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1 **Nitrogen cycling in monospecific and mixed-species plantations of *Acacia mangium* and**
2 ***Eucalyptus* at 4 sites in Brazil**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 Mixing N-fixing trees with eucalypts is an attractive option to improve the long-term soil N
24 status in fast-growing plantations established in tropical soils. A randomized block design was
25 replicated at four sites in Brazil to compare the biogeochemical cycles in mono-specific
26 stands of *Eucalyptus* (100E) and *Acacia mangium* (100A) with mixed-species plantations in a
27 proportion of 1:1 (50A50E). Our study aimed to assess the effects of introducing *A. mangium*
28 trees in *Eucalyptus* plantations on atmospheric N₂ fixation, N cycling and soil organic matter
29 stocks. Litterfall and soil N mineralization were measured over the last two years of the
30 rotation (4-6 years after planting). Aboveground N accumulation in the trees and carbon (C)
31 and N stocks in the forest floor and in the top soil were intensively sampled at harvesting age.
32 N₂ fixation rates were estimated using the natural abundance of ¹⁵N as well as by the
33 difference between total N stocks in 100A and 50A50E relative to 100E (accretion method).
34 While the ¹⁵N natural abundance method was unsuitable, the accretion method showed
35 consistently across the four sites that atmospheric N fixation reached about 250 and 400 kg N
36 ha⁻¹ rotation⁻¹ in 50A50E and 100A, respectively. Except at one site with high mortality, N
37 contents within trees at harvesting were approximately 40% higher in 100A than in 100E.
38 Mean N contents in litterfall and N mineralization rates were about 60% higher in 100A than
39 in 100E, with intermediate values in 50A50E. The amounts of N in litterfall were much more
40 dependent on soil N mineralization rates for acacia trees than for eucalypt trees. Soil C and N
41 stocks were dependent on soil texture but not influenced by tree species. N budgets over a 6-
42 year rotation were enhanced by about 65 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 100A and 40 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in
43 50A50E relative to monospecific eucalypt plantations. Introducing N-fixing trees in eucalypt
44 plantations might therefore contribute to reducing the need for mineral N fertilization in the
45 long-term.

46

47 **Key words:** Organic matter, N₂ fixation, Eucalypt, litterfall, nutrition, Tree mixtures, tropical
48 plantations.

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Mixed-species plantations associating nitrogen-fixing trees (NFT) with other highly
51 productive tree species could be an attractive option to improve both the long-term soil
52 nitrogen (N) status and the overall biomass production (Binkley et al., 2003; Forrester et
53 al., 2004; Bouillet et al., 2013). Although total stem biomass production at the harvest was
54 significantly enhanced in mixed-species stands relative to *Eucalyptus* monocultures in
55 Australia (Forrester et al., 2004), Hawaii (Binkley et al., 2003), Congo (Bouillet et al., 2013)
56 and in an experiment in Brazil (Santos et al., 2016), the mixture was less productive than
57 monospecific *Eucalyptus* stands in other experiments established in Brazil (Bouillet et al.,
58 2013). A growing body of evidence suggests an overall trend towards higher biomass
59 production in a mixture than in monocultures of *Eucalyptus* and NFT in the areas where
60 *Eucalyptus* growth is limited by N (Forrester, 2014). A positive effect of diversity on forest
61 production in North America also suggested that facilitation between species could be
62 enhanced relative to competition in stressful environments (Paquette & Messier 2011).
63 However, light and water use efficiency to produce wood is commonly higher in *Eucalyptus*
64 plantations growing under favourable conditions than in areas of low productivity (Binkley et
65 al., 2004; Campoe et al., 2012), which supports an intensive management of highly productive
66 plantations concentrated in small areas to satisfy the growing demand in wood (Stape et al.,
67 2004; Battie-Laclau et al., 2016). While soil N availability is an important factor influencing
68 the interactions between *Eucalyptus* and NFT, studies dealing with nutrient cycling over
69 entire rotations are scarce in tropical regions (Forrester et al., 2006).

70

71 The gross primary productivity of Brazilian *Eucalyptus* plantations is higher than 3500 g C m⁻²
72 yr⁻¹ (Ryan et al. 2010; Cabral et al. 2011), which ranks these forests among the most
73 productive in the world (Luyssaert et al., 2007). Input-output budgets show consistently: i)

74 that *Eucalyptus* plantations can benefit for several decades from an inherited soil fertility from
75 the previous land use, and ii) that N fertilizer additions should increase over successive
76 rotations (Laclau et al., 2005; Silva et al., 2013). NFT can be planted in N-deficient soils to
77 enhance soil N status through large inputs of N derived from the atmosphere (Binkley et al.,
78 2004; Forrester, 2014).

79

80 The ^{15}N natural abundance method is commonly used to estimate N_2 fixation in forest
81 ecosystems (e.g. Galiana et al., 2002; Forrester et al., 2007; Bouillet et al. 2008) despite
82 strong limitations (Shearer and Kohl, 1986; Chalk et al., 2016). N_2 fixation can also be
83 estimated by the accretion method comparing total N stocks in the soil-plant system for NFT
84 and non NFT, and considering that the difference is a result of N_2 fixation (similar N inputs
85 and outputs except N_2 fixation). A comparison of N_2 fixation rates estimated with the
86 accretion method, the ^{15}N natural abundance method and the ^{15}N labeling method is
87 recommended to improve the reliability of the estimates (Shearer and Kohl, 1986; Parrota et
88 al., 1996; Forrester et al., 2007; Bouillet et al., 2008). While some studies showed that carbon
89 (C) and N stocks can rapidly increase in mixed-species plantations with NFT relative to
90 eucalypt monocultures in Hawaii (Binkley et al. 2004), Puerto Rico (Resh et al. 2002), Brazil
91 (Garay et al. 2004; Santos et al., 2016; 2017), Australia (Forrester and Smith, 2012), and
92 Congo (Koutika et al., 2014), no significant changes in C and N stocks were detected after 1
93 rotation of NFT in Brazil (Voigtlaender et al., 2012; Rachid et al., 2013). The consequences
94 of introducing NFT in eucalypt plantations might be less site-specific for N cycling than for C
95 and N storage in the soil, with a rapid rise in N contents in litterfall and in soil N
96 mineralization rates commonly observed after planting NFT (Binkley et al., 2004; Forrester et
97 al., 2012; Voigtlaender et al., 2012; Sang et al., 2013; Tchichelle et al., 2017a).

98

99 A similar experimental design comparing monospecific and mixed-species plantations of
100 *Eucalyptus* and *Acacia mangium* Wild has been replicated at 4 sites in Brazil. Bouillet et al.
101 (2013) showed that the stemwood biomass at the time of harvest was 14%-57% higher in
102 monospecific *Eucalyptus* stands (100E) than in *A. mangium* stands (100A) and an
103 intermediate in mixture at a 1:1 ratio between *Eucalyptus* and *A. mangium* (50A50E) at those
104 4 sites. The biomass of aboveground tree components in 50A50E was strongly influenced by
105 intra- and inter-specific interactions. Mixed-species plantations of *Eucalyptus* and *A.*
106 *mangium* trees might be an interesting option to produce *Eucalyptus* saw logs with a much
107 higher wood volume from individual *Eucalyptus* trees than in the commercial monospecific
108 stands managed for pulpwood production (Bouillet et al., 2013).

109

110 The objective of our study was to gain insight into the potential of mixed-species plantations
111 of *Eucalyptus* and NFT to enhance the long-term N status of tropical soils. We hypothesized
112 that introducing *A. mangium* trees into highly productive eucalypt plantations leads to: 1)
113 large N inputs through biological fixation, estimated consistently by the ¹⁵N natural
114 abundance method and the accretion method, 2) low changes in C and N stocks in the upper
115 soil layers after 1 rotation despite a rise in N cycling through litterfall and soil N
116 mineralization, and 3) an improvement of soil N budgets relative to monospecific eucalypt
117 stands of the same order of magnitude as the amount of N fertilizer commonly applied in
118 commercial plantations. Voigtlaender et al. (2012) showed results for soil C and N stocks, N
119 contents in litterfall as well as soil N mineralization rates at Itatinga (IT). It is one of the 4
120 sites in the present study. Some results are shown for 3 sites here because the values already
121 published at IT were excluded. Comparisons are made for 4 sites using the results of
122 Voigtlaender et al.'s previously unpublished data for the IT site.

123

124

125 **2. Materials and methods**

126 *2.1 Study sites*

127 The same experimental design was replicated at Itatinga (IT), Bofete (BO), and Luiz Antônio
128 (LA) in the São Paulo state and at Santana do Paraíso (SdP) in the Minas Gerais state (Figure
129 1). Large areas of commercial plantations of *Eucalyptus grandis* Hill ex Maiden and
130 *Eucalyptus urophylla* S.T. Blake x *E. grandis* have been established in these regions. A
131 detailed description of the 4 sites can be found in Bouillet et al. (2013). In brief, mean annual
132 rainfall was similar at the 4 sites (1240 mm at SdP, 1390 mm at IT and 1420 mm at BO and
133 LA), as well as mean atmospheric humidity (about 70%). The duration of the dry season
134 (monthly rainfall < 30 mm) was 1-2 months at IT and BO, and 3-4 months at LA and SdP
135 (Figure 2). Mean annual temperatures were 20°C at ITA, 21°C at BO, 23°C at LA and 24°C
136 at SdP. The soils were Ferralsols at IT, BO and SdP and Ferralic arenosols at LA (FAO
137 classification). The soil pH was acidic (between 4.5 and 5.8) and the amounts of available
138 phosphorus and base cations were low at all the sites, decreasing sharply with soil depth
139 (Table 1). The soils differed in texture, with clay contents in the 0-5 cm soil layer of 10% at
140 LA, 11% at IT, 12% at BO and 51% at SdP. Our 4 experiments were representative of the
141 range of soil properties and climatic conditions in the regions where the most productive
142 *Eucalyptus* plantations are managed in Brazil.

143

144 Mean annual increment of stemwood at the harvest (6 years after planting) ranged from 18.2
145 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at IT to 21.8 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at LA in 100E, from 14.7 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at IT to 18.9 Mg
146 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at BO in 50A50E, and from 4.5 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at LA to 11.5 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ at BO in 100A
147 (Bouillet et al. 2013). The biomass production of aboveground tree components at the 4 sites
148 can be found in Bouillet et al. (2013).

149

150 2.2 Experimental design

151 The experiments were set up in former *Eucalyptus* stands that had been managed for 20–60
152 years at all the sites. Highly productive *Eucalyptus* seedlings and cuttings were planted: *E.*
153 *grandis* mono-progeny at IT, one *E. grandis* clone used by the Suzano company at BO, and *E.*
154 *urophylla* x *E. grandis* clones selected by the International Paper company at LA and the
155 Cenibra company at SdP. All the *Acacia mangium* seedlings were produced from seeds
156 collected in a single highly productive stand in Amazonia (Amapá state). Spacing was 3 m x
157 3m at all the sites, except at BO where it was 3 m x 2 m.

158

159 A complete randomized block design was established at each site with seven treatments and
160 four blocks. Each plot had 10 x 10 trees with two buffer rows (except 8 x 10 trees at BO). Our
161 study was carried out in three of the original seven treatments planted without N fertilization:

162 – 100A, monospecific *A. mangium* stand;

163 – 100E, monospecific *Eucalyptus* stand;

164 – 50A50E, mixture in a proportion of 1:1 between *Eucalyptus* and *A. mangium* with the same
165 total stocking density as the monospecific stands.

166

167 Seedlings were planted between the rows of the previous plantation after soil cultivation with
168 a ripping tine to 40 cm depth. *Acacia mangium* seedlings were inoculated with *Rhizobium*
169 strains selected by EMBRAPA for their N₂ fixation capacities. In the 50A50E treatment, the
170 two species were planted alternately in the row, and between adjacent rows. The amounts of
171 fertilizer applied (P, K, Ca, Mg and micro-nutrients) were non-limiting to tree growth (Laclau
172 et al. 2009) and the lack of N fertilization did not reduce significantly the stemwood biomass
173 of eucalypt trees harvested at 6 years of age (Bouillet et al. 2013). Herbicide applications the

174 first two years after planting eliminated grasses and shrubs in these experiments, as in most
175 commercial plantations in Brazil.

176

177 *2.3 Nitrogen contents within tree components*

178 Circumference at breast height (CBH) and tree height (H) were measured in the inner plots at
179 66, 63, 72 and 73 months after planting at SdP, BO, IT, and LA, respectively. Nitrogen
180 contents in above-ground tree components were estimated by sampling destructively 10 trees
181 of each species in 100A, 100E and 50A50E at each site, distributed over the range of basal
182 area (40 trees per site). The trees were separated into leaves, living branches, dead branches,
183 stemwood and stembark. The stem of each tree was sawn into 3 m sections. The fresh mass of
184 each tree component was measured in the field (± 20 g). The foliage was collected from three
185 different sections of the trees' crown. The biomass of coarse roots, medium-size roots and
186 fine roots were measured for the 2 species in 100A, 100E and 50A50E at the end of the
187 rotation at IT (see Nouvellon et al. 2012 for the detailed methodology). Sub-samples of each
188 component were dried at 65°C to constant weight, and the dry biomass of the components in
189 each tree was calculated proportionally. The samples were then ground for chemical analysis.
190 Quality control procedures were used in the laboratory. Allometric equations were established
191 for each species in each treatment at each site and applied to the corresponding inventory to
192 estimate N contents on a hectare basis from CBH and H measurements.

193

194 *2.4 Litterfall*

195 Litterfall was collected over the last two years of the rotation at BO, LA and SdP. The
196 amounts of C and N returning to soil with litterfall at IT can be found in Voigtlaender et al.
197 (2012). Leaf and fruit litterfall were collected in 4-5 traps (50 cm x 50 cm) per plot installed
198 at various distances from the trees in 100A and 100E, and in 8-10 traps per plot in 50A50E.

199 Dead branches and bark were collected in an area of 9 m² (6 m² at BO) delimited between
200 four trees in each plot (replicated in three blocks for the three treatments). The litter traps
201 were set up in three blocks for the three treatments and the litter of the two species was
202 distinguished in 50A50E.

203

204 The three sites were far from each other and we could go to each experiment only twice per
205 trimester. Litterfall was collected every 4 weeks (periods of measurement of soil N
206 mineralization) or every 8 weeks (between soil incubation periods). Litter samples were dried
207 at 65°C for 72 h before weighing. Litter dry matter was measured in each plot. The replicates
208 in the three blocks were mixed and composite samples were prepared for each litter
209 component of each species in each treatment at each site every 3 months, then ground for
210 chemical analysis.

211

212 *2.5 Nitrogen contents in the forest floor and the upper soil layers*

213 The methodology described by Voigtlaender et al. (2012) at IT was used at the end of the
214 rotation at BO, LA and SdP. In brief, forest floor and the upper soil layers (0-5 cm, 5-15 cm
215 and 15-30 cm) were sampled in three blocks. Nine positions in each plot were sampled for
216 100A and 100E and 18 positions were sampled in each plot for 50A50E (9 positions at
217 different distances from each tree species). All the sampling positions were distributed
218 throughout the plots, excluding 2 buffer rows, and replicated in 3 blocks.

219

220 The forest floor was sampled with a 15 cm-radius circular frame at each position and divided
221 into three components: Oi (non-fragmented material), Oe (coarse fragments), and Oa (finely
222 fragmented material). The nine samples per component collected in each plot were manually
223 homogenized and one composite sample per plot in mono-specific stands (one sample for

224 each species per plot in 50A50E) was ground for chemical analysis. The ash content was
225 determined by heating sub-samples at 450 °C in an oven for 4 h and used as a correction to
226 determine the ash-free dry mass.

227

228 Soils were sampled using 5 cm, 10 cm and 15 cm-long metal cylinders (5 cm in diameter)
229 inserted into the upper 0–5 cm, 5–15 cm and 15–30 cm soil layers after collection of the forest
230 floor. All soil samples were air-dried, weighed and the water content was determined from a
231 subsample (dried at 105°C). The roots were removed and the samples were passed through a
232 2-mm sieve (no gravel in these soils). Bulk density was calculated for all the samples
233 collected as the ratio between oven-dried soil mass and volume of the soil core.

234

235 *2.6 Production of mineral nitrogen*

236 The *in-situ* coring technique (Khanna and Raison, 2013) was used to estimate N
237 mineralization in the 0–20 cm soil layer in 100A, 100E and 50A50E over the last two years of
238 the rotation at BO, LA and SdP. Soil incubations were conducted for 4-week periods in 12
239 plots (3 treatments in four blocks) at each site in the middle of each trimester and repeated 8
240 times over 2 years.

241 At the onset of each sampling period, three pairs of cores (70 mm in diameter) were driven 20
242 cm into the soil with a hammer in each plot for 100A and 100E and 6 pairs of cores in each
243 plot for 50A50E (3 pairs close to each tree species). The pairs of soil cores were located 35
244 cm, 105 cm, and 175 cm from the nearest tree in each plot for a representative sampling of the
245 inter-row. One soil core from each pair was withdrawn immediately and the other core was
246 covered with a plastic cap to prevent mineral N leaching and incubated for 4 weeks. Soil
247 samples were transported in cooled insulated containers and then homogenized manually.
248 Roots were removed and a subsample was collected for determining the water content at

249 105°C. Extractions were initiated on the same day for one composite sample in each plot.
250 Mineral N was extracted by shaking 10 g of soil with 50 ml of 2 M KCl and the
251 concentrations of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ in the extracts were determined by an automated flow
252 injection system (Ruzicka and Hansen 1975). Net ammonification and nitrification were
253 estimated by the difference between post- and pre-incubation concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and
254 $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, respectively. Net N mineralization was obtained for each sampling period by
255 summing net ammonification and net nitrification.

256

257 Mean annual rates of net ammonification and net nitrification over the study period were
258 estimated multiplying by 13 the mean values across the 8 incubation periods (there are
259 thirteen 4-week periods in 1 year). Voigtlaender et al. (2012) estimated that annual net N
260 mineralization at IT amounted to $123 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 100A and $63 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 100E, from 26
261 successive incubation periods of 4 weeks (from 4 to 6 yrs after planting). Applying the
262 method used here to their data set (multiplying by 13 the mean mineralization rates estimated
263 over 8 periods of 4 weeks in the middle of each trimester) would estimate mean annual net N
264 mineralization rates at 148 and $65 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 100A and 100E, respectively, *i.e.* with an
265 overestimation by 20% in 100A and by 3% in 100E. The method used in the present study
266 should therefore be sufficiently accurate to detect the contrasting effects of treatments on the
267 net production of mineral N across the 4 sites.

268

269 *2.7 Assessment of nitrogen fixation*

270 *Natural abundance of ^{15}N*

271 The samples collected in 10 trees per species and per site to measure biomass and N contents
272 within aerial tree components (leaf, branch, stemwood and stembark) were used for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
273 determinations in 100A, 100E and 50A50E. However, to reduce the number of isotopic

274 analyses, we pooled the samples collected in the 3 dominant, 4 medium-size and 3 smallest
275 trees of each species for each component in each treatment at each site (for a total of 192
276 samples analyzed). The method described by Bouillet et al. (2008) was used to estimate the
277 percentage of N derived from atmospheric N₂ (%Ndfa) in *A. mangium* trees.

278

279 *Nitrogen accretion method*

280 Nitrogen fixation at the 4 sites was also estimated using the N accretion method (Forrester et
281 al., 2007) by comparing the N contents within soil, forest floor and biomass in 100A, 100E
282 and 50A50E. All the N stocks were measured at each site, and for IT we used the values in
283 the mineral soil and in the forest floor shown by Voigtlaender et al. (2012). The amount of N
284 in the belowground biomass (N_{BG}) was only measured at IT (unpublished data), and we
285 considered that the proportions of N in aboveground (N_{AG}) and belowground tree components
286 were similar at the other sites for each treatment. N_{BG} was therefore estimated in each plot at
287 BO, LA and SdP, multiplying the aboveground N content by the N_{BG}/N_{AG} ratio measured at
288 IT.

289

290 Rates of N₂ fixation over six years after planting were estimated by calculating the difference
291 in total N stock (summing N contents in tree biomass, forest floor and 0-15 cm soil layer)
292 between 100E and the plots containing *A. mangium* (100A and 50A50E). We hypothesized
293 that differences among treatments resulted only from N₂ fixation and that N losses via
294 leaching or denitrification were negligible in our plots, which did not receive N fertilization. It
295 was shown at IT that N leaching at a depth of 3 m was lower than atmospheric inputs over a
296 *Eucalyptus* rotation (Binkley et al. 2018), and the same feature was observed at IT the first
297 four years after planting in 100A and 50A50E (unpublished data). In addition, some
298 measurements during the rainy season at IT also showed very low denitrification fluxes

299 (unpublished data), as commonly reported in forest plantations and savanna woodland
300 (Livesley et al. 2011).

301

302 *2.8 Nitrogen budgets relative to monospecific Eucalyptus stands*

303 A simple N budget was calculated in the soil to estimate the enrichment in soil N over the first
304 rotation after introducing N fixing trees, relative to monospecific *Eucalyptus* plantations. In
305 each experiment, we used the equation:

$$306 \quad B_N = (F_N - E_A) - (0 - E_E) = F_N - E_A + E_E \quad (1)$$

307

308 where B_N is the soil N budget in 100A (resp. in 50A50E) relative to 100E, F_N is the biological
309 fixation of N_2 in 100A estimated from the N accretion method (resp. in 50A50E), E_A is the
310 exportation of N within stemwood at the harvest in 100A (resp. in 50A50E), and E_E is the
311 amount of N exported with stemwood at the harvest in 100E.

312

313 *2.9 Laboratory analyses*

314 Total N in plant samples was determined by acid–base titration (TE036/01-Tecnal,
315 Piracicaba, Brazil) after Kjeldahl mineralization. Carbon contents in the forest floor were
316 estimated from dry matter values, assuming that the C concentration in each litter layer was
317 similar to that measured at IT by Voigtlaender et al. (2012) for the same treatments. Carbon
318 and N contents in the mineral soil at SdP, LA and BO were determined using NIR
319 Spectrometry (Foss NIRSystems 5000, Silver Spring, MD, USA) for the 810 samples
320 collected (Brunet et al., 2007). A CHN analyzer (Fisons/Carlo Erba NA 2000, Milan, Italy)
321 was used to determine C and N concentrations for 150 samples selected to cover the range of
322 spectra (110 samples for a specific calibration and 40 for cross-validation). The validation
323 data set showed that NIRS predictions were accurate ($R^2 = 0.94$ for C and 0.95 for N).

324

325 *2.10 Statistical analyses*

326 We analyzed the main effects and interactions between treatments in each experimental area
327 using the GLM procedure in SAS. When significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between treatment
328 levels were detected, the Tukey test was used to compare treatment means. Then we used the
329 average results for each treatment at each site to test the effects of the treatments and the sites
330 as well as their interaction, as a global response study. Nitrogen content models were adjusted
331 for each tree component by NPL procedure of SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).
332 Global and local models were established by treatment with up to three parameters ($y = a +$
333 bx^C) and the Akaike's information criterion was used to select the best models. Homogeneity
334 of variance was tested by Levene's test and original values were transformed when the
335 variances were unequal. The data were analyzed with SAS statistical software (SAS Institute
336 Inc., 2000), where linear regressions were established to assess the relationships between
337 annual values of net N mineralization and N content in litterfall for each tree species across
338 the plots studied.

339

340 **3. Results**

341 *3.1 Nitrogen accumulation in the trees*

342 Mean annual N accumulation in the aboveground (ABG) tree components over the rotation of
343 6 years ranged from 40 to 110 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ depending on the treatment and the site, and was
344 approx. 40% higher in 100A than in 100E at IT, SdP, and BO (Figure 3). At LA by contrast,
345 the ABG N content in 100A was only half of the amount in 100E. The ABG N content in the
346 trees was intermediate in 50A50E relative to 100A and 100E, regardless of the site. About
347 half of the N content in the ABG biomass in 100A was accumulated in the leaves and the
348 stembark. In 100E and 50A50E, the stemwood contained from 40 to 60% of the ABG N

349 content. Only 5-20% of the total amount of N in ABG tree components was accumulated in
350 the branches whatever the site and the treatment.

351

352 3.2 Dry matter and N content in litterfall

353 Litterfall dry matter differed between treatments (Table 2). It was 50% lower in 100A than in
354 100E at LA, and 25% lower in 100A than in 100E at BO, and amounted to about 9 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
355 in all the treatments at SdP (Figure 4a). In 50A50E, the proportion of *A. mangium* dry matter
356 in the total litterfall was highly dependent on the site, ranging from 15% at LA to 40% at SdP.
357 Nitrogen contents in litterfall were on average 1.7-fold as high in 100A as in 100E across the
358 three sites (Figure 4b). The amounts of N in litterfall ranged from 75 to 103 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in
359 100A depending on the site and from 49 to 62 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 100E. N contents in litterfall
360 were intermediate in 50A50E and *A. mangium* components represented between 30% (at LA)
361 and 60% (at SdP) of the total amount of N in litterfall.

362

363 3.3 Carbon and nitrogen stocks in the forest floor and in the upper soil layers

364 The C stocks in the forest floor and in the 0-15 cm soil layer were not significantly influenced
365 by the treatments but they differed between the sites (Table 2 and Appendix 1). While the
366 total amounts of C in the forest floor ranged from 7.2 to 9.5 Mg ha⁻¹ at BO and LA, they were
367 close to 5 Mg ha⁻¹ at SdP (Appendix 1). The pattern was different in the 0-15 cm soil layer,
368 with higher C stocks at SdP (35 Mg ha⁻¹) than at BO (28 Mg ha⁻¹) and LA (23 Mg ha⁻¹).

369

370 The N content in the forest floor (F_N) was 30-90% higher in 100A than in 100E and
371 intermediate in 50A50E at the three sites (Table 2 and Appendix 2). The effect of the site was
372 much more marked in 100A (F_N ranging from 136 kg N ha⁻¹ at SdP to 231 kg N ha⁻¹ at LA)
373 than in 100E (from 107 kg N ha⁻¹ at SdP to 141 kg N ha⁻¹ at BO) and in 50A50E (from 133 kg

374 N ha⁻¹ at SdP to 151 kg N ha⁻¹ at BO). In the 0-15 cm soil layer, the N stocks were not
375 significantly different between treatments but were higher at SdP (about 2500 kg N ha⁻¹) than
376 at BO (about 1500 kg N ha⁻¹) and LA (about 1200 kg N ha⁻¹) (Table 3). The total N stocks in
377 the upper soil layers (summing the amounts in the forest floor and in the 0-15 cm layer) were
378 not significantly influenced by the treatments 6 years after planting, whatever the site.

379

380 *3.4 Nitrogen mineralization rates*

381 The pools of mineral N in the 0–20 cm soil layer (non-incubated) and the N mineralization
382 rates were significantly different between treatments and between sites (Table 2). On average
383 over the study period, mineral N pools in the 0–20 cm layer were 16.6 kg ha⁻¹ in 100A, 12.8
384 kg ha⁻¹ in 50A50E and 12.4kg ha⁻¹ in 100E with minimum values during the cold and dry
385 season (data not shown). Mean N mineralization rates across the three sites amounted to 158.5
386 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 100A, 131.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 50A50E and 99.8 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 100E (Figure
387 5 and Table 2). Net N mineralization rates were significantly higher at BO (199 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹
388 on average) than at LA (100 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and at SdP (95 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Net
389 ammonification represented about 20% of the total net N mineralization in the three
390 treatments at BO and was negligible at the two other sites (Figure 5).

391

392 *3.5 Relationships between N content in litterfall and soil N mineralization*

393 The amount of N returning to soil in litterfall was positively correlated with net soil N
394 mineralization across the studied plots at the end of the rotation (Figure 6). However, the
395 relationship was very different for eucalypt and acacia monocultures (not significant in *A.*
396 *mangium* stands). Litterfall N return to soil could be used as a proxy for net soil N
397 mineralization at the end of the rotation in eucalypt plantations. Tree plasticity to recycle N in
398 litterfall when the soil N availability increased was much higher for *A. mangium* than for *E.*

399 *grandis*. For soil N mineralization rates ranging from 50 to 300 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in *E. grandis*
400 monocultures, N content in litterfall ranged from 50 to 70 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. N content in litterfall
401 ranged from 70 to 130 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for soil N mineralization rates between 100 and 250 kg ha⁻¹
402 yr⁻¹.

403

404 3.6 N₂ fixation estimates

405 The accretion method estimated N₂ fixation in 100A over the rotation of 6 years at 413,
406 348 and 367 kg N ha⁻¹ at IT, BO and SdP, respectively (Table 3). A high mortality of *A.*
407 *mangium* trees at the end of the rotation prevented us from using this method at LA for
408 the 100A treatment. In 50A50E, N₂ fixation over the rotation ranged from 84 kg N ha⁻¹ at
409 LA to 277 kg N ha⁻¹ at SdP. Nitrogen concentrations in the aboveground tree
410 components of the 50A50E treatment were significantly higher in *A. mangium* trees than
411 in *Eucalyptus* trees (Table 4). N concentrations differed depending on the site and a
412 species x site interaction was significant in living branches and stembark but not in
413 leaves and stemwood.

414

415 Unexpectedly, δ¹⁵N values in natural abundance within leaves and living branches were
416 significantly lower for *Eucalyptus* than for *A. mangium* trees (Table 4). In stemwood and
417 stembark, the differences between species were not significant. δ¹⁵N values differed
418 significantly depending on the site with higher values at SdP than at the other sites in all
419 the aboveground tree components.

420

421 3.7 Nitrogen budgets

422 The amounts of N exported with stemwood at the harvest ranged from 148 to 238 kg ha⁻¹ and
423 were little influenced by the treatments at each site, except in 100A at LA where tree

424 mortality was high (Table 3). Relative to a rotation of monospecific eucalypt trees, a
425 monoculture of *A. mangium* increased the N budget by about 400 kg ha⁻¹ over 6 years at IT,
426 BO and SdP. The N budget over the rotation was about 200 kg ha⁻¹ higher in 50A50E relative
427 to 100E at the same sites, but lower at LA where the climate was not suitable for *A. mangium*
428 trees.

429

430

431 **4. Discussion**

432 *4.1 Biological N₂ fixation*

433 While the accretion method showed large N inputs through biological N₂ fixation in 100A and
434 50A50E at the 4 sites, in agreement with our first hypothesis, the ¹⁵N natural abundance
435 method was unable to estimate biological N₂ fixation. Indeed, the δ¹⁵N values in the leaves at
436 the four sites were lower in non-NFT (both in 100E and 50A50E) than in NFT, which
437 suggests that *A. mangium* trees did not fix N₂. However, the accretion method at the 4 sites in
438 our study and ¹⁵N labeling at IT (Bouillet et al., 2008; Paula et al., 2018) show that large
439 amounts of N were actually fixed. Lower δ¹⁵N values in *E. grandis* leaves than in *A. mangium*
440 leaves consistently at the four sites confirm the risk of misuse of the ¹⁵N natural abundance
441 method pointed out in previous studies (Shearer and Kohl, 1986; Binkley and Fisher, 2013;
442 Chalk et al., 2016). If the δ¹⁵N values had been lower for *A. mangium* trees than for *E. grandis*
443 trees, those values might have been used to estimate the N₂ fixation rates whereas the method
444 would not be suitable. Lower δ¹⁵N values in *E. grandis* trees than in *A. mangium* leaves might
445 reflect different fractionation patterns of the ¹⁵N taken up in the soil, which might be a
446 consequence of the uptake of N by different mycorrhizal strains. Forrester et al. (2007)
447 showed a strong relationship between the mycorrhizal status and δ¹⁵N values within eucalypt
448 and acacia trees in Australia and stressed the difficulties in using the ¹⁵N natural abundance
449 method for plants with different mycorrhizae strains. Further studies are needed to improve

450 our understanding of the role of mycorrhiza in the nutrition of eucalypt and acacia trees in
451 tropical plantations, and their effect on the isotopic fractionation of N.

452

453 Although the accretion method led to high standard errors of N₂ fixation in our study, the
454 estimates were consistent across the four sites. This method requires an accurate
455 quantification of N content in the trees, in the forest floor and in the soil. Despite an intensive
456 sampling (160 trees harvested and N concentrations determined in 640, 144, and 972 samples
457 of plant, forest floor and soil, respectively), the variability between blocks at each site was
458 high. However, the global picture is consistent across the four sites and a large amounts of N
459 input to the ecosystem through the N₂ fixation of acacia trees is consistent with more active N
460 cycling in 100A and 50A50E than in 100E. The accretion method assumes that N inputs
461 (except biological fixation) and N outputs in the soil are similar in the stands including NFT
462 and in the stands with only non-NFT. The conditions for using the accretion method were
463 propitious in our study. Nitrogen atmospheric deposition was probably of the same order of
464 magnitude in eucalypt and acacia stands (low differences between eucalypt and acacia leaf
465 areas probably led to similar filter effects on dry deposition) and very low losses of N by deep
466 drainage have been shown in eucalypt plantations growing on deep tropical soils (Mareschal
467 et al., 2013; Binkley et al., 2018). Monitoring soil solution chemistry in *A. mangium* stands
468 and mixed-species stands with eucalypt and acacia over the first four years after planting at IT
469 showed that N leaching at a depth of 3 m was of the same order of magnitude as atmospheric
470 inputs (unpublished data). The depth of the soil was > 3 m at the four sites and whether the
471 losses of N by deep drainage were higher under acacia than under eucalypt at some sites (as a
472 result of higher soil N mineralization rates than in eucalypt plantations), this bias would lead
473 to an underestimation of the N₂ fixation rates through the accretion method. The estimates of
474 N₂ fixation at the end of one rotation of *A. mangium* (about 400 kg ha⁻¹ from planting to age 6

475 years, except at LA) and in mixed-species plantations including 50% of *A. mangium* trees
476 (about 250 kg ha⁻¹ over one rotation, except at LA) are therefore conservative values that
477 might be slightly underestimated at some sites. High N₂ fixation rates were also estimated,
478 from ¹⁵N labeling methods, in Congolese *Acacia mangium* plantations where the amount of N
479 derived from the atmosphere in the mixture one year after labelling (220 kg ha⁻¹) was 60%
480 higher than expected on the basis of the amount found in 100A (276 kg ha⁻¹), taking into
481 account a 50% lower density of acacia trees in mixture (Tchichelle et al., 2017b). The low N₂
482 fixation rates at LA compared with the other sites can be explained by a high mortality of *A.*
483 *mangium* trees at the end of the rotation resulting from unsuitable pedo-climatic conditions
484 for this species.

485

486 *4.2 Nitrogen cycling*

487 Planting *A. mangium* trees in soils cultivated over several decades with eucalypt plantations
488 dramatically changed nitrogen cycling in only 6 years. Even though a strong effect of NFTs
489 on N cycling in planted forests is well documented (Binkley and Giardina, 1997; Forrester et
490 al., 2006), the originality of our results relies on the speed of the changes in highly productive
491 plantations (from 4 to 6 years after planting NFTs) and the consistency of the results at 4 sites.
492 The main N fluxes of the biological cycle strongly increased in the stands including acacia
493 trees in comparison with monospecific eucalypt plantations: N accumulation in the trees, N
494 content in litterfall and soil N mineralization. A strong effect of NFTs on the production of
495 mineral N in the soil has been shown in tropical plantations with eucalypts and acacias in the
496 Congo (Tchichelle et al., 2017a), in Brazil (Rachid et al., 2013; Santos et al., 2016; 2017), in
497 Australia (Adams and Attiwill, 1984; Forrester et al., 2005), and in Hawaii (Binkley et al.
498 2003).

499

500 N accumulation in the aboveground biomass was higher in 50A50E and 100A than in 100E at
501 all the sites (except LA), which probably reflects the increase in N availability for the trees
502 resulting from the high N₂ fixation rates of *A. mangium* trees (Wang et al., 2010; Inagaki and
503 Tange, 2014). About half of the N content in the aboveground components of *A. mangium*
504 trees was accumulated in leaves and stembark at 6 years of age whereas the stemwood
505 contained half of the N stock in eucalypt trees. High accumulation rates of N in leaves and
506 bark of acacia trees relative to eucalypt trees have already been reported (Bouillet et al., 2008;
507 Koutika et al., 2014). The contrasting proportions of N accumulated in leaf, branch,
508 stemwood and stembark for eucalypt and acacia trees at harvesting age suggest that the
509 management of harvest residues could strongly influence the N bioavailability for the next
510 rotation. ¹⁵N-labeling of eucalypt harvest residues (leaf, branch, bark) showed that the amount
511 of N released throughout the decomposition of the forest floor is highly dependent on the
512 mixture between leaves and ligneous residues, which can strongly influence tree growth after
513 replanting (Versini et al., 2014; 2016). Even though the amounts of N are higher in *A.*
514 *mangium* residues than in eucalypt residues, the dynamics of N release is also influenced by
515 the C quality of the litter (Freschet et al., 2012). The faster decomposition of *E. grandis* leaves
516 than *A. mangium* leaves at IT might be a consequence of higher concentrations of lignin and
517 condensed tannins as well as lower concentrations of water soluble compounds in acacia
518 leaves (Bachega et al., 2016).

519

520 Soil N mineralization rates in the topsoil are generally higher under NFTs than under non-
521 NFTs (e.g. Forrester et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2010; Koutika et al., 2014). This feature can be
522 explained by larger amounts of N returning to soil with litterfall as well as rapid changes in
523 soil biological activity and microbial community composition (Bini et al., 2013; Rachid et al.,
524 2013; 2015). The most noticeable difference in net N mineralization among the sites in our

525 study is the very high production of soil mineral N in eucalypt monocultures at BO, which
526 could be a consequence of silvicultural practices over the rotations before trial establishment.
527 About 200 kg N ha⁻¹ rotation⁻¹ was applied at BO whereas the doses were commonly <100 kg
528 N ha⁻¹ rotation⁻¹ by other forest companies (unpublished data). A very fast root development
529 in deep soil layers combined with high water and nutrient demand to produce leaves and fine
530 roots after planting prevent the loss of large amounts of N in eucalypt plantations growing on
531 deep tropical soils (Versini et al., 2014; Laclau et al., 2010). The large amounts of N applied
532 at BO over the rotations before the establishment of our trial were therefore probably not lost,
533 and might account for the very high N mineralization rates measured in the topsoil whatever
534 the treatment (100A, 100E and 50A50E).

535

536 *4.3 Influence of A. mangium trees on soil C and N stocks*

537 While soil C and N stocks commonly increase in NFTs relative to monospecific eucalypt
538 stands (Resh et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2010; Forrester et al., 2013; Koutika et al., 2014), the
539 changes were not significant after one rotation of *A. mangium* trees at the study sites, in
540 agreement with our second hypothesis and the results already published at IT (Voigtlaender et
541 al., 2012). Larger C and N stocks in the topsoil at SdP than at the other sites reflect the
542 differences in clay contents and the well-documented relationship between soil texture and
543 soil organic matter accumulation (Feller and Beare, 1997). While other studies showing that
544 NFTs can greatly enhance soil N stocks were carried out in degraded tropical lands (Resh et
545 al., 2002; Koutika et al., 2014), the field trials in our study were set up after decades of
546 cultivation of highly productive eucalypt plantations. Soil C increased after 60 years of
547 eucalypt monocultures relative to the native savanna at IT but, in agreement with the results in
548 the present study, soil N stocks were not modified (Maquère et al., 2008).

549

550 *4.4 Soil N budgets and consequences for fertilization regimes*

551 In agreement with our third hypothesis, introducing *A. mangium* trees in commercial eucalypt
552 plantations strongly enhanced soil N budgets in 100A and 50A50E. Atmospheric N₂ fixation
553 led to an input of approx. 250 kg N ha⁻¹ in mixed-species stands and 400 kg N ha⁻¹ in
554 monospecific *A. mangium* stands, which was much higher than the amounts of N fertilizer
555 commonly applied (about 100 kg N ha⁻¹) in Brazilian commercial plantations (Gonçalves et
556 al., 2008). However, the budgets have been computed here relative to eucalypt monocultures
557 and comprehensive input-output budgets including all the major fluxes (in particular
558 atmospheric deposition, run off and deep leaching) would be necessary to assess the long-
559 term changes in soil N stocks. Moreover, fine roots of *E. grandis* trees were found 4 years
560 after planting down to the water table at a depth of 17 m at Itatinga while the *A. mangium*
561 roots reached a depth of 12 m (Germon et al., 2018), which might provide access to deep soil
562 profile sources of soil N (Houlton et al., 2018). The larger amounts of N accumulated in *A.*
563 *mangium* trees than in eucalypt trees at our study sites, consistent with the results of a meta-
564 analysis (Inagaki and Tange, 2014), lead to much larger N inputs at the soil surface with
565 harvest residues in *A. mangium* stands than in eucalypt plantations. A strong relationship
566 between the N content in harvest residues, heterotrophic respiration, and early tree growth
567 after replanting was shown in Congolese eucalypt plantations (Versini et al. 2013). Further
568 studies are needed to improve our understanding of the biogeochemical processes driving the
569 mineralization of harvest residues in short-rotation forests in order to optimize the fertilization
570 regimes over successive rotations (Versini et al., 2014; Rocha et al., 2016).

571

572 In conclusion, the ¹⁵N natural abundance method was unsuitable to estimate N₂ fixation
573 despite high N fixation rates in *A. mangium* stands, consistently shown by the accretion

574 method at 4 sites in Brazil. Planting *A. mangium* trees strongly increased the availability of
575 mineral N in the topsoil as well as N cycling through litterfall. Nitrogen budgets suggest that
576 introducing NFTs in eucalypt plantations can contribute to increasing their sustainability
577 through a reduction of the need for N fertilizer addition. The new frontiers of afforestation in
578 Brazil are close to the Amazonia region where high temperatures are more suitable for *A.*
579 *mangium* trees than for eucalypt trees. Biomass production and N cycling in mixed-species
580 plantations with eucalypt and *A. mangium* trees should be studied in this context where
581 facilitation processes might lead to transgressive overyielding as shown recently under a
582 similar climate in the Congo (Pretzsch and Schütze, 2009).

583

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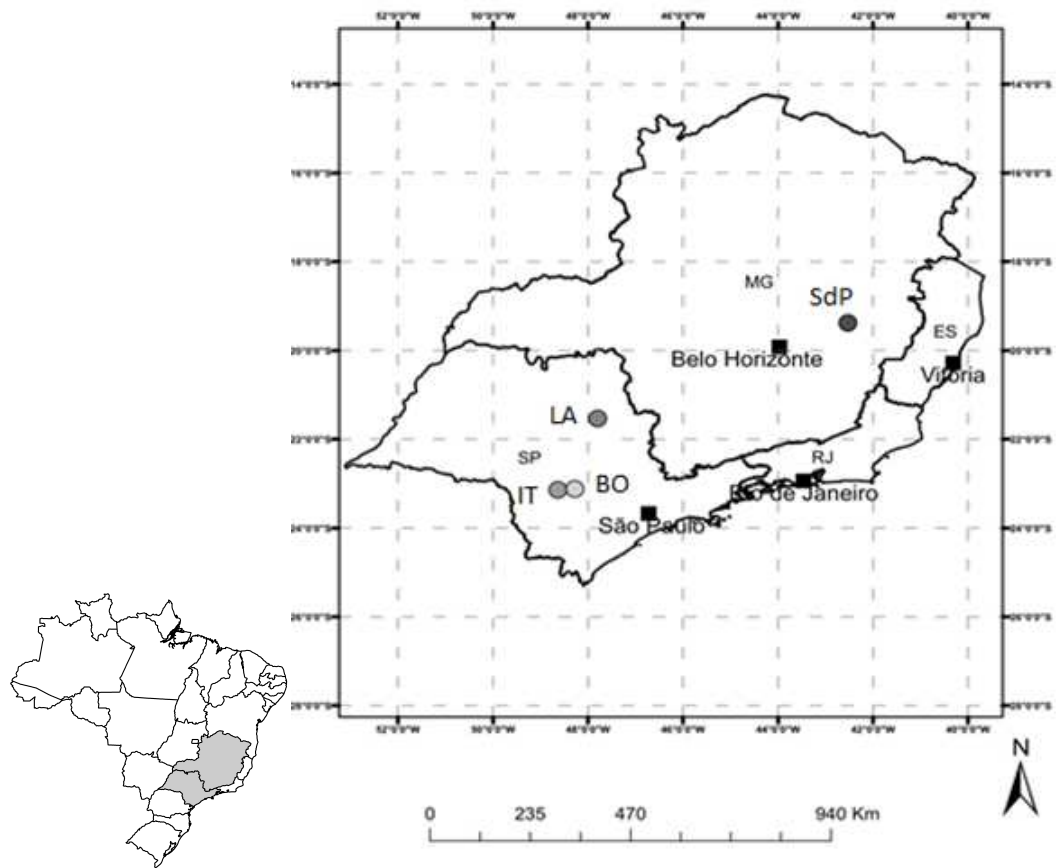


Figure 1. Localization of the experimental sites in Brazil.

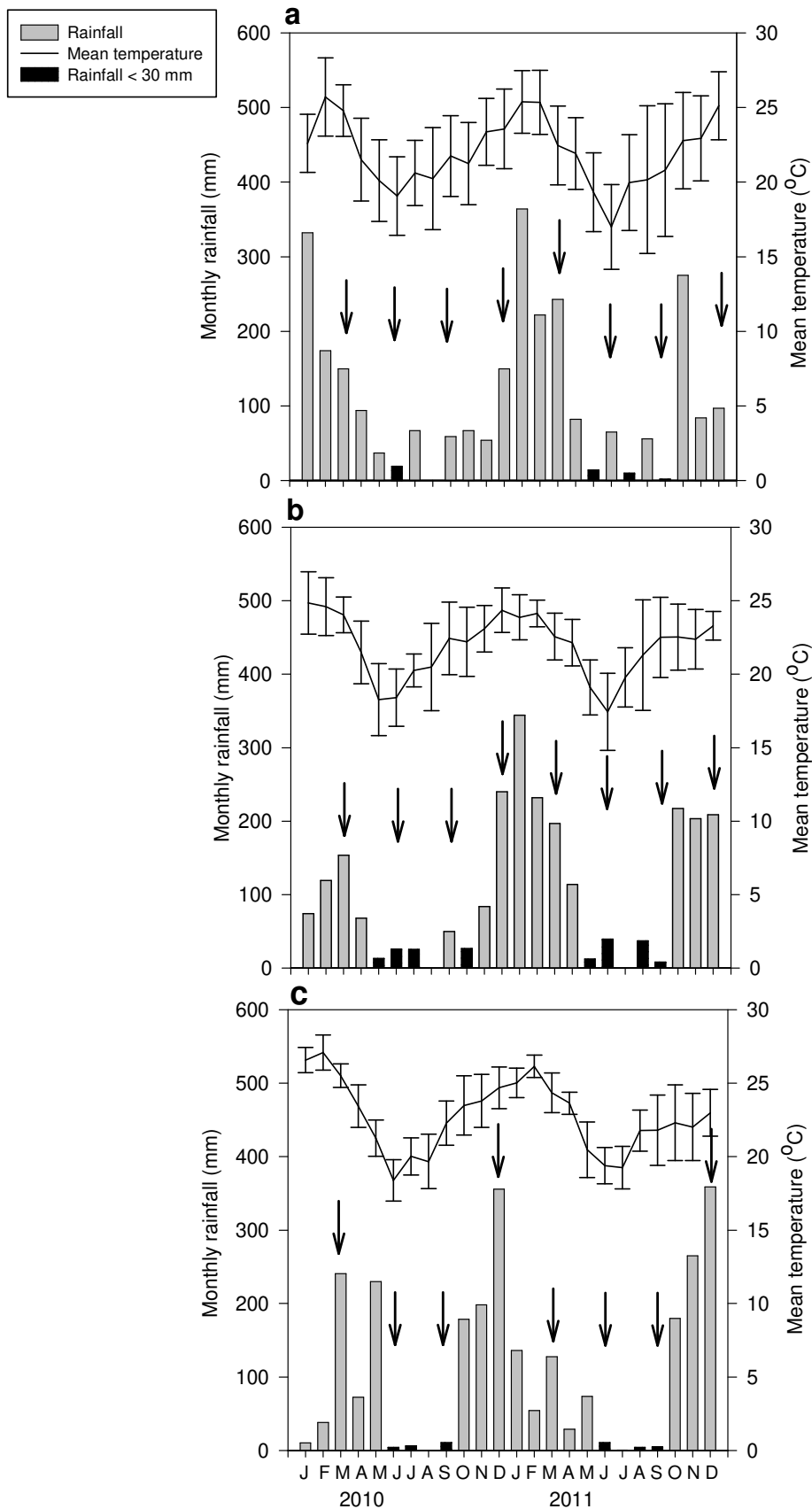


Figure 2. Monthly rainfall and temperature at BO (a), LA (b) and SdP (c). The arrows indicate the periods of measurement of soil N mineralization (one month every three months).

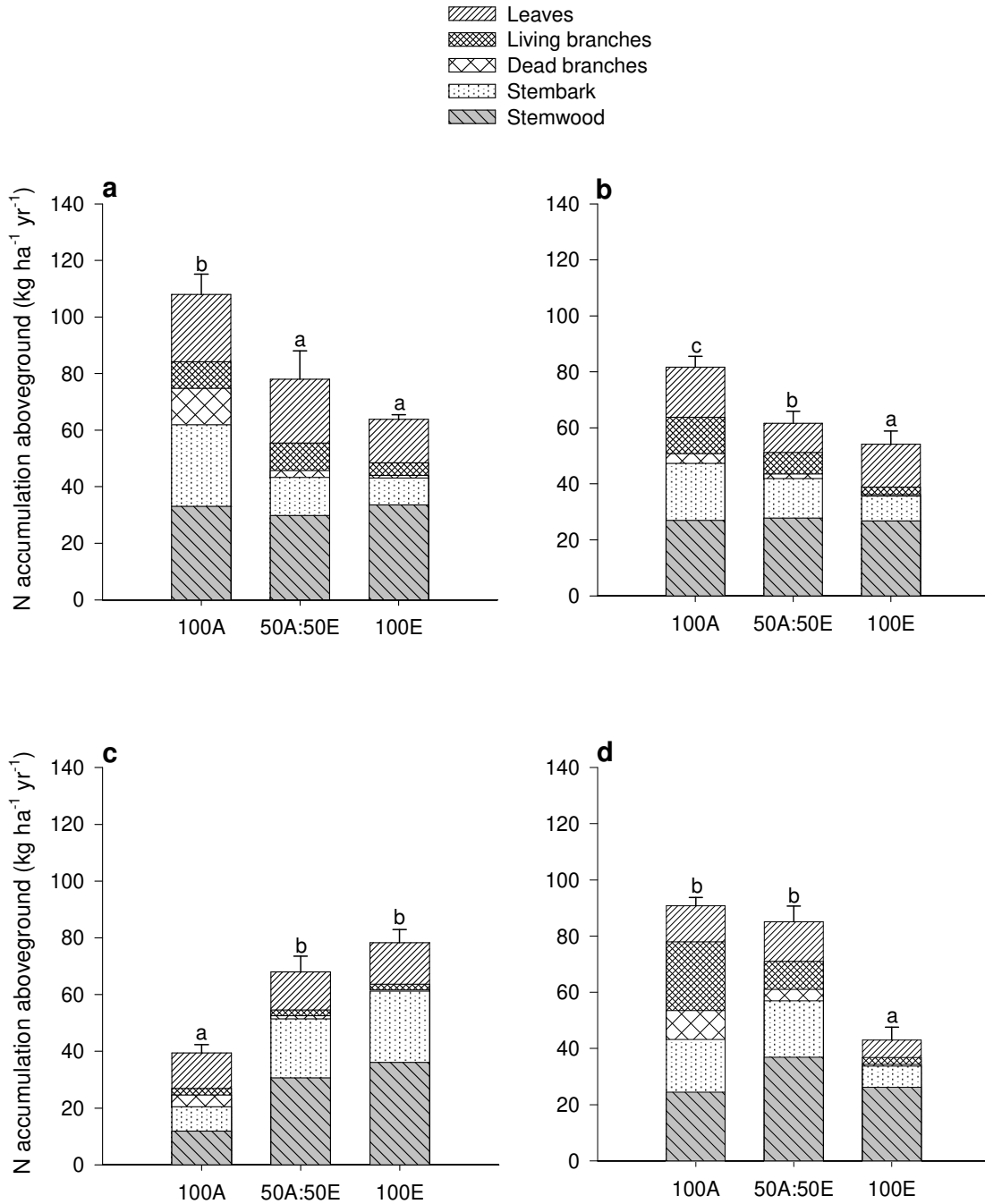


Figure 3. Mean annual N accumulation in the aboveground tree components over a rotation of 6 years (harvesting age) in 100A, 50A50E and 100E at IT (a), BO (b), LA (c) and SdP (d). Vertical bars show standard errors between blocks for each treatment ($n = 3$ at IT and $n = 4$ at BO, LA and SdP). Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments in total N content aboveground at the same site ($P < 0.05$).

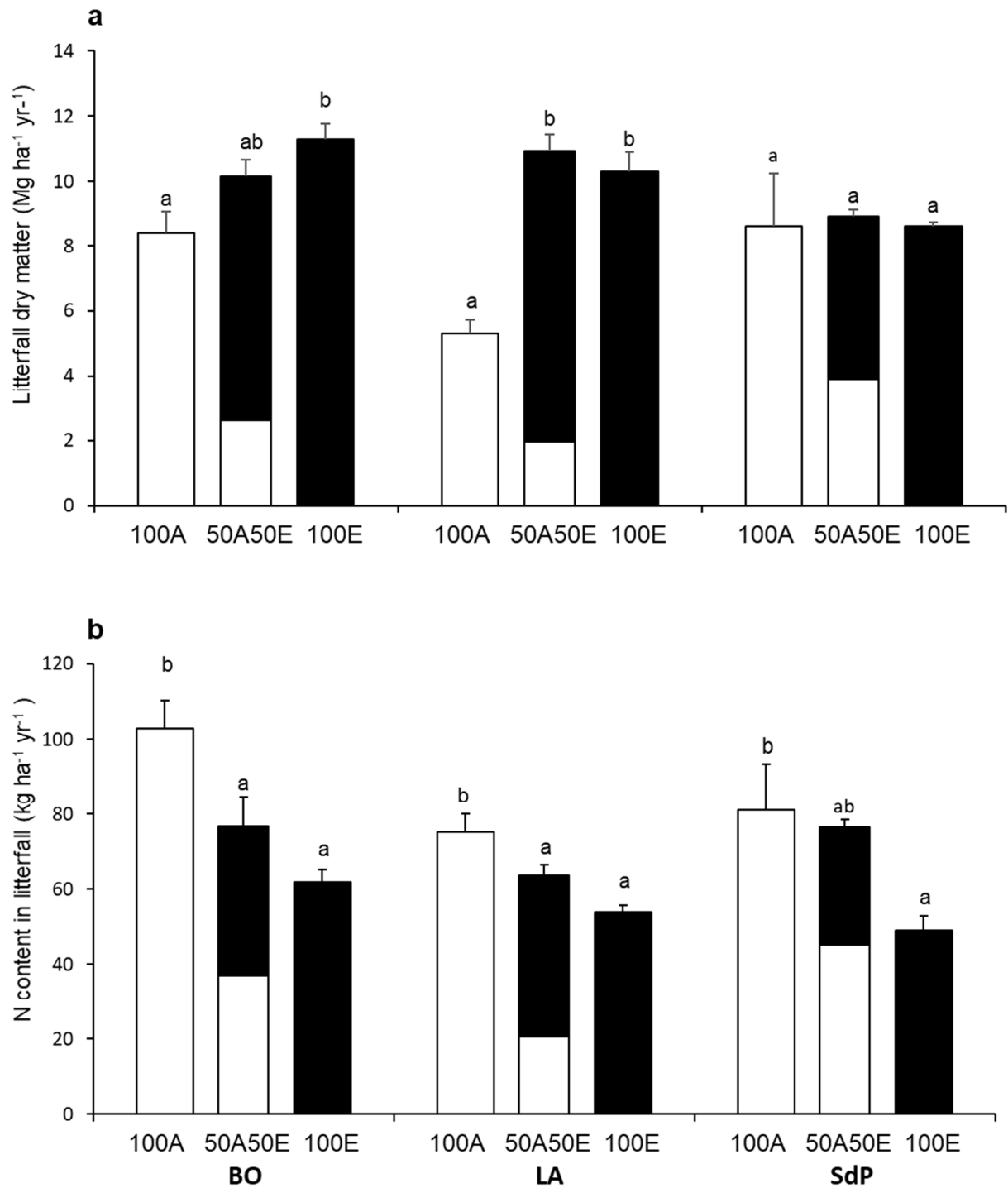


Figure 4. Annual litterfall dry matter ($\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) from 4 to 6 years after planting a) and annual N content ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in litterfall b) in 100A, 50A50E and 100E at BO, LA and SdP. Vertical bars show standard errors between blocks for each treatment ($n = 3$). Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments at the same site ($P < 0.05$).

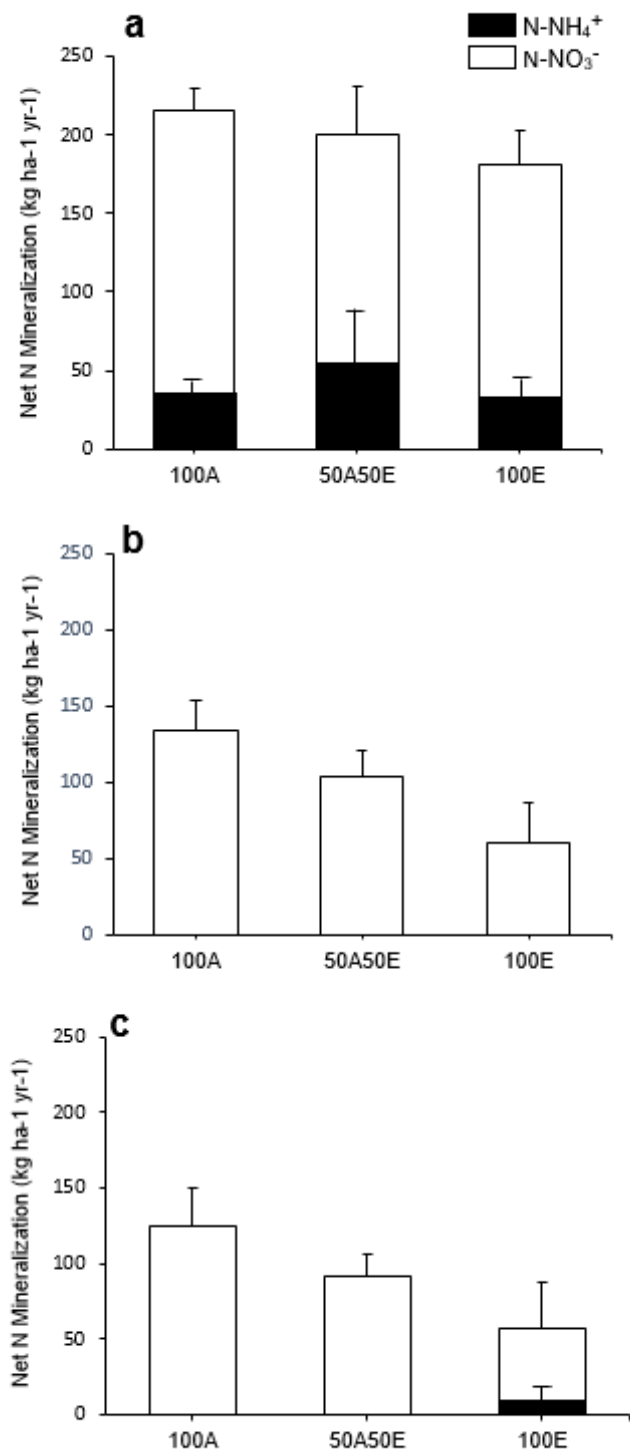


Figure 5. Net ammonification and nitrification rates in 100A, 50A50E and 100E at BO a), LA b), and SdP c). Vertical bars show standard errors between blocks ($n = 3$).

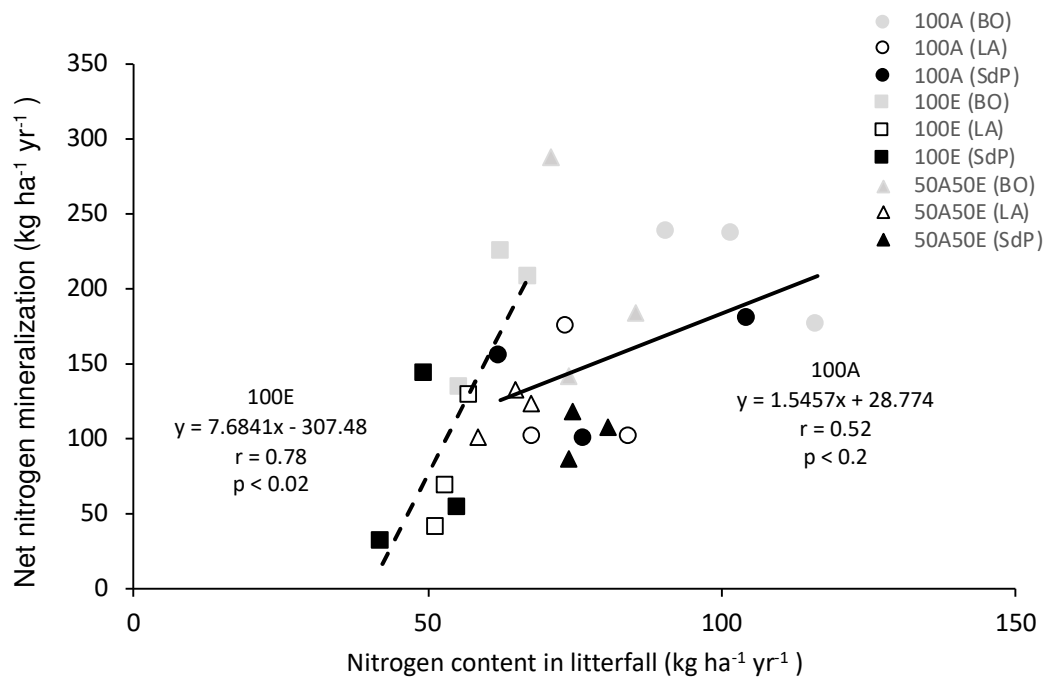


Figure 6. Relationship between net nitrogen mineralization in the top soil and nitrogen content in litterfall from 4 to 6 years after planting in 100A, 50A50E and 100E. The dotted and the full lines show linear regressions for 100A and 100E, respectively, across all the studied plots.

Table 1. Mean and standard deviation between blocks ($n = 3$) of selected soil properties in the 4 experiments. The fertilization regimes in each experiment are indicated.

Área	Soil layer (cm)	Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	pH _{H2O}	Organic matter (%)	Resin P (mg kg ⁻¹)	Sum of base cations (cmol _c kg ⁻¹)	ECEC (cmol _c kg ⁻¹)	Fertilization (kg ha ⁻¹)
Itatinga (IT)	0-5	1.23 (0.20)	5.5 (0.2)	3.5 (0.8)	7.3 (1.5)	0.96 (0.23)	1.76 (0.27)	P: 44; K: 85 dolomite: 2000 B, Fe, Zn, Mn
	50-100	1.42 (0.04)	5.8 (0.3)	0.7 (0.0)	2.0 (0.0)	0.02 (0.00)	0.58 (0.01)	
	200-300	1.49 (0.07)	5.7 (0.1)	0.4 (0.0)	1.0 (0.0)	0.02 (0.01)	0.21 (0.04)	
Bofete (BO)	0-5	1.27 (0.16)	4.5 (0.2)	2.4 (0.5)	11.3 (7.8)	0.40 (0.21)	5.87 (0.19)	P:37; K: 186 Boiler ash: 3000* B, S
	50-100	N.D.	4.6 (0.3)	0.5 (0.1)	1.0 (0.0)	0.11 (0.00)	1.90 (0.43)	
	200-300	N.D.	5.1 (0.1)	0.1 (0.1)	1.0 (0.0)	0.11 (0.00)	0.85 (0.22)	
Luiz Antônio (LA)	0-5	1.38 (0.11)	4.8 (0.1)	1.7 (0.3)	14.0 (4.6)	0.84 (0.12)	4.32 (0.08)	N:4; P:29; K:147 Lime: 1200 Cu, Zn, B
	50-100	N.D.	4.8 (0.2)	0.4 (0.1)	1.7 (0.6)	0.13 (0.04)	1.98 (0.27)	
	200-300	N.D.	4.8 (0.2)	0.2 (0.0)	1.0 (0.0)	0.11 (0.00)	1.02 (0.05)	
Santana do Paraíso (SdP)	0-5	1.04 (0.14)	5.5 (0.5)	3.8 (0.8)	6.4 (2.5)	5.78 (4.64)	10.75 (4.96)	N: 6; P: 45; K: 162; dolomite: 1500; Cu, B, Zn
	50-100	N.D.	4.7 (0.3)	1.2 (0.2)	1.3 (0.6)	0.14 (0.02)	3.79 (0.43)	
	200-300	N.D.	5.0 (0.3)	0.1 (0.0)	1.0 (0.0)	0.16 (0.01)	2.15 (0.43)	

* N content in boiler ash was < 0.1%; N.D.: not determined.

Table 2. Effects of treatments (T), sites (S) and interaction between treatment and site (T x S) on forest floor dry matter (M_F , kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), N stock in the forest floor (N_F , kg ha⁻¹), C stock in the 0-15 cm soil layer (S_C , kg ha⁻¹), N stock in the 0-15 cm soil layer (S_N , kg ha⁻¹), mineral N stock in the 0-20 cm soil layer (N_M , kg ha⁻¹), net N mineralization (M_N , kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), litterfall dry matter (L_{DM} , kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), N content in the litterfall (L_N , kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and total N stock in trees + forest floor + 0-15 cm soil layer (N_T , kg ha⁻¹). Different letters in the same row are indicated when the differences between treatments or between sites are significant ($P < 0.05$).

	P values			Mean value per treatment			Mean value per site		
	Treatment	Site	T x S	100A	50A50E	100E	BO	LA	SdP
M_F	0.0776	<0.0001	0.6550	1391	1547	1744	1712 b	1831 b	1139 a
N_F	<0.0001	0.0183	0.1438	86 c	36 a	55 b	68 b	54 a	56 a
S_C	0.9525	0.0115	0.859	35712	36565	36384	35927 ab	31400 b	41334 a
S_N	0.7968	<0.0001	0.8311	1785	1775	1713	1495 a	1215 a	2564 b
N_M	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.0239	16.6 a	12.8 b	12.4 b	12.0 b	11.6 b	18.2 a
M_N	0.0678	< 0.0001	0.9475	158.5	137.9	99.8	199.0 b	99.5 a	98.0 a
L_{DM}	<0.0001	0.5840	0.3145	7.5 b	5.0 a	10.0 b	8.2	7.0	7.2
L_N	<0.0001	0.0183	0.1438	173 a	72 c	110 b	135 a	107 b	112 b
N_T	0.0303	< 0.0001	0.156	2432 a	2360 ab	2064 b	2064 b	1754 b	3148 a

Table 3: Nitrogen stocks in tree biomass, in the forest floor and in the 0-15 cm soil layer (kg ha⁻¹) approx. 6 years after planting in 100A, 100E, and 50A50E at 4 sites in Brazil. Nitrogen fixation rates in 100A and 50A50E were estimated by difference between total N stocks relative to 100E (accretion method). Standard errors between blocks are indicated (*n* = 3). Significant effects are indicated in bold (*P* < 0.05). Different letters in the same row are indicated when the differences between treatments are significant.

	IT			BO			LA			SdP		
	100A	50A50E	100E	100A	50A50E	100E	100A	50A50E	100E	100A	50A50E	100E
N in tree biomass	648 ± 43 b	471 ± 14 a	383 ± 10 a	524 ± 10 c	416 ± 31 b	301 ± 17 a	216 ± 49 a	412 ± 15 a	465 ± 13 b	429 ± 68 ab	544 ± 19 b	278 ± 5 a
N in forest floor	192 ± 12 b	118 ± 5 a	104 ± 11 a	230 ± 9	151 ± 26	141 ± 16	231 ± 32 b	147 ± 7 a	119 ± 7 a	136 ± 26	133 ± 1	107 ± 26
Soil N (0-15 cm)	1210 ± 95	1247 ± 70	1150 ± 70	1488 ± 76	1544 ± 47	1453 ± 39	1175 ± 47	1289 ± 69	1180 ± 59	2693 ± 100	2491 ± 253	2506 ± 266
Total N in trees and soil	2050 ± 141	1836 ± 82	1637 ± 52	2242 ± 75 b	2111 ± 89 ab	1895 ± 47 a	1622 ± 111	1848 ± 64	1764 ± 63	3258 ± 80	3168 ± 271	2891 ± 239
N₂ fixation	413 ± 170	199 ± 132	0	348 ± 111	217 ± 81	0	-	84 ± 103	0	367 ± 318	277 ± 476	0
N export within stemwood	198 ± 13	179 ± 6	201 ± 4	164 ± 8	169 ± 16	164 ± 9	64 ± 14	182 ± 2	217 ± 4	148 ± 26	238 ± 9	169 ± 5
N input relative to 100E	416 ± 161	221 ± 130	0	348 ± 117	212 ± 90	0	-	119 ± 99	0	388 ± 332	209 ± 472	0

N input relative to 100E in 100A (resp. 50A50E) was computed as: N₂ fixation in 100A (resp. 50A50E) – N export within stemwood in 100A (resp. 50A50E) + N export within stemwood in 100E. High tree mortality at the end of the rotation in 100A at LA prevented from estimating the N₂ fixation rate and the N input relative to 100E.

Table 4. Mean N contents (%) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) in aboveground components of *Acacia* and *Eucalyptus* trees at Itatinga (IT), Bofete (BO), Luiz Antônio (LA) and Santana do Paraíso (SdP). *P* values show the effects of species, sites and the interaction species x site in 50A50E.

	Treatment	Acacia				Eucalyptus				<i>P</i> value		
		IT	BO	LA	SdP	IT	BO	LA	SdP	Species	Site	Species x Site
N content (%)												
Leaves	100E					1.89 ± 0.15	2.19 ± 0.10	2.12 ± 0.19	1.93 ± 0.16			
	50A50E	2.91 ± 0.13	2.49 ± 0.22	2.92 ± 0.35	2.50 ± 0.26	1.99 ± 0.07	2.05 ± 0.25	2.19 ± 0.32	1.78 ± 0.14	<0.001	0.033	0.165
Living branches	100E					0.23 ± 0.04	0.40 ± 0.10	0.30 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.04			
	50A50E	0.79 ± 0.10	0.64 ± 0.24	0.59 ± 0.06	0.59 ± 0.10	0.26 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.07	0.35 ± 0.03	0.29 ± 0.03	<0.001	0.034	0.029
Stembark	100E					0.26 ± 0.03	0.27 ± 0.01	0.23 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.01			
	50A50E	1.13 ± 0.01	1.26 ± 0.06	1.05 ± 0.03	1.30 ± 0.14	0.26 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.03	0.36 ± 0.01	<0.001	<0.001	0.021
Stemwood	100E					0.07 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01			
	50A50E	0.16 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.00	<0.001	0.011	0.760
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)												
Leaves	100E					-0.91 ± 0.56	-0.77 ± 1.94	-1.90 ± 1.54	2.49 ± 1.50			
	50A50E	-0.76 ± 0.93	3.73 ± 3.43	0.91 ± 0.28	8.81 ± 2.02	-1.14 ± 0.93	1.68 ± 1.44	-1.27 ± 1.96	2.93 ± 1.39	<0.001	<0.001	0.057
Living branches	100E					-5.98 ± 1.20	-1.78 ± 0.05	ND	0.95 ± 3.10			
	50A50E	-2.49 ± 1.16	-0.95 ± 2.26	ND	4.70 ± 2.34	-0.89 ± 0.93	-0.43 ± 0.93	ND	4.24 ± 2.16	0.003	<0.001	0.389
Stembark	100E					-2.88 ± 2.85	-2.78 ± 0.66	ND	0.73 ± 1.37			
	50A50E	-1.77 ± 4.21	-2.26 ± 0.68	ND	6.68 ± 1.40	-2.89 ± 3.77	-1.28 ± 2.01	ND	1.78 ± 1.90	0.106	<0.001	0.224
Stemwood	100E					3.48 ± 1.06	-0.61 ± 0.66	ND	-2.86 ± 0.99			
	50A50E	-2.17 ± 0.58	-2.39 ± 2.80	ND	2.10 ± 1.43	0.53 ± 1.36	0.83 ± 2.00	ND	2.80 ± 8.84	0.881	0.014	0.010

ND: not determined.