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**The effect of stand homogeneity on basal area growth for unthinned and thinned
Pinus taeda L. stands in southern Brazil**

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Mário Dobner Jr: Database, Analysis, Review.

ABSTRACT

Studies show that heterogeneity among plants interferes with stand productivity, however, this information has not been incorporated in models to assist forest managers. This paper presents a new format for growth modeling, that includes the effect of heterogeneity on final stand productivity and was developed for unthinned and thinned *Pinus taeda* stands. The data used came from a 3 x 3 factorial experiment with the factors initial density (2500, 1250, and 625 trees.ha⁻¹) and thinning (without thinning, moderate thinning, and heavy thinning). The diameter distribution represented by the percentile method were used to represent stand homogeneity. The diameters (located in the 10th and 63rd percentiles) were inserted into the basal area growth model, reducing the mean absolute error (MAE) and the square root of the mean error (RMSE) on average from 4.8433 m².ha⁻¹ to 2.7702 m².ha⁻¹ relative to the predicted estimates, and from 4.3139 m².ha⁻¹ to 2.6984 m².ha⁻¹ for the projected estimates. The validation of the equation with the homogeneity proxy variable was performed by the Bootstrap method. A simultaneous equation, compatible in prediction and projection, with the inclusion of homogeneity, is recommended for estimating the growth in the basal area of *Pinus taeda* stands in southern Brazil.

Keywords: Percentile method, simultaneous model, homogeneity proxy variable, Bootstrap method, initial density.

1. Introduction

Forest growth modeling is an important tool to assist predict, project, and simulate stand development over the years (Weiskittel et al., 2011). Such models can be grouped into different levels of resolution, such as stand-level, diameter class level, and individual tree level (Burkhart and Tomé, 2012). However, the simplicity and robustness of the

stand-level model characterizes its advantages over the others. This alternative requires less information for model input and results in accurate simulations and is extensively used in forest management (Peng et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2007).

Some examples of stand models can be seen in the literature. Lam and Guan (2020) modeled stand basal area growth using a nonlinear mixed-effects model. They used data from *Cryptomeria japonica* stands at four initial densities in Taiwan. Trilleras and Aguirre (2020) compared nine basal area growth models for unthinned and thinned stands of *Eucalyptus tereticornis* in Colombia. The authors concluded that the most accurate equation for unthinned stands explained basal area as a function of age, density, and dominant height. For thinned stands, the basal area was explained by a competition index, dependent on age and dominant height of the stand.

The models represent an abstraction of the dynamics of forest stands, aiming to imitate reality (Vanclay, 1994). However, they do not consider heterogeneity. It has a direct impact on forest production. Hakamada et al. (2015) analyzed the relationship between homogeneity and productivity in clonal stands located in three states of Brazil. The study showed that heterogeneity negatively interferes with stand-level productivity. Sun et al. (2018), using data from *Sassafras tzumu* stands in China, also found a loss in stand-level productivity related to increased heterogeneity among trees.

Increased competition leads to greater growth inequality among trees, resulting in more heterogeneous stands. As resources (water, light, and nutrients) become less available, suppressed trees are less efficient in their use than dominant trees (Ryan et al., 2010). Campoe et al. (2013) observed disproportionately higher light use efficiency in 20% of the largest trees than in the 20% of the smallest trees in the stand.

Different management regimes contribute to altered competition in stands. With the removal of trees in thinning, stands tend to reduce competition and present larger trees

after a certain time (McTague et al., 1989). Less dense stands also show the same described behavior (David et al., 2018). Intensive forest management can be observed in some pine stands in southern Brazil (Retslaff et al., 2016; Schneider et al., 2018; Dobner Jr. and Quadros, 2019) where the main goals are to provide products for the sawmill and pulp industry (IBÁ, 2022). *Pinus* is the second most planted genus in Brazil, second only to eucalyptus. More than 80% of the pine plantation areas are located in the country's southern region (IBÁ, 2022).

The study aimed to provide a new concept of integration of a proxy measure for homogeneity on forest growth, thus simulating how this silvicultural attribute reflects on stand productivity. An additional aim was to develop a simultaneous basal area growth model that considers homogeneity for *Pinus taeda* stands under different management regimes in southern Brazil.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Study area

The study area is located in Campo Belo do Sul, Santa Catarina state, southern Brazil (lat. 27°59'33"S, long. 50°54'16"W). The region presents a humid temperate climate with temperate summer (Cfb, by Köppen climate classification) and is characterized by the absence of a dry season, a maximum average temperature of 22°C in the warmest month, and an average temperature below 10°C in at least four months throughout the year (Alvares et al., 2014). Frost occurrence is frequent, ranging from two to 29 events per year (Embrapa, 1988; Dobner Jr., 2013). The altitude is approximately 1017 m above sea level, and the relief is undulated. The soils in the region are classified as Litholic Neossol, Brune Latossol, and Haplic Nitossol (Oliveira, 2012; Dobner Jr., 2013).

2.2. Characterization of the experiment

The data from *Pinus taeda* stands was conducted in a 3 x 3 factorial experiment with two repetitions (plots), implemented in 1984. The experimental factors were thinning and initial density. The plots were installed with approximately 2,000 m² in size, with a functional area of approximately 1,000 m².

The thinning factor was divided into three levels: without thinning (WT), representing the control treatment; moderate thinning (MT); and heavy thinning (HT). The initial density factor presented the levels of 2500, 1250, and 625 trees.ha⁻¹; thus, the experiment comprises nine treatments arising from the combination between the factors, and eighteen plots, since each treatment has two repetitions (Figure 1).

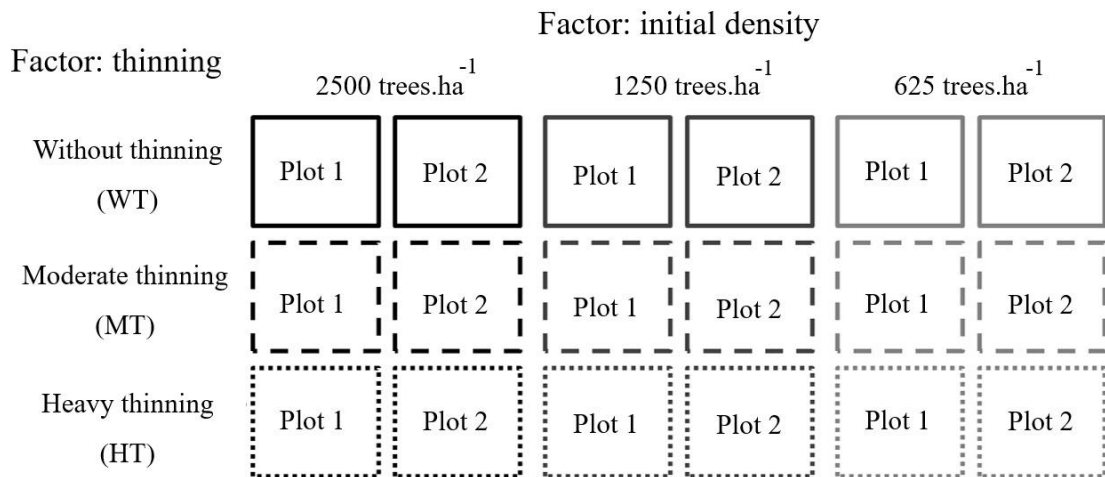


Fig 1 - Experiment in a 3 x 3 factorial scheme with two repetitions with the factors thinning and initial density.

Table 1 shows the tree removal percentage in each treatment, calculated by the ratio between the trees removed in each thinning and the initial density multiplied by 100.

Table 1 - Percentage of tree removal, over the years, in the six treatments that had thinning from above.

Treatment	Plot	Age (years)				Total
		5	8	12	27	
MT x 2500 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	18 %	16 %	11 %	6 %	51 %
	2	16 %	14 %	13 %	5 %	48 %
MT x 1250 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	-	24 %	22 %	11 %	57 %
	2	-	30 %	14 %	8 %	52 %
MT x 625 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	-	26 %	19 %	11 %	56 %
	2	-	31 %	25 %	8 %	64 %
HT x 2500 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	30 %	20 %	17 %	8 %	75 %
	2	35 %	15 %	9 %	12 %	71 %
HT x 1250 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	-	58 %	11 %	10 %	79 %
	2	-	54 %	10 %	11 %	75 %
HT x 625 trees.ha ⁻¹	1	-	66 %	-	9 %	75 %
	2	-	67 %	-	7 %	74 %

The thinning used in the experiment followed the methodology of "crown thinning" (Dobner Jr., 2015), in which 400 trees.ha⁻¹ in each plot were selected as potential trees (dominant individuals, of good quality and homogeneously distributed in the stand) in the first stage (Figure 2a). Then, competing trees (well-developed individuals that, for some reason, were not selected as potential trees) were selected (Figure 2b) and removed (Figure 2c), providing significant openings in the stand canopy for the remaining trees to develop. Pruning was performed only in the treatments with thinning, as follows:

127 pruning all trees up to 2.5 m tall at five years of age and pruning only selected potential
 128 trees up to 6 m tall at seven years.

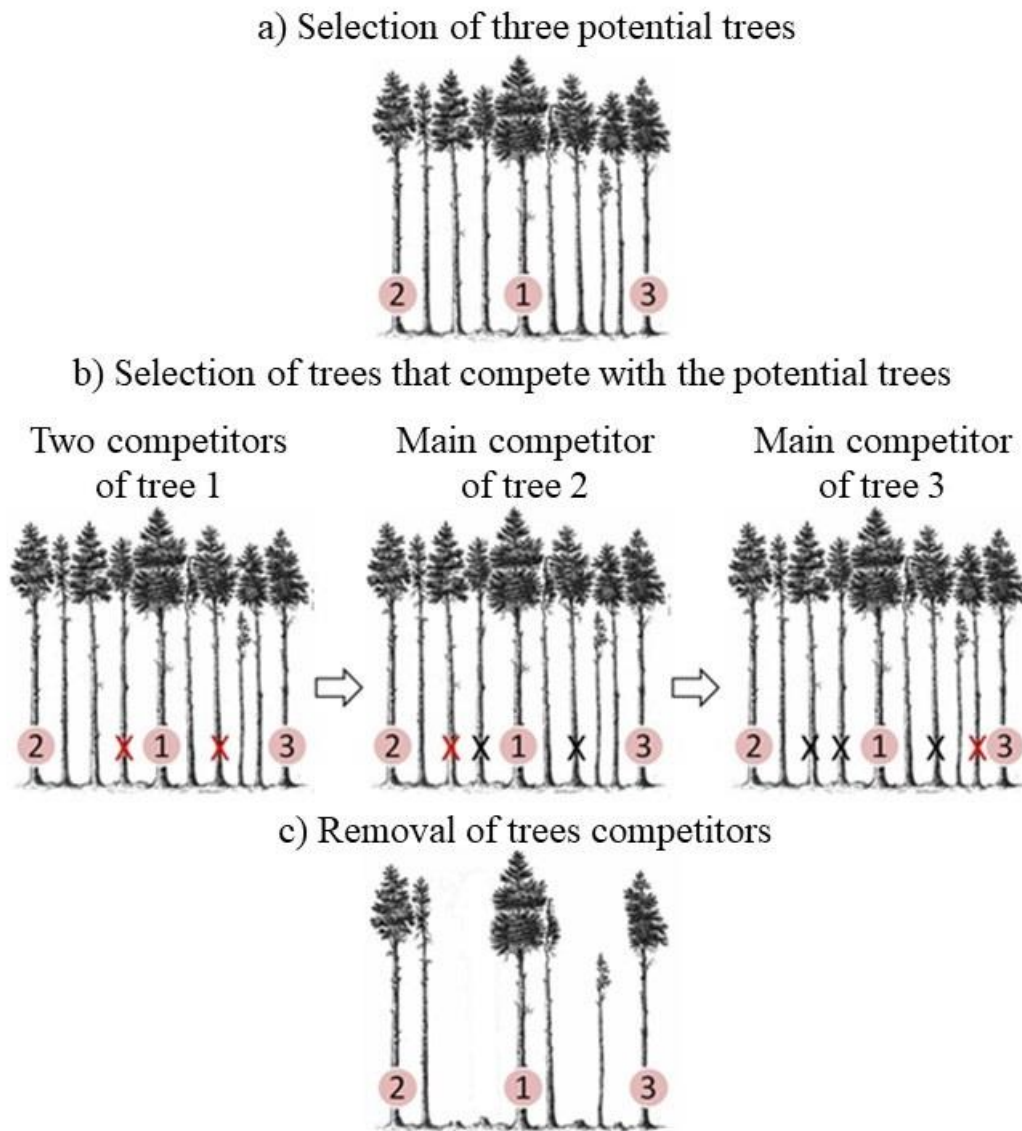


Fig 2 - Description of the steps considered in the crown thinning methodology.

2.3. Data characterization

The diameter at 1.3 m (dbh) of all trees in the plots were measured from 5 to 33 years of age. The collection was done annually in the interval between 5 and 17 years. After that, the collection was performed at 19, 27, 30, 31, 32, and 33 years of age. The

dominant height (H) of the plots was obtained by considering the average height of the 100 trees with the highest dbh per hectare (Assmann, 1970).

The description of the data, considering the nine treatments, is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 - Minimum, maximum, average, and standard deviation of variables obtained in unthinned and thinned *Pinus taeda* stands.

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Average	Standard Deviation
dbh (cm)	1.5	74.0	23.8	10.3
H (m)	6.0	31.6	19.4	8.0
B (m ² . ha ⁻¹)	7.8	93.9	42.8	17.2
N (trees.ha ⁻¹)	126	2512	819	561
A (years)	5	33	16	9

dbh is the diameter at 1.3 m of the trees; H is the dominant height in the plot at each age, that considers the average height of the 100 largest diameter stems/ha; B is the basal area in the plot at each age; N is the number of trees.ha⁻¹ in the plot at each age; A is the age.

2.4. Simultaneous basal area prediction and projection

The basal area model follows Schumacher's baseline model, in which the basal area is estimated as a function of age, dominant height, stand density, and thinning intensity, according to expression (1):

$$\ln(B) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \frac{1}{A} + \beta_2 \ln(H) + \beta_3 \ln(N) + \beta_4 \frac{N_t A_t}{A N_a} \quad (1)$$

where $\beta_{i/s}$ β_i are the model parameters; N_t is the number of trees removed in the last thinning; N_a is the number of trees remaining after the last thinning; A_t is the age at the last thinning. Other variables have been described previously.

The thinning index $((N_t A_t)/(A N_a))$, proposed by Pienaar and Shiver (1986) allows the model to be used in unthinned and thinned stands over a wide range of values for age, site quality, density, and thinning intensity. This index considers simulated rates of percent removal of individuals at different ages, the impact that will be caused in basal area removal, and the growth that will occur after this intervention.

From this base model used in the prediction, it is possible to impose algebraic restrictions to obtain the projection model in polymorphic form. By considering the conditions that $B = B_1$ at age 1 (A_1) and $B = B_2$ at age 2 (A_2) and isolating the term β_1 , it is possible to obtain the projection model in the polymorphic form (2):

$$\ln(B_2) = \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(B_1) + \beta_1 \left(1 - \frac{A_1}{A_2}\right) + \beta_2 \left[\ln(H_2) - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(H_1)\right] + \beta_3 \left[\ln(N_2) - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(N_1)\right] + \beta_4 \left[\frac{N_t A_t}{A_2 N_a} - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \frac{N_t A_t}{A_1 N_a}\right] \quad (2)$$

where B_2 is the projected basal area ($\text{m}^2.\text{ha}^{-1}$) for future age (A_2); B_1 is the basal area ($\text{m}^2.\text{ha}^{-1}$) at the current age (A_1); H_2 is the dominant height at the age A_2 ; H_1 is the dominant height at the age A_1 ; N_2 is the number of individuals at the age A_2 ; N_1 is the number of individuals at the age A_1 ; N_t is the number of trees removed in the last thinning; N_a is the number of trees remaining after the last thinning; A_t is the age of the last thinning. Other variables have been described previously.

The simultaneous fitting technique used to ensure compatibility between the basal area prediction and projection model was presented by McTague et al. (2008) and Scolforo et al. (2019b). In this technique, all forward combinations of plot remeasurements for each plot were combined in the fitting dataset, helping to model asymptotic behavior more reliably. A plot with three measurement ages, for example, has three pairings (ages 1 and 2, 1 and 3, and 2 and 3). To exemplify the matrix form (3), the

prediction (1) and projection models in the polymorphic form (2) were considered at three age intervals:

$$Y = \alpha_0 X_1 + \alpha_1 X_2 + \alpha_2 X_3 + \alpha_3 X_4 + \alpha_4 X_5 \quad (3)$$

Y	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	α
$\ln(B_{11})$	1	$\frac{1}{A_{11}}$	$\ln(H_{11})$	$\ln(N_{11})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{11} N_a}$	α_0
$\ln(B_{12})$	1	$\frac{1}{A_{12}}$	$\ln(H_{12})$	$\ln(N_{12})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{12} N_a}$	α_1
$\ln(B_{13})$	1	$\frac{1}{A_{13}}$	$\ln(H_{13})$	$\ln(N_{13})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{13} N_a}$	α_2
$\ln(B_{12}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{12}} \ln(B_{11})$	0	$1 - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{12}}$	$\ln(H_{12}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{12}} \ln(H_{11})$	$\ln(N_{12}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{12}} \ln(N_{11})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{12} N_a} - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{12}} \frac{N_t A_t}{A_{11} N_a}$	α_3
$\ln(B_{13}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{13}} \ln(B_{11})$	0	$1 - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{13}}$	$\ln(H_{13}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{13}} \ln(H_{11})$	$\ln(N_{13}) - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{13}} \ln(N_{11})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{13} N_a} - \frac{A_{11}}{A_{13}} \frac{N_t A_t}{A_{11} N_a}$	α_4
$\ln(B_{13}) - \frac{A_{12}}{A_{13}} \ln(B_{12})$	0	$1 - \frac{A_{12}}{A_{13}}$	$\ln(H_{13}) - \frac{A_{12}}{A_{13}} \ln(H_{12})$	$\ln(N_{13}) - \frac{A_{12}}{A_{13}} \ln(N_{12})$	$\frac{N_t A_t}{A_{13} N_a} - \frac{A_{12}}{A_{13}} \frac{N_t A_t}{A_{12} N_a}$	

where, indices 11, 12 and 13 refers to plot 1 and the ages of the plot measurement; other variables are previously defined.

2.4.1 Simultaneous prediction and projection of basal area and incorporating the effect of plantation homogeneity

Homogeneity is directly related to the productivity of a stand; thus, an increase in inequality among trees, as expressed by a wider diameter distribution, is associated with a reduced growth rate (Sun et al. 2018). Heterogeneous stands have a greater number of suppressed trees that are more likely to die over time compared to larger trees (Binkley et al., 2003).

According to McTague and Bailey (1987), the diameter distribution can identify different growth rates between plots. The narrower and higher the curve of the diameter distribution, the more homogeneous the plot is, and under these conditions, the more accelerated the growth is. The authors also state that the diameters located in the 10th (d10) and 63rd (d63) percentiles are far enough apart to provide the distribution range and

can serve to identify heterogeneity in forest growth. It should be noted that the exact percentile used is 63.21, however d63 is a convenient label for the 63rd diameter percentile. The 63rd diameter percentile implies that 63% of the trees in the stand have that diameter or less.

Commonly adopted approaches to basal area growth modeling assume that stands with the same basal area at age 1, same site quality, and same density will grow identically. However, Figure 3 provides an example of why this is not necessarily true for *Pinus taeda* stands.

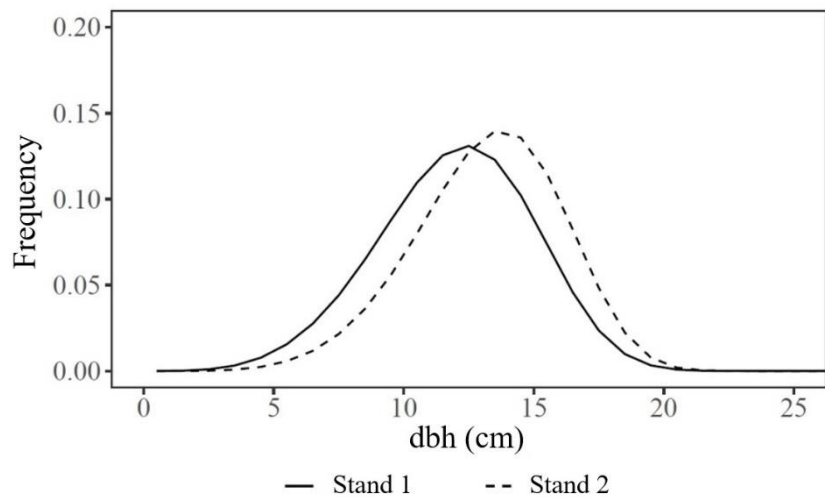


Fig 3 - Diameter distribution in *Pinus taeda* stands with the same density, dominant height, and basal area.

Information about the distributions was considered by including the diameter percentiles d10 and d63 in the model to reflect plot homogeneity. The diameter distributions resulting from these percentiles were related to the uniformity index PB50. This index was proposed with the same methodology used in the PV50 (Hakamada et al., 2015); however, the variable considered was the basal area of the stand and not the stand volume. Thus, modeling the percentiles is simpler than modeling the uniformity index. The model with the percentiles incorporates the effect of homogeneity in three steps:

In the first step, the diameter percentile d10 was entered into the basal area prediction (1) and projection (2) models. This percentile is located in the midst of the suppressed trees. The inclusion resulted in the following set of prediction (4) and projection (5) models:

$$\ln(B) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \frac{1}{A} + \beta_2 \ln(H) + \beta_3 \ln(N) + \beta_4 \frac{N_t A_t}{A N_a} + \beta_5 \ln(d10) \quad (4)$$

$$\ln(B_2) = \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(B_1) + \beta_1 \left(1 - \frac{A_1}{A_2}\right) + \beta_2 \left[\ln(H_2) - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(H_1)\right] + \beta_3 \left[\ln(N_2) - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(N_1)\right] + \beta_4 \left[\frac{N_t A_t}{A_2 N_a} - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \frac{N_t A_t}{A_1 N_a}\right] + \beta_5 \left[\ln(d10_2) - \frac{A_1}{A_2} \ln(d10_1)\right] \quad (5)$$

where $d10_2$ is the diameter at the 10th percentile (cm) at the future age (A_2); $d10_1$ is the diameter at the 10th percentile (cm) at the current age (A_1). Other variables have been described previously.

The second step obtains an estimate of d10 using a recursive system of equations involving higher diameter percentile, namely d63. The prediction model (6) imposed algebraic restrictions on current and future age, and the term β_0 was isolated, generating the projection model in anamorphic form (7).

$$\ln(d10) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(d63) + \beta_2 \ln(N) \quad (6)$$

$$\ln(d10_2) = \ln(d10_1) + \beta_1 [\ln(d63_2) - \ln(d63_1)] + \beta_2 [\ln(N_2) - \ln(N_1)] \quad (7)$$

where $d63_2$ is the diameter at the 63rd percentile (cm) at the future age (A_2); $d63_1$ is the diameter at the 63rd percentile (cm) at the current age (A_1). Other variables have been described previously.

Finally, the third step obtains an estimate of the 63rd diameter percentile, d63. Information on thinning was considered in this step and therefore implicitly is included

in the set of models to obtain d10. The prediction model (8) and the projection model in anamorphic form (9) are shown below:

$$\ln(d63) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(H) + \beta_2 \ln\left(\frac{A}{N}\right) + \beta_3 \frac{N_t A_t}{A N_a} \quad (8)$$

$$\ln(d63_2) = \ln(d63_1) + \beta_1 [\ln(H_2) - \ln(H_1)] + \beta_2 \left[\ln\left(\frac{A_2}{N_2}\right) - \ln\left(\frac{A_1}{N_1}\right) \right] + \beta_3 \left(\frac{N_t A_t}{A_2 N_a} - \frac{N_t A_t}{A_1 N_a} \right) \quad (9)$$

2.5 Evaluating the Accuracy of Models

Processing was performed in the R software (R Core Team, 2019). Graphs were generated using the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016).

Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) were used to evaluate the performance of the adjusted models. The statistics of mean error (T), mean absolute error (MAE), and root mean square error (RMSE), Eqs. (10 - 12) were used to evaluate the estimates related to the prediction and projection of the simultaneous models. Additionally, graphs were generated to analyze the estimates' behavior.

$$T = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (O - P) \quad (10)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |O - P| \quad (11)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O - P)^2}{n}} \quad (12)$$

i is the number of observations ranging from 1 to n; O are the observed values, and P are the predicted values. Other variables have been described previously.

The estimates' validation related to the basal area model projection with the insertion of a proxy homogeneity variable was performed by the non-parametric Bootstrap method with replacement (Efron, 1982), considering a total of 100 random

samples. These random samples allowed estimating the sample distribution of the statistics (T, MAE, and RMSE) and generating quality measures of the statistical fit. This technique has been used in other studies to enable validation (Scolforo et al., 2018; Hall et al., 2019; Santos et al., 2021).

3. Results

3.1. Behavior of the stand homogeneity proxy variable

As McTague and Bailey (1987) discussed, the shape of the diameter distribution can express the homogeneity among trees located in different plots. The leptokurtic form of the distribution (high and narrow curve) characterizes a stand with less competition and faster tree growth. In this condition, the trees tend to present less variation in size, resulting in a more homogeneous population. From the moment the curve is altered to mesokurtic and platykurtic forms with height reduction and increase in width, the stand is in a condition of greater competition; therefore, the trees present more limited growth. Under this condition, the trees tend to grow more unevenly, and the variation in tree size increases.

Figure 4 allows for the evaluation of the homogeneity effect in the population at four distinct moments: a) age five, before thinning to evaluate the behavior under identical conditions within each initial density; b) at ten years, because this is the moment when the trees are in a high rate of inter-tree competition at the initial densities of 2500 and 1250 trees.ha⁻¹; c) at 19 years; and d) at 30 years because this is when all thinning has already been performed.

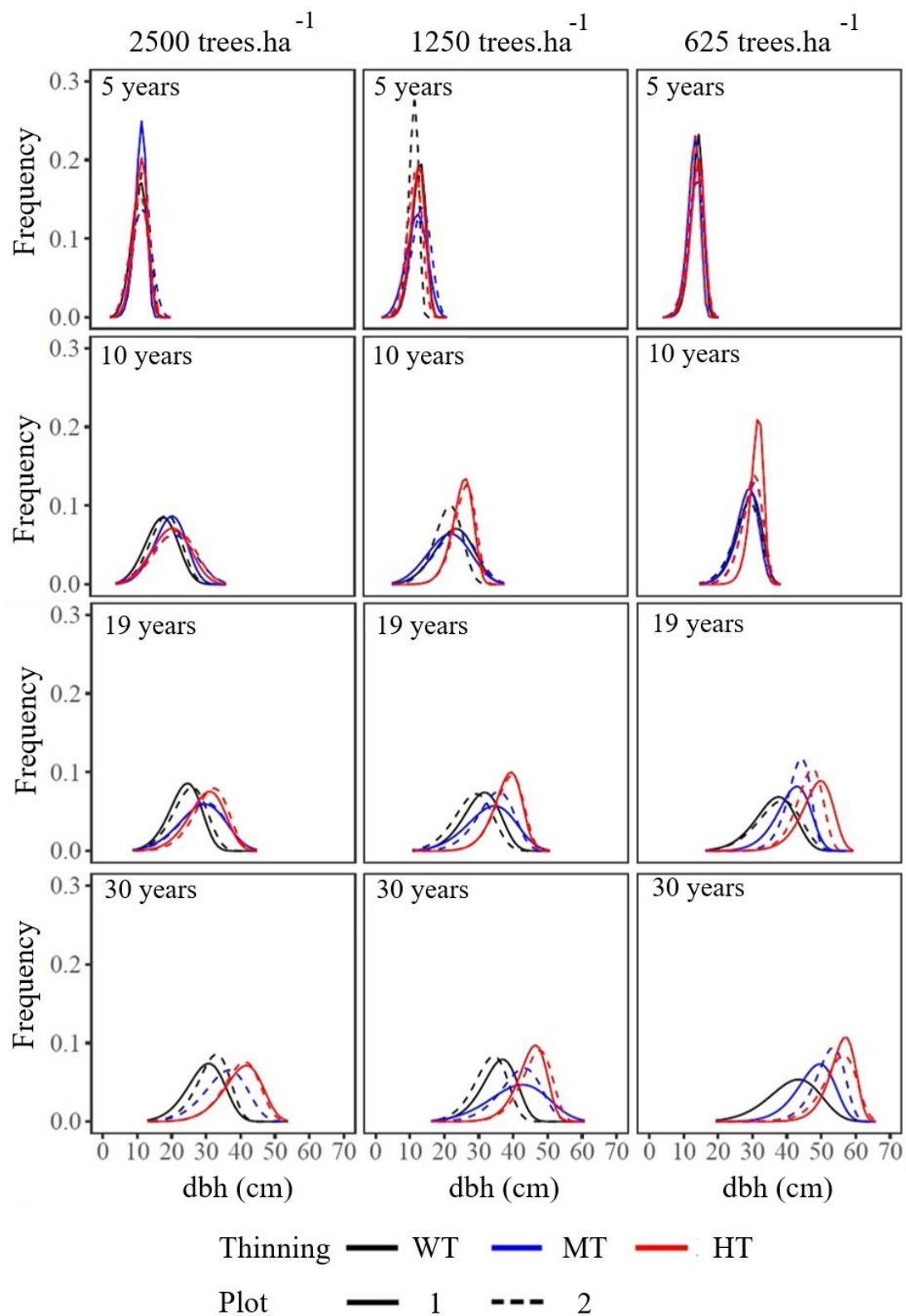


Fig 4 - Two-parameter Weibull diameter distribution with parameters recovered by the percentile method with diameters at the 10th and 63rd percentiles at ages 5, 10, 19, and 30 years.

289 All the plots showed narrow and high curves at age 5, indicating accelerated
290 growth and greater homogeneity. It is only possible to observe the initial density effect at
291 this age because no plot has been thinned yet. The plots in stands with medium and high
292 initial density showed greater spread than the plots in the stand with lower initial density,
293 where the trees have more space to develop.

294 The curves became wider and flatter at ten years and have shifted to the right, as
295 a result of tree growth. At an initial density of 2500 trees.ha⁻¹, the competition remained
296 intense, with or without thinning. For treatments with medium and low initial density, the
297 thinning effect is already seen in the HT factor, which showed greater residual tree growth
298 indicated by the curve height and shift to the right.

299 At 19 years of age, at an initial density of 2500 trees.ha⁻¹, the curves showed
300 similar heights, but the thinned plots were positioned more to the right, indicating the
301 presence of larger trees than the WT plots. In plots with an initial density of 1250 and 625
302 trees.ha⁻¹, the HT plots showed faster growth and larger trees, followed by the MT and
303 WT plots.

304 Finally, at 30 years of age, all plots were analyzed for initial density and response
305 to thinning. Plots submitted to HT showed larger trees at the three initial densities. At
306 1250 and 625 trees.ha⁻¹, the HT treatment showed greater homogeneity with higher and
307 narrower curves. Plots subjected to MT showed intermediate tree size at the three initial
308 densities. At the initial density of 625 trees.ha⁻¹, the MT treatment distribution display
309 greater homogeneity, with higher and narrower curves than plots that did not undergo
310 thinning. The plots without thinning (WT) display smaller trees at the three initial
311 densities and generally greater heterogeneity.

312 Thus, a strong relationship was observed between production and diameter
313 distributions because lower initial densities and higher thinning intensities favored greater

stand homogeneity and higher tree growth rates. Although thinning from above could theoretically increase heterogeneity by removing well-developed trees, the removal of some trees forestalls mortality and favors stand homogeneity.

3.2. Simultaneous basal area modeling

Since the curves of the diameter distributions can express the homogeneity of the plots (Figure 4), the use of the diameters located in the 10th and 63rd percentiles was considered in the development of a simultaneous prediction and projection stand-level basal area model.

The equations that considered the homogeneity of the plots (4 and 5) at different ages showed more accurate behavior than equations 1 and 2, that did not include a homogeneity proxy variable. (Figure 5). The equations presented significant coefficients (for $\alpha=0.05$) with algebraic signs suitable for describing biological behavior of stand growth, and the AIC and BIC values reduced dramatically with the insertion of homogeneity, indicating model improvement (Table 3).

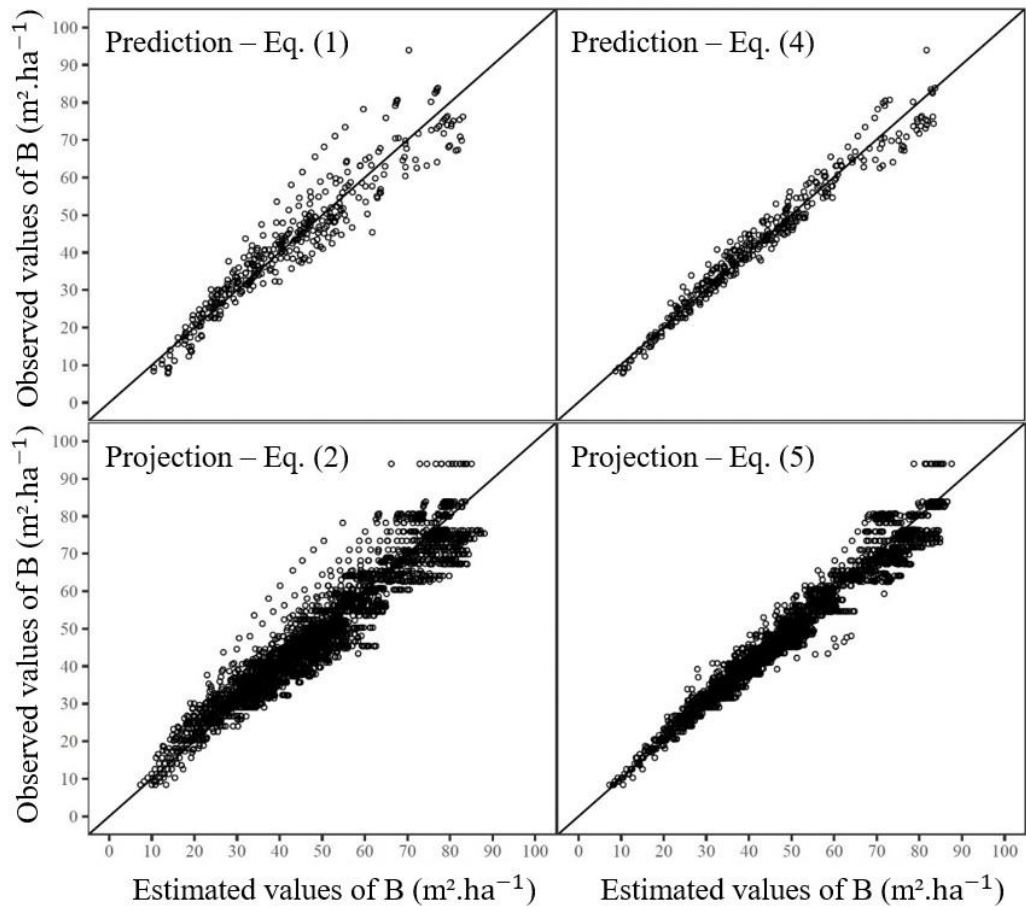


Fig 5 - Behavior of estimated values with respect to observed values in the prediction and projection of the basal area in the simultaneous model without the homogeneity proxy variable (Eqs. 1 and 2) and with the homogeneity proxy variable (Eqs. 4 and 5).

Table 3 - Simultaneous prediction and projection models in basal area, estimated values (EV) of the coefficients with their respective standard errors (SE), and fit statistics (AIC and BIC).

Simultaneous Model	Coefficients	EV	SE	AIC	BIC
Basal area model	β_0	-1.5564	0.0408	-6461.612	-6423.718
(Eqs. 1 and 2)	β_1	-1.5585	0.0471		
	β_2	0.8645	0.0086		
	β_3	0.4503	0.0050		
	β_4	-0.1453	0.0064		
Basal area model with	β_0	-4.2240	0.0441	-10030.190	-9985.983
homogeneity proxy	β_1	-4.2461	0.0469		
variable	β_2	0.1708	0.0108		
(Eqs. 4 and 5)	β_3	0.7791	0.0054		
	β_4	-0.1084	0.0042		
	β_5	0.9041	0.0120		

The models used to predict and project d10 (6 and 7) and d63 (8 and 9) were fit with results presented in Table 4. The coefficients were significant, considering $\alpha=0.05$, and presented low values in the fit statistics (AIC and BIC). The relationship between estimated and observed values for the two simultaneous models is represented in Figure 6.

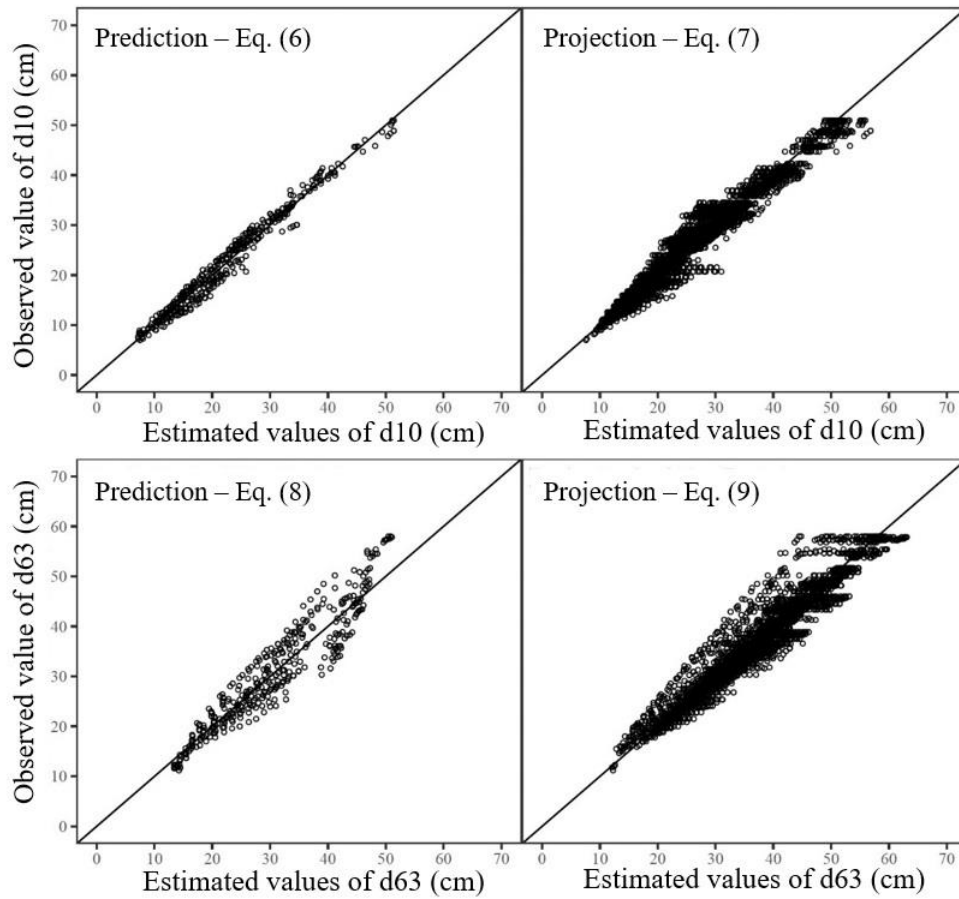


Fig 6 - estimated and observed values in the prediction and projection of the diameters at the 10th (Eqs. 6 and 7) and 63rd (Eqs. 8 and 9) percentiles.

Table 4 - Simultaneous prediction and projection models of the 10th and 63rd diameter percentiles, estimated values (EV) of the coefficients with their respective standard errors (SE), and fit statistics (AIC and BIC).

Simultaneous Model	Coefficients	EV	SE	AIC	BIC
d10 model	β_0	0.9494	0.0428	-9147.145	-9121.882
(Eqs. 6 and 7)	β_1	0.9283	0.0052		
	β_2	-0.1604	0.0041		
d63 model	β_0	2.2497	0.0320	-9058.812	-9027.233
(Eqs. 8 and 9)	β_1	0.5251	0.0067		
	β_2	0.1018	0.0033		
	β_3	0.0191	0.0033		

3.3. Estimation of the traditional basal area model versus the enhanced basal area model with the homogeneity proxy variable

The accumulated or propagated error of the models was included in the model with the homogeneity proxy variable, that is, the estimated $d63_2$ was used to obtain the estimated $d10_2$, and both were considered implicitly and explicitly for the estimates of stand basal area (B_2). Even with the insertion of more models (and their respective propagated errors), the quality of the basal area estimates improved with the homogeneity proxy variable (Table 5).

Table 5 - T, MAE, and RMSE statistics used to assess the estimates of the simultaneous models for the basal area and the 10th and 63rd diameter percentiles. Eqs. (1) and (2) do not have propagated errors for basal area, however they omit the percentile variables and estimate of homogeneity. Eqs. (4) and (5) utilize the predicted and projection diameter percentile values of Eqs. (6-9) and do contain propagated errors.

Simultaneous	Prediction Statistics			Projection statistics		
basal area model	T	MAE	RMSE	T	MAE	RMSE
	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)	(m ² .ha ⁻¹)
Eqs. 1 and 2	0.2371	4.1120	5.5746	-0.3749	3.6495	4.9782
Eqs. 4 and 5	0.2459	2.3346	3.2057	0.1752	2.2310	3.1657
Simultaneous	Prediction Statistics			Projection statistics		
model of d10 and	T	MAE	RMSE	T	MAE	RMSE
d63	(cm)	(cm)	(cm)	(cm)	(cm)	(cm)
Eqs. 6 and 7	0.4689	2.6133	3.1562	-0.1117	2.1126	3.0959
Eqs. 8 and 9	0.3365	2.9360	3.6685	-0.2582	1.8903	2.8706

As the model with the homogeneity proxy variable obtained the best results, 100 samples were randomized by the non-parametric Bootstrap method with replacement to check if, at some point, the accuracy of the new model would worsen. These random samples allowed estimating the sample distribution of the T, MAE, and RMSE statistics (Table 6, Figure 7). The model showed high accuracy and low bias associated with the projected estimates. Confidence intervals with a 95% level exhibited short lengths, which reinforced the accuracy of the projected basal area values.

389 Table 6 - Validation statistics (T, MAE, and RMSE) and their confidence intervals (95
 390 %) on plot basal area projection.

Statistics	Mean	Confidence Interval (95%)	
		Lower Limit	Upper Limit
T (m ² .ha ⁻¹)	-0.1663	-0.3016	-0.0469
MAE (m ² .ha ⁻¹)	2.3620	2.2580	2.4530
RMSE (m ² .ha ⁻¹)	3.4430	3.2110	3.6930

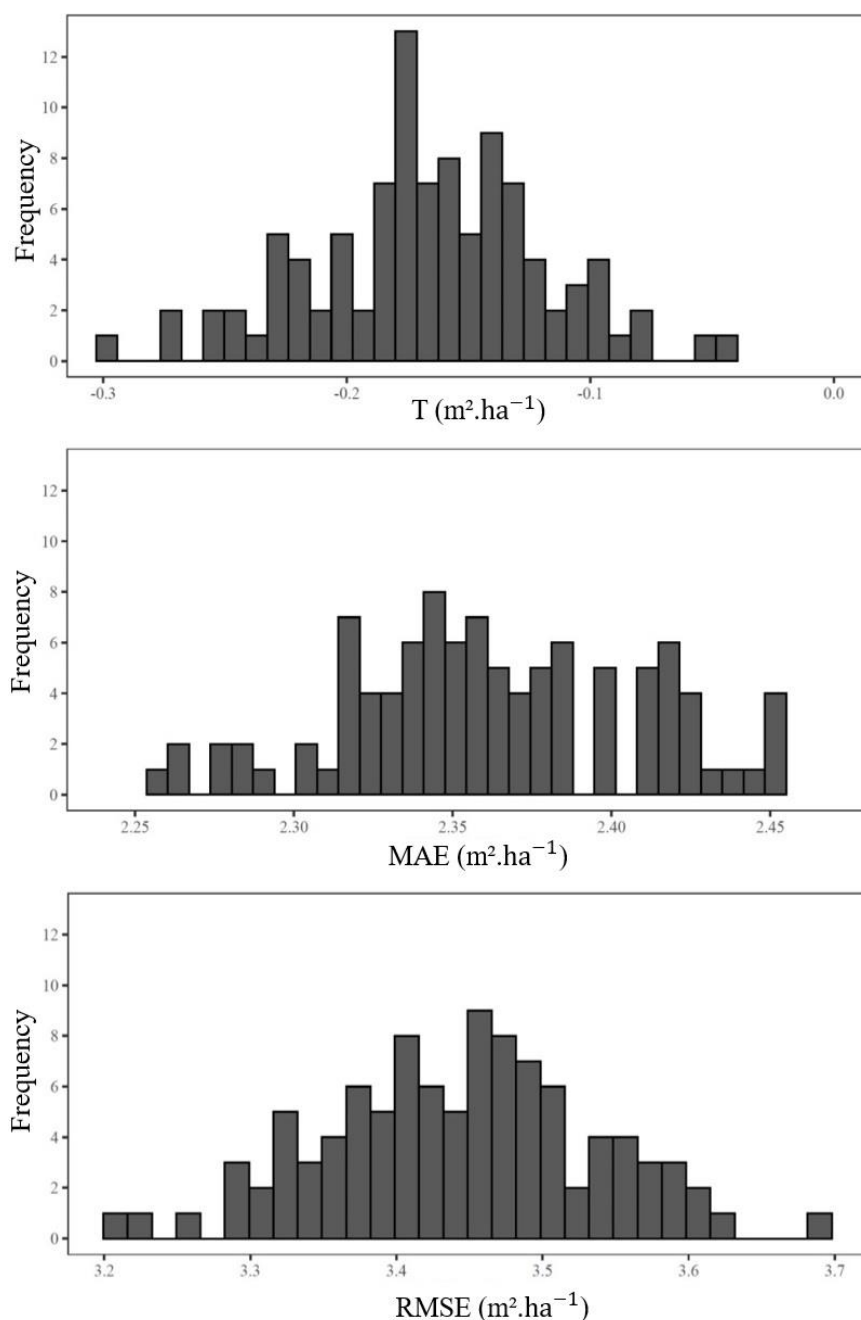


Fig 7 - Sample distribution of the validation statistics (T, MAE, and RMSE) calculated for the 100 samples randomized by the non-parametric Bootstrap method with replacement.

3.4. Growth curves considering different planting homogeneities

Two plots of the treatment with an initial density of 625 trees.ha⁻¹ and moderate thinning and two plots of the treatment with an initial density of 1250 trees.ha⁻¹ and heavy

thinning were used for demonstration. Homogeneous stands showed greater growth than heterogeneous stands in the two situations shown (Figure 8). The growth of the stand basal area from the same site, density, thinning, and age demonstrates different behaviors, in accordance with the diameter distribution. Thus, the importance of the homogeneity proxy variable ensures flexibility of the model and improvement of the estimate.

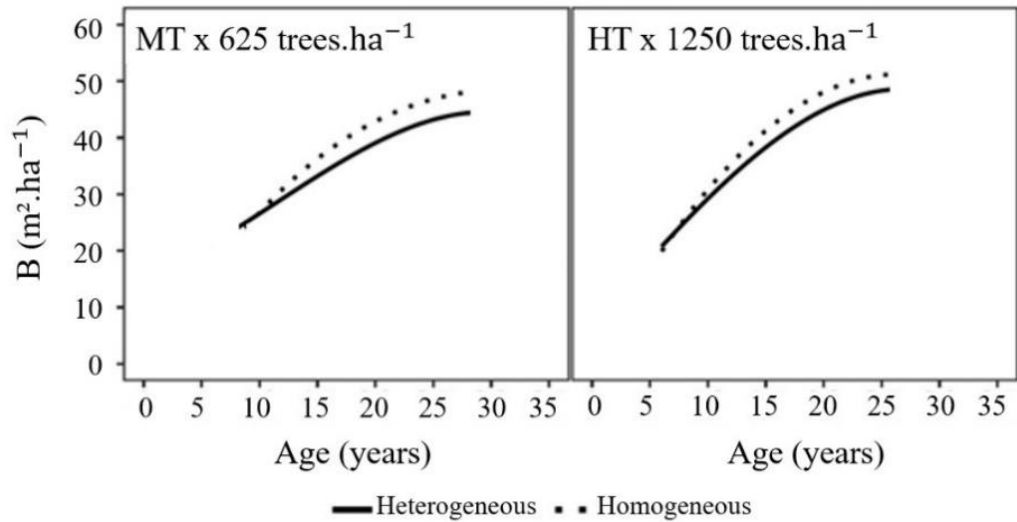


Fig 8 - Basal area curves generated for homogeneous and heterogeneous stands.

4. Discussion

Forest growth and production models are important in forest management planning (Weiskittel et al., 2011). We propose the inclusion of homogeneity as a variable and demonstrate its impact on future stand growth. Montes (2012) considered temperature variation to explain the growth in *Pinus taeda* stands in the southern United States. Scolforo et al. (2019b) included a water availability factor in a growth and production system composition. The authors used data from eucalypt stands with clones belonging to four genetic families planted in different regions of Brazil. This study included the effect of silvicultural quality (stand homogeneity) in the model. Although silvicultural quality also greatly impacts growth, models that quantify this effect are lacking.

Hakamada et al. (2015) and Sun et al. (2018) found that more homogeneous stands show higher stand-level productivity than less homogeneous ones.

Initial density and thinning intensity alter the growth rates of trees in the stand and the size of individual trees (David et al., 2018; Dobner Jr. and Quadros, 2019; Lam and Guan, 2020). Ryan et al. (2010) found that increased competition between trees causes lower resource use efficiency (water, light, and nutrients) by suppressed individuals. Campoe et al. (2013) observed higher light use efficiency of the 20% largest trees compared to the 20% smallest trees in the stand. Binkley et al. (2003) found a slower growth rate of suppressed trees than dominant trees. Thus, increased competition causes greater growth inequality among trees, resulting in more heterogeneous stands.

Similar to the observations in this study, Sun et al. (2018) found an increase in heterogeneity with increasing stand age, so that the higher the initial density, the more pronounced was the inequality among trees until the onset of self-thinning when homogeneity slowly re-established. The authors also found that regardless of age, site, initial density, and thinning, increased inequality in tree size was always associated with lower productivity at the stand-level. Thus, the thinning methodology applied in this study (Dobner Jr., 2015) efficiently reduced competition between trees and provided greater plot homogeneity over time and a higher growth rate than the rate of an unthinned treatment.

The diameters located in the 10th and 63rd percentiles express the distribution range and homogeneity of the stand (McTague and Bailey, 1987). The explicit (d10) and implicit (d63) addition of diameters in the simultaneous basal area growth model resulted in better estimates and flexibility. McTague and Bailey (1987) did not obtain precise information on thinning amount and intensity in their database; however, they could develop a simple and robust model with diameters percentiles. Scolforo et al. (2019a)

developed a forest growth and production system linking the stand and individual tree levels using diameters at different percentiles.

After the regression fit, model validation is an important process in developing a supervised model, and the non-parametric Bootstrap method with replacement is one of the viable alternatives to perform this procedure. The larger the randomized sample amount, the better the approach, as the models approximate the central limit theory for the simulated dataset (Xu and Goodacre, 2018). Scolforo et al. (2018) used this methodology to validate a generalized thinning model, and Hall et al. (2019) used this methodology to validate a forest growth and production system. In this study, 100 samples were randomized and showed accurate T, MAE, and RMSE statistics.

Future studies can be conducted using other species and different regions. The equation obtained in this study is appropriate for *Pinus taeda* stands in southern Brazil, with different initial densities and thinning intensities.

5. Conclusion

Stand homogeneity is related to a higher growth rate of trees and is affected by initial density and thinning over time. Higher initial densities lead to greater heterogeneity and a lower growth rate than lower densities. Thinning was efficient in increasing the homogeneity and growth rate of residual trees; therefore, the higher the removal intensity, the more efficient it was in terms of homogeneity.

The methodology developed considered the stand homogeneity through the diameter's explicit insertion at the 10th percentile and implicitly with the diameter's recursive system at the 63rd percentile in the simultaneous model (prediction and projection) of the basal area at the stand-level. The information on the diameters in these

percentiles is available from data collected in the forest inventory, and does not require an extra cost for collecting this information in the field.

The resulting system of equations can generate current and future estimates of the basal area at the stand-level in *Pinus taeda* plantations that are unthinned and thinned at different intensities using the crown thinning methodology in southern Brazil. The methodological approach developed can be extrapolated and implemented using other species and management alternatives.

The gain in model flexibility at the stand-level was the focus of this study. From these estimates, information at the level of diameter classes and individual trees can be disaggregated, bringing more detailed information for management aiming to obtain wood of larger dimensions.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. The authors did not receive support from any organization for the submitted work.

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