# CROWN ASYMMETRIES OF TREES ON THE EDGES OF LOGGING GAPS IN A FOREST IN GUYANA

Roopsind A<sup>1</sup>, Hungito M<sup>2</sup>, Sanches M<sup>3</sup>, Hunte N<sup>2</sup> & Putz FE<sup>4, \*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Center for Natural Climate Solutions, Conservation International. 2011 Crystal Drive, Suite 600 Arlington, VA 22202, USA <sup>2</sup>Biology Department, University of Guyana, Turkeyen Campus, Box 10-1110, Georgetown, Guyana <sup>3</sup>Research and Development, Foundation for Forest Management and Production Control, Martin Luther King Highway 283, Suriname

<sup>4</sup>Forest Research Institute, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore DC, Queensland, Australia

#### \*fputz@usc.edu.au

Submitted September 2023; accepted January 2024

Active foraging of tree branches for light and space can result in crown asymmetry. By opening canopy gaps, selective logging may increase the prevalence of trees with asymmetrical crowns and the extents of their asymmetries. Crown asymmetry is relevant to forestry insofar as it may stimulate bole curvature, decrease the range of angles over which trees can be directionally felled, increase rates of natural tree fall, and create dangerous conditions for forest workers. In a forest in Guyana that was selectively logged 23 years prior to our study, we evaluated the asymmetries of crowns of trees on the boundaries of mapped felling gaps. For 192 trees  $\geq 20$  cm diameter, we measured crown radii into and away from 56 canopy gaps. Assuming that tree crowns were symmetrical at the time of gap creation, we estimate the rate of lateral crown expansion into gaps as the difference between crown radii into and away from the canopy opening. We then compared apparent rates of lateral crown expansion into gaps by tree species, gap size, and stem diameter growth rates. We found that 83% of tree crowns were wider on the gap side than into the closed canopy forest, with crowns on average 2.1 m wider towards canopy gaps. Rates of gap-ward crown extension were faster among long-lived light-demanding pioneer species than in more shade tolerant climax species. Among trees  $\geq 20$  cm diameter at the time of gap creation, stem growth rates are positively but only weakly correlated with crown asymmetry.

Keywords: Selective logging, forest dynamics, canopy gaps, tropical silviculture, tree architecture

### **INTRODUCTION**

The sizes and shapes of tree crowns respond to changes in the availability of light as well as mechanical interactions with neighbours (Putz et al. 1984, Fish et al. 2006), but also reflect intrinsic genetic, morphological, and higherorder phylogenetic characteristics (Hallé et al. 1978). The principal cause of changes in light availability in closed canopy forests is canopy gap creation by trees that die standing, fall, or are felled (e.g. Runkle 1982, Brokaw 1985, Denslow 1987, Elias & Dias 2009). Prior studies on canopy gaps mostly emphasised their effects on regeneration and tropical tree diversity (e.g. Hartshorn 1978, Rose 2000) with few studies that evaluate canopy tree responses to canopy gap creation (van der Meer 1995, Young &

Hubbell 1991, Ruslandi et al. 2015). Here we study the crown response of canopy trees over a 23-year period after gap creation by selective logging in a tropical forest managed for timber.

In response to high light intensities and decreased crown abrasion, trees on the margins of canopy gaps typically extend their branches into canopy openings (e.g. Trimble & Tryon 1966, Hibbs 1982, Runkle & Yetter 1987). As these trees actively forage for light and space (Muth & Bazzaz 2002), their crowns become asymmetrical (Young & Hubbell 1991). The extent to which trees develop asymmetrical crowns varies with factors including growth rates, crown architecture, and biomechanical properties (Valladares & Niinemets 2008, Olivier et al. 2016, Lu et al. 2020).

Quantifying the rate of development of tree crown eccentricity in response to canopy gaps can provide insights into the dynamics of both natural forests and those managed for timber. This phenomenon is important because trees with crowns that are heavier towards gaps suffer increased likelihoods of toppling into the preexisting openings, thereby expanding the area of disturbed forest (Young & Hubbell 1991). Eccentric tree crowns may also pose challenges for forest managers where selective logging guidelines call for directional felling to reduce stand damage, protect future crop trees, promote worker safety, and facilitate timber yarding insofar as crown asymmetry limits the range of directions over which trees can be safely felled (Putro et al. 2015).

This study explores the crown characteristics of canopy trees on the edges of mapped gaps 23 years after the gaps were opened by selective logging of a forest in central Guyana. We hypothesised that logging gaps promote asymmetrical crown expansion and that this response varies among functional plant groups and increases with rates of stem diameter increment and gap size.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Study area

The study was conducted in mixed lowland tropical forest at Pibiri Biological Research Station (5°13' N, 58°48' W) in central Guyana where the mean annual temperature is 26 °C and annual rainfall is approximately 2700 mm year<sup>1</sup> with rainier periods in May-August and December-February (Boot 1996, Rose 2000). The forest is diverse but with patches dominated by Chlorocardium rodiei (greenheart) (van der Hout 1999, Roopsind et al. 2018. Tree canopy height averages 30-40 m, with emergent trees reaching 50 m. Average stem density of trees  $\geq 20$  cm DBH (stem diameter at 1.3 m or above buttresses) is 180 stems ha-1 (van der Hout 1999). We assessed crown asymmetries in 2017 in permanent sample plots that were selectively logged in 1994. Immediately post-logging, felling gaps were mapped (van der Hout 1999) and measured using the modified centre point method of Brokaw (1982).

#### **Crown measurements and analysis**

We measured the crown radii of trees  $\geq 20$  cm DBH located on the margins of 56 logging gaps that ranged 107–2352 m<sup>2</sup> when created in 1994, 23 years prior to our study. We excluded gaps < 100 m<sup>2</sup> because once gaps are closed by lateral crown expansion, development of crown asymmetry should cease. We also excluded trees with crowns fully exposed to both vertical and lateral illumination on all sides (i.e. emergent trees) and those affected by natural tree falls that occurred after the gaps were mapped. We sampled 192 gap-edge trees of 44 species.

We used gap maps drawn in 1994 by van der Hout (1999) to estimate rates of crown expansion over the intervening 23 years as the difference in crown radius into the gap, and in the opposite direction into the closed canopy forest (Figure 1). We assumed that the crowns were symmetrical at the time of logging or at least that there was no overall tendency for them to be wider in the direction of closed canopy forest. Our estimates are conservative if edge trees suffered, for example, fellinginduced branch losses, but we excluded trees that showed obvious signs of having suffered major crown loss. We used QGIS open-source software to calculate gap perimeter lengths and gap areas that we then used as covariates in our statistical analysis of crown expansion rates. We also classified tree species into functional groups (i.e. pioneers, long-lived pioneers, and climax species) based on tree specific wood density (g cm<sup>-3</sup>), seed mass, and adult stature (Arets 2005).

For a subset of trees for which long-term data on DBH increments were available (N = 150 trees), we evaluated whether the extent of crown asymmetry 23 years post logging correlated with individual tree growth rates, functional group, and gap size (m<sup>2</sup>). All models were fit using the brms package in R with default priors, four chains with 2000 iterations per chain, and a warm-up of 1000 iterations.

# RESULTS

The crown radii of gap-edge trees (N = 172)averaged 6.2 m (standard error, SE = 1.63 m) into gaps compared to 4.1 m (SE = 0.14 m) into the adjacent closed canopy forest (Figure 2). Assuming crowns were symmetrical prior



Figure 1 Illustration of the field method for assessment of tree crown width responses to a canopy gap created by selective logging in a closed canopy forest



**Figure 2** Crown extension of gap-edge trees (N = 172) into and away from canopy gaps 23 years after the gaps were created by selective logging of a closed-canopy forest in Guyana; dashed lines indicate average crown extension

to logging disturbance, crown extension into gaps was on average 9.3 cm year<sup>-1</sup> faster than extension into the closed canopy forests.

Trees classified as climax species (N = 126 trees) and long-lived pioneers (N = 45 trees) showed gap-ward crown extension of 6.1 and 6.6 m relative to crown extensions of 4.2 and 3.6 m into the closed canopy forests respectively (Figure 3). Similarly, assuming that the crowns were initially symmetrical, the annual rates of crown extension into gaps of climax and long-lived pioneer species averaged 8.2 and 12.7 cm year<sup>-1</sup> faster than into the closed canopy forest respectively. The best predictor of crown asymmetry was rate of stem diameter increment (Figure 4). Gap size was not related to the rate of development of asymmetrical crowns.

#### DISCUSSION

Twenty-three years after selective logging at our study site in Guyana, canopy gap-edge trees supported crowns that were on average 2.1 m wider towards the gap than into the adjacent forest. This response suggests active crown foraging for the light provided by the creation of canopy gaps (Muth & Bazzaz 2002). Similar results have been reported for both managed stands (Gillespie et al. 1994, Smith & Putz 2021, Forrester et al. 2013) and natural forests (Runkle & Yetter 1987). Lateral crown growth of gap-edge trees contributes to gap closure and affects tree regeneration (McCarthy 2001, Lu et al. 2015) with implications for future species composition and timber harvests.

In Guyana, tree crowns on the margins of canopy gaps expanded laterally 9.3 cm year<sup>-1</sup> faster than they expanded in the opposite direction (i.e. into the forest). Since we measured differential and not absolute growth rates, our results are not directly comparable to other measures in the literature. This problem notwithstanding, the Guyana rates were slower than those reported for temperate hardwood forests by Trimble and Tryon (1966; 16–27 cm year<sup>-1</sup>) and Runkle and Yetter (1987; 18 cm year<sup>-1</sup>) but similar to the 6-14 cm year<sup>-1</sup> reported by Hibbs (1982). One explanation for the apparently slow rate of crown expansion in our study site in Guyana is that trees on the Guiana Shield are notoriously slow growing due to extremely nutrient-poor soils (Roopsind et al. 2018).



**Figure 3** Lateral crown extension away from and into canopy gaps created by selective logging of trees classified into functional groups that include climax trees (N = 126), long-live pioneer trees (N = 45) and pioneer trees (N = 2); errors bars represent 1 standard error





# Lateral crown growth rate by functional groups, gap size and growth rates

Compared to shade tolerant climax tree species, long-lived pioneers species reportedly have large plastic response to increase light interception (Valladares & Niinemets 2008, Oliver et al. 2017). Our results support this contention insofar as the most common species in our study, *Chlorocardium rodiei* (N = 42) and *Lecythis confertiflora* (N = 27), both climax species, had average crown width differences of only 2.1 m compared to 3.1 m for the most common longlived pioneer species (*Catostemma fragrans*, N = 16). Variation in rates of lateral crown growth among species and individuals indicate the inherent ontogeny, crown architecture and structure associated with different functional groups of canopy trees (Muth & Bazzaz 2002). For instance, pioneer species are rare along the edges of the gaps sampled as they tend to establish in areas with direct vertical light penetration (Boot 1996). As pioneer species tend to allocate resources for fast height growth to reach the canopy layer, they may invest less energy in horizontal crown expansion (Denslow 1987).

Although crown expansion rates in this forest did not increase with gap size, trees in other forests reportedly did (Runkle 1985, Cipollini et al. 1993, Bartemucci et al. 2002, Lu et al. 2015, Wenyan et al. 2022). While gap size and functional groups were not important predictors of crown expansion into gaps in Guyana, rates of stem diameter increment were positively but weakly correlated with rates of branch extension into gaps (Figure 4). We note that for every increase of 1 cm year-1 in stem diameter over the 23-year observation period there was 1.47 m more crown expansion into gap than into the closed canopy forest, albeit with high variability (95% credible intervals: 0.21-2.69 m; Figure 4).Increased light availability in and around gaps most likely affected the growth of both stems and crowns with positive feedback as trees with larger crowns captured more sunlight.

Recognition of the crown asymmetry phenomenon is important for forest managers and ecologists as trees with unbalanced crowns are more likely to fall or drop branches in the direction of their heavy sides (Young & Hubbell 1991, Young & Perkocha 1994). Counterbalancing this tendency for gaps to expand (Lawton & Putz 1988) is the closure of gaps by the expansion of crowns of neighbhouring trees, as observed in this study.

# CONCLUSION

The response of gap-edge tree crowns to increase availability of light and space was indicated by their development of asymmetrical crowns. While long-lived pioneer tree species seem especially capable of expanding their crowns into canopy openings, the weakness of the relationship between rates of stem diameter increments and crown expansion suggests that factors other than growth rates influence this phenomenon. These factors should be explored with remote sensing techniques for tree crown mapping.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study was conducted under the partnership between the University of Guyana and the University of Florida's Tropical Conservation and Development Program with support from World Wildlife Fund Guiana's programme and the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation.

#### REFERENCES

- ARETS EJ. 2005. Long-term Responses of Populations and Communities of Trees to Selective Logging in Tropical Rain Forests in Guyana. Tropenbos-Guyana Series 13. Tropenbos-Guyana Programme, Georgetown.
- BARTEMUCCI P, COATES KD, HARPER KA & WRIGHT EF. 2002. Gap disturbances in northern old-growth forests of British Columbia, Canada. *Journal* of Vegetation Science 13: 685–696. https://doi. org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2002.tb02096.x
- BOOT RGA. 1996. Growth and Survival of Tropical Rain Forest Tree Seedlings in Forest Understorey and Canopy Openings Implications for Forest Management. Tropenbos-Guyana Series 6. Tropenbos-Guyana Programme, Georgetown.
- BROKAW NVL. 1982. The definition of treefall gap and its effect on measures of forest dynamics. *Biotropica* 14: 158–160. https://doi.org/10.2307/2387750
- BROKAW NVL. 1985. Gap-phase regeneration in a tropical forest. *Ecology* 66: 682–687. https://doi. org/10.2307/1940529
- CIPOLLINI M, WHIGHAM D & O'NEIL J. 1993. Population growth, structure, and seed dispersal in the understory herb *Cynoglossum virginianum*: a population and patch dynamics model. *Plant Species Biology* 8: 117–129.
- DENSLOW JS 1987. Tropical rainforest gaps and tree species diversity. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 18: 431–451. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev. es.18.110187.002243
- ELIAS RB & Dias E. 2009. Gap dynamics and regeneration strategies in *Juniperus-Laurus* forests of the Azores Islands. *Plant Ecology* 200: 179–189. https://doi. org/10.1007/s11258-008-9442-x
- FISH H, LIEFFERS VJ, SILINS U & HALL RJ. 2006. Crown shyness in lodgepole pine stands of varying stand height, density, and site index in the upper foothills of Alberta. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 36: 2104–2111. https://doi.org/10.1139/x06-107
- Forrester DI, Collopy JJ, Beadle CL & Baker TG. 2013.

Effect of thinning, pruning and nitrogen fertiliser application on light interception and light-use efficiency in a young *Eucalyptus nitens* plantation. *Forest Ecology and Management* 288: 21–30. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2011.11.024

- GILLESPIE AR, ALLEN HL & VOSE JM. 1994. Amount and vertical distribution of foliage of young loblolly pine trees as affected by canopy position and silvicultural treatment. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 24: 1337–1344. https://doi.org/10.1139/x94-174
- HALLÉ F, OLDEMAN RA & TOMLINSON PB. 1978. Tropical Trees and Forests: An Architectural Analysis. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-81190-6
- HARTSHORN GS. 1978. Tree falls and tropical forest dynamics.
  Pp 617–638 in Tomlinson PB & Zimmermann MH (eds) *Tropical Trees as Living Systems*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- HIBBS DE. 1982. Gap dynamics in hemlock-hardwood forest. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 12: 522– 527. https://doi.org/10.1139/x82-081
- LAWTON RO & PUTZ FE. 1988. Natural disturbance and gap-phase regeneration in a wind-exposed tropical cloud forest. *Ecology* 69: 764–777.
- Lu D, Zhu J, Sun Y & Zhang G. 2015. Gap closure process by lateral extension growth of canopy trees and its effect on woody species regeneration in a temperate secondary forest, Northeast China. *Silva Fennica* 49: 1310. https://doi.org/10.14214/sf.1310
- LU D, ZHU J, WU D ET AL. 2020. Detecting dynamics and variations of crown asymmetry induced by natural gaps in a temperate secondary forest using terrestrial laser scanning. *Forest Ecology and Management* 473: 118289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. foreco.2020.118289
- McCARTHY J. 2001. Gap dynamics of forest trees: a review with particular attention to boreal forests. *Environmental Reviews* 9: 1–59.
- MUTH CC & BAZZAZ FA. 2002. Tree canopy displacement at forest gap edges. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 32: 247–254. https://doi.org/10.1139/x01-196
- OLIVER MD, ROBERT S & FOURNIER RA. 2017. A method to quantify canopy changes using multi-temporal terrestrial lidar data: tree response to surrounding gaps. *Agriculture and Forestry Meteorology* 237– 238: 184–195. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. agrformet.2017.02.016
- OLIVIER MD, ROBERT S & RICHARD FA. 2016. Response of sugar maple (*Acer saccharum* Marsh.) tree crown structure to competition in pure versus mixed stands. *Forest Ecology and Management* 374: 20–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2016.04.047
- PUTRO NR, YUSRO F, RUSLUNDI, HARDIANSYAH G & PUTZ FE. 2015. Constraints on the harvest of line-planted timber trees in logged and enriched dipterocarp forest in Kalimantan Indonesia. *Journal of Tropical Forest Science* 27: 433–438.

- PUTZ FE, ARCHIBALD RM & PARKER GG. 1984. Mechanical abrasion and intercrown spacing. *American Midland Naturalist* 112: 24–28. https://doi. org/10.2307/2425452
- ROOPSIND A, CAUGHLIN T & PUTZ FE. 2018. Trade-offs between carbon stocks and timber recovery in tropical forests are mediated by logging intensity. *Global Change Biology* 24: 2862–2874. https://doi. org/10.1111/gcb.14155
- ROSE SA. 2000. Seeds, Seedlings and Gaps-Size Matters: A Study in the Tropical Rain Forest of Guyana. Tropenbos-Guyana Series 9. Tropenbos-Guyana Programme, Georgetown.
- RUNKLEJR. 1982. Patterns of disturbance in some old-growth mesic forests of eastern North America. *Ecology* 63: 1533–1546. https://doi.org/10.2307/1938878
- RUNKLE JR. 1985. Disturbance regimes in temperate forests. Pp 17–33 in Pickett ST & White PS (eds) *The Ecology* of Natural Disturbance and Patch Dynamics. Academic Press, New York.
- RUNKLE J & YETTER T. 1987. Treefalls revisted: gap dynamics in the southern Appalachians. *Ecology* 68: 417–424. https://doi.org/10.2307/1939273
- RUSLANDI, JATMOKO, JAPRIANTO ET AL. 2015. Buttress characteristics in relation to topography and crown eccentricity of planted and naturally regenerated *Shorea leprosula* trees. *Journal of Tropical Forest Science* 27: 439–445.
- SMITH C & PUTZ FE. 2021. Effects of permanent and temporary edges on *Pinus clausa* (sand pine) architecture and stand conditions. *Canadian Journal* of Forest Research, 51: 1643–1649. doi.org/10.1139/ cjfr-2021-0016.
- TRIMBLE GJ & TRYON EH. 1966. Crown encroachment into openings cut in Appalachian hardwood stands. *Journal of Forestry* 64: 104–108.
- VALLADARES F & NIINEMETS Ü. 2008. Shade tolerance, a key plant feature of complex nature and consequences. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 39: 237–257. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev. ecolsys.39.110707.173506
- VAN DER HOUT P. 1999. *Reduced Impact Logging in the Tropical Forest of Guyana*. Tropenbos-Guyana Series 6. Tropenbos-Guyana Programme, Georgetown.
- VAN DER MEER PJ. 1995. Canopy dynamics of a tropical rainforest in French Guiana. PhD thesis, Wageningen Agricultural University, Wageningen.
- WENYAN X, WEIWEI Z & YUNMING C. 2022. Climate mediates the effects of forest gaps on tree crown allometry. *Forest Ecology and Management* 525: 120563. doi. org/10.1016/j.foreco.2022.120563
- Young TP & Hubbell SP. 1991. Crown asymmetry, treefalls and repeat disturbance of broad-leaved forest gaps. *Ecology* 72: 1464–1471. https://doi. org/10.2307/1941119
- Young TP & Perkocha V. 1994. Treefalls, crown asymmetry, and buttresses. *Journal of Ecology* 82: 319–324. https://doi.org/10.2307/2261299