

1 **Spatial and seasonal variations of leaf area index (LAI) in subtropical secondary**  
2 **forests related to floristic composition and stand characters**

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19

20 **Abstract.** Leaf area index (LAI) is an important parameter related to carbon, water and energy  
21 exchange between canopy and atmosphere, and is widely applied in process models that simulate  
22 production and hydrological cycles in forest ecosystems. However, fine-scale spatial heterogeneity of  
23 LAI and its controlling factors have yet to be fully understood in Chinese subtropical forests. We used  
24 hemispherical photography to measure LAI values in three subtropical forests (*Pinus*  
25 *massoniana*-*Lithocarpus glaber* coniferous and evergreen broadleaved mixed forests, *Choerospondias*  
26 *axillaris* deciduous broadleaved forests, and *L. glaber*-*Cyclobalanopsis glauca* evergreen broadleaved  
27 forests) from April 2014 to January 2015. Spatial heterogeneity of LAI and its controlling factors were  
28 analysed using geostatistical methods and the generalised additive models (GAMs), respectively. Our  
29 results showed that LAI values differed greatly in the three forests and their seasonal variations were  
30 consistent with plant phenology. LAI values exhibited strong spatial autocorrelation for the three forests  
31 measured in January and for the *L. glaber*-*C. glauca* forest in April, July and October. Obvious patch  
32 distribution pattern of LAI values occurred in three forests during the non-growing period and this  
33 pattern gradually dwindled in the growing season. Stem number, crown coverage, proportion of  
34 evergreen conifer species on basal area basis, proportion of deciduous species on basal area basis and  
35 forest types affected the spatial variations in LAI values in January, while stem number and proportion  
36 of deciduous species on basal area basis affected the spatial variations in LAI values in July. Floristic  
37 composition, spatial heterogeneity and seasonal variations should be considered for sampling strategy in  
38 indirect LAI measurement and application of LAI to simulate functional processes in subtropical

39 forests.

40 **Keywords:** Leaf area index; Spatial heterogeneity; [Geostatistical analysis](#); Generalised additive models  
41 (GAMs)

42

## 43 **1 Introduction**

44 Many fundamental ecological processes in forest ecosystems, such as carbon (C) flux as well as  
45 water and energy exchanges, take place between [the](#) canopy layer and atmosphere ([GCOS, 2006](#); Brut  
46 et al., 2009; Alonzo et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015b). At a finer scale, leaves within [the](#) canopy are the  
47 primary organ to perform a series of physiological activities (i.e. photosynthesis, respiration and  
48 evapotranspiration) ([Aragão et al., 2005](#)) and physical reactions (i.e. rainfall and radiation interception)  
49 ([Aston, 1979](#); Smith, 1981; Crockford & Richardson, 2000). Therefore, the amount of leaves in a forest  
50 is the determinant of above-ground ecological processes and ecosystem functions. Leaf area index  
51 (LAI), defined as total one-sided leaf area per unit ground surface area ([Biudes et al., 2014](#)), is a widely  
52 used parameter ([Kross et al., 2015](#)) to quantitatively describe the vegetation canopy structure ([Woodgate](#)  
53 et al., 2015), to simulate ecological process models ([Brooks et al., 2006](#); [Sprintsin et al., 2007](#); [Facchi et](#)  
54 al., 2010; [Gonsamo & Chen, 2014](#)) and to reveal tree growth and productivity in forests at stand scale  
55 and landscape level ([Lee et al., 2004](#); Liu et al., 2015b). In addition, LAI is listed as one of the essential  
56 variables for observation of global climate ([Mason et al., 2003](#); [Manninen et al., 2009](#)) and for remote  
57 sensing data validation ([Asner et al., 2003](#); [Clark et al., 2008](#)). Thus, accurate [estimates](#) of LAI value are

58 important to understand ecological processes in forest ecosystems.

59 At present, various direct and indirect methods have been developed to measure LAI in forests.  
60 Direct estimation methods including leaf harvest (Clark et al., 2008), allometric equations and litter  
61 collection (Ryu et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2015a) are recognised as the most accurate. However, leaf  
62 harvest and allometric equations methods need time-consuming, labour-intensive and destructive  
63 sampling processes, while litter collection is more feasible for temperate deciduous forests. Obviously,  
64 the direct methods are less applicable to large-scale and long-term LAI monitoring (Bequet et al., 2012;  
65 Biudes et al., 2014). Indirect methods include using a plant canopy analyser (Licor LAI-2000),  
66 hemispherical or fisheye photography (Macfarlane et al., 2007) and remote sensing (Biudes et al., 2014).  
67 The indirect methods retrieve LAI value from light transmittance through canopies or from canopy  
68 image analysis. For large-scale LAI estimates, remote sensing is the most effective method but requires  
69 validation with ground-based LAI data. LAI estimates on the ground at small scales are still a challenge  
70 due to the problems of sampling strategies associated with accepted level of accuracy, time and cost  
71 considerations (Richardson et al., 2009). Hemispherical photography is a relatively simple and easily  
72 operated method among many indirect methods to retrieve LAI value at small scales (Demarez et al.,  
73 2008). Correction of the effects of woody materials, clumping and zenith angles or exposure is critical  
74 to improve the accuracy of LAI estimation (Liu et al., 2015b). Analysis software development and  
75 portable and timely characteristics allow hemispherical photography to measure spatial heterogeneity  
76 and seasonal variations of LAI in forests.

77 Forest canopy structure is highly [complex](#) so LAI values show great temporal and spatial variations at  
78 scales ranging from stand to global scale. For example, LAI values in the 7.9 ha plot of an old humid  
79 temperate forest tended to increase spatially as elevation increased and showed a temporal variation  
80 with plant phenology (Naithani et al., 2013). The spatial patterns of LAI values at stand scale were  
81 significantly influenced by spatial distribution of tree species, which was dependent on topography and  
82 soil types (Naithani et al., 2013). [The coefficient of variation \(CV\)](#) in LAI decreased as the scale  
83 increased and LAI values did not have any relationship with biome type and climate patterns, but were  
84 influenced by land use and land cover, terrain features, and soil properties at stand scale (Aragão et al.,  
85 2005). The CV of LAI of three species (i.e. beech, oak and pine) had different [degrees of spatial](#)  
86 [variation](#) in a 1 ha plot at stand level (Bequet et al., 2012). LAI values in sagebrush displayed strong  
87 spatial patterns [with time](#) after disturbance and increased with stand age and total plant cover (Ewers &  
88 Pendall, 2007). The LAI values derived from MODIS data ([Myneni et al., 2002](#); Huang et al., 2008)  
89 revealed strong spatial variations at global scale, [which](#) were correlated with latitude (Tian et al., 2004).  
90 At [the](#) global scale, temperature is the limiting factor for LAI under cool conditions while water plays a  
91 predominant role under other conditions, and this pattern differed among plant functional types (Iio et  
92 al., 2014). The factors that govern the spatial variations in LAI values at stand level include forest types,  
93 stand structure (Bequet et al., 2012), climate (Shao & Zeng, 2011), topography, soil moisture condition  
94 (Breshears & Barnes, 1999), and human disturbance and management activities (Huang & Ji, 2010).  
95 Although effects of topography, soil properties ([Aragão et al., 2005](#); Naithani et al., 2013) and stand

96 characters (Bequet et al., 2012; Yao et al., 2015) on LAI values have been investigated in detail, the  
97 effect of forest type, stand structural diversity and stand structure on spatial heterogeneity and seasonal  
98 variations of LAI has yet to be fully understood.

99 Chinese subtropical forests contain a diversity of tree species with complex canopy structure that  
100 mostly grow on heterogeneous topography and soil conditions. As a result, LAI in subtropical forests  
101 may exhibit great spatial and seasonal variations, which is worthy of further investigation. However,  
102 LAI data of subtropical forests are relatively deficient in the global database (see Asner et al., 2003). In  
103 this study, we selected three different forests: *Pinus massoniana-Lithocarpus glaber* coniferous and  
104 evergreen broadleaved mixed forests, *Choerospondias axillaris* deciduous broadleaved forests, and *L.*  
105 *glaber-Cyclobalanopsis glauca* evergreen broadleaved forests, in which to measure LAI values were  
106 measured by using hemispherical photography. Spatial heterogeneity of LAI was investigated through  
107 geostatistical analysis, and generalised additive models (GAMs) were used to examine how stand  
108 structural diversity and stand characters affect LAI variations in the three forests. Specifically, the  
109 objectives of this study were: (1) to examine differences and seasonal variations in LAI among three  
110 forests in subtropical China; (2) to analyse spatial heterogeneity of LAI values within a specific forest;  
111 and (3) to identify how forest types, stand structural diversity and stand characters control the spatial  
112 heterogeneity and seasonal variations of LAI values in three forests.

113

## 114 **2 Materials and methods**

## 115 2.1 Study site description

116 The study was carried out at Dashanchong Forest Farm (latitude 28°23'58"-28°24' 58" N, longitude  
117 113°17'46"-113°19'08" E), Changsha County, Hunan Province, China. The farm experiences a humid  
118 mid-subtropical monsoon climate. Mean annual air temperature was 16.5 °C, with a mean monthly  
119 minimum temperature of -11°C in January and maximum temperature of 40°C in July. Mean annual  
120 precipitation ranged from 1412 mm to 1559 mm, mostly occurring between April and August. The  
121 topography is characterized by a typical low hilly landscape with an altitude between 55 m and 260 m  
122 above sea level. Soil type is designated as well-drained clay loam red soil developed on slate and shale  
123 rock, classified as Alliti-Udic Ferrosols, corresponding to Acrisol in the World Reference Base for Soil  
124 Resource (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006). Evergreen broadleaved forest is the climax vegetation of  
125 the region. As a result of human disturbance and management activities, the farm has no primary forest,  
126 and possesses a range of secondary forests in different stages of succession (based on species  
127 composition) dominated by different tree species, including (1) early stage *P. massoniana*-*L. glaber*  
128 coniferous and evergreen broadleaved mixed forests dominated by the shade-intolerant coniferous  
129 species typical of early succession, (2) middle stage *C. axillaris* deciduous broadleaved forests  
130 dominated by shade-intolerant deciduous broadleaf species, and (3) late stage *L. glaber*-*C. glauca*  
131 evergreen broadleaved forests dominated by the shade-tolerant evergreen broadleaved species  
132 commonly observed in the late stage of succession in this farm (Xiang et al., 2015; Ouyang et al., 2016).

133

134 **2.2 Determination of stand characteristics**

135 We established a permanent plot for each of three forests (i.e. 90 m × 190 m irregular plot for *P.*  
136 *massoniana-L. glaber* mixed forests, 100 m × 100 m plot for *C. axillaris* deciduous forests, and 100 m ×  
137 100 m plot for *L. glaber-C. glauca* evergreen broadleaved forests). Each plot was divided into 10 m ×  
138 10 m subplots, where tree species, diameter at breast height (DBH, cm), tree height (H, m), height under  
139 the lowest live branch (m) and crown width (m) were measured for the individual stem with DBH larger  
140 than 1 cm. Stand characteristics for the trees with DBH >4 cm of the three forests are presented in Table  
141 S1.

142 To identify the factors that control spatial heterogeneity of LAI values in the forests, we selected  
143 individual trees with H larger than average height of each stand (see Table S1) and calculated their stem  
144 number, average DBH, H, total basal area at breast height (BA), crown width, crown coverage  
145 (calculated from crown diameter measured for individual trees within a stand), tree species diversity,  
146 tree size diversity, the proportion of BA of three functional group (coniferous, deciduous and evergreen  
147 broadleaved species) to total stand BA within a subplot. Tree species diversity (biodiversity index, BDI)  
148 was determined using the Shannon-Wiener index as follows:

149 
$$BDI = -\sum P_i \ln P_i \quad (1)$$

150 where  $P_i$  is important value of  $i$ th species and is calculated by dividing the sum of relative abundance  
151 degree ( $Ar$ ) and relative dominance degree ( $Dr$ ) of  $i$ th species within a subplot by two.

152 Based on the Shannon-Wiener index, 2 cm was used for the DBH class, so tree size diversity ( $H$ ) was



153 determined using the formula of Lei et al. (2009):

$$154 \quad H = -\sum P_i \ln P_i \quad (2)$$

155 where  $P_i$  is the proportion of basal area for the  $i$ th diameter class.

156

### 157 **2.3 Sampling design for LAI measurement**

158 At the centre of each subplot of the three forests, hemispherical photographs were taken using a LAI  
159 measuring instrument (SY-S01A, Shiya Scientific and Technical Cooperation, Hebei, China) throughout  
160 four measurement seasons, i.e. in April (spring), July (summer) and October (autumn) in 2014 and  
161 January (winter) in 2015. The operation was carried out below canopy with the fisheye lens (Pentax  
162 TS2V114E, Japan) 1.0 m above the ground (Manninen et al., 2009) with a viewing angle of 180°. The  
163 picture exposure is automatic exposure set by the manufacturer, and we took the photographs (768 ×  
164 494 pix, BMP) in the morning, at dusk or when cloudy, in order to minimize influence of direct  
165 sunshine (Rich, 1990; Bequet et al., 2012). The images were processed and effective LAI values ( $L_e$ )  
166 were recorded using plant canopy analysis software developed by the manufacturer, for which  
167 appropriate pixel classification (thresholding) was chosen (752(H) × 494(V)), viewing angle considered  
168 (150°), and the hemispherical photography was divided into five rings to obtain results. To obtain  
169 accurate LAI ( $L$ ), the correction was made to  $L_e$  based on previous theory (Chen, 1996):

$$170 \quad L = \frac{(1-\alpha)L_e\gamma_E}{\Omega_E} \quad (3)$$

171 where  $\alpha$  is the ratio of woody to total area and reflects the contribution of woody materials to  $L_e$ , and  $\Omega_E$

172 is the clumping index that quantifies the effect of foliage clumping beyond shoots level. In the method  
173 getting accurate  $\Omega_E$  values, the hemispherical photography was divided into ten sectors.  $\gamma_E$  is the needle  
174 to shoot area ratio and quantifies the effect of foliage clumping within shoots.

175 Photoshop Software (Adobe Photoshop CS5, Adobe Systems Incorporated, North America) was used  
176 to calculate  $\alpha$ . After total pixel number of  $L_e$  image was determined, in the Photoshop software, we used  
177 the Clone Stamp Tool to select the image of the woody materials (e.g. stems) and excluded the pixels,  
178 leaving only leaves on the photos, recorded as LAI of leaves ( $LAI_{leaf}$ ). The value of  $\alpha$  was calculated  
179 accordingly:

$$\alpha = (L_e - LAI_{leaf})/L_e \quad (4)$$

181 The logarithm averaging method proposed by Lang and Xiang (1986) was applied to calculate  $\Omega_E$ :

$$\Omega(\theta) = \frac{\ln[\overline{P(\theta)}]}{\ln[P(\theta)]} = \frac{n \ln[\overline{P(\theta)}]}{\sum_{k=1}^n \ln(P_k(\theta))} \quad (5)$$

183 where  $P(\theta)$  is the average gap fraction (expressed without the bar in the text),  $\ln[P(\theta)]$  is the logarithm  
184 average of the gap fraction, and  $P_k(\theta)$  is the gap fraction of segment  $k$ . For deciduous and evergreen  
185 broadleaved species,  $\gamma_E=1.0$ , but for coniferous species,  $\gamma_E$  is always  $>1.0$ , but we ignored the effect of  
186 needle to shoot area on LAI in this study.

187

## 188 2.4 Data analysis

189 The minimum, maximum, mean value, standard deviation and CV were calculated for the LAI data  
190 measured in 100 plots within each forest. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to detect

191 effect of forest type and measurement season on LAI value. The LAI data in the three forests were  
 192 tested for normal distribution using the K-S test ( $P<0.05$ ). We followed Chiang et al. (2003) in  
 193 regarding LAI values as normal when they fell within the mean value  $\pm 3$  standard deviations. Otherwise,  
 194 the LAI values were regarded as outliers and replaced with the maximum or the minimum of normal  
 195 values. Because the geostatistical analysis requires that the data meet normal distribution, the  
 196 transformation was applied if the data did not meet normal distribution (Dai et al., 2014). Most values  
 197 required natural logarithm transformation to meet assumptions of normality. The exception is for *L.*  
 198 *glaber-C. glauca* in April and in November which were artan-transformed.

199 To investigate spatial heterogeneity of LAI values over four seasons measured in the three forests,  
 200 semivariance function was calculated as follows:

$$201 \quad \gamma(h) = \frac{1}{2N(h)} \sum_{i=1}^{N(h)} [Z(x_i) - Z(x_i + h)]^2 \quad (6)$$

202 where  $\gamma(h)$  is semivariance value of lag distance  $h$ ,  $N(h)$  is the number of pair data for lag distance  $h$ ,  
 203  $Z(x_i)$  and  $Z(x_i + h)$  represent LAI values at coordinate  $x_i$  and  $(x_i + h)$  (Rossi et al., 1992). Based on the  
 204 semivariogram plotting  $\gamma(h)$  values against  $h$  variable, the appropriate models were fitted and we  
 205 obtained the values of nugget ( $C_0$ ), sill ( $C_0 + C$ ), range ( $A_0$ ) (Ewers & Pendall, 2007) and the ratio  
 206  $[C/(C_0 + C)]$  that reflected the degree of spatial autocorrelation of LAI values in a forest. Because spatial  
 207 autocorrelation and semivariogram theory make unbiased optimal estimation for regional variables in a  
 208 limited area (Bivand et al., 2013), the Kriging interpolation method, an unbiased estimation of the  
 209 regional variables of the sampling points using the structure of the data and semivariogram function,

210 was used to predict unknown LAI values in the forests from the data measured and to produce spatial  
211 distribution maps of LAI values for the three forests and four seasons. Compared with other methods,  
212 the Kriging method can overcome the difficulty in analysing error of interpolation, does not produce the  
213 boundary effect of regression analysis, and estimates the spatial variability distribution of measured  
214 parameters. Ordinary Kriging - one of the Kriging methods - is a least-squares method of spatial  
215 prediction based on the assumption of an unknown mean. It is the most common type of Kriging in  
216 practice (Dai et al., 2014) and is widely used in soil spatial heterogeneity studies (Elbasiouny et al.,  
217 2014). In our study, we also used the ordinary Kriging interpolation method to investigate spatial  
218 heterogeneity of LAI values.

219 Because the largest amount of defoliated leaves occurs in January and leaves fully expand in July in  
220 subtropical forests, we chose LAI values measured in January and July in three forests as response  
221 variables. The explanatory variables include forest types, stand structural diversity (species richness,  
222 tree species diversity and tree size diversity) and stand characters (stem number, average DBH, H, BA,  
223 crown width, crown coverage, the proportion of two functional groups (deciduous and evergreen conifer  
224 species) to total stand BA). The generalised additive models (GAMs) are able to analyse complex and  
225 nonlinear relationships (Guisan et al., 2002; Austin, 2002; Wood, 2006). Therefore, we used GAMs to  
226 examine how the factors affect LAI values. The function of GAMs is the addition of many smooth  
227 functions and each smooth function has an explanatory variable. In our study, we chose smooth spline  
228 with two splines as the smooth method for GAMs. The variance inflation factor (VIF) - the ratio of the

229 regression coefficient variance for a variable when fit with all variables to that for the variable if fit on  
230 its own - was used to test the multi-collinearity of explanatory variables (James et al., 2013). When the  
231 VIF of an explanatory variable is between 0 and 10, the variable was retained to the model; otherwise,  
232 we discarded the variable (Shen et al., 2015). The Akaike information criterion (AIC) or generalised  
233 cross validation (GCV) was used to determine whether the model was good or bad (Clark, 2013). The  
234 factors selected after the multi-collinearity test were used for multi-factor analysis. After all the possible  
235 models in multi-factor analysis, we determined the optimal model based on the significant influence of  
236 all explanatory variables in the model with the smallest AIC or GCV (Dong et al., 2012). Geostatistical  
237 analysis was performed with GS+ software (Gamma Design Software). Statistical analysis and GAMs  
238 analysis were operated in R 3.2.1 (R Development Core Team, 2015). The car packages were used to  
239 test multi-collinearity and the gam packages were used to select the optimal model.

240

## 241 **3 Results**

### 242 **3.1 Variation in LAI values**

243 The LAI values varied with forest type and measurement season (Table 1). Generally, LAI differed  
244 significantly between measurement season ( $P < 0.001$ ), but LAI difference was not significant among  
245 forest types ( $P > 0.05$ ). Interactive effects of measurement seasons and forest types on LAI were  
246 significant ( $P < 0.01$ ). Among three forests, LAI in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest had relatively low  
247 variation, while LAI in the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest had the highest variation. In the *P. massoniana-L.*

248 *glaber* forest, LAI showed the largest variation (the highest CVs) in October and the lowest variation  
249 (the smallest CVs) in January. In the *C. axillaris* forest, the largest variation in LAI was found in April  
250 and the lowest was found in January. In the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest, LAI showed the largest variation  
251 in April and had the lowest variation in July.

252 Mean LAI values in the three forests showed different seasonal variation patterns (Fig. 1). The *C.*  
253 *axillaris* forest exhibited a unimodal pattern of seasonal variation, with the maximum mean LAI value  
254 ( $3.11 \pm 1.18$ ) occurring in July and the minimum mean LAI value ( $1.28 \pm 0.44$ ) in January. In the *P.*  
255 *massoniana-L. glaber* forest and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest, the maximum mean LAI values occurred in  
256 October and the minimum mean LAI values appeared in January. During the growing season (April and  
257 July), the *C. axillaris* forest had the highest mean LAI value and the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest had the  
258 lowest mean LAI value. During the non-growing season (October and January), the *L. glaber-C. glauca*  
259 forest had the highest mean LAI value in January, while the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest had the  
260 highest mean LAI value in October, and the *C. axillaris* forest had the lowest mean LAI values.

261 Mean  $\alpha$  values in the three forests showed different seasonal variation patterns (Table 2). The *C.*  
262 *axillaris* forest exhibited a unimodal pattern of seasonal variations in mean  $\alpha$  value, with the maximum  
263 mean  $\alpha$  value occurring in January and the minimum mean  $\alpha$  value in July. No obvious seasonal  
264 variations were found for the mean  $\alpha$  value in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest and in the *L. glaber-C.*  
265 *glauca* forest. Mean  $\Omega_E$  values in the three forests were between 0.84 and 0.92, but they did not show  
266 clear seasonal variations, and the standard deviations were small.

267

### 268 3.2 Spatial heterogeneity in LAI values

269 The semivariogram results for LAI across the three forests during different measurement seasons are  
270 summarised in Table 3. The spatially dependent variance [C] accounted for 88.9%-98.4% of the total  
271 variance [C+C<sub>0</sub>] for LAI values measured in January in the three forests and also in April, July and  
272 October in the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest. This indicated the strong spatial autocorrelations of LAI  
273 values over short distances. These LAI data were best fitted with a Gaussian model or exponential  
274 model ( $r^2 > 0.50$ ).

275 Spatial autocorrelation ranges of LAI values differed among forests and measurement seasons (Table  
276 3). In January, the largest spatial autocorrelation range was found in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest,  
277 and the lowest was found in the *C. axillaris* forest. In April, the largest spatial autocorrelation range of  
278 LAI was found in the *C. axillaris* forest, and the lowest was found in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest.  
279 In July, the largest spatial autocorrelation range of LAI was in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest, while  
280 the smallest was in the *C. axillaris* forest. In October, the largest spatial autocorrelation range of LAI  
281 was in the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest, while the smallest was in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest.  
282 Seasonal changes of range showed one peak pattern for *C. axillaris* forest and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest,  
283 where the large range appeared in the growing season (April and July) and the small range appeared in  
284 the non-growing season (October and January).

285 Spatial distribution pattern of LAI values also varied with forest type and measurement season (Fig.

286 2). For example, LAI values in January across the three forests exhibited obvious patch and  
287 heterogeneous spatial distribution. In April and July, less spatial heterogeneity was found for LAI values  
288 especially in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest. In October, heterogeneous and patch spatial  
289 distributions of LAI values appeared in the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest, and banded spatial distributions  
290 of LAI values obviously appeared in the *C. axillaris* forest.

291

### 292 3.3 Factors affecting LAI variation

293 The multi-collinearity test indicated that the explanatory variables in January and July did not have  
294 multi-collinearity. Thus, forest type, species richness, tree species diversity, tree size diversity, stem  
295 number, average DBH, H, BA, crown width, crown coverage, and the proportion of two functional  
296 groups (deciduous and evergreen conifer species) to total stand BA were included as explanatory  
297 variables in multi-factor analysis for LAI values measured in January in the three forests. After  
298 comparing all possible models, the best fitted GAMs for LAI values in January were expressed as  $LAI \sim$   
299  $s(\text{stem number}, 2) + s(\text{crown coverage}, 2) + s(\text{PESB}, 2) + s(\text{PDSB}, 2) + \text{factor}(\text{forest types})$  (Table 4).

300 For LAI values measured in July, all these factors selected by the multi-collinearity test were included  
301 as explanatory variables in multi-factor analysis. The best fitted GAMs for LAI values in July were  
302 expressed as  $LAI \sim s(\text{stem number}, 2) + s(\text{PDSB}, 2)$  (Table 4).

303 The explanatory variables included in GAMs reflected their effects on or relationship with LAI  
304 variations. Given that other variables were fixed, LAI measured in January tended to decrease as stem



305 number increased. LAI showed a positive nonlinear relationship with crown coverage up to  $\sim 200 \text{ m}^2$ ,  
306 and then decreased with increasing crown coverage. The LAI values tended to increase as the  
307 proportion of evergreen conifer species to total stand BA increased, and tended to decrease as the  
308 proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA increased (Fig. 3). Given that other variables were  
309 fixed, LAI measured in July tended to increase as stem number increased up to  $\sim 7$  and then decreased at  
310 higher values. The effect of the proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA on LAI appeared  
311 more complicated, in that LAI increased as the proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA  
312 increased up to  $\sim 0.7$ , and then decreased at higher values (Fig. 4).

313

## 314 **4 Discussion**

### 315 **4.1 Seasonal variation in LAI value among forest type**

316 LAI data in subtropical forests in southern China are lacking compared to other global regions (Asner  
317 et al., 2003). This study provided seasonal LAI data in three subtropical forests that consist of  
318 contrasting functional types of species. Their mean LAI values varied from  $1.28 \pm 0.44$  to  $3.28 \pm 1.26$   
319 (Table 1). This result is close to the LAI range (from 1.0 in winter to 4.0 in summer) retrieved by remote  
320 sensing techniques from the subtropical area of China from 2000 to 2010 (Liu et al., 2012). Compared  
321 with the LAI values estimated from allometric equations (Xiang et al., 2016) and specific leaf area  
322 (SLA) values in  $40 \text{ m} \times 40 \text{ m}$  plots in this study ( $5.29\text{-}9.19$ ), the LAI values measured by hemispherical  
323 photography are low but significantly correlated ( $r^2=0.40$  and  $P=0.035$ ). Previous studies (see Lopes et

324 al., 2015) have proved the underestimation of LAI using hemispherical photography. However, the  
325 method is feasible to obtain forest LAI data and to investigate spatial and seasonal variation in such  
326 values (Coops et al., 2004; Dovey & Toit, 2006).

327 The ratio of woody to total area ( $\alpha$ ) and the clumping index ( $\Omega_E$ ) have been recognised as the error  
328 sources in LAI measurement by optical methods (Chen et al., 1997; Bréda, 2003; Liu et al., 2015a). So  
329 far these two parameters have been measured in northeastern China (Liu et al., 2015a; Liu et al., 2015b),  
330 which showed that the  $\alpha$  values ranged from  $0.04\pm 0.01$  to  $0.69\pm 0.12$  and  $\Omega_E$  values ranged from  
331  $0.88\pm 0.04$  to  $0.96\pm 0.01$ . These values were measured in temperate forest in northeastern China and  
332 differed from our study (mean  $\alpha$  values varied from  $0.04\pm 0.03$  to  $0.15\pm 0.09$  and mean  $\Omega_E$  values varied  
333 from  $0.84\pm 0.09$  to  $0.92\pm 0.08$ ) (Table 2), so they are not suitable for LAI correction in subtropical forests.  
334 Also literature on  $\alpha$  and  $\Omega_E$  values in subtropical forests is scarce. The variations in  $\alpha$  are probably due  
335 to the seasonal variations and spatial heterogeneity of canopy structure in the three forests. In general,  
336 the  $\alpha$  values are consistent with the amount of leaf litter. Our results showed that the large mean  $\alpha$   
337 values occurred in autumn for the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest and the *C. axillaris* forest, but in  
338 spring and autumn for the *L. glaber-C. glauca* forest (Table 2). This seasonal change in mean  $\alpha$  value in  
339 three forests was generally consistent with the amount of leaf litter collected by a litter trap installed in  
340 each forest type (Guo et al., 2015). The average  $\Omega_E$  value (0.87) in this study was smaller than the  
341 values of mixed broadleaved-Korean pine forest in northeastern China (Liu et al. 2015b) and this could  
342 be attributed to the different region and forests. The values of  $\alpha$  and  $\Omega_E$  obtained in this study fill the gap

343 of calibration for optical measurement of LAI in subtropical forests.

344 Mean LAI values differed among the three forests and the differences were significant between the *C.*  
345 *axillaris* forest and the other two forests at a given measurement season. The *C. axillaris* forest had a  
346 relatively high mean LAI value during the growing season but changed to the lowest mean LAI value  
347 during the non-growing season. The change in mean LAI values in the *C. axillaris* forest was consistent  
348 with the study of a deciduous species-dominated forest reported by Naithani et al. (2013). It has been  
349 reported that the forests consisting of different plant functional types showed different LAI values  
350 (Asner et al., 2003; Iio et al., 2014). The differences and seasonal variations of LAI values in the three  
351 forests could be attributed to floristic composition and phenological defoliation patterns of tree species  
352 especially the deciduous species. The *C. axillaris* forest consisted of 74.15% deciduous species, 25.80%  
353 evergreen broadleaved species and 0.05% evergreen coniferous species, while the proportions of  
354 deciduous species were 10.05% and 25.70% in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* and *L. glaber-C. glauca*  
355 forests, respectively. Seasonal growth and defoliation of different functional types of species lead to the  
356 change in leaf lifespan and foliage area (Niinemets, 2010) during different seasons related to  
357 temperature and water availability, which are responsible for the unimodal pattern of seasonal variation  
358 in mean LAI values. This agrees with the results of Liu et al. (2012), where the highest LAI was found  
359 in summer (July), followed by autumn (October) and spring (April), and the lowest was found in winter  
360 (January).

361

## 362 4.2 Within-forest spatial heterogeneity and factors controlling LAI

363 Semivariograms of LAI values in the three forests were fitted with spherical, Gaussian, exponential  
364 or linear models (Table 3). Based on the fitted models, the degree of spatial autocorrelation could be  
365 evaluated. Spatial autocorrelation is weak when the determination coefficient ( $r^2$ ) of the best-fitted  
366 semivariogram model is less than 0.5 (Duffera et al., 2007). The ratio  $[C/(C_0+C)]$  is also used to  
367 describe the degree of spatial autocorrelation. A ratio of between 0 and 0.25 indicates a weak spatial  
368 autocorrelation, of between 0.26 and 0.75 indicates moderate autocorrelation and of more than 0.75  
369 indicates strong autocorrelation (Lopez-Granados et al., 2004). Spatial autocorrelation of LAI in this  
370 study varied with forest and measurement season (Table 3). Strong spatial autocorrelation in LAI values  
371 at a short range measured in January in all three forests indicated the sampling distance is reasonable for  
372 LAI variables within the spatial range (Liu et al., 2008). On the contrary, weak autocorrelation indicated  
373 that more samples and smaller sampling intervals should be taken to determine spatial dependency of  
374 LAI, such as for LAI measured in April in the *P. massoniana-L. glaber* forest.

375 Spatial heterogeneity in LAI values was different for forest type and measurement season. Our study  
376 described spatial variations in LAI value by CV and geostatistical analysis, and the results were largely  
377 consistent with each other. In general, the CVs of LAI values in the three forest types (in particular *C.*  
378 *axillaris* forest) were higher for the period of leaf onset (April) and senescence (October) than for the  
379 period of leaf maturity (July) (Table 1). This reflects changes in leaves due to plant phenology and is  
380 consistent with the study of Naithani (2013) where LAI became increasingly homogenous from leaf

381 onset to maturity, but became more heterogeneous from maturity to senescence. As a result, degree of  
382 heterogeneity in LAI value for all three forests tended to dwindle from leaf non-growing season to  
383 growing season (Fig. 2).

384 The complex hydrothermal environment results in complex vertical and horizontal variation in  
385 canopy layer and formed unique spatial heterogeneity in LAI values. The effects of stand characters on  
386 LAI have been examined and positive and negative effects have been reported (Tobin et al., 2006;  
387 Bequet et al., 2012; Yao et al., 2015). In our study, results from GAMs showed that forest types, stand  
388 structural diversity and stand characters affected spatial heterogeneity of LAI values significantly in the  
389 three forests. This finding that floristic composition and stand characters affected LAI values measured  
390 in July is consistent with the study of Yao et al. (2015); LAI values increased with stem number but  
391 when stem number was larger than 7, LAI values decreased with stem number mainly due to the  
392 floristic composition in these study areas. Because July is the period of leaf maturity for deciduous  
393 species and leaves fully expand in this season, LAI values tended to increase as ratio of deciduous  
394 species increased, but when the ratio was higher than ~0.7, its negative relationship with LAI probably  
395 could be explained by the strong competition among tree species, with diverse species composition and  
396 the canopy overlap among tree species (Fig. 4). Our results indicated that LAI values did not exhibit a  
397 significant relationship with stand BA, consistent with the findings of McDowell (2007); total LAI did  
398 not exhibit a clear pattern in relation to stand BA.

399 Until now, the non-growing season relationship of LAI variation with forest type and stand characters

400 has been seldom reported. In this study, forest type, stem number, crown coverage, proportion of  
401 evergreen conifer species to total stand BA and proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA and  
402 forest type were the factors significantly affecting LAI variation in January. As January is mainly the  
403 leaf senescence period of deciduous species, LAI values in January decreased with stem number and  
404 decreased with deciduous species ratio. The relationship between LAI value and the evergreen species  
405 ratio was generally the reverse of that between LAI and the deciduous species ratio. The fact that LAI  
406 values in January decreased with increasing crown coverage when crown coverage was larger than ~200  
407 m<sup>2</sup> could be explained by large crown coverage resulting in more defoliation (in particular for  
408 deciduous species) in the forest in January (Fig. 3). The proportion of deciduous species to total stand  
409 BA both significantly affected LAI variations in January and July, and the relationship between LAI and  
410 the deciduous species proportion was reversed when the ratio was smaller than 0.7 in these two seasons,  
411 which is consistent with the growth law of deciduous species. Thus, deciduous species play an  
412 important role in LAI variations across seasons. Also the seasons have a significant effect on LAI  
413 variation by affecting leaf growth. The partial effects of stem number and crown coverage on the LAI  
414 values observed in January showed these smooth functions were large at both ends of the 95%  
415 confidence interval. This was due to the small sample number in this range, and most were concentrated  
416 in the middle parts, the same as the partial effects of stem number on the LAI values observed in  
417 January (Figs 3, 4).

418 Although the factors selected by regression could explain a small proportion (4%) of spatial

419 heterogeneity of LAI measured in July, the factors selected in January could explain 35% of the LAI  
420 spatial heterogeneity (Table 4). The LAI heterogeneity also could be affected by several other factors,  
421 such as the topography (Naithani et al., 2012), soil feature (Chloer et al., 2010), soil temperature  
422 (Vitasse et al., 2009; Hardwick et al., 2015), microclimate, human activity and other physicochemical  
423 properties. However, full leaf expansion of all tree species, which covers up the effect of other  
424 physicochemical properties on LAI, leads to a small difference in LAI in July. The effects of  
425 environmental factors (e.g. temperate and rainfall) on LAI in the forests at the fine scale should be taken  
426 into account in future studies.

427 Spatial heterogeneity of LAI in the three forests can yield some useful information for sampling  
428 strategy to accurately estimate of LAI using indirect measurement. An optimal sampling strategy should  
429 consider appropriate sampling plot size and the lowest sampling number that, as far as possible, obtains  
430 a high sampling accuracy and a low sampling error (Bequet et al., 2012). Our study found that strong  
431 spatial autocorrelations range were ~13-27 m (the minimal range was 13.80 m, and the maximal range  
432 was 27.00 m) (Table 3), indicating that the range from 13 m to 27 m might serve as the reference for  
433 sampling plot size to estimate LAI in subtropical forests. In addition, LAI heterogeneity was closely  
434 related to floristic composition and stand characters, thus stand structural variables (BA or DBH) are  
435 important for sampling strategy to measure LAI in forests (Bequet et al., 2012).

436

## 437 **5 Conclusions**

438 This study measured LAI in three subtropical forests using a hemispherical photography method over  
439 four seasons, and offered reliable data to analyse spatial and seasonal variations in LAI. Our results  
440 indicated that LAI differed greatly with forest type and measurement season. Seasonal variation in LAI  
441 across the three forests reflects defoliation due to plant phenology. LAI values for all three forests  
442 exhibited different spatial autocorrelation in the four seasons. A clear patch distribution pattern in LAI  
443 value was found during the non-growing seasons and this pattern gradually dwindled in the growing  
444 seasons. While stem number, crown coverage, proportion of evergreen conifer species to total stand BA,  
445 the proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA, and forest type significantly affected spatial  
446 variations in LAI values in January, stem number and proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA  
447 significantly affected spatial variations in LAI values in July. These findings supplement LAI data for  
448 global synthesis, and will provide valuable information for sampling strategies to enable more accurate  
449 estimates of LAI for simulated models of production and hydrological cycles in subtropical forests.

450

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458

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655 **Table 1** Descriptive statistical characteristics of LAI values measured from April 2014 to January 2015  
 656 in *P. massoniana-L. glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests ( $n=100$ ).

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Measurement season	Forest type	Minimum value	Maximum value	Variance coefficient (%)	<i>P</i> -value of K-S test	Data transformation
	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	1.29	4.03	27.5	0.021	0.275
January	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.53	2.38	34.0	0.260	
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	0.43	6.98	40.2	0.018	0.243
	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	1.57	7.83	36.4	0.076	
April	<i>C. axillaris</i>	1.34	8.33	47.0	0.047	0.535
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	1.34	10.22	59.6	0.000	0.158
	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	1.56	8.16	38.0	0.003	0.075
July	<i>C. axillaris</i>	1.73	8.17	37.8	0.166	
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	1.68	7.58	33.1	0.010	0.170
	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	1.55	6.79	38.3	0.321	
October	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.37	6.51	44.1	0.102	
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	1.49	7.88	49.3	0.000	0.212

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661 **Table 2** Average woody to total leaf ration ( $\alpha$ ) and clumping index ( $\Omega_E$ ) values in *P. massoniana-L.*  
662 *glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests. Values in parenthesis are the standard deviation of  $\alpha$   
663 and  $\Omega_E$  values ( $n=100$ ).

Measurement season	Forest type	Mean value		Standard deviation	
		$\alpha$	$\Omega_E$	$\alpha$	$\Omega_E$
January	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	0.06	0.88	0.04	0.09
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.15	0.92	0.09	0.08
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	0.07	0.87	0.09	0.09
April	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	0.08	0.87	0.05	0.09
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.07	0.85	0.06	0.10
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	0.15	0.86	0.07	0.09
July	<i>P. massoniana - L. glaber</i>	0.07	0.87	0.04	0.09
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.04	0.90	0.03	0.07
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	0.05	0.87	0.03	0.08
October	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	0.09	0.85	0.10	0.08
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	0.14	0.87	0.14	0.10
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	0.09	0.84	0.08	0.09

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671 **Table 3** Semivariogram theoretical models and fitted parameters for LAI values in *P. massoniana-L.*  
672 *glaber* (90 m × 190 m irregular shape), *C. axillaris* (100 m × 100 m) and *L. glaber-C. glauca* (100 m ×  
673 100 m) forests.

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Measurement season	Forest type	Model	Nugget ( $C_0$ )	Sill ( $C_0+C$ )	$C/(C_0+C)$	Range ( $A_0/m$ )	$r^2$	Residual sum of squares (RSS)
January	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	Exponential	0.0068	0.0614	0.889	27.00	0.607	$9.762 \times 10^{-5}$
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	Exponential	0.0030	0.1820	0.984	13.80	0.504	$1.219 \times 10^{-4}$
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	Gaussian	0.0029	0.1178	0.975	15.42	0.888	$3.468 \times 10^{-5}$
April	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	Exponential	0.1220	0.7670	0.841	17.70	0.229	0.017
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	Linear	0.1760	0.1760	0.000	52.96	0.189	$1.762 \times 10^{-4}$
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	Exponential	0.0008	0.0152	0.951	26.40	0.978	$2.290 \times 10^{-7}$
July	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	Linear	0.0843	0.0843	0.000	92.69	0.074	$1.383 \times 10^{-4}$
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	Exponential	0.1460	0.9340	0.844	17.70	0.258	0.017
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	Exponential	0.0065	0.0684	0.905	22.80	0.951	$5.781 \times 10^{-6}$
October	<i>P. massoniana-L. glaber</i>	Exponential	0.1620	1.6310	0.901	11.70	0.173	0.017
	<i>C. axillaris</i>	Spherical	0.0050	0.5830	0.991	11.90	0.000	$1.870 \times 10^{-3}$
	<i>L. glaber-C. glauca</i>	Exponential	0.0005	0.0125	0.960	21.90	0.894	$4.444 \times 10^{-7}$

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678 **Table 4** Estimated coefficients of the generalised additive models (GAMs) for the factors with effects  
 679 on LAI values measured in *P. massoniana-L. glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests.

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Measurement season	Parameter	F-value	P-value	r <sup>2</sup>	AIC
January	s (Stem number, 2)	16.716	<0.0001***	0.3481	655.91
	s (Crown coverage, 2)	4.545	0.034*		
	s (PESB, 2)	26.105	<0.0001***		
	s (PDSB, 2)	27.281	<0.0001***		
	factor(Forest types)	39.847	<0.0001***		
July	s (Stem number, 2)	5.027	0.026*	0.040	880.93
	s (PDSB, 2)	7.115	0.008**		

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682 The significance of the regressions (*P*) are \*, \*\*, \*\*\* for *P*<0.05, 0.01, and 0.001, respectively

683 **Figure captions**

684 **Fig. 1** Seasonal variation in mean LAI value (with standard deviation) in *P. massoniana-L. glaber*, *C.*  
685 *axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests. The different letters by values indicate significant differences  
686 ( $P<0.05$ ) among measurement seasons in a given forest.

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688 **Fig. 2** Spatial heterogeneity map of LAI values interpolated through ordinary Kriging method for *P.*  
689 *massoniana-L. glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests.

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691 **Fig. 3** Partial effects of stem number, crown coverage ( $m^2$ ), the proportion of evergreen conifer species  
692 to total stand BA (PESB), the proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA (PDSB) and forest types  
693 (calculated for overstorey trees with height larger than average stand height) on the LAI values  
694 observed in January in *P. massoniana-L. glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests.

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696 **Fig. 4** Partial effects of stem number and the proportion of deciduous species to total stand BA (PDSB)  
697 (calculated for overstorey trees with height larger than average stand height) on the LAI values  
698 observed in July in *P. massoniana-L. glaber*, *C. axillaris* and *L. glaber-C. glauca* forests.

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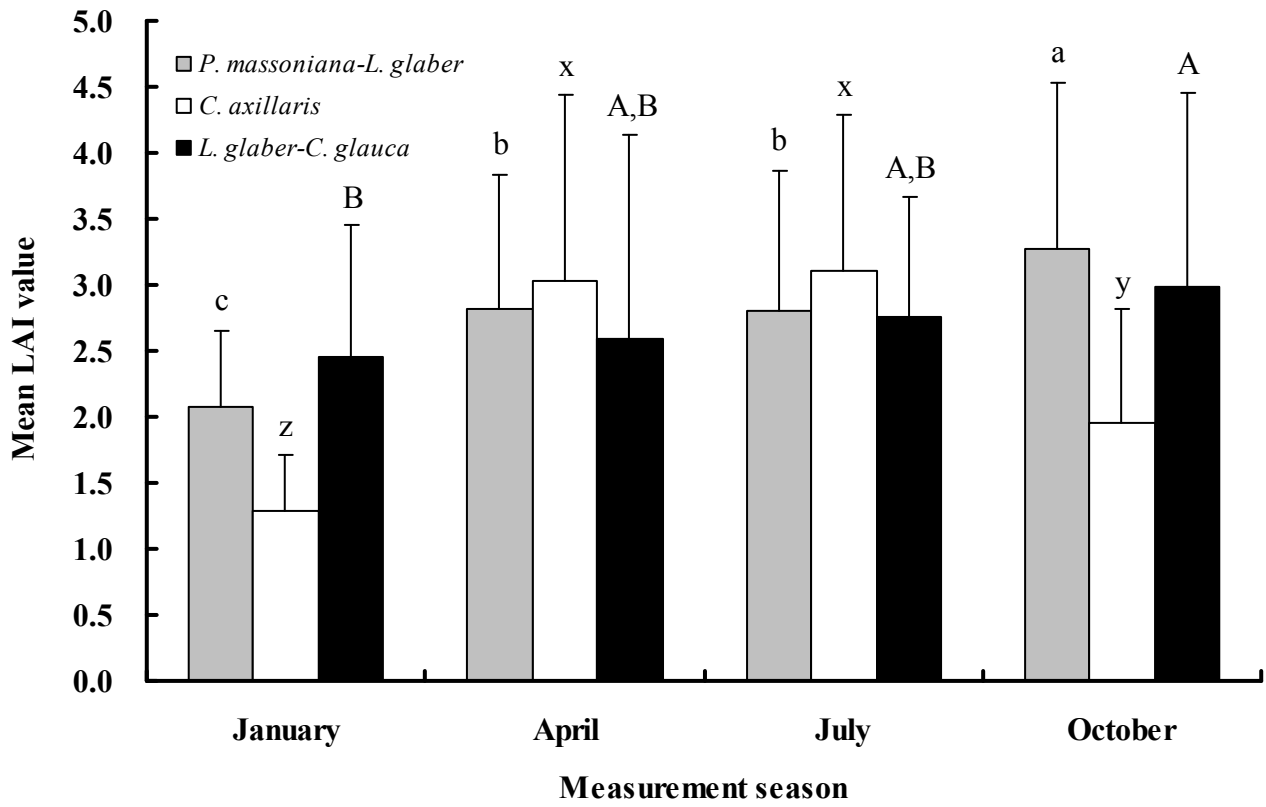
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702 **Figure 1**

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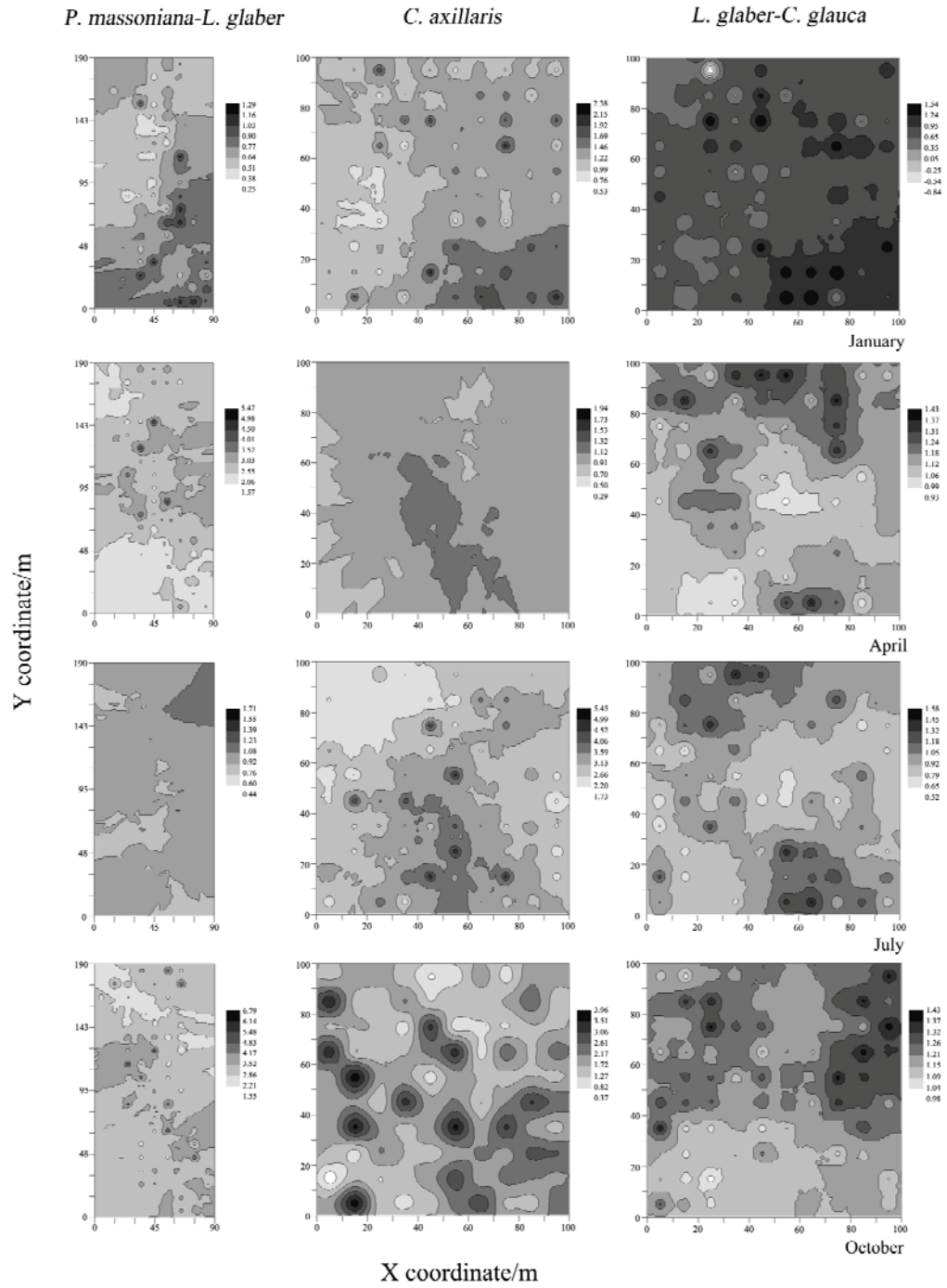
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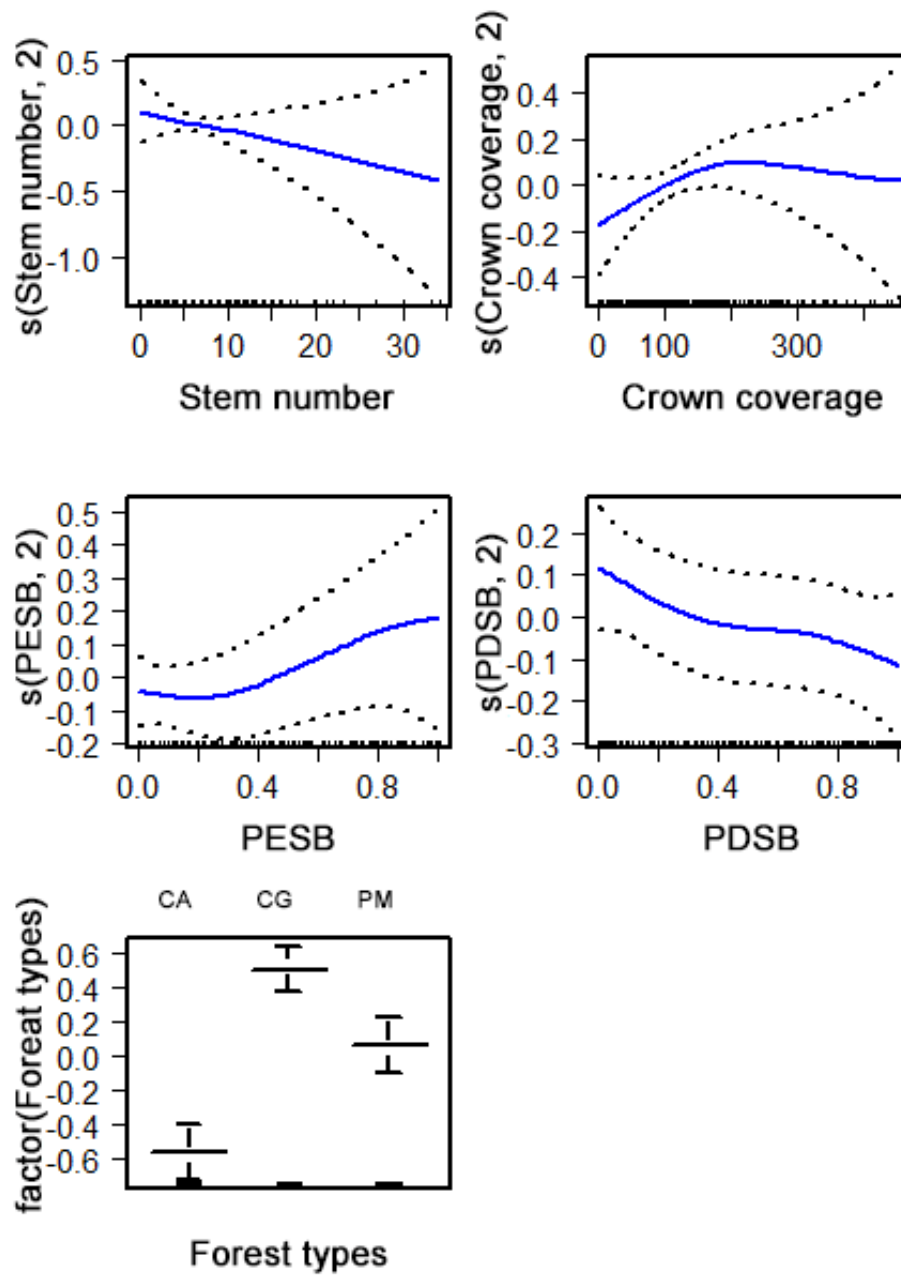
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715 **Figure 3**



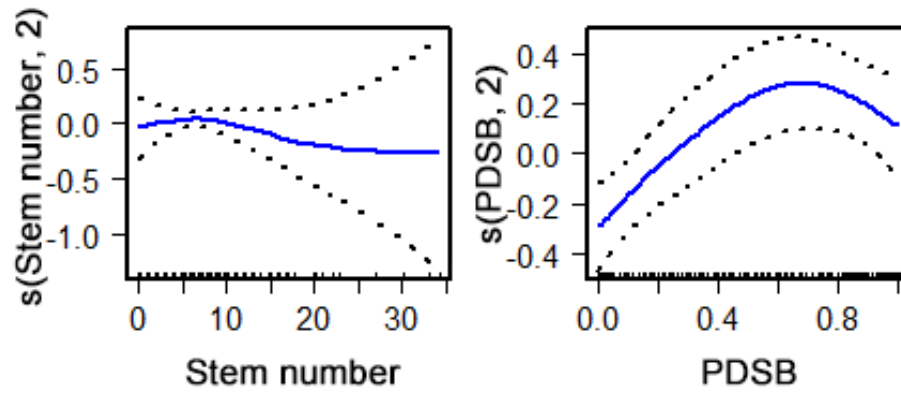
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719 **Figure 4**

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