

1 **DEFINING THE ALLOMETRY OF STEM AND CROWN DIAMETER OF URBAN TREES**

2 **ABSTRACT**

3 There is a strong allometric relationship between stem diameter at breast height (DBH) and crown
4 diameter in healthy trees in the young to mature stages of their growth. How do geographical position,
5 site conditions and management treatments influence this relationship?

6 This study included only free-standing urban trees, thus providing data on the growth potential of the
7 species included in the survey in typical urban conditions by linking this with estimated tree age.

8 Field work involved recording the dimensions and growing conditions of 400 urban trees in two UK
9 cities; Norwich and Peterborough. Species selected for this study were pedunculate oak (*Quercus*
10 *robur* L.), sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus* L.), silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.) and Norway maple
11 (*Acer platanoides* L.).

12 The mean relationship between DBH and crown diameter exhibited a restricted range (a ratio of 24
13 to 27) in this large sample. The results indicated that the factor of species did not have a strong impact
14 on the allometric relationship in the case of the four species measured. It is therefore possible to
15 produce good predictions of crown size by combining data from all the species used in this survey.

16 A key finding of this study is that previous tree pruning and external site factors, such as hard
17 surfacing over the rooting area and soil type, had no significant influence on the relationship between
18 DBH and crown diameter.

19

20 **Key words**

21 Allometry, crown spread, stem girth, mensuration, urban forestry

22 **Funding**

23 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial or
24 not-for-profit sectors.

25 **Introduction**

26 This study focuses on the allometric relationship between DBH and crown diameter. The ability to
27 predict crown diameter from DBH and *vice versa* has a wide range of applications in arboriculture
28 and urban forestry, especially the ability to manage trees to enhance their crown diameter and hence
29 overall canopy cover in urban areas.

30 Urban trees provide many beneficial ecosystem services and if measurements of DBH can be
31 confidently used to calculate crown diameter, better estimates of ecosystem services provided by
32 urban trees could be made from more easily collected data. It is important to recognise that most of
33 the ecosystem services provided by urban trees are directly related to their crown dimensions. The
34 following examples demonstrate the relevance of canopy size to the magnitude of the benefits gained
35 from urban trees. The larger crowns of open grown urban trees sequester more carbon than typical

36 woodland trees (Nowak & Crane 2002). Trees also provide important shading and cooling, for
37 example, research by Shasua-Bar et al (2008) in Tel Aviv, Israel found a strong link between canopy
38 size and mitigation of the urban heat island effect. Additionally, surface water runoff from hard
39 surfaces, which leads to flooding in urban areas, can be mitigated by trees and the amount of
40 mitigation is directly related to the extent of canopy cover provided (Armson et al. 2013). As a final
41 example, trees can contribute towards improving air quality, with increased canopy cover providing
42 greater mitigation from air pollution (Nowak, 2006).

43 A better understanding of crown spread over time would also aid the management of trees in relation
44 to urban development. For example, development of crown spread and branch extension can cause
45 legal nuisances in the urban environment (Lyytimaki et al. 2008; Lyytimaki and Sipila 2009), e.g.
46 where branches come into contact with adjacent property (Mynors, 2011). A better knowledge and
47 application of tree growth patterns could help reduce instances of this form of nuisance and thus
48 reduce the need for tree pruning. Furthermore, where trees are found within a proposed development
49 site, the ability to predict crown diameter has applications both at the pre-development survey stage,
50 by allowing quick estimates of crown spread from DBH measurements, and also at the design stage
51 if reliable predictive equations for ultimate crown diameters can be formulated to allow better
52 placement and retention of trees within developments.

53 Knowledge of tree crown development has the potential to reduce tree numbers used in some urban
54 planting schemes. Smaller numbers of successful tree plantings in positions that will not necessitate
55 frequent pruning or thinning could provide substantial economic benefits in terms of reducing the
56 costs of tree planting, maintenance and intervention. Avoiding wounding trees via pruning processes
57 because they are well-placed would also promote greater longevity in urban trees. Focusing resources
58 onto smaller numbers of young trees should help ensure that funds are available for ongoing and
59 careful maintenance through to establishment in the landscape.

60 There has been increasing interest in this relationship between DBH and crown spread in urban trees
61 from arboriculturists and urban foresters in the last twenty years, particularly with the increased
62 availability of tree population data (Nowak et al., 2018). The interest in calculating the ecosystem
63 services provided by urban tree stocks has also been a driver in this respect (Troxel, 2013).
64 Researchers have approached the study of the allometric relationship in different ways, undertaking
65 small detailed studies and wider studies based on mass tree population data. Peper et al. (2001) carried
66 out a small-scale study sampling fifteen species of street trees and 480 individual trees in California,
67 to produce equations for predicting tree dimensions including DBH and crown diameter. Three recent
68 large-scale studies have also been published. First, Pretzsch et al. (2015) conducted a large,
69 worldwide study which attempted to match results against allometric theory. Second, McPherson et
70 al. (2016) produced an extensive urban tree database in the USA, providing predictive allometric
71 equations covering a range of climate zones. Third, Vaz Monteiro et al. (2016) analysed the i-Tree
72 data for eight British cities to compare this allometric relationship in seven tree species. The resultant
73 analysis found significant variation between these regional centres, but the cause(s) of this variation
74 was not determined.

75 The small-scale study presented here is designed to improve predictions by exploring the extent of
76 variation of the allometric relationship between DBH and crown diameter between sites and assess
77 the impact of urban site factors, which is one of the key areas of divergence in the literature. Dawkins
78 (1963) noted that the relationship was little affected by site, tree age and silvicultural treatments. This
79 finding has been corroborated by other researchers (Krajicek et al. 1957; Hummel 2000; Stoffberg et
80 al. 2008; Blanchard et al. 2016). Furthermore, Hasenauer (1997) found site factors little affected
81 regression analyses in a study of open grown trees. However, this contrasts with findings from more

82 recent studies that reported significant regional variations (Urban et al. 2010; Lines et al. 2012; Vaz
83 Monteiro et al. 2016).

84 This study also attempts to examine the trees' age in relation to crown diameter. Recent studies of
85 growth rates of urban trees include the work of Vaz Monteiro et al. (2017) which examined trees in
86 five UK cities, including Peterborough; however, the conditions of this study was not directly
87 comparable, with the data collected for our study.

88 The three primary aims of our research were as follows. First, to define the allometric relationship
89 between DBH and crown diameter in free-standing urban trees of four common species. Second, to
90 explore the impact of geographic and site factors on this allometric relationship. Third, to provide a
91 guide to ultimate growth potential for two of the species included in the study where current growth
92 rates were measured to estimate tree age for a given DBH.

93 **Materials and methods**

94 *Data collection*

95 This study surveyed only free-standing urban trees, which included street trees and trees in city parks
96 or other urban green space. All data were collected within the boundaries of two selected cities:
97 Norwich and Peterborough, UK (Figure 1), with Peterborough being situated 124 kilometres west of
98 Norwich. A wide range of age classes were sampled from recently established young trees to large
99 mature specimens.

100 *Insert Figure 1 near here*

101 An initial pilot study in 2013 measured 100 trees in Norwich. The trees measured in the pilot study
102 in Norwich included 50 oak and 50 sycamore. Further to this, 400 free-standing urban trees were
103 surveyed in 2016-17, including re-surveying all 100 trees used in the pilot study. The four tree species
104 measured for the main study were pedunculate oak (*Quercus robur* L.), silver birch (*Betula pendula*
105 Roth.), sycamore (*Acer pseudoplatanus* L.) and Norway maple (*Acer platanoides* L.). The main study
106 was completed in the winter 2016/2017, surveying 200 trees in Peterborough and 200 trees in
107 Norwich.

108 The two cities selected for the study have very similar climates as reported in Table 1, which shows
109 ten-year averages for maximum and minimum temperatures, hours of sunshine, amount of rainfall
110 and daily rainfall in both areas (Met Office 2017).

111 *Insert Table 1 near here*

112 Both cities are at a low elevation; Norwich is 19 m and Peterborough only 12 m above sea level
113 (Ordnance Survey 2017). The main difference between the two cities is that soils in Peterborough are
114 largely composed of clay, as opposed to the predominately sandy soils found in Norwich (Williamson
115 2006).

116 *Insert Table 2 near here*

117 Table 2 shows the distribution of the samples between the two cities and the site conditions including
118 street trees, city parks and other urban green spaces. Other green spaces included areas such as traffic
119 islands, wide verges and small recreation grounds. The inclusion of trees growing in green space and

120 street trees with varying amounts of hard surfacing was fundamental to the exploration of the impact
121 these factors had on the allometric relationship being assessed. Only free-standing trees were
122 sampled. Pre-selected areas of the two cities were systematically searched for free standing trees of
123 the target species. Where suitable trees were located, all were measured to avoid selection bias. The
124 Ordnance Survey (OS) grid reference of each tree was recorded. Only trees where accurate crown
125 dimensions could be collected were included, for example, street trees where part of the crowns
126 overhung private property were excluded.

127 The measurement of DBH and crown diameter were based on the method used by Hemrey et al.
128 (2005). The DBH was measured with a centimetre diameter tape at 1.3 metres above ground level.
129 The crown diameter was calculated by measuring the radial branch spread at the four cardinal
130 compass points. These radial measurements were then added together and divided by two to calculate
131 an average crown diameter (Figure 2).

132 *Insert Figure 2 near here*

133 Work by Ayhan (1974) has established that taking four radial measurements provides the same level
134 of accuracy as more complicated systems involving multiple measurements of crown diameter. The
135 radial crown diameters were measured with a steel tape. The end of the tape was secured directly onto
136 the stem at each compass bearing at 1.3 m and the distance to the edge of the crown was then
137 measured. An allowance of half the stem's diameter was added to each radial measurement to give a
138 true representation of the radial spread from the centre of the tree's stem. The extent of the crown
139 was measured using a Suunto clinometer following the methodology of Hemery et al. (2005). This
140 instrument has a scale up to 90° and allows the edge of the branches to be sighted accurately looking
141 through the eye piece of the instrument directly upwards to fix the maximum extent of the crown.
142 This method was tested and proved to be repeatable with only a 100 mm variation.

143 The height and crown depth of the trees were established using a laser hypsometer. Height was
144 measured from ground level to the tip of the tree and crown depth was calculated by deducting
145 clearance height from the total crown height.

146 An estimate of the life stage of each tree surveyed was made based on the following criteria: i) young
147 - newly established trees, ii) semi mature – well established trees in the first quarter of their life
148 expectancy, iii) early mature – trees approaching maturity and in the second quarter of their life
149 expectancy, iv) mature - trees in the third quarter of their life expectancy.

150
151 Dead or senescent trees, along with trees showing extensive crown die back were excluded from the
152 survey. Cultivated varieties often have an untypical crown form: while pedunculate oak and sycamore
153 are normally planted as type trees, there are many cultivars of both silver birch and Norway maple in
154 common use in the UK. For this reason, as far as was practicable, cultivated varieties were also
155 excluded from the survey. A visual assessment of the crown form was made, for example excluding
156 the common cultivar of silver birch *Betula pendula* 'Tristis' with its exaggerated weeping form,
157 common in both cities. Google Street View was used to confirm the colour of the summer foliage of
158 street trees surveyed to exclude purple foliated varieties, particularly of Norway maple. Double
159 stemmed or multi-stemmed trees, newly pollarded or topped trees were also excluded.

160 Previous pruning activity was recorded in two ways. First, a visual estimate of the time since the last
161 pruning as evidenced by the condition of pruning cuts and the extent of wound occlusion was recorded
162 (Clark and Matheny 2010). The three categories recorded were: i) no pruning evident, ii) pruning

163 carried out within the last five years, and iii) pruning carried out between five and ten years ago.
164 Second, the type of pruning was also noted using four categories: i) no pruning, ii) crown lifted, iii)
165 other pruning (e.g. crown reduction or crown thinning), and iv) combinational pruning (e.g. a crown
166 lift combined with either crown reduction or crown thinning).

167 The percentage of hard standing that covered the ground within the crown area of the trees was
168 estimated. These estimates ranged from 0% (no hard surfaces present) to 100% (all of the area under
169 the tree's canopy was completely covered with a hard surface).

170 Soils in urban areas are often adulterated and potentially restrictive of root growth. It was not
171 practicable, however, to carry out individual soil assessments for the four hundred trees surveyed,
172 which is a limitation of this study. The generic soil type was added to the data as a desk study
173 recording the superficial deposits for each tree position located on the 'Geology of Britain Viewer'
174 website (British Geological Survey 2017). Recorded deposits were allocated to one of three categories
175 as follows: i) sand and sandy loam, ii) clay and clay loam, and iii) mixed (sand, clay and silt).

176 *Tree age calculation*

177 Verifiable tree planting dates were unavailable, and it was not possible to take core samples or use a
178 micro drill to produce estimates for tree age. Therefore, the 50 pedunculate oak and 50 sycamore that
179 were sampled in 2013 in Norwich were re-measured to assess the annual growth increment and this
180 data were used to produce an estimated age of all the oak and sycamore in the survey. With regard to
181 annual growth increment for silver birch and Norway maple, as these species were not included in
182 the pilot study it was not possible to predict their crown diameter for a given age. However, the data
183 collected on these two species were used for all the other aspects of the study.

184 *Data analysis*

185 The first step in the analysis was to produce scatter plots of DBH versus crown diameter with a best
186 fit line to gauge which regression method might be appropriate. Linear and quadratic regressions were
187 produced to provide equations for data collected in each of the two cities and for each of the four
188 species surveyed. Only the quadratic regressions are presented in this paper as, overall, the quadratic
189 regression produced the higher adjusted R^2 value.

190 A model was fitted using interaction terms to test for between-species differences in the allometric
191 relationship between DBH and crown diameter. This showed generally small differences and
192 therefore the data for the four species were combined to provide a better powered analysis, and to
193 enable investigation of site factors and to work towards a general formula for predicting the allometric
194 relationship. As part of combining the data, a regression of crown diameter versus DBH was produced
195 showing each city's data separately to check for geographical differences. The importance of species
196 to the allometric relationship was investigated using interval plots.

197 The accuracy of the regression equations produced using the combined data was tested by allocating
198 random numbers to the data to split the data in half, and then using the first two hundred trees (Dataset
199 A) to predict the crown diameters of the second two hundred trees (Dataset B).

200 While the focus of this study was on the allometric relationship between DBH and crown diameter;
201 regressions were also produced to examine the relationship between crown diameter versus tree
202 height and crown diameter versus crown depth.

203 A quadratic regression based on the ratio of crown diameter/DBH versus DBH was also produced.
204 To establish if this method produced similar predictions to the equations derived from the analysis of
205 the crown diameter, the data was randomised splitting it into datasets A1 and B1 and using the
206 equation derived from A1 to predict B1. The predictions for this method and the method used for
207 Datasets A & B were then compared.

208 Multiple regression was used to investigate the impact of physiological and site factors. All analyses
209 were conducted in Minitab v.17. The multiple regression produced included the Variation Inflation
210 Factor (VIF) as a measure of collinearity. The ratio of crown diameter/DBH versus DBH for the
211 combined data was used instead of crown diameter versus DBH as an additional analytical technique
212 to help assess the impact of site factors.

213 An assessment of growth increment was made based on the re-measurement of the 100 trees in
214 Norwich measured in 2013 (50 oak and 50 sycamore). The estimated increment value was divided
215 by the value for DBH to produce an estimate of tree age for the two species surveyed. For oak and
216 sycamore, a regression of estimated age versus crown diameter was produced and this provided an
217 equation for predicting crown diameter for trees of a given age. This prediction was applied to all
218 the data for these two species and used to produce a table of predicted crown diameters for trees of a
219 given age and DBH.

220 **Results**

221 *Allometric modelling*

222 Regression equations for crown diameter based on DBH for all four species are shown in Table 3. the
223 individual quadratic regressions produced for all four species examined are appended. The similarity
224 of the equations and regressions from two separate tree stocks in terms of their DBH and crown
225 diameter ratios is evident, particularly in the case of oak and sycamore. A model was fitted using
226 interaction terms to test for between-species differences in the allometric relationship between DBH
227 and crown diameter. This showed generally small differences and therefore data for the four species
228 were combined.

229 *Insert Table 3 near here*

230 The combined quadratic regression showing crown diameter versus DBH for all four species (Figure
231 3) was statistically significant and had an adjusted R^2 value of 0.82. Data from the four species
232 combined conformed well to the regression line ($p < 0.001$).

233 *Insert Figure 3 near here*

234 The data were combined in a regression of the ratio of crown diameter/DBH versus DBH as shown
235 in Figure 4. This produced a significant range of higher ratios in smaller trees from 0.05 to 0.5 m
236 DBH. The regression shows gradual stabilisation of the ratio with increased stem growth towards a
237 ratio of around 1:25. This result suggests this ratio may be typical for open-grown urban broadleaf
238 trees of these four species where their crowns have been unfettered throughout their early
239 development.

240 *Insert Figure 4 near here*

241 The interval plot produced for species versus the ratio of crown diameter/DBH is shown in Figure 5.
242 This shows that the mean ratio for all four species lay between 1:24 and 1:27.

243 *Insert Figure 5 near here*

244 The results of testing the predictive ability of the regression equations using the randomised combined
245 data, for DBH versus crown diameter and the randomised ratio of crown diameter/DBH versus DBH
246 produced statistically significant results with a p-value of <0.001. The root mean squared errors
247 represented 1.5 metres and 2.5 metres respectively.

248 *Multiple regression*

249 The regressions produced for tree height and crown depth versus crown diameter highlighted that
250 both had a relationship with crown diameter. This was confirmed in an initial multiple regression
251 where these two elements had VIF factors of 13.8 and 9.8 respectively. Height and crown depth were
252 therefore excluded from the multiple regression presented in Table 4 to allow the effect of the site
253 factors to be examined.

254 *Insert Table 4 near here*

255 The multiple regression shown in Table 4 demonstrates that species and age class were statistically
256 significant predictors of crown diameter from DBH. While the hard-standing around a tree was shown
257 as statistically significant, the p-value is much closer to 0.05, implying a weaker relationship. Other
258 site factors were not statistically significant when included in the model.

259 Comparing the predicted canopy size for a tree with a DBH of 0.50 m produced using the quadratic
260 regression equation presented in Figure 3 versus the predicted value produced using the multiple
261 regression equation in Table 4 gave a difference of only 0.12 m in canopy size, suggesting that the
262 site factors included in the multiple regression model had only a weak effect on the predicted crown
263 diameter.

264 *Relationship between canopy diameter and tree age*

265 The re-measurement of oak and sycamore in Norwich found average annual diameter increments of
266 7 mm and 9.5 mm respectively. One of the aims of this study was to provide a measure of ultimate
267 growth potential at a given age for these two species. Table 5 presents the equations for calculating
268 crown diameter for trees of a given age for oak and sycamore. The equations provided here represent
269 what must be regarded as estimations and there will be a degree of variation from the calculated figure
270 when any one tree is assessed.

271 *Insert Table 5 near here*

272 Table 6 provides predictions of DBH and crown diameter for a given age for free-standing urban trees
273 for two of the four species surveyed, based upon the sample means from our study.

274 *Insert Table 6 near here*

275 **Discussion**

276 The choice of statistical techniques to provide predictions of crown diameter from DBH and vice
277 versa differs widely in the literature. In this study, overall quadratic regressions produced a higher
278 adjusted R^2 value than linear regressions. However, the non-linear nature of quadratic regression lines
279 means their use for making predictions outside the range of the data presented here is cautioned
280 against.

281 As first noted by Hemery et al. (2005), in a study of forest trees, the relationship between the DBH
282 and crown diameter is close to linear up to 0.5 m stem diameter. The results of our study indicate that
283 this also applies to urban trees with unfettered crowns.

284 The research trend in this subject is to use ever more sophisticated statistical models to produce results
285 that explain the coefficient of variation in terms of R^2 (McPherson et al. 2016). The predictive strength
286 is often little better than what was achieved in earlier work, for example Duchaufour (1903) working
287 with forest grown beech produced a linear regression for DBH versus crown diameter with an R^2 of
288 0.92. The body of work that has been undertaken in this field demonstrates that there is a very strong
289 relationship between these two dimensions for most tree species and in a wide range of site conditions
290 worldwide. The findings of this study suggest that general, non-species specific regression equations
291 could provide acceptable accuracy for many purposes (Krajicek et al. 1957; Gering and May 1995;
292 O'Brien et al. 1995; Hemrey 2005).

293 The key finding of this study and one that has not featured widely in the literature is that, in this
294 sample at least, site factors had a very limited impact on the allometric relationship between DBH
295 and crown diameter. For example, pruning was found not have a statistically significant impact on
296 the relationship; however, it should be noted that pollarded and topped trees were excluded from the
297 study. Other researchers have found pruning a problem in the formulation of regression equations e.g.
298 Peper et al. (2001a and 2001b), but in an earlier paper Peper (1998) also concluded that light pruning
299 had no impact on this allometric relationship. Given that just over half the trees in this survey had
300 been crown lifted the limited impact is perhaps surprising. Crown lifting, by definition, removes lower
301 branches which are potentially suppressed and subject to the apical dominance of the upper crown
302 (Rahman et al. 2014), which could also explain this result.

303 Hard standing and impermeable surfaces within the crown spread of the trees was also found to have
304 a very limited effect on the allometric relationship. In an urban tree growth study, Quigley (2004)
305 found the growth of early successional species such as oak and silver birch were little affected by
306 hard surfacing which, to an extent, supports our finding.

307 While detailed soil analysis was not possible, there appeared to be no statistically significant
308 difference in the allometry of the trees sampled due to local soil types, including the sandy soils of
309 Norwich and heavy clays of Peterborough.

310 Our study shows minimal variation in the relationship between crown diameter and DBH in the two
311 locations surveyed. However, in other situations, researchers have reported geographical variation
312 (Urban et al. 2010; Lines et al. 2012; Montallebi and Kangor 2016; Vaz Monteiro et al. 2016). It is
313 accepted that these studies are not directly comparable. Some studies where regional variation in the
314 DBH to crown diameter relationship has been reported, have examined more extreme changes in
315 altitude and climatic zones (Korhonen and Heikkinen 2009; Lines et al. 2012; McPherson et al. 2016).
316 For example, the extensive study completed by McPherson et al. (2016) covered sixteen climatic
317 zones. In contrast, there were only minor differences between the climate and altitude in the two
318 locations included in our project, which may explain the similarity of the results. However, Vaz
319 Monteiro et al. (2016) found variations in DBH versus crown diameter relationships between Luton

320 and London (54 kilometres apart) and Glasgow and Edinburgh (74 kilometres apart). These are closer
321 than the distance from Norwich and Peterborough.

322 All the figures presented in this study relate to free-standing urban trees. From the literature it is
323 sometimes difficult to distinguish between studies of general tree populations and open grown
324 specimens. The concentration on free standing trees in this study is important in that it allowed a
325 measure of ultimate crown spread.

326 Arboriculturists need to work with and have a good understanding of tree development over time.
327 The attempt in this study to link DBH to crown diameter predictions and to the age of the trees is
328 unusual in this field. The growth rate estimates used compare well with other published figures. For
329 example, White (1988) suggests that, mature oak continue steady growth to around 100 years with an
330 annual DBH increment of 6 mm and sycamore to 60 years with an annual increment of 12 mm. Both
331 figures are roughly comparable with the growth increments reported here (7 mm for average growth
332 for mature oak and 9.5 mm for sycamore). The key finding of Vaz Monterio et al. (2017) was that
333 tree growth rates varied significantly across the regions sampled; however, this study was confined
334 to trees growing in green space and therefore is not directly comparable. In the urban forest, local site
335 characteristics are often a more important factor (Sanders 2013). Our results showed significant
336 localised variation in growth rates in the samples re-measured. It is important to distinguish growth
337 rates from the allometric relationship between DBH and crown diameter which, based on our sample,
338 remained stable regardless of the growth rates (Berlyn 1962). The corroboration of the estimate of
339 annual growth by the literature provides a firm base for the calculation of age in relation to DBH, by
340 dividing DBH by the appropriate annual increment.

341 Providing predictive data in tables has not been widely used other than when associated with studies
342 of free-standing trees (Jobling and Pearce 1997; Frelich 1992; Lukaszkiwicz and Kosmala 2008).
343 This approach provides a useful way of disseminating the results of predictive equations to a wider
344 audience. However, any expanded working model would need to present not just tables but also the
345 supporting equations, as the equations are needed to facilitate computer modelling for tree
346 management purposes.

347 *Limitations of the study and avenues for further research*

348 The results presented apply specifically to free-standing urban trees and no attempt has been made to
349 extend the study to explore the effects of crown competition. However, the focus on open grown trees
350 does provide a measure of the growth potential of the species included. It also provides comparative
351 data on which to base further studies of the DBH versus crown diameter relationships of trees with
352 competing crowns (Pretzsch et al. 2015).

353 A further limitation is that no definitive planting dates were available for the population of trees
354 surveyed. While the estimates of growth increment and age compare well with other published data,
355 basing the calculations on known planting dates would have provided a firmer basis for the
356 predictions of crown diameter for a tree of a given age. In addition, a detailed comparison of soil
357 qualities for the individual tree positions may have given insight into differences in tree growth rate
358 and tree form.

359

360

361 **Conclusions**

362 The relationship between DBH and crown diameter for both cities was very similar, which suggests
363 that geographical location alone may not be significant in the UK context, although further studies
364 may find differences when surveying in locations with greater environmental differences. In the
365 context of our survey the results demonstrate that the allometric relationship between DBH and crown
366 diameter was not strongly linked to species (for the four species studied). The exploration of other
367 allometric relationships found that tree height and crown depth also have a significant relationship
368 with crown diameter, but with significantly lower coefficients of determination than for DBH.

369 The influence of site factors including the extent of pruning, hard standing around the tree, and soil
370 type did not significantly affect the allometric relationship for the 400 trees surveyed in this study.

371 There is a strong underlying allometric relationship between DBH and crown diameter and, based on
372 the findings of this study, this appears to transcend common external influences that may disrupt tree
373 growth. There is also a degree of variation that cannot be explained by geographical location, site
374 factors or past management. If more accurate predictions are sought, it may be necessary to research
375 other factors, especially variation in tree form that may relate to plant genetics. There are also many
376 other urban site factors not included in this study, for example the effects of air pollution, restricted
377 rooting environments, relative exposure to wind, soil drainage and soil compaction.

378 Predictive equations have been produced by many authors over an extended period. They have
379 received limited attention outside academia, other than their use in software calculating ecosystem
380 services provided by trees such as i-Tree. The body of research on this topic needs to be collated and
381 rationalized producing generalized equations for urban tree populations that will be of immediate use
382 to practitioners. The use of the ratio of DBH to crown diameter in this paper illustrates the value of a
383 simple multiplier that would be useful for practitioners in the field. Results presented in Table 6, and
384 the corresponding models may be useful to a wider audience, particularly those concerned with urban
385 tree management.

386

387 **Acknowledgements**

388

389 The authors would like to thank the following for their help and support in the preparation of this
390 paper: Dr Emma Coombes and Professor Andy Jones of the University of East Anglia; Jonathan
391 Bundock, Robert Green, and Gavin Robbie of A.T. Coombes Associates Ltd and Kit Hardy.

392

393 **References**

394

395 Armson, D., Stringer, P. and Ennos, A.R., 2013. The effect of street trees and amenity grass on
396 urban surface water runoff in Manchester, UK. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 12(3), pp.282-
397 286.

398

399 Ayhan, H.O. (1974) 'Crown diameter: DBH relations in Scots pine'. *Arbor*, 5 (4), pp. 15–25.

400

- 401 Berlyn, G.P. (1962) 'Some size and shape relationships between tree stems and crowns.' *Iowa State*
 402 *Journal of Science*, 37, pp. 7–15.
 403
- 404
 405 British Geological Survey (2017) *Geology of Britain Viewer*. Accessed 03/04/17
 406 via <http://mapapps.bgs.ac.uk/geologyofbritain/home.html>
 407
- 408 Clark, J. R. and Matheny, N. (2010) 'The research foundation to tree pruning: A review of the
 409 literature'. *Arboriculture and Urban Forestry*, 36 (3), pp.110-120.
- 410
 411 Dawkins, H.C. (1963) 'Crown Diameters: Their Relation to Bole Diameter in Tropical Forest Trees'.
 412 *The Commonwealth Forestry Review*, 42 (4), pp. 318-333.
 413
- 414 Duchaufour, A. (1903) 'L'aménagement de la Forêt de Compiègne'. *Revue Eaux et Forêt*, 42, pp.
 415 65–78.
- 416
 417 Frelich, L. E. (1992) *Predicting dimensional relationships for Twin Cities shade trees*.
- 418
 419 Gering, L.R. and May, D.M. (1995) 'The Relationship of Diameter at Breast Height and Crown
 420 Diameter for Four Species Groups in Hardin County, Tennessee'. *Southern Journal of Applied*
 421 *Forestry*, 19 (4), pp. 177-181.
 422
- 423 Hein, S. Collet, C. Ammer, C. Le Goff, N., Skovsgaard, J. P. and Savill, P. (2009)
 424 'A review of growth and stand dynamics of *Acer pseudoplatanus* L. in Europe: implications
 425 for silviculture'. *Forestry*, 82 (4), pp. 361-385.
 426
- 427 Hemery, G.E. Savill, P.S. Pryor, S.N. (2005) 'Applications of the crown diameter–stem diameter
 428 relationship for different species of broadleaved trees.' *Forest Ecology and Management*, 215
 429 (1–3), pp. 285–294.
 430
 431
- 432 Hummel, S. (2000) 'Height, diameter and crown dimensions of *Cordials alliodora* associated with
 433 tree density'. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 127 (1–3), pp. 31–34.
 434
- 435 Korhonen, L. Heikkinen, J. (2009) 'Automated analysis of in situ canopy images for the estimation
 436 of forest canopy cover'. *Forest Science*, 55 (4), pp. 323–334.
 437
- 438 Krajicek, J. E. Brinkman, K. A. and Gingrich, S. F. (1957) 'Com? etitio Measure of Density'. *Journal*
 439 *of Forestry*, 55, pp.99-104.
 440
- 441 Lines, E. R. Zavala, M. A. Purves, D. W. and Coomes, D. A. (2012) 'Predictable changes in
 442 aboveground allometry of trees along gradients of temperature, aridity and competition'.
 443 *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 21 (10), pp.1017-1028.

444

445 Lukaszkiwicz, J. and Kosmala, M. (2008) ‘Determining the age of streetside trees with diameter at
446 breast height-based multifactorial model’. *Arboriculture and Urban Forestry*, 34 (3), p.137.

447

448 Lyytimäki, J. and Sipilä, M. (2009) ‘Hopping on one leg—The challenge of ecosystem disservices for
449 urban green management’. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 8 (4), pp. 309-315.

450

451 Lyytimäki, J. Petersen, L. K. Normander, B. and Bezák, P. (2008) ‘Nature as a nuisance? Ecosystem
452 services and disservices to urban lifestyle’. *Environmental Sciences*, 5 (3), pp.161-172.

453

454 Martin, N. A. Chappelka, A. H. Loewenstein, E. F. Keever, G. J. and Somers, G. (2012) ‘Predictive
455 open-grown crown width equations for three oak species planted in a southern urban locale’.
456 *Arboriculture and Urban Forestry*, 38 (2), pp. 58.

457

458 McPherson, E. G. van Doorn, N. S. and Peper, P. J. (2016) *Urban tree database and allometric
459 equations*. USDA General Technical Report PSW-GTR-253.

460

461 Met Office (2017) *Eastern England Climate - Met Office*. Accessed 25/03/17 via [http://www.
462 metoffice.gov.uk/climate/uk/regional/climates/ee](http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/climate/uk/regional/climates/ee)

463

464 Mynors, C., (2011) *The Law of Trees Forests and Hedges* Second Edition 10.5.2 pp 275-276 Sweet
465 Maxwell

466

467 Nowak, D. J. (1996) ‘Notes: estimating leaf area and leaf biomass of open-grown deciduous urban
468 trees.’ *Forest Science*, 42 (4), pp. 504-507.

469

470 Nowak, D. J. and Crane, D. E. (2002) ‘Carbon storage and sequestration by urban trees in the USA’.
471 *Environmental Pollution*, 116 (3), pp. 381-389.

472

473 Nowak, D.J., Crane, D.E. and Stevens, J.C., 2006. Air pollution removal by urban trees and shrubs
474 in the United States. *Urban forestry & urban greening*, 4(3-4), pp.115-123.

475 Nowak, D.J., Crane, D.E., Stevens, J.C., Hoehn, R.E., Walton, J.T. and Bond, J., 2008. A ground-based method
476 of assessing urban forest structure and ecosystem services. *Arboriculture & Urban Forestry*. 34 (6):
477 347-358., 34(6).

478 Nowak, D.J., Maco, S. and Binkley, M., 2018. i-Tree: Global tools to assess tree benefits and risks to
479 improve forest management. *Arboricultural Consultant*. 51 (4): 10-13., 51(4), pp.10-13.

480

481 O'Brien, S. Hubbell, S. Spiro, P. Condit, R. and Foster, R. (1995) ‘Diameter, Height, Crown, and Age
482 Relationship in Eight Neotropical Tree Species’. *Ecology*, 76 (6), pp. 1926-1939.

483
484 Ordinance Survey (2017). *GPS/transformation*. Accessed on 03/04/17
485 via <https://www.ordnancesurvey.co.uk/gps/transformation>
486

487 Peper, P. J. M. (1998) ‘Comparison of four foliar and woody biomass estimation methods applied to
488 open-grown deciduous trees.’ *Journal of Arboriculture*, 24 (4), pp. 191-200.

489
490 Peper, P. McPherson, E.G. Mori, S.M. (2001a) ‘Equations for predicting Diameter, Crown Width,
491 and Leaf Area of San Joaquin Valley Street Trees’. *Journal of Arboriculture*, 27 (6), pp. 306-
492 317.

493
494 Peper, P. J., McPherson, E. G., and Mori, S. M. (2001b) ‘Predictive equations for dimensions and
495 leaf area of coastal Southern California street trees.’ *Journal of Arboriculture*, 27 (4), pp 169-
496 180.

497
498 Pretzsch, H. Biber, P. Uhl, E. Dahlhausen, J. Rötzer, T. Caldentey, J., ... and Du Toit, B. (2015)
499 ‘Crown size and growing space requirement of common tree species in urban centres, parks,
500 and forests.’ *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 14 (3), pp. 466-479.

501
502 Quigley, M. F. (2004) ‘Street trees and rural conspecifics: will long-lived trees reach full size in urban
503 conditions?’ *Urban Ecosystems*, 7 (1), pp. 29-39.

504
505 Rahman, L. Umeki, K. and Honjo, T. (2014) ‘Modelling qualitative and quantitative elements of
506 branch growth in saplings of four evergreen broad-leaved tree species growing in a temperate
507 Japanese forest’. *Trees*, 28 (5), pp.1539-1552.

508
509 Shashua-Bar, L. Potchter, O. Bitan, A. Boltansky, D. and Yaakov, Y. (2010) ‘Microclimate modelling
510 of street tree species effects within the varied urban morphology in the Mediterranean city of
511 Tel Aviv, Israel’. *International Journal of Climatology: A Journal of the Royal Meteorological*
512 *Society*, 30(1), pp.44-57.

513
514 Stoffberg, G. H. Van Rooyen, M. W. Van der Linde, M. J. and Groeneveld, H. T. (2008) ‘Predicting
515 the growth in tree height and crown size of three street tree species in the City of Tshwane,
516 South Africa’. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 7 (4), pp. 259-264.

517 Troxel, B.,Piana, M.,Aston M S and Murphy-Dunning, C., (2013) ‘Relationships between bole and
518 crown size for young urban trees in the northeastern USA *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*
519 Volume 12, Issue 2 pp. 127-262

520
521 Urban J, Rebrošová K. Dobrovolný L, Schneider J (2010) ‘Allometry of four European Beech stands
522 growing at the contrasting localities in small-scale area’. *Folia Oecologica*, 37 (1), pp. 103–
523 112

524

525 Vaz Monteiro, M. Doick, K. J. and Handley, P. (2016) 'Allometric relationships for urban trees in
526 Great Britain'. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 19, pp. 223-236.

527

528 Vaz Monteiro, M. , Levanič, T. and Doick, K. J. (2017) 'Growth rates of common urban trees in five
529 cities in Great Britain: A dendrochronological evaluation with an emphasis on the impact of
530 climate'. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 22, pp. 11-23.

531

532 White, J. (1998) *Estimating the age of large and veteran trees in Britain*. Forestry Practice. Forestry
533 Commission, Edinburgh, UK.

534

535 Williamson, T, (2006) *England's landscape East Anglia* Ed Cossons N English Heritage.

536

537 **Figure Captions**

538

539 **Figure 1:** The locations of Norwich and Peterborough in the UK (Ordnance Survey 2017).

540 **Figure 2:** Average crown diameter was obtained for each of the 400 trees measured by the formula:
541 $(r1 + r2 + r3 + r4) / 2$.

542 **Figure 3:** Crown diameter versus DBH for the combined data. (Crown diameter = $0.8304 + 27.82$
543 $DBH - 10.68 DBH^2$).

544 **Figure 4:** Ratio of crown diameter/DBH versus DBH for the combined data. (Ratio = $35.9 - 31.19$
545 $DBH + 14.19 DBH^2$).

546

547 **Figure 5:** Interval plot showing the ratio of crown diameter/DBH by species. Mean ratio for the
548 species are as follows: Norway maple 1:25.98, oak 1:26.62, silver birch 1:24.88 and sycamore 1:
549 26.39. All four species fell within the range 1:24 to 1.27. The bars show standard deviation.

550

551 **Table Captions**

552

553 **Table 1:** Comparison of 10-year average annual climate data for Norwich and Peterborough.

554

555 **Table 2:** The sampling pattern for Norwich and Peterborough.

556

557 **Table 3:** Quadratic regression results for comparisons between stem diameter and crown diameter.

558

559 **Table 4:** Multiple regression of the combined data, assessing site factors versus the ratio of crown
560 diameter/DBH (y) versus DBH (x). The coefficient (Coef), the standard error of coefficient (SE coef),
561 p-value and the Variation Inflation factor (VIF) are reported.

562

563 **Table 5:** Crown diameter versus age regression equations for oak and sycamore.

564

565 **Table 6:** Individual allometry predictions for a given tree age of oak and sycamore.

566