Acronyms and definitions

**15N** = Stable isotope of nitrogen, it represents the 0.3663% of the N in atmosphere

**δ15N** = a measure of the ratio of 15N/14N of a sample compared to the ratio of the standard, i.e. the ratio of the atmospheric nitrogen, express as a permil (‰) value.

**DBH** = diameter at breast height.

**Ndep** = nitrogen deposition, input of reactive nitrogen from the atmosphere to the biosphere both as dry deposition and in precipitation, or wet deposition.

**SF** = stemflow, flow of intercepted water down the stem or trunk of a plant.

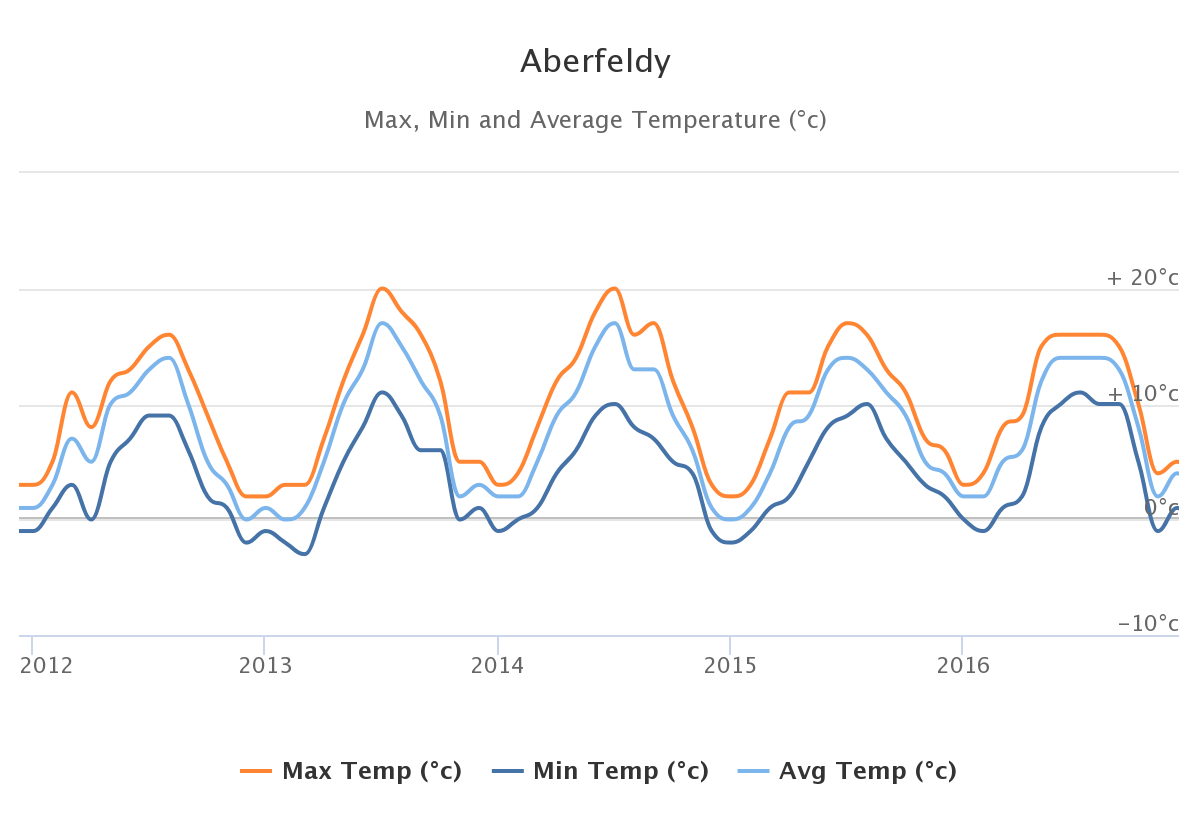
**TF** = throughfall, excess precipitation shed by wet leaves onto the ground.

# Site description and methodology

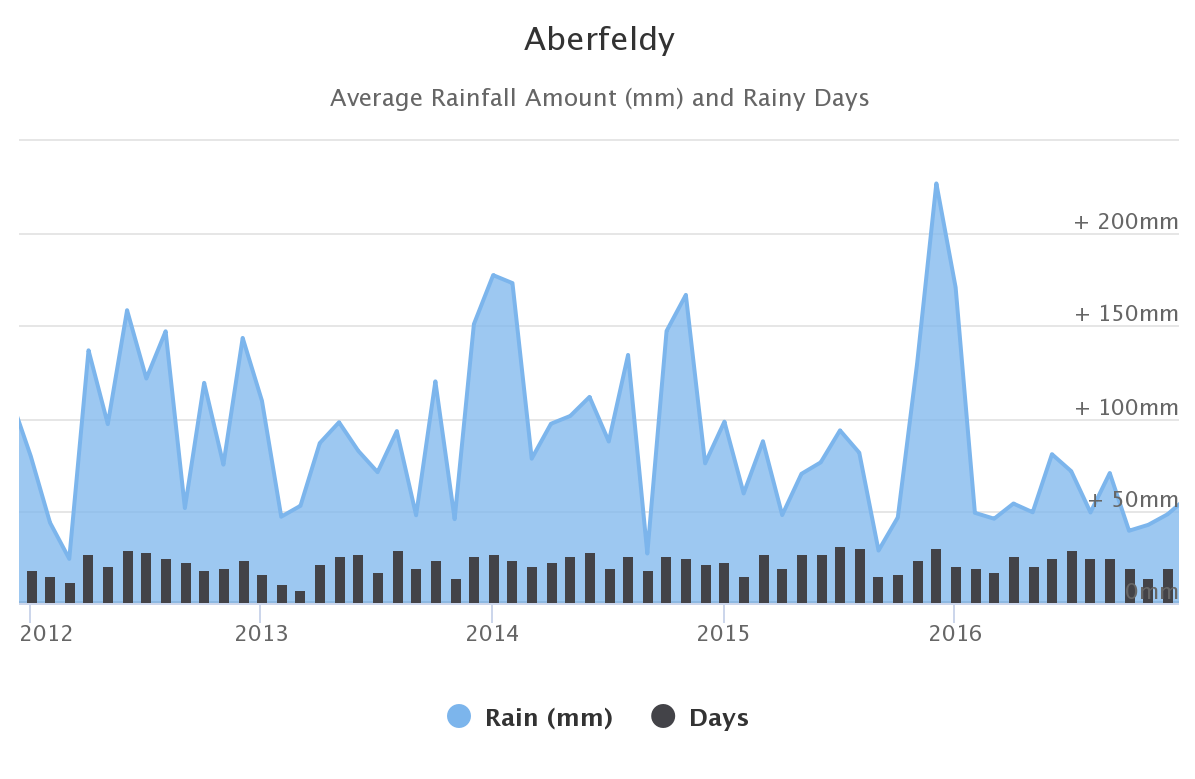
## Site description

The experiment site is located in Griffin Forest, Perthshire (Scotland, UK), on the north facing slope of the Tay Valley at about 4 km from the town of Aberfeldy.

Figures 1 shows the monthly average temperature for Aberfeldy. This area is characterised by relatively cool winters and warm summers, compared to Scotland. The average annual rainfall for the same period is about 1050 mm per year, with a maximum in 2014 of 1376.2 mm and a minimum in 2016 of768.6 mm (fig. 2).



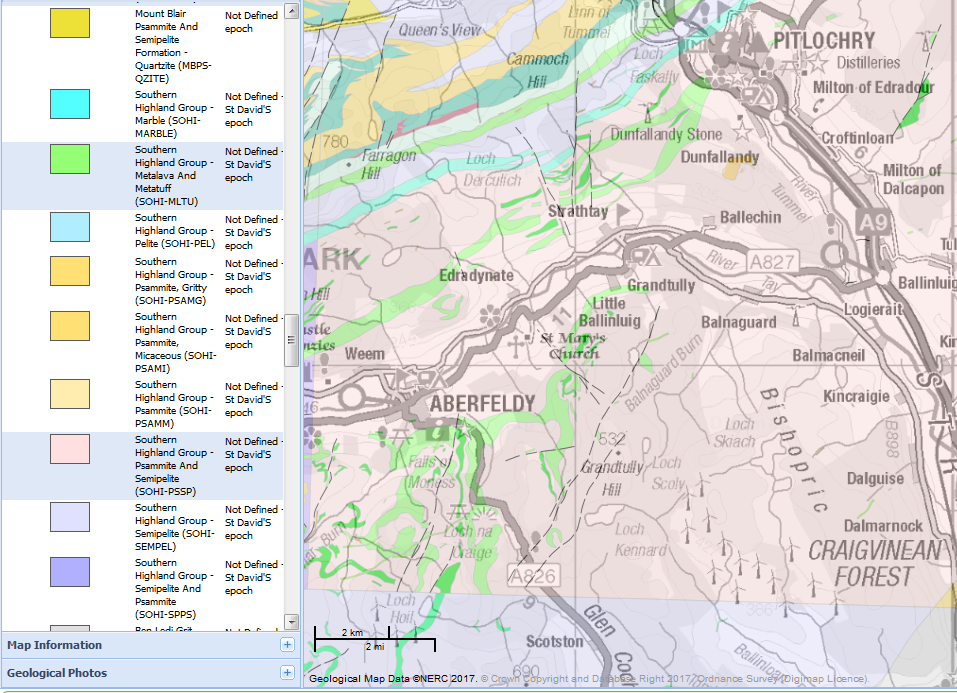
*Fig. 1: average monthly temperatures in Aberfeldy, years 2012-2016. Source: weatheronline.com*



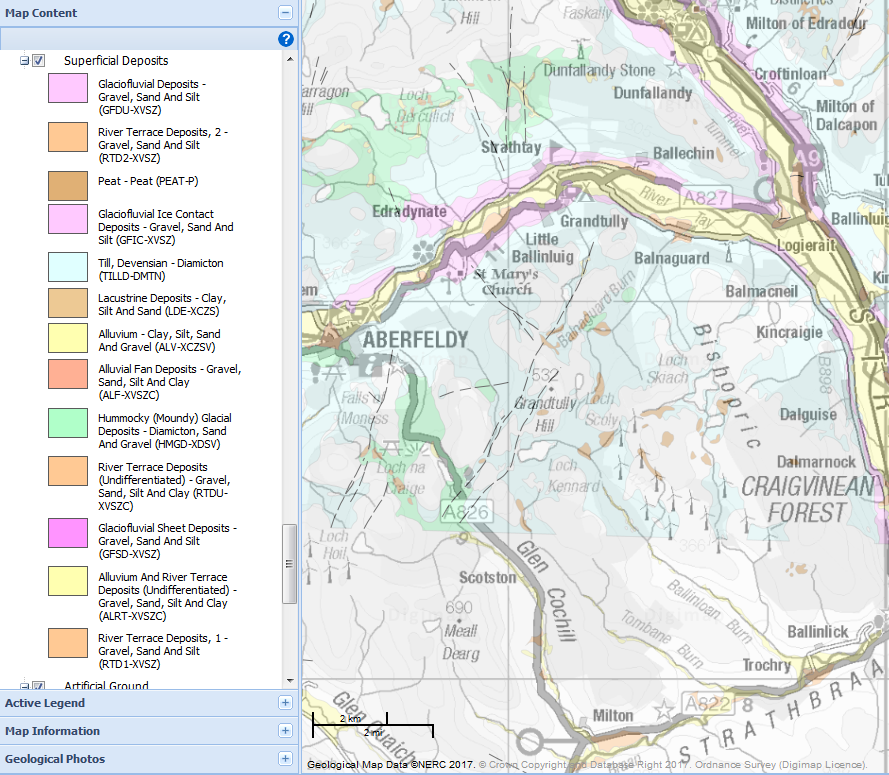
*Fig. 2: average monthly precipitation in Aberfeldy, years 2012-2016. Source: weatheronline.com*

Rocks in the area of Aberfeldy belong to the Dalradian supergroup, metamorphosed marine sediments of late-Precambrian and Lower Palaeozoic age (Craig 1925).

The bedrock under the forest is characterised by Psammite and Semipelite with minor inclusions of metalava and metatuff, covered by Devensian till deposits (see fig. 3 and 4). The soil have been classified as a stagno-humic gley of the Strichen soil association (Clement, Jarvis et al. 2012).



*Fig:3 geological map of the bedrock in the Griffin Forest area (1:50000). Source: Edina digimap.*

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*Fig:3 geological map of the superficial deposits in Griffin Forest area (1:50000). Source: Edina digimap.*

The main factors determining the maximum height at which trees can grow are altitude, climate (especially wind exposure) and soil quality. The potential maximum height of the tree line exceeds only slightly the 600 meters in the Cairngorms, north of the case study area, which is sensible lower than what can be found in Northern America and Scandinavia at similar latitudes. This can be due to the combination of the cool and wet oceanic climate and the wind exposure; soil types also indirectly reflect these two factors, as a direct combination of relieves and rainfall pattern. The formation of peat blankets in the Scottish uplands, started after the last glaciation, is another limiting factor to the growth of trees that has been changed with the use of drainages in plantations to make the growth of tree roots possible (Oosthoek 2013).

### Before afforestation: brief history of forest cover in Scotland

The present status of Scottish forest cover reflects a very recent afforestation process started on the second decade of the 20th century: at the start of the past century, in fact, less than 5% of the UK were covered by forests. When thinking of the Highlands, one might think that the typical world known scenery of naked mountains, whose rocks have been modelled by the force of Nature are the effect of the combined pressure of the climatic conditions and human pressure in a relatively recent past. In fact, after the last Ice Age different types of forests covered the Highlands, mainly pine and oak, except the extreme northern portion and the islands where the forest cover was mainly consisting of birch and hazel. The forests extent reached its maximum peak about 6,000 years ago, when an educated guess based on palynological investigations suggest that at least the 60% of Scotland was covered by some sort of vegetation. In that same era proofs of massive utilisation and deforestation dates 4000 years ago by the hand of early farming communities (Oosthoek 2013). In fact, whilst in north-west Scotland the pine forests were largely replaced by blanket-bog before any large impact by man, in the Eastern Highlands human activity was the main destructive agent, stretching over a period from about 1700 BC to about 1000 AD: the fire, the cattle, the sheep and the goats of the Highland peasants, aided by a period of climatic deterioration (the “Little Ice Age” started in the later fourteenth century and not really over before the late seventeenth century) reduced the estimated 50-60% of forest cover during the Mesolithic period to about the four percent during the Middle Ages (Smout 1997).

As written above, at the beginning of the 20th century forests counted for about 5% of the total land in UK. When the WWI burst about 182,000 ha of mostly broadleaved woodland were felled and the urge for a strategic policy to create and maintain a woodland stock brought to what can be considered the foundations of today’s forestry policy and practices: the Forestry Act of 1919. The Forestry Commission (FC) was created and a target of 0.75 million ha of new forests was set, so that the country had not to rely anymore on timber imports. Due to the second Wolrd War conflict, and the consequent need for more timber, In 1943 the FC set a new ambitious target: 1.2 million ha to be afforested and a further 0.8 million ha of “effective” forest to be created by restocking existing woodlands. Afforestation continued undisturbed despite of the loss of strategic interest. At the end of the 1970s the 1943 target was about to be passed. In December 1980 a ministerial statement announced a forestry policy that did not mention a total area of plantations anymore, but envisaged an afforestation rate of 20,000-25,000 ha per year, later increased to 30,000 ha in March 1986. Since 1919 upland afforestation has continued inexorably. Over the last 60 years nearly 18,000 ha have been planted each year.

The area of woodland in the UK at 31st March 2017 exceeds the 3 million hectares, 1.4 of which is located in Scotland. Conifers account for the 51% of the overall forest cover and almost three quarters in Scotland. Sitka spruce accounts for around a half of the conifer area in UK, about 58% in Scotland (Forestry Commission 2017)

### The plantation

Tompkins, Steve. Forestry in crisis. The battle for the hills. 1989. Christopher Helm, London.

“The vocabulary of an upland forester draws irresistible comparisons with agriculture. Afforestation of a bare hillside requires fencing, the elimination of wildlife such as hares and deer (regarded as vermin), deep ploughing and drainage, planting, fertilising and weeding. Today’s foresters talk of rotations, crops and harvests. Their crops have become steadily more dependent on a single, alien species, the Sitka spruce, with lodgepole pine used where the ground is poorest. Tree-breeding programmes are also ensuring that the genetic base of the plants used will steadily decrease. Blanket afforestation consists of even aged conifer monocultures that are harvested and replanted, like any crop of surplus grain, except that the trees take decades to grow.

The second basic ingredient of British forestry is that the rapid expansion of coniferous plantations has occurred on land where tree growth is least satisfactory – in the uplands. This was due to avoid competition with agriculture, as the production of food was seen to be of key importance, and to take place on cheap land and on a large scale, to reduce unit costs. As to 1986, 34% of hill, moor and rough grazing in Scotland had been afforested” (Tompkins 1989).

Since the Forest Census of 1995 the woodland area in Scotland is estimated to be grown of a further 7.5% (Forestry Commission 2011). In 1995, Sitka spruce represented about the 45% of the whole conifers in Tayside, over one third of the whole forest cover of the region.

The Griffin Forest plantation was established in 1980-1981 over an area classified as heather moorland. Before planting the trees heather (*Calluna vulgaris* (L.) Hull) was burnt and the ground was ploughed in depth, originating a surface characterised by 3 different features: ridge, furrow and undisturbed soil; ridges lay at 1.9 m from each other. Trees were planted at a distance of 1.9 m on the ridges, so that the total number of trees was of 2770 trees/ha (Clement, Jarvis et al. 2012).

The about 4,000 ha were planted a dominance (80%) of Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis* (Bongard) Carriere 1855) and additional species such as Douglas fir (*[Pseudotsuga menziesii](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Douglas_fir" \o "Douglas fir)* ([Mirb.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Charles-Fran%C3%A7ois_Brisseau_de_Mirbel" \o "Charles-François Brisseau de Mirbel)) [Franco](https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Jo%C3%A3o_Manuel_Antonio_do_Amaral_Franco&action=edit&redlink=1)), Japanese larch (*[Larix kaempferi](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Larix_kaempferi" \o "Larix kaempferi)* (Lamb.) Carr.), Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and downy birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehrh.).

Thinning was carried out in 2003/4 on the east side of the forest and 2005 on the west side by removing every 5th row and cutting every 3rd tree on the two rows aside of the thinned row; one third of trees were removed, bringing the present density to about 1750 trees per hectare.

Topographic description (Clement paper, Ecocraft).

Rationale of forest plantation: Jarvis jpg from carbon experiment.

Soil description. Richard Nair plots.

## Experimental design

Separate description for each experiment here or to be restructured on an “experiment” base?

### The plots

The originary project aimed to compare two plots with similar features, one of them set as control plot (C) and a treatment plot (T) where a solution containing 15N-labelled NH4NO3 had to be sprayed over the canopy, similarly to Gaige et al (2017) experiment. Due to some constraints, the idea of the treatment was abandoned and the two plots have become a replica. Within the Griffin forest, two plots have been set, at a similar altitude and orientation.

T plot: 56°36’22’’ N, 3**°**47’41’’ W

C plot: 56°36’38’’ N, 3**°**47’40’’ W

In each of the plot 3 subplots were identified, each of these covering similar features of forest cover. A storm in 2014? caused a notable damage at the C site. As a result, even if the installed collectors did not suffer damages, the C plot forest cover is locally less dense and could show different soil and air temperature than the T plot, especially in the subplots C10 and C11.

### Water and litter samples collection

The core of the experiment aimed(s) to compare the nitrogen input from the atmosphere to the nitrogen recovered below the canopy. Two rainfall gauges, one “harp-wire” fog collector (pictures?), 18 throughfall/litter and 22 stemflow collectors and 4 streamflow flux and sample collection points were set. The sample collection started on October 2011 and ended on April 2017.

Rainfall gauges. Two rainfall gauge was installed over the “T” plot (56°35'59.8"N 3°47'21.5"W, elevation: 440m) and a second one below the “C” plot (56°37'11.0"N 3°48'21.6"W, elevation: 286 m) in two open areas, sufficiently far from the plantation so to minimise any turbulence due to the presence of high obstacles. In the upper rain gauge station the “harp-wire” collector was installed at short distance from the rainfall gauge. In each of the bottles 2.5 ml (5 ml in the bigger bottle for the cloud water collection) of concentrated ortho-phosphoric acid was added as biocide agent. No biocide agent was used in the throughfall and stemflow collectors, due to the high volumes of sample collected and the need to discharge in situ most of the sample.

Throughfall collection. 18 collection points have been set, 9 per each plot, 3 per each subplot, representing different positions within the canopy (thinning lines, full density and intermediate) and different wind directions. Throughfall is collected through two inclined gutters of a fixed length (4.02 m) and width (0.234 m) collecting throughfall and draining it to a barrel. The barrel is covered but lets the throughfall drain through a central colander (r=12,25 cm) which works as a filter, retaining litter or other undesired objects or animals to pass into the barrel. The depth of the water collected is measured as close as possible from the centre of the barrel and turned into a volume through an algorithm formulated by testing in the labs each of the 3 barrel types deployed in field (small, round and square barrels). This volume is then turned into mean throughfall deposition by dividing each water volume by the total surface projection of the gutters and the colander, as follows:

Where

*n* = number of TF collectors

*Vi* = volume of the throughfall as calculated in the *i* barrel calculated through the calibration formula specific of each barrel type;

,

*w* = throughfall gutter width

*l* = throughfall gutter length

*α* = gutter angle

*r* = filtrating bowl radius

Litter collection \*\*\*

Stemflow samples. Kate doc. The rationale of the sample distribution follows the assumption that there is a linear relationship between (DBH)2 and stemflow volume as found by Heal, Stidson et al. (2004) the information gathered through a DBH survey conducted in 2011 in both plots - updated in winter 2016\*. The surveyed trees have been divided in 8 classes; 17stemflow samplers were deployed in unthinned rows, representative of each of the 8 classes. 5 more samplers were deployed with the aim of assessing the effect of thinning: 3 were attached to the north edge of a thinned row, whilst other 2 were deployed in an unthinned row nearby.

The 22 trees selected represent this variability. 17 of them follow the distribution of the throughfall collectors. 5 extra collectors were deployed to better represent trees facing the thinning lines. The calculation of the volume collected is similar to what is done for the throughfall. The depth of the water in the barrel is transformed in a volume, then the mean volume of the samplers of each of the 8 classes is calculated, and the mean value of the 8 classes is scaled to the hectare by multiplying it for the number of the trees (1750/ha).

Streamflow samples. 4 triangular-notch thin-plate weirs (British Standard 1981) were installed in Griffin, two in each plot. In the T plot one of them is up the plot and the second one collects the water outflow from the plot. This allows to calculate a net balance of the N leached by the plot. Although the measurement of the water flow was initially thought as continuous by installing a \*\*\*(check Rob maybe? Or Thesis), eventually the available data, instant discharge and N concentration, come from the monthly collection. This shows obviously a limitation to properly build up a hydrological balance but allows at least to have an information of the N leaching from the plots in different times of the year.

Water sample processing after collection

Samples were stored at 4 °C in the labs until the filtration, usually not more than 24 hours after the collection. Per each sample bottle (250 ml, 1 l for the streamwater) for 30 ml of each sample were withdrawn from each Nalgene bottle with a 60ml syringe after rinsing it 3 times with the same amount of sample. \* Sample filtered through nome prodotto e messo in 25ml sbroz, stored at 4 °C until it gets analysed. Colorimetric analysis for NH4 and NO3 concentrations characteristics. Colorimetric analysis\*\*\*

### Experiment “15N-labelled simulated Ndep”

The idea at the base of this experiment was strengthening the outcomes from the 5 years data collection by simulating Ndep by using 15N as a label and calculating the total recovery of the applied 15N in throughfall and stemflow. Three Sitka spruce trees have been selected around the existing eddy covariance tower in the T plot so the be easily reachable with an extension lance (maximum length = 5.4 m) and were sprayed in two occasions (\*\*dates) with a 15N-labelled enriched NH4NO3 solution (δ15N = +1000) by applying it over the tree crown. Under each spruce one stemflow and four throughfall collectors were placed so to cover approximately 1/5 of the crown projection. Similarly to the existing experiment, the depth of the water in each barrel was measured and a sample of at least 5 liters (when available) of throughfall and stemflow were withdrawn. When the volume of the sample exceeded the volume of the sampling

### Experiment “15N-labelled application on branches”

Ammonia diffusion (Sebilo, Mayer et al. 2004)

15N – labelled

Open questions: ma la rationale, Magnani e pippe varie, da dove era partito il progetto, vanno qui? Secondo me, si. In that case, see the PhD offer document.

Brief description of some of the previous experiments.

Sample preparation (check Richard), drying and milling (usa la roba del Corso! Yeah!)

Notes for later:

Mitchell work with 87-93 of CNU!

Results for the 5 years dataset: Descrizione del database ottenuto -> fieldwork and lab methodology, data quality (NAs), data treatment, outliers, regression and interpolation.

References

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Clement, R. J., et al. (2012). "Carbon dioxide exchange of a Sitka spruce plantation in Scotland over five years." Agricultural and Forest Meteorology **153**: 106-123.

Scotland's 17% forested land cover sequesters 10% of Scotland's emissions of greenhouse gases. The expected rise of forested land cover to 25% by the middle of this century make forests an important component of the national carbon budget. This paper presents the carbon exchange measurement methodology, results, and modeling associated with a five-year experiment at a plantation forest in Scotland, UK, as part of a European initiative to develop and verify vegetation carbon-exchange models. We have developed a site specific correction for advective flux loses. While based on ustar corrections, it differs from current approaches in that it includes site topographic effects, corrects existing data instead of replacing it, and applies over the entire diel cycle instead of only during nocturnal periods. Models of soil respiration are compared and reveal the inadequacy of soil state parameterization. A non-rectangular hyperbola model of assimilation is selected to examine the maximum assimilation rate and quantum use efficiency parameters' responses to environmental temperature, vapour pressure, and sky condition. Intra-annual variability is found to be highest in early autumn, linked to a combination of seasonal changes in radiation and phenological changes in canopy quantum yield. Inter-annual variability was low, with less than %5 variation from year to year, and factors driving this variability were not clearly apparent. Over the 5 years of reported measurements, this forest sequestered about 6 tonnes of C per hectare per annum. Photosynthetically active radiation use efficiency of the forest is about 4.2%. Constancy of radiation use efficiency was observed at both diel and annual scales. This constancy depended on the ecosystem's thermal inertia and assimilation/radiation response curve characteristics at diel time scales but depended on thermal inertia and phenological changes in quantum yield at annual time scales. The net carbon uptake rates are consistent with two other flux sites in the British Isles and suggest that the relatively maritime climatology of these areas is highly suitable for the species of trees routinely planted here. (C) 2011 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

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Heal, K. V., et al. (2004). "New data for water losses from mature Sitka spruce plantations in temperate upland catchments." Hydrological Sciences Journal-Journal Des Sciences Hydrologiques **49**(3): 477-493.

Accurate estimates of water losses from mature Sitka spruce (Picea sitchensis) plantations in the UK uplands are required to assess the sustainability of water supply in the event of land-use change. Many investigations have demonstrated that afforestation increases water losses from temperate upland catchments, to up to 40% of annual site rainfall. In a 0.86 km(2) upland water supply catchment in southwest Scotland, interception loss in a Sitka spruce-dominated 37-year old plantation, was 52% of annual precipitation (2912 mm), considerably higher than reported in previous studies of similar catchments. From direct measurements of rainfall, cloudwater, discharge and soil evaporation, the catchment water balance was 96-117% complete, within the limits of measurement error. The most probable explanation for the higher forest interception loss reported here is the inclusion of cloudwater measurements.

Oosthoek, K. J. (2013). Conquering the Highlands : a history of the afforestation of the Scottish uplands, Australian National University E Press.

Sebilo, M., et al. (2004). "The Use of the 'Ammonium Diffusion' Method for delta(15)N-NH(4)(+) and delta(15)N-NO(3)(-) Measurements: Comparison with Other Techniques." Environmental Chemistry **1**(2): 99-103.

Several methods have been developed for nitrogen isotope measurements on ammonium (NH(4)(+)) and nitrate (NO(3)(-)) in solid or aqueous samples. We have tested the accuracy and reproducibility of the ammonium diffusion method for delta(15)N measurements on NH(4)(+) and NO(3)(-) and compared this technique to other established methods. Our results show that the ammonium diffusion technique is capable of generating accurate and reproducible delta(15)N values for minute quantities of NH(4)(+)-N and NO(3)(-)-N in aqueous samples, if sufficient care is taken to minimize nitrogen blanks and to optimize the extraction procedure. Hence, the ammonium diffusion method offers an attractive alternative to more labour-intensive and costly methods for determining nitrogen isotope ratios of NH(4)(+) and NO(3)(-) in aqueous samples.

Smout, T. C., Ed. (1997). Scottish Woodland History, Scottish Cultural Press - Edinburgh.

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