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Abstract

Considering the high demand for wood and other forest ecosystem services, planning and managing forest plantations to mitigate and answer these increasing issues is necessary. Thinning is one of the most common managing practices for manipulating the growth of planted trees. However, studies about the impact of the thinning-cycle on stand and soil properties are rare for *Alnus subcordata* C.A.Mey. in Hyrcanian Forests. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of thinning-cycles on stand and soil properties in the *Alnus subcordata* plantation in the Hyrcanian Forests, Northern Iran. Three neighboring alder plantations were selected with different thinning treatment cycles: the one-time thinning-cycle (T1, thinned in 2007), three-time thinning-cycle (T3, thinned in 2005, 2010, and 2015), and no thinning as the control (C). In each plantation, 15 plots (20×20 m) were systematic-randomly established (75×50 m grid). In each plot, the characteristics of trees (diameter at breast height (DBH) and total height) and total percentage of vegetation cover were recorded. Soil physiochemical properties were studied by taking samples (0-10 cm) from each plot. The highest value of DBH, total height, tree volume, and basal area and the lowest amount of the total height to DBH ratio were observed in T3. The highest levels of vegetation diversity, evenness, and richness indices were obtained in T3. Soil moisture was significantly higher in the control. The soil pH, electrical conductivity, nitrogen, and potassium were significantly higher in T3. According to the principal component analysis, there was no difference between T1 and control. For this reason, T3 was a more beneficial treatment. Our findings suggested that in alder plantations, the reduction of above and belowground competition via the three-time thinning-cycle, in addition to the financial benefits, not only improves the quality and quantity of the remaining trees but also has a significant potential to improve soil productivity.

Keywords: Thinning effects, monoculture, *Alnus subcordata*, forest restoration.

Introduction

Considering that anthropogenic activities and the high demand for wood have deforested forest ecosystems in some places of the world, the implementation of plantation practices through the supply of wood could reduce the pressure on natural forest ecosystems. Thus, forest plantations have become common in landscapes all over the world (Humpenoder et al. 2014). Among plantations tending and management practices, thinning is one of the most applied treatments for improving plantation growth (Becagli et al. 2013, Li et al. 2017, Schaedel et al. 2017, Lin et al. 2018). Thinning has the potential to reduce competition between trees and can improve the vigor of the stand, and as well as increase in stability of forest stands against any disturbances (e.g. wind storms, snow crashes); therefore, it could increase the growth and tree volume for commercial purposes (Liu et al. 2017). Thinning promotes the value of harvest through the increase in size, volume, and timber quality (Lo-Cho 1991, Proto et al. 2020). In general, thinning can redistribute the resources of the site (e.g., light, water, and nutrients) for the remaining valuable trees and also reduce the intraspecific competition for these resources, which could lead to the development of canopy and root systems, resulting in the faster growth rate of the remaining trees (Forrester 2013, West 2014).

Thinning practice can be described in terms of the thinning cycle, thinning type, thinning intensity, and remaining tree distribution. Many studies have been conducted on the effect of the thinning type and thinning intensity on the stand and soil properties (Cicek et al. 2013, Chen et al. 2014, Dang et al. 2018, Zhou et al. 2021) but less attention has been paid to the effect of the thinning cycle. The thinning cycle is the interval in years between successive thinning. The usual length of the thinning cycle in plantations depends on the species type (Gonçalves 2020); however, it is usually from four to six years for young or fast-growing crops and about 10 years for older or slower-growing ones (Kerr and Haufe 2011).

The biodiversity of the understory could change as a result of thinning practices because of the change in canopy cover densities and forest microclimate parameters (Dang et al. 2018). The positive, negative, and neutral effects of thinning on understory vegetation were reported in previous studies (Taki et al. 2010, Metlen and Fiedler 2006, Lei et al. 2007).

These differences could be related to the site conditions and stand ages (Lei et al. 2007). Therefore, understanding the effects of thinning cycles in plantations on the diversity of understory is important (Taki et al. 2010), but studies on these topics are very rare.

Most studies on thinning have mainly focused on the growth of the tree, stand volume, and stand stability (Cheng et al. 2017, Nishizono et al. 2008, Wang et al. 2013, Chen et al. 2014). However, it should be note that understanding the effects of thinning on forest soil is also helpful to understand the appropriate management of forest plantations and should be considered. Thinning can alter the micro-environment in the stands, temporarily increase the soil nutrient availability, and change the soil moisture, soil temperature, root distribution, and consequently the microbial communities (Tang et al. 2005, Lull et al. 2020, Lagomarsino et al. 2020, Zhou et al. 2021). The change in soil properties after thinning practices can impact tree growth, site productivity (Zhou et al. 2015), and soil carbon sequestration (Zhang et al. 2016, Mazza et al. 2019). Therefore, studies on the effect of the thinning cycle on soil properties in plantations are also important.

Hyrcanian Forests, which are in the north of Iran, have been recently inscribed in the UNESCO world heritage list. These forests are dominated by the combinations of oriental beech (*Fagus orientalis* Lipsky), Caucasian oak (*Quercus castaneifolia* C.A.Mey.), hornbeam (*Carpinus betulus* L.), and Persian Ironwood (*Parrotia persica* C.A.Mey.). However, over the last decades, human activities have considerably degraded these valuable forests (Sagheb-Talebi et al. 2014). The degradation of Hyrcanian Forests has significant widespread effects on a global scale (e.g. CO_2 emission). In the past few decades, large areas of forest plantations, especially those with native and exotic tree species, have been established to restore the degraded lands and mitigate the social demand for forest ecosystem services. The restoration of degraded areas in the Hyrcanian Forest has been largely established by *Alnus subcordata* C.A.Mey. monocultures, which is a pioneer species able to facilitate the introduction of late-successional hardwoods to reach higher biodiversity and more resilient and resistant ecosystems. After restoration, the common tending practices have been carried out in planted areas. Based on the available information, there has not yet been a study on the effect of the thinning cycles on the alder plantation stand in Hyrcanian Forests. This study aimed to investigate the effects of thinning cycles (one time and three times) on

the *(i)* stand characteristic; *(ii)* on vegetation diversity; and *(iii)* on soil properties. Evaluation of tending practices in plantations is important for making decisions in order to obtain better quality and quantity forests in the future.

Materials and methods

Study area

This study was conducted in Babolkenar Forest, central Hyrcanian Forests, Savadkuh City, Mazandaran Province, north of Iran (Fig. 1). The average slope in this region is about 5-15%, the main aspects are south and south-west, and according to the world reference base for soil resources (WRB) the soil type is Cambisol. The climate is temperate humid, and meteorological data indicated that long-term (1993-2015) average annual rainfall is 829 mm. The mean annual temperature is 15°C. The mean elevation in the study area is 200 m (asl). and main tree species include *Quercus castaneifolia* C. A. Mey., *Carpinus betulus* L, *Fagus orientalis* Lipsky, and *Alnus subcordata* C. A. Mey.

Figure 1

In order to investigate the effect of thinning cycles on stand and soil properties, three plantations of *Alnus subcordata* were selected. All three plantations were established (the planting distance was 2×2 m intervals) in 1993 following the clear cut. In general, three thinning treatments were considered as follows: one-time thinning cycle (T1), three-times thinning cycle (T3), and no thinning as the control treatment (C). The T1 thinning was conducted in 2007, and the T3 thinning was performed in 2005, 2010, and 2015. In the control treatment, no thinning practice was conducted.

Data collection

In this study, after visiting the field and determining the location of plantations (T1, T3 and C stands), 15 plots (20×20 m) were systematic-randomly established (75×50 m grid) in each

stand. In each plot, the number of trees, diameter at breast height (DBH), and total height of each tree were recorded. The volume of the trees (V_t) was calculated using Equation (1):

$$V_t = \frac{\pi}{4}DBH^2 \times H_t \times f \qquad \text{(eq. 1)}$$

Where f is the reduction coefficient of trees (considered 0.5, as mentioned for Hyrcanian forest trees, Zobeiry 2000 and Namiranian 2007). In order to consider soil physical and chemical properties, soil samples were taken from the topsoil layer (0-10 cm) in each plot using the coring method (cylindrical steel columns; diameter: 8 cm, height: 10 cm). In order to study the biodiversity of the herbaceous cover, the total percentage of each species was measured in each plot; and their percentage cover was visually and subjectively assessed by the Braun–Blanquet classification system (Dengler et al. 2008).

Laboratory analysis

In the laboratory, soil samples were passed through a 2 mm sieve (after removing coarse fragments and plant root residuals). The soil moisture content (%) of sub-samples was determined by drying the given amount of fresh soil in a hot air oven at $105 \pm 5°C$ until a constant weight was obtained (24 h). Soil bulk density was measured using the clod method. Soil texture was assessed using the hydrometer method. Soil pH (using Orion Analyzer Model 901 pH meter in a 1:2.5 soil/water suspension) and electrical conductivity (EC) (using Orion Analyzer Model 901 EC meter, in water-saturated soil extract at 20°C) were also measured. In addition, total N (Kjeltec System Instrument, TECATOR) and available P (with Olsen P extracting solution (0.5 M $NaHCO_3$) at pH 8.5 using a UV spectrophotometer) were determined. The Walkley–Black technique was used to calculate the percentage of organic carbon (%OC).

Statistical analysis

Values of diversity indices (Simpson and Shanon-Wiener), richness indices (Margalef and Menhinic), and evenness indices (Camargo and Smith-Wilson) shown in Table 1 were calculated using PAST software. Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's tests were used to assess the normality of the variables and to examine the equality of the variances, respectively. The experimental design was a completely randomized design. The data were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS 22 and the least significant difference test (LSD) at a significance level of 5%. The relationships between soil properties were tested by principal component analysis (PCA) performed on R software (version 3.4.0).

Table 1

Results

Quantitative characteristics of trees

The results showed that there was a significant difference between the treatments in terms of the quantitative characteristics of trees. The number of trees per hectare in the control treatment was significantly higher than T1 and T3. The highest values of DBH, total height, tree volume, and basal area were observed in T3. The lowest value of the total height to DBH ratio (HDR) was observed in T3 (Tab 2).

Table 2

Biodiversity indices

In general, seven herbaceous species were identified in this study, which are listed in Table 3. *Rubus* sp. was observed only in the control treatment, and *Viola* sp. was found only in T3. The Simpson and Shannon-Weiner indices were higher in T3 and T1 than in the control treatment. The value of the evenness index was higher in thinning treatments than in the control treatment. The highest values of Menhinick and Margalef were observed in T3 (Tab. 4).

Table 3

Table 4

Soil properties

The results showed that among physical properties, only soil moisture was significantly higher in the control treatment than in T1 and T3. There was no significant difference between the treatments in terms of bulk density, sand, and silt percentage. The soil pH and EC were significantly higher in T3 than in T1 and control. Soil nitrogen in the control treatment was significantly lower than in T1 and T3. There was no significant difference in the soil phosphorus content between the treatments. The soil potassium content was significantly higher in T3. The amount of OC in the control treatment was significantly higher than in the other treatments (Tab. 5).

Table 5

The results of the PCA for stand and soil properties indicated that the first and second axes accounted for 40.3% and 15.3% of the total variance, respectively (Fig. 2). The first axis was related to diameter, height, basal area (G), volume (V), HDR (Z), sand, silt, clay, pH, and nitrogen (N). In general, diameter, height, basal area (G), volume (V), pH, EC, nitrogen (N), phosphorous (P), and potassium (k) were correlated with the T3 treatment.

Figure 2

Discussion

In this study, we found that the thinning practice had a significant effect on biodiversity indices as well as stand and soil properties. According to our results, trees' DBH,

total height, basal area, and volume were significantly higher in T3 and T1 than in the control. Thinning could increase the availability of resources and reduce the competition between trees (Medhurst et al. 2001, Huong et al. 2016). Increasing the growing space by means of thinning is especially beneficial to smaller trees growing on high-quality sites. This response to thinning is often related to the fast-growing species such as *Alnus subcordata*. Similar to other studies (Klädtke 1997, Štefancík et al. 2018, Bosela et al. 2021), we found positive influences on the diameter due to thinning. The positive effects of thinning on the tree diameter can be related to the higher water, light, and nutrient availability in the thinned stand. The increase in tree diameter in response to thinning could be due to increased water, photosynthetic rate, and nitrogen use efficiency in the thinned stand (Wang et al. 1995).

According to our results, both basal area and volume were higher in T3. The main reason could be the redistribution of site resources (light, water, and nutrients) by thinning, which can concentrate the mentioned site resources to the remaining valuable trees and reduce the competition for these resources (Forrester 2013, West 2014). Bobinac (2004) found lower increments of basal area and volume for the control stands compared with those for the thinned ones. Similar results were observed in beech forests in Germany (Pretzsch 2005), where three types of thinning from below (weak, medium, strong) were compared in stands at the age of 100 years. The total stand volume was the highest after the application of thinning. Similar to the results of our study, thinning increased the basal area growth in some broad-leaved tree species (Pretzsch 2005, Boncina et al. 2007).

According to our results, the DBH, total height, basal area and volume of stand were significantly higher in T3 in comparison with T1. This result could be related to the fact that performing three times thinning practice could provide more resources for the remaining trees and also decreased neighbor competition, consequently leads to increase in volume growth (Lin et al. 2018, Moreau et al. 2020). In other hand, this is attributed to the fact that the remaining trees benefit from more growing space (Kim et l. 2016). This results also suggest that performing one thinning response becomes lower the longer it is delayed (Huong et al. 2016). In addition, it can be concluded that the one-time thinning in comparison with three times thinning, was not enough to cause considerable changes in resources (e.g. light and nutrients) in stand (Park et al. 2018); however, it had positive effect in comparison with

control. The similar results about the effect of thinning intensity were reported in previous studies (Cicek et al. 2013, Chen et al. 2014, Dang et al. 2018, Zhou et al. 2021).

Thinning significantly influences the static stability of the stands, which is commonly assessed by the height-diameter ratio (HDR). Generally, smaller HDR indicates lower centers of gravity of trees with longer crown lengths and also higher stability than trees with larger HDR (Sharma et al. 2016). The HDR was significantly lower in T3 than T1, in other hand trees in T3 had higher stability than trees in T1 stand. Thinning reduces the light competition between trees and increases the DBH increment (Kim et l. 2016, Deng et al. 2019), for this reason three times thinning led to more reduction in HDR in comparison with the one-time thinning. Some other benefits of thinning include promoting forest health through removing weak and undesirable trees (insect/disease-susceptible), as well as biodiversity improvement by site component redistribution (Janas and Brand 1998).

Our results showed that the understory diversity significantly increased with the thinning cycle. Similar results were reported in previous studies (Ares et al. 2010, Huang et al. 2014, Zhou et al. 2016, Dang et al. 2018, Dang et al. 2018, Xu et al. 2020). Thinning can decrease the crown coverage and improve the microclimatic conditions (light, soil water, and nutrient availability), which could change the availability of resources and consequently lead to increases in the understory diversity (Li et al. 2020). Zhu et al. (2008) mentioned that light significantly alters the plant composition and diversity in the thinned stand. In addition, thinning can improve the light scattering, reflected light, and transmitted light, which can lead to a higher difference in the quality of light (Hu and Zhu 1999). Therefore, differences in thinning intensities could change the understory species composition and diversity. However, negative effects of thinning on understory vegetation were also reported (Cheng et al. 2017). These discrepancies might be related to the differences in the thinning conditions (choice of pretreatment methods), structure of the plant, intensity of the thinning, and the stand stage (Juodvalkis et al. 2005). After thinning, the understory plants receive more light and nutrients, which consequently leads to the growth of light-demanding plants.

The results showed that the thinning cycle had no significant effect on soil bulk density. However, in a previous study, differences in soil physical properties were reported in the thinned stand in north-central Wisconsin over a 50 year period. Moreover, Bravo-

Oviedo et al. (2015) did not find a significant difference in soil bulk density among treatments in a Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) stand after 40 years. However, previous studies have reported that some soil physical properties (e.g. bulk density and soil hydraulic parameters) changed after thinning (Page-Dumroese et al. 2010, Chen et al. 2014). In addition, the impact of thinning on soil physical properties could be related to the use of machinery (Page-Dumroese et al. 2010). The soil sand, silt, and clay percentages showed no significant difference between the thinning and control treatments. These results were similar to those reported by Cheng et al. (2017).

The results of this study showed that soil pH, EC, nitrogen, and potassium were significantly higher in T3 than in T1 and control. There was no significant difference between the treatments in terms of phosphorus. Wall (2012) claimed that soil pH and some soil nutrients (P, K, Ca, and Mg) are the main indicators of soil productivity and forest sustainability following management. Thinning could change the microclimate, litter decomposition, and the composition of the understory, which consequently leads to changes in the soil macro and micro elements. The increase of soil N in the topsoil layer in intensive thinning practice could be related to the release of N in the litter decomposition (Vitousek et al. 1989, Cheng et al. 2017). Our results regarding potassium and phosphorus were similar to those reported by Cheng et al. (2017). This might be related to the fact that phosphorus is not absorbed by trees because of its fixation by metal ions, such as Fe^{+3}, in the forest soil (He et al. 2015). In this study, soil carbon was decreased by performing more thinning practices. The findings were similar to the results reported by Zhou et al. (2015) and Jurgensen et al. (2012). These results could be due to the effects of thinning on the carbon contents of the forest floor. Thinning has the potential to reduce the forest floor carbon contents by decreasing litter production from the remaining trees (Navarro et al. 2013) and accelerating litter decomposition (Gliksman et al. 2018). In general, due to changes in the density of canopies and stands following the thinning, the soil moisture and temperature are increased and consequently may create the appropriate conditions for microorganisms in the soil (Barg and Edmonds 1999, Christ et al. 1997). In addition, soil organic matter quantity and quality and the nutrient concentration (Kim et al. 2016) can also be affected.

According to our results, the PCA ordination of the treatments based on the stand and soil properties showed a clear and distinguished pattern. In other words, it can be stated that T3 was different in terms of stand and soil properties from the other treatments. Considering that T1 and control were not seperated, it can be stated that T3 was a more useful treatment.

Conclusion

Our findings suggested that the three-time thinning cycle (with five-year intervals) had a modified impact on biodiversity as well as stand and soil properties. The higher value of the stand volume in T3 indicates that performing the three-time thinning practice could be a good approach for wood production from fast-growing species such as *Alnus subcordata*. From an ecological point of view, the applied methods of thinning contribute to the increase of the stand stability (lower HDR) and plant biodiversity. According to the PCA, there was no difference between T1 and control in terms of stand and soil properties; hence, it can be concluded that T3 was a more useful treatment. Overall, thinning had a positive effect on soil fertility and quality in *Alnus sabcordata* plantation in Hyrcanian Forests. Our findings suggested that in alder plantations, the reduction of above and belowground competition via the three-time thinning cycle, in addition to the financial benefits, not only improves the quality and quantity of the remaining trees but also has a significant potential to improve soil productivity. The results of this study could be beneficial for managing degraded lands and could help managers dealing with afforestation/reforestation practices.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1 - Biodiversity indices.

	Indices	Formula
Diversity	Simpson	$D = 1- \sum n_1(n_1 - 1) / (N(N - 1))$
	Shannon-Winner	$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{S}(Pi)(\ln Pi)$
Richness	Margalef	$R = S - 1/LnN$
	Menhinick	$R = S/\sqrt{n}$
Evenness	Pit	$E = H/ln(S)$
	Camargo	$E = 1 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{s}\sum_{j=1+1}^{s}\left(\frac{Pi-Pj}{s}\right)\right)$

Table 2 - Quantitative characteristics of trees in different treatments.

Quantitative characteristics	Control	T1	T3
Number per hectare	573 ± 8 a	482 ± 15 b	473 ± 8 b
DBH (cm)	19.2±0.2 c	21.2±0.3 b	28.2±0.3 a
Total Height (m)	19.9±0.2 b	20.3±0.3 b	22.9±0.4 a
Basal Area (m^2)	17.22±0.54 b	17.43±0.57 b	30.36±1.17 a
Volume (m^3)	178.61±6.20 b	184.35±7.17 b	356.43±13.91 a
Height/ DBH (HDR)	1.04±0.008 a	0.96±0.017 b	0.82±0.011 c

Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between treatments.

Table 3 - List of identified herbaceous species in different treatments (* and - indicates the presence and absence of species in the treatment).

Species	Control	T1	T3
Sambucus ebulus	-	*	*
Oplismenus undulatifolium	-	*	*
Carex sp.	*	*	*
Ruscu hyrcanus	-	*	*
Poa annua	*	*	*
Viola sp.	-	-	*
Rubus sp.	*	-	-

Table 4 - Biodiversity indices of herbaceous species in different treatments.

Biodiversity Indices	Control	T1	T3
Shannon-Wiener	0.53±0.05 b	1.16±0.06 a	1.30±0.04 a
Simpson	0.29±0.03 b	0.65±0.05 a	0.70±0.01 a
Pilue	0.67±0.02 b	0.86±0.01 a	0.89±0.02 a
Menhinick	0.28±0.01 c	0.42±0.01 b	0.51±0.03 a
Margalef	0.36±0.03 c	0.63±0.03 b	0.76±0.06 a

Different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) between treatments.

Table 5 - Physical and chemical properties of soil in different treatments.

Soil Properties	Control	T1	T3
Moisture (%)	54.15±2.45 a	43.57±3.27 b	45.70±2.20 b
Bulk Density (g cm^{-3})	1.68±0.09 a	1.58±0.08 a	1.70±0.06 a
Sand (%)	54.26±0.92 a	57.17±2.59 a	51.12±1.75 a
Silt (%)	35.20±0.97 a	32.92±1.99 a	37.59±1.85 a
Clay (%)	10.52±0.45 a	9.91±0.91 a	11.46±0.75 a
pH	6.37±0.05 b	6.39±0.05 b	6.62±0.09 a
EC (ds cm^{-1})	0.49±0.02 b	0.46±0.02 b	0.59±0.02 a
Total N (%)	0.21±0.01 b	0.28±0.01 b	0.31±0.01 a
Available P (mg kg^{-1})	5.73±0.70 a	7.09±1.22 a	6.80±1.15 a
Available K (mg kg^{-1})	544±26.80 b	503±45.15 b	666±48.70 a
C (%)	5.88±0.26 a	4.85±0.35 b	4.68±0.32 b

Different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05) between treatments.
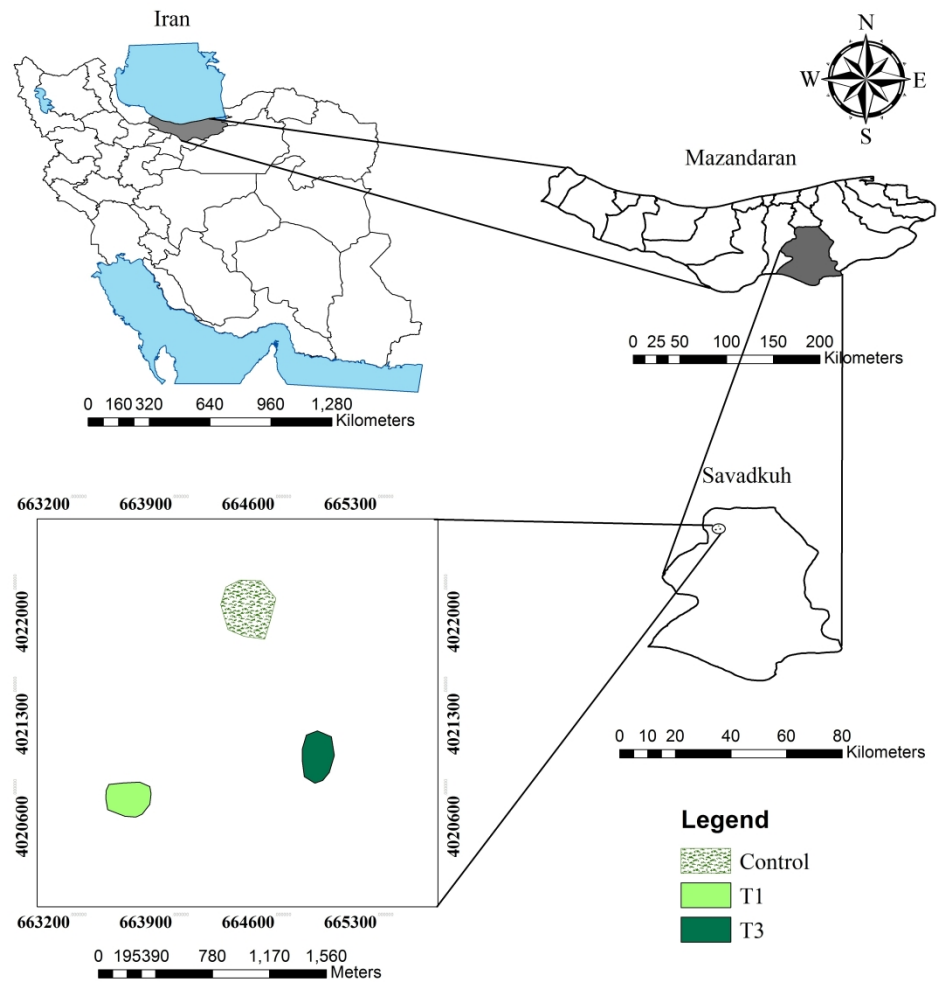
Figure 1. Location of the Study Site.
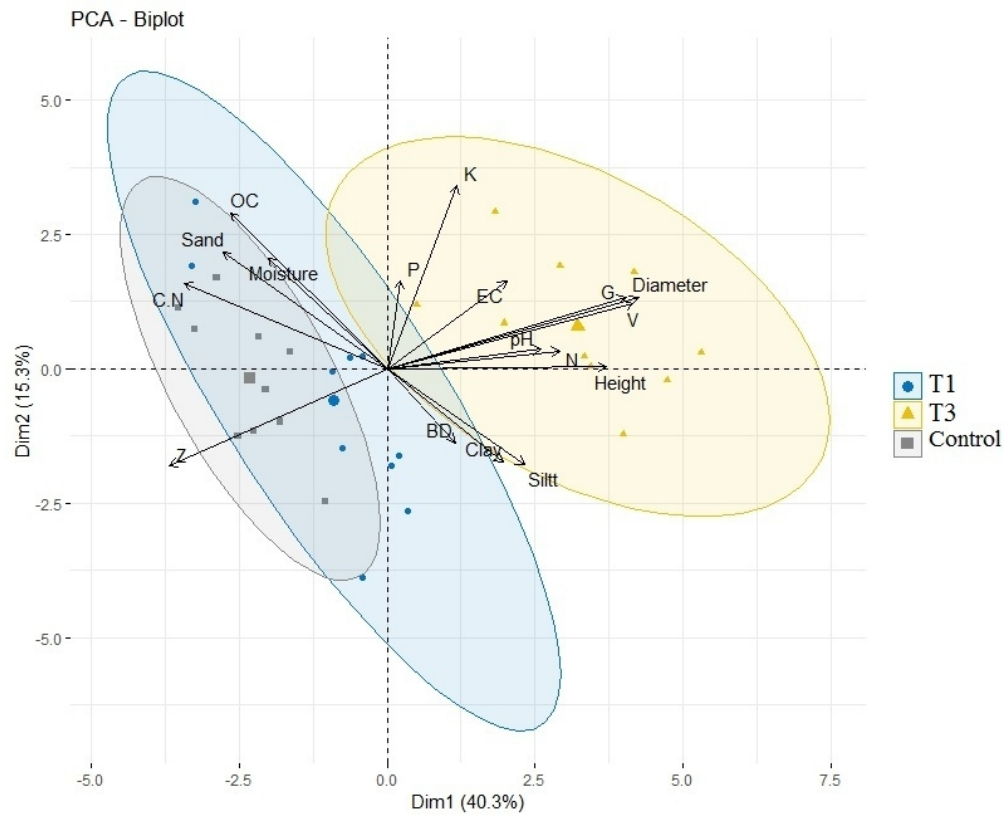
400x400mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 2. Principal component analysis (PCA) of stand and soil properties (axis 1: eigenvalues = 6.85; axis 2: eigenvalues = 2.60).

210x172mm (96 x 96 DPI)