.50)
Moist	this study	86279 (0.57)	204712 (1.63)	88346 (0.85)	42296 (0.43)	69540 (0.73)	89607 (0.97)
	Harper2007	94480 (0.60)	87188 (1.70)	32200 (0.80)	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	48283 (0.79)	17468 (0.35)	-	-
Dry	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	19721 (0.50)	37364 (0.94)
	this study	79418 (1.02)	101163 (1.65)	39815 (0.78)	20828 (0.43)	26954 (0.57)	54303 (1.19)
	Harper2007	11220 (0.20)	77153 (1.90)	19820 (0.70)	-	-	-
Spiny	MEFT2009	-	-	23561 (0.67)	11494 (0.40)	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	50567 (1.80)	97184 (2.29)
	this study	16334 (0.35)	71174 (1.86)	28395 (0.92)	12030 (0.41)	29236 (1.04)	30795 (1.14)
Mangroves	Harper2007	-2580 (-0.10)	35865 (1.20)	28170 (1.20)	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	25190 (1.19)	22970 (1.23)	-	-
	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	24599 (1.69)	30589 (1.66)
Mangroves	this study	-6002 (-0.24)	31068 (1.34)	19710 (1.00)	9385 (0.51)	13255 (0.74)	4373 (0.25)
	Harper2007	-	-	550 (0.20)	-	-	-
	MEFT2009	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mangroves	ONE2015	-	-	-	-	469 (0.32)	448 (0.20)
	this study	-2822 (-1.67)	1096 (0.57)	352 (0.20)	43 (0.02)	69 (0.04)	86 (0.05)

Table 3: **Comparing our estimates of annual deforestation rates for Madagascar with previous studies on the period 1953-2014.** Annual deforestation areas (in ha/yr) and annual deforestation rates (second number in parenthesis, in %/yr) are provided. For deforestation rates in %/yr, exact same numbers as in scientific articles and reports from previous studies (Harper *et al.*, 2007; MEFT, USAID, and CI, 2009; ONE, DGF, MNP, WCS, and Etc Terra, 2015) have been reported. The way annual deforestation rates in %/yr have been computed in these previous studies can slightly differ from one study to another, but estimates always correct for the potential presences of clouds on satellite images and unclassified areas on forest maps. Annual deforested areas in ha/yr have been recomputed from forest-cover estimates in Tab. 2 (except for Harper *et al.* (2007) for the periods 1973-1990 and 1990-2000 for which annual deforested areas in ha/yr were derived from numbers reported in the original publication, see methods) and do not correct for the potential presence of clouds.

Year	Forest (ha)	patch (%)	transitional (%)	edge (%)	perforated (%)	interior (%)	NA (%)
1953	15962870	0.01	1.12	4.46	0.58	93.83	0.00
1973	14228217	2.21	7.25	19.81	2.86	67.87	0.01
1990	10749572	3.00	8.17	21.28	3.81	63.73	0.01
2000	9866145	3.09	8.37	22.13	3.92	62.49	0.01
2005	9659861	3.51	8.88	22.56	6.44	58.59	0.02
2010	9306528	4.28	9.72	22.94	8.52	54.52	0.02
2014	8911481	5.18	10.72	23.25	10.58	50.24	0.03

Table 4: **Evolution of the forest fragmentation from 1953 to 2014 in Madagascar.**

Six categories of fragmentation were identified from the amount of forest and its occurrence as adjacent forest pixels: “interior”, “perforated”, “edge”, “transitional”, “patch”, and “undetermined” (Riitters *et al.*, 2000). We used a moving window of 7x7 pixels (4.4 ha). Using this window size, forest edge had a width of about 90 m. The “interior” category can be interpreted as the most intact forest. The “patch” and “transitional” categories correspond to isolated small forest patches.

552 **10 Figures**

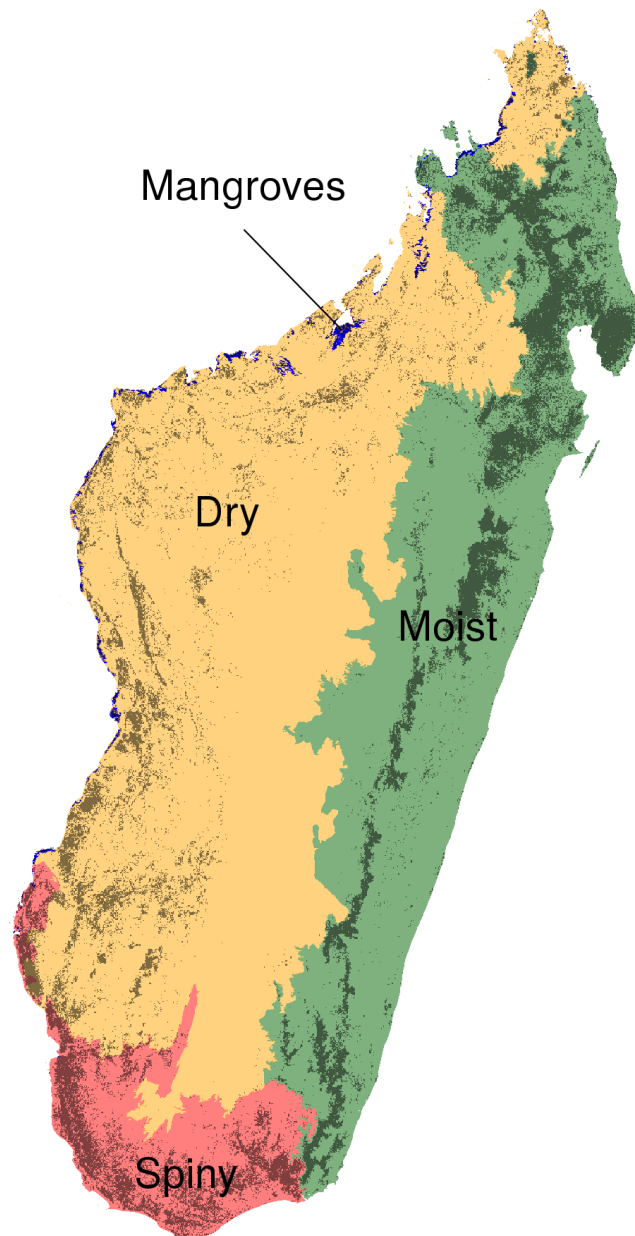


Figure 1: **Ecoregions and forest types in Madagascar.** Madagascar can be divided into four climatic ecoregions with four forest types: the moist forest in the East (green), the dry forest in the West (orange), the spiny forest in the South (red), and the mangroves on the West coast (blue). Ecoregions were defined following climatic (Cornet, 1974) and vegetation (Ministère de l'Environnement, 1996) criteria. The dark grey areas represent the remaining natural forest cover for the year 2014.

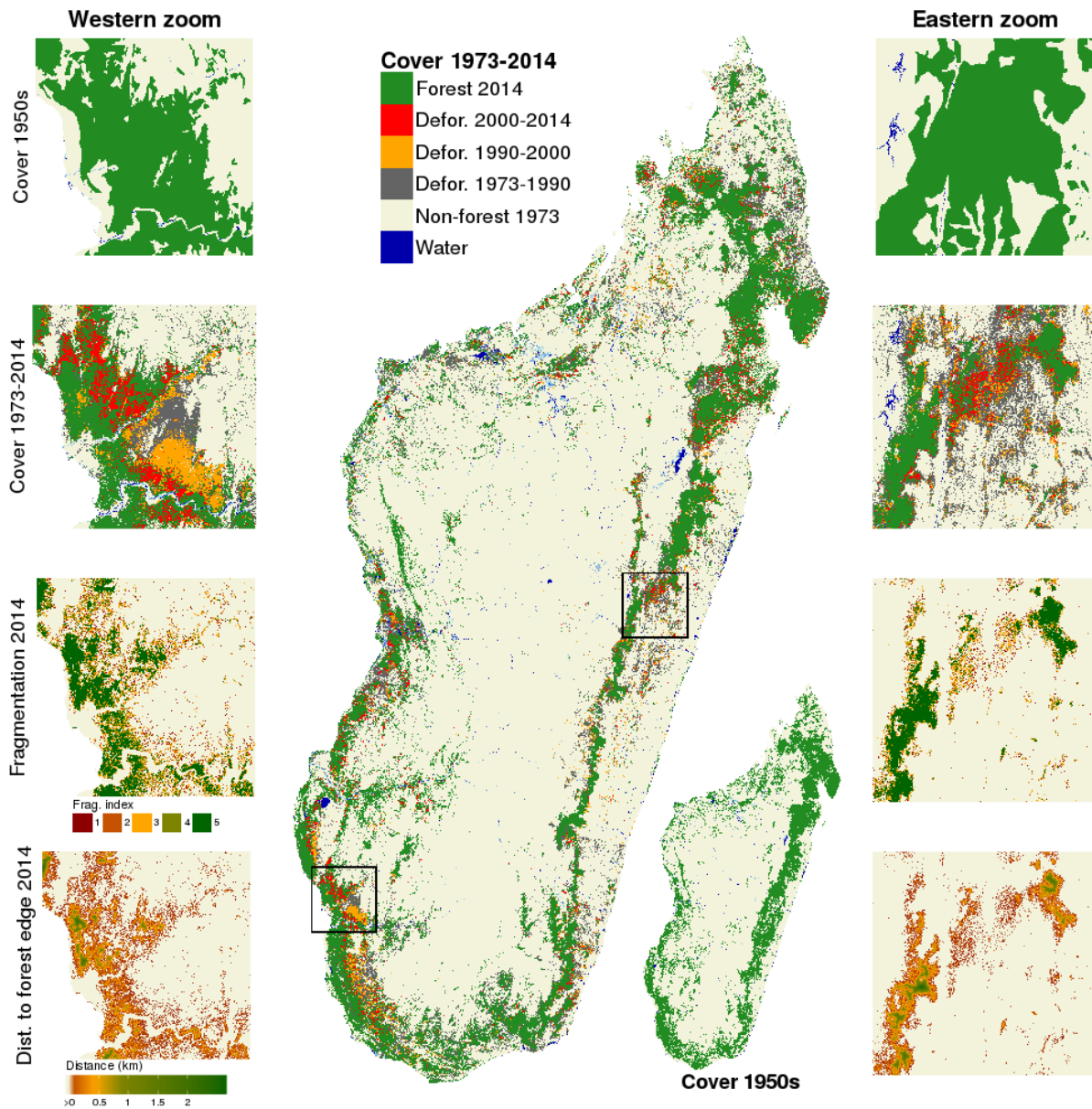


Figure 2: **Forest-cover change on six decades from 1953 to 2014 in Madagascar.** Forest cover changes from *c.* 1973 to 2014 are shown in the main figure, and forest cover in *c.* 1953 is shown in the bottom-right inset. Two zooms in the western dry (left part) and eastern moist (right part) ecoregions present more detailed views of (from top to bottom): forest-cover in 1950s, forest-cover change from *c.* 1973 to 2014, forest fragmentation in 2014 and distance to forest edge in 2014. Data on water bodies (blue) and water seasonality (light blue for seasonal water to dark blue for permanent water) has been extracted from [Pekel *et al.* \(2016\)](#).

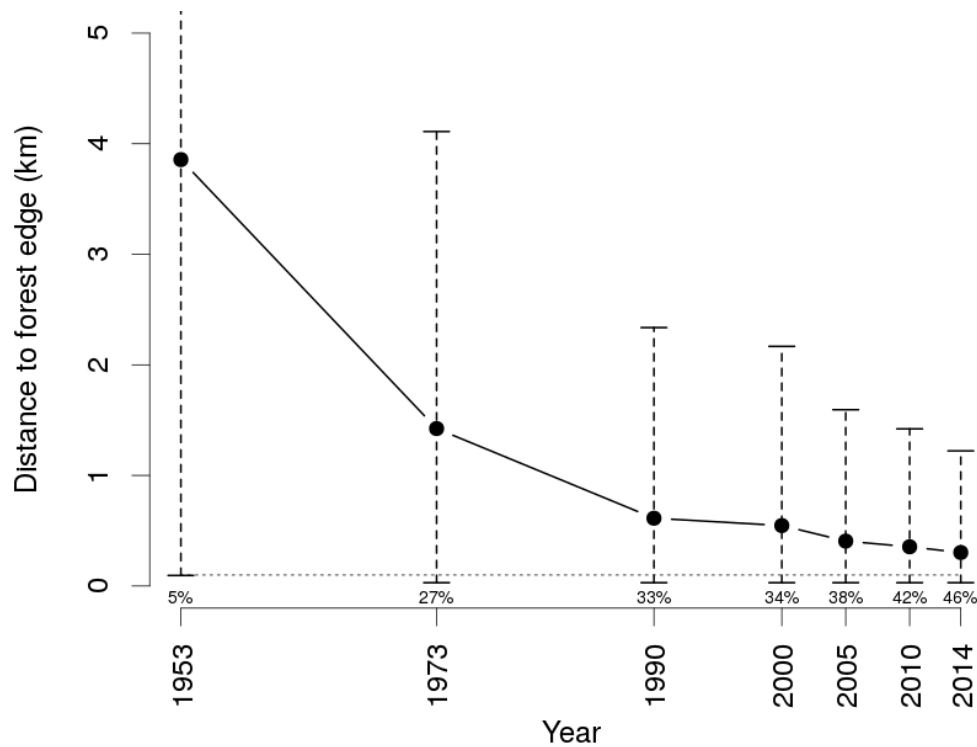


Figure 3: **Evolution of the distance to forest edge from 1953 to 2014 in Madagascar.** Black dots represent the mean distance to forest edge for each year. Vertical dashed segments represent the 90% quantiles (5% and 95%) of the distance to forest edge. Horizontal dashed grey line indicates a distance to forest edge of 100 m. Percentages indicate the percentage of forest at a distance to forest edge lower than 100 m for each year.