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1        **Crown morphology of *Populus deltoides* × *P. nigra* and *Alnus glutinosa***  
2        **growing in agroforestry and forest mixture plantations**

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8        *Keywords: mixed tree plantation, agroforestry, crown architecture, aerial stratification, nitrogen*  
9        *fixation, species interaction*

10       **ABSTRACT**

11        Many studies have highlighted the value of mixed plantations and their advantages over  
12        monocultures. The success of mixed plantations is usually assessed by measuring the increase  
13        in biomass and/or plant production compared to the corresponding monocultures. Among the  
14        structural determinants of growth, the vertical distribution of branches and crown shape are  
15        important to take into account because they directly impact access to light, which conditions  
16        tree growth. We evaluated the effect of two types of species mixtures in northeastern France  
17        (agroforestry and a forest mixture) on the crown architecture of poplars (*Populus deltoides* ×  
18        *P. nigra*) and alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) after seven growing seasons and compared the mixtures  
19        to their respective monocultures. Four tree architecture variables (height, crown depth, crown  
20        projection area, crown volume) were evaluated. Our study shows that the poplars in the  
21        agroforestry plot altered their crown morphology through a true mixture effect due to the  
22        presence of clover, a N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species, as well as to reduced competition for light due to larger  
23        spacing compared to the monoculture. In the forest mixture, despite a stratification of the  
24        canopy suggesting an optimized sharing of the aerial niche, thus possibly creating an additive

25 effect, poplar crown morphology was not different compared to the monoculture. Finally, the  
26 different types of mixtures did not affect alder crown morphology. From an agronomic  
27 perspective, the more important crown development that occurred when the poplar was  
28 associated with an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing crop makes this type of mixture a very promising way to increase  
29 the contribution of biomass to the renewable energy mix in Europe.

30

## 31 **Introduction**

32 Forest plantations cover about 3% of the land area worldwide, and 3.9% at the European  
33 scale (FAO 2020; Forest Europe 2020). Over the past three decades, numerous studies have  
34 highlighted the value of mixed plantations and their advantages over monospecific systems  
35 (Pretzsch et al. 2017). Indeed, mixed plantations are considered a sustainable way to produce  
36 more through more efficient use of the resources necessary for tree growth (i.e. water, light,  
37 nutrients), while also being more environmentally-friendly than monocultures (Loreau and  
38 Hector, 2001). The success of these plantations is usually assessed by measuring the increase  
39 in biomass and/or plant production compared to the corresponding monocultures. Tree biomass  
40 production is dependent on individual tree growth, which in turn is governed by (1)  
41 phenological (e.g. length of growing season, Elferjani et al. 2016), (2) biochemical (e.g.  
42 allocation of carbon, Benomar et al. 2012), (3) functional (e.g. water-use efficiency, Forrester  
43 2015) and (4) structural (e.g. tree architecture, Broeckx et al. 2012) determinants. Among the  
44 structural determinants, the vertical distribution of branches and crown shape are important  
45 factors since they directly affect the tree's access to light, which conditions tree growth  
46 (Prescott 2002; Pretzsch 2014).

47 Interactions between tree species can alter light interception; this phenomenon corresponds  
48 to aboveground competition for light (Kelty 1992). To reduce competition for light in mixed  
49 plantations, an association of species with complementary structural and functional traits should  
50 be chosen. The association of a light-demanding species with a shade-tolerant one can, for  
51 instance, be an interesting way to improve light interception at the plantation level (Forrester et  
52 al. 2004; Ishii et al. 2004). Indeed, complementarity (i.e. reduced competition) and / or  
53 facilitation effects are likely to occur between species in mixed plantations, resulting in higher  
54 productivity compared to a monoculture (Kelty 1992; Loreau and Hector 2001). Productivity  
55 has shown high responsiveness to light availability when trees are grown in mixtures (Forrester

56 et al. 2013; Pretzsch et al. 2015; Williams et al. 2017). Higher productivity in mixtures than in  
57 monocultures is generally observed when species have developed stratified canopies or  
58 different crown architectures (Guariguata et al. 1995; Forrester et al. 2006). Moreover, mixed  
59 plantations seem to show improved light interception compared to monocultures through  
60 changes in crown shape and canopy structure (Forrester et al. 2013; Jucker et al. 2015; Duarte  
61 et al. 2021; Hildebrand et al. 2021). Williams et al. (2017), for instance, found that productivity  
62 was higher in two- and four-species mixtures due to the aboveground spatial complementarity  
63 of the different species' crowns, leading to higher global light interception than in  
64 monocultures. Forrester et al. (2013) suggested that species interactions resulted in a reduction  
65 in competition for light in mixed-stands of *Abies alba* Mill. and *Picea abies* L. due to  
66 contrasting crown morphology and stratification.

67       The structural differences observed between species in mixtures and in monocultures may  
68 be due to effects resulting directly from interactions between the species, i.e. where the new  
69 structural aspects result from the interspecific environment ("true mixing effects", Forrester et  
70 al. 2013). For example, true mixing effects can lead to intraspecific changes in crown size and  
71 shape; this is referred to as crown plasticity - or the morphological adjustment of individual  
72 trees to mixing-induced environmental variability (variability in canopy space; Longuetaud et  
73 al. 2013; Van de Peer et al. 2017; Kunz et al. 2019). However, structural differences may also  
74 be due to effects resulting from interspecific differences unaffected by species interactions, i.e.  
75 when the species in the mixture keep their different morphological or physiological traits  
76 ("additive effect", Forrester 2014). This was shown by Pretzsch et al. (2016) for Scots pines  
77 (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.); in monocultures, the species  
78 showed different, complementary structural traits which were preserved when the two species  
79 were mixed. Moreover, Williams et al. (2017) concluded that the positive effects of tree species

80 associations on crown complementarity are mostly due to species-specific differences rather  
81 than to crown plasticity.

82 Changes in crown morphology and the occupation of different spatial niches in the canopy  
83 space may also depend on nutrient availability (Dieler and Pretzsch 2013). The presence of a  
84 nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>)-fixing species in the mixture may benefit the growth and crown development of  
85 the non-fixing species, and allow it to have better access to light than in a monoculture (Piotto  
86 2008). Indeed, the association of an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species, either herbaceous or woody, with a non-  
87 fixing species is often encountered in agroforestry plantations, where trees and herbaceous  
88 crops are associated on the same plot (Dupraz and Liagre 2008; Munroe and Isaac 2014).

89 Our aim was to compare tree crown development in poplar and alder in three mixed  
90 scenarios (in a poplar / alder mix, in a poplar / clover mix, and in an alder / graminoid mix) with  
91 poplar and alder monocultures in a seven-year-old tree plantation in northeastern France.  
92 Studies on agroforestry systems have largely focused on the effect of light availability on the  
93 crop (Manceur et al. 2008; Bouttier et al. 2014) but the effect on the tree is poorly documented  
94 (e.g. Righi et al. 2016; Ribeiro and Righi 2020). Our study aimed to determine if there is a  
95 vertical stratification and / or modification in crown morphology in mixtures, in comparison to  
96 the respective tree monocultures, and whether these are true mixing effects or the result of  
97 additive effects. We hypothesized that trees in mixtures would occupy the canopy space in a  
98 more optimized way than in their respective monocultures, and that light interception by the  
99 trees would be improved due to reduced competition for light and / or a facilitation effect due  
100 to the presence of an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species in the mixture. Specifically, we assumed that we would  
101 observe (i) crown stratification in both species in the forest mixture, and (ii) higher vertical and  
102 broader horizontal crown development in the agroforestry system than in the monocultures.

103

## 104 **Materials and methods**

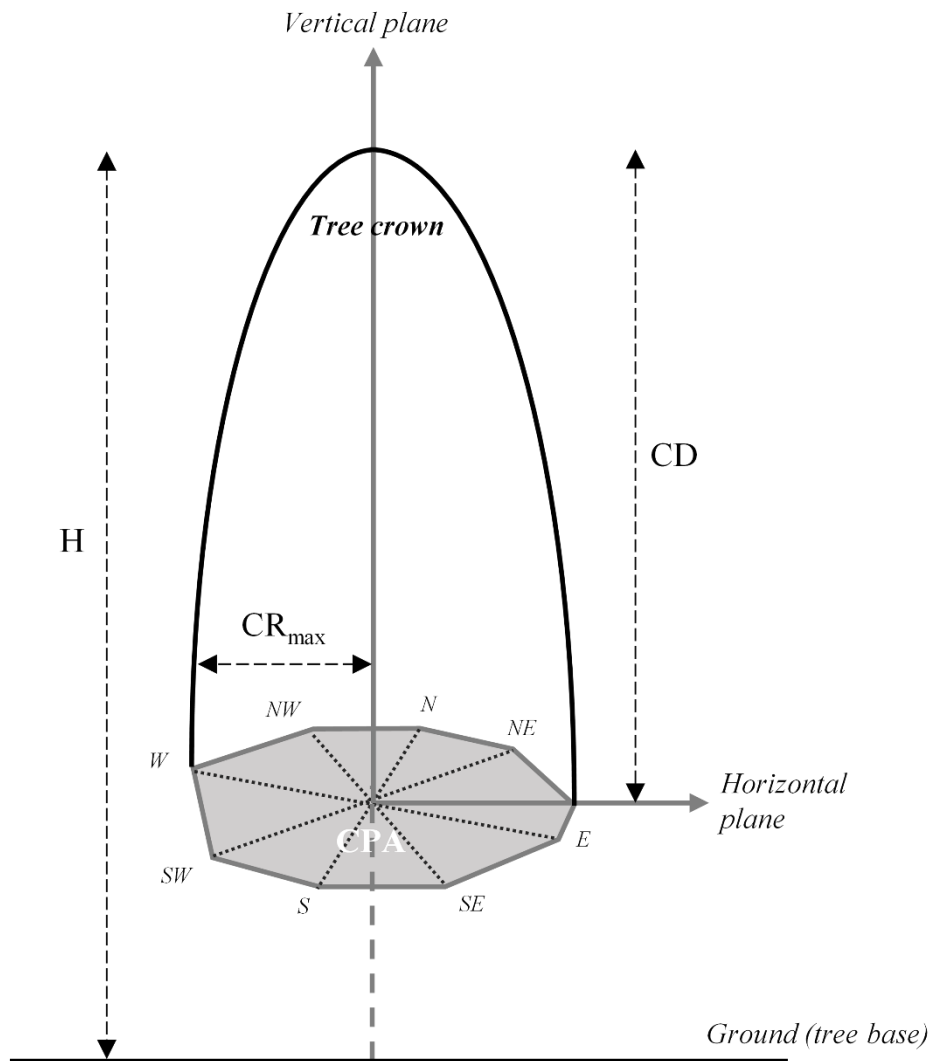
### 105 Study site

106 The experiments took place at the experimental plantation of La Bouzule in northeastern  
107 France (48°44'19" N, 6°18'50" E, 219 m asl), described in detail in Thomas et al. (2021).  
108 Briefly, the plantation was installed during the spring of 2014 and is 448 m long and 73 m wide,  
109 for a total area of 3.27 ha. Thirty-cm-long poplar cuttings of the Euramerican poplar clone  
110 Dorskamp (*Populus deltoides* Bartr. ex Marsh. × *P. nigra* L.) and one-year-old rooted alder  
111 (*Alnus glutinosa* L. Gaertn.) seedlings measuring from 50 to 80 cm in height were planted in  
112 lines of trees oriented in a north-south direction. The forest plots (monocultures and forest  
113 mixture) were planted at a density of 2000 trees per hectare while the agroforestry plots have a  
114 density of 1000 trees per hectare, every other row of trees being replaced by the herbaceous  
115 crop (clover and graminoids for agroforestry poplars and alders, respectively) as compared to  
116 the forest plots. Between 2014 and 2020, average annual precipitation was 607 mm and the  
117 mean temperature was 11.6°C. A detailed soil description is available in Clivot et al. (2019).  
118 All the measurements reported in this paper were performed during the winter of 2020-2021,  
119 i.e. after the trees' seventh growing season, except for the crown illumination index, which was  
120 measured during summer 2021. The measurements were carried out on 180 poplars and 180  
121 alders: 60 trees per species × 3 treatments (monoculture, agroforestry, forest mixture),  
122 corresponding to a representative sample of tree height classes defined in 2015.

### 123 Tree crown description

124 Crown radii ( $r$ , m) in eight directions (cardinal and subcardinal) and the mean crown radius  
125 (CR, m) of each tree were determined according to Dieler and Pretzsch (2013) (Fig.1). Then,  
126 the crown projection area (CPA, m<sup>2</sup>), i.e. the projected surface occupied by a tree canopy on  
127 the ground, was estimated according to the following equation:

$$CPA = \pi CR^2$$



129

130 **Fig.1** Schematic representation of the crown profile of a tree, where H is total tree height, CD  
 131 is crown depth,  $CR_{max}$  is crown maximum radius, CPA is crown projection area (grey area),  
 132 and N, NE, E, SE, S, SW, W, NW are the eight cardinal and subcardinal directions.

133

134 For each tree, tree height (H, m) was measured from the base of the tree to the last bud of  
 135 the tallest stem with a graduated pole; diameter at breast height (DBH, cm) was measured with  
 136 a digital caliper; maximum crown radius ( $CR_{max}$ , m) was defined as the longest crown radius;  
 137 and crown depth (CD, m) was defined as the difference between H and the height of the first  
 138 living branch (Fig.1). The live crown ratio (LCR, %), which is an effective indicator of growth



139 vigor, was determined as the ratio of live crown length (CD) to total tree height (H). These  
140 variables were then used to estimate the crown volume (CV, m<sup>3</sup>) of each tree according to  
141 Jucker et al. 2015:

$$142 \quad CV = \frac{\pi CR^2_{\max} CD}{2\beta + 1}$$

143 Crown shape coefficients ( $\beta$ ) for poplar and alder were obtained from Purves et al. (2007).

#### 144 Crown illumination index

145 Crown volume can be used as a proxy for leaf area density and light interception (Binkley  
146 et al. 2013; Pretzsch 2014; Pretzsch et al. 2017). In our study, the light interception index (LI)  
147 was estimated with the following equation according to the approach developed by King et al.  
148 (2005):

$$149 \quad LI = CPA \times CI^2$$

150 where:

151 CPA = crown projection area (m<sup>2</sup>) of each tree

152 CI = crown illumination index

153 CI was determined for each tree according to Clark and Clark (1992). This index score  
154 accounts for the vertical and lateral illumination of the crown, and the relative amount of crown  
155 lighting (Verryckt et al. 2022). Although the CI is an indirect way to characterize the light  
156 environment, as shown through a multi-parameter calibration, it is a reliable method to rapidly  
157 describe forest light environments (Keeling and Phillips 2007).

#### 158 Data analyses

159 We used the free R software, version 2022.02.1 (R Core Team 2022) to carry out statistical  
160 tests on our results. We tested species (poplar and alder) and treatment effects (three treatments:

161 monoculture, agroforestry, forest mixture) and their interaction (species  $\times$  treatment) on crown  
162 description variables with a linear model ('lm' procedure). Means were expressed with their  
163 standard errors. The statistical tests were considered significant at  $*P \leq 0.05$ ,  $**P \leq 0.01$  or  
164  $***P \leq 0.001$ . When a significant effect was recorded ( $P \leq 0.05$ ), Tukey contrasts ('glht'  
165 procedure, 'multcomp' package) were used for multiple comparisons among different factor  
166 levels.

167 **Results**

168 Tree and crown dimensions

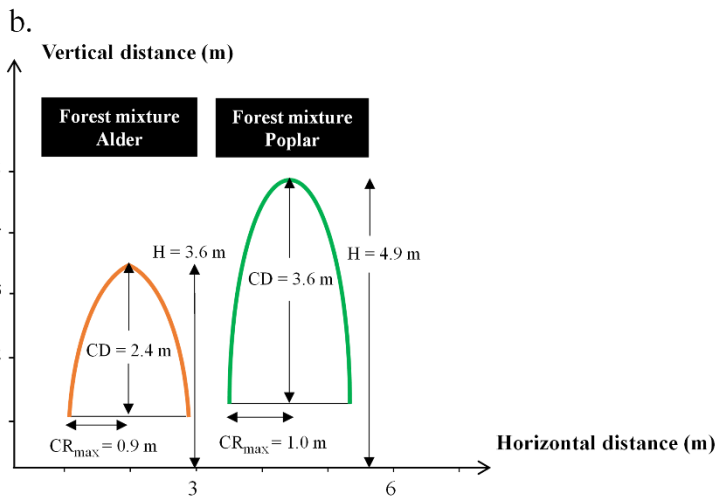
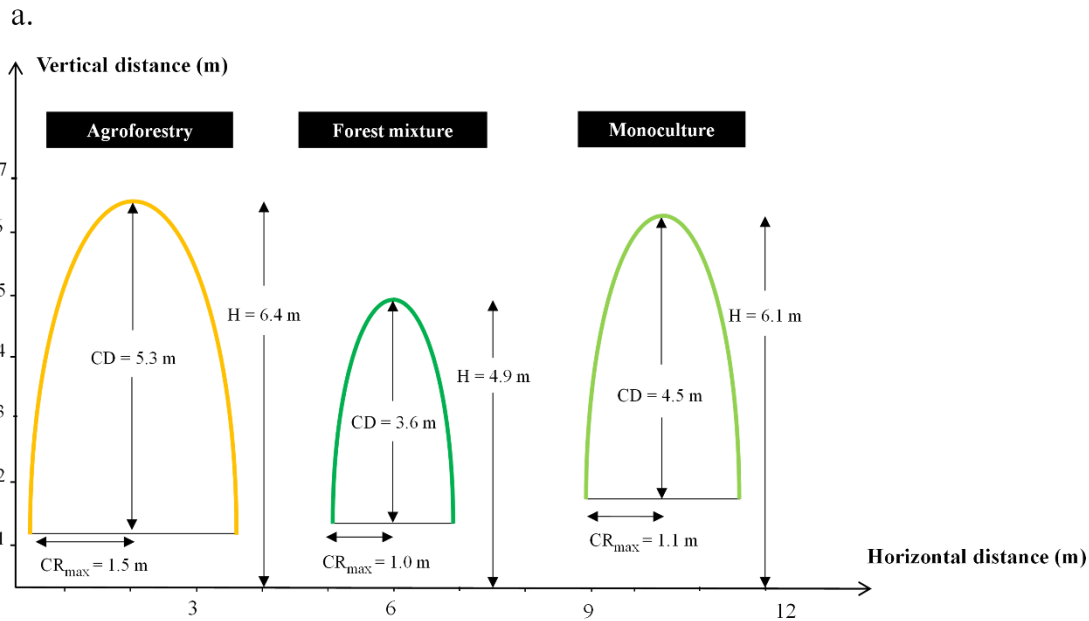
169 Stem height (H), diameter at breast height (DBH), crown depth (CD), mean crown  
170 radius (CR) and live crown ratio (LCR) were higher for the poplars than for the alders ( $P \leq$   
171 0.001; Table 1). Poplar H in the agroforestry and monoculture plots did not differ significantly  
172 ( $6.4 \pm 0.3$  m and  $6.1 \pm 0.3$  m, respectively), while poplar H in the forest mixture was  
173 significantly lower than in the other two treatments ( $4.9 \pm 0.2$  m) (Table 1). The DBH of the  
174 agroforestry poplars was significantly higher than in the monoculture and mixed forest plots  
175 ( $69.8 \pm 4.3$  mm in agroforestry,  $52.3 \pm 3.1$  mm in the monoculture and  $44.0 \pm 3.6$  mm in the  
176 forest mixture). The DBH, CR and LCR of the poplars in the monoculture and the forest mixture  
177 did not differ significantly while the CD was significantly higher in the monoculture than in the  
178 forest mixture. The CD, CR and LCR of the poplars were all significantly higher in the  
179 agroforestry treatment than in the forest mixture and monoculture plots (Fig.2a). For the alders,  
180 there was no significant treatment effect regardless of the variable. When poplars and alders  
181 were compared, poplar CD and H were significantly higher than alder CD and H in the forest  
182 mixture (Fig.2b).

183

184 **Table 1.** Mean and maximum stem height (H, m), stem diameter at breast height (DBH, cm), crown depth (CD, m), crown radius (CR, m) and live  
 185 crown ratio (LCR, %) of the poplars and alders in the agroforestry, forest mixture and monoculture treatments. Within each column, significant  
 186 differences between species and treatment are indicated with different letters. The effects of treatment (*T*), species (*S*) and their interaction (*T*×*S*)  
 187 are indicated for  $P \leq 0.05^*$ ,  $P \leq 0.01^{**}$  and  $P \leq 0.001^{***}$ . Means  $\pm$  standard errors are shown.

Species	Treatment	Mean H	Max H	Mean DBH	Max DBH	Mean CD	Max CD	Mean CR	Max CR	Mean LCR	Max LCR
Poplar	Agroforestry	6.4 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	9.8	69.8 $\pm$ 4.3 <sup>d</sup>	125.0	5.3 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>d</sup>	8.7	1.5 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>c</sup>	2.5	77.1 $\pm$ 1.9 <sup>d</sup>	88.6
	Forest mixture	4.9 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>b</sup>	10.1	44.0 $\pm$ 2.6 <sup>bc</sup>	113.5	3.6 $\pm$ 0.2 <sup>b</sup>	8.4	1.0 $\pm$ 0.0 <sup>ab</sup>	1.8	69.6 $\pm$ 1.2 <sup>bc</sup>	85.2
	Monoculture	6.1 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	10.5	52.3 $\pm$ 3.1 <sup>c</sup>	112.0	4.5 $\pm$ 0.3 <sup>c</sup>	8.3	1.1 $\pm$ 0.0 <sup>b</sup>	1.8	72.6 $\pm$ 1.2 <sup>c</sup>	85.0
Alder	Agroforestry	3.5 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	5.7	34.6 $\pm$ 1.7 <sup>ab</sup>	75.6	2.4 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	4.5	1.0 $\pm$ 0.0 <sup>ab</sup>	2.0	65.0 $\pm$ 1.0 <sup>ab</sup>	79.0
	Forest mixture	3.6 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	5.2	30.7 $\pm$ 1.2 <sup>a</sup>	45.0	2.4 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	3.8	0.9 $\pm$ 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	1.4	65.5 $\pm$ 1.2 <sup>ab</sup>	76.6
	Monoculture	3.5 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	5.2	31.1 $\pm$ 1.4 <sup>a</sup>	57.2	2.3 $\pm$ 0.1 <sup>a</sup>	4.1	0.9 $\pm$ 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	1.7	63.9 $\pm$ 1.3 <sup>a</sup>	78.0
		<i>S</i> ***		<i>S</i> ***		<i>S</i> ***		<i>S</i> ***		<i>S</i> ***	
		<i>T</i> **		<i>T</i> ***		<i>T</i> ***		<i>T</i> ***		<i>T</i> *	
		<i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***		<i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***		<i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***		<i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***		<i>S</i> × <i>T</i> *	

188



189

190 **Fig.2** Schematic representation of the crown profiles of (a) the poplars in the agroforestry, forest  
 191 mixture and monoculture treatments and (b) the poplars and alders in the forest mixture, where  
 192 H is total tree height, CD is crown depth, and CR<sub>max</sub> is crown maximum radius.

193

#### 194 Tree crown shape

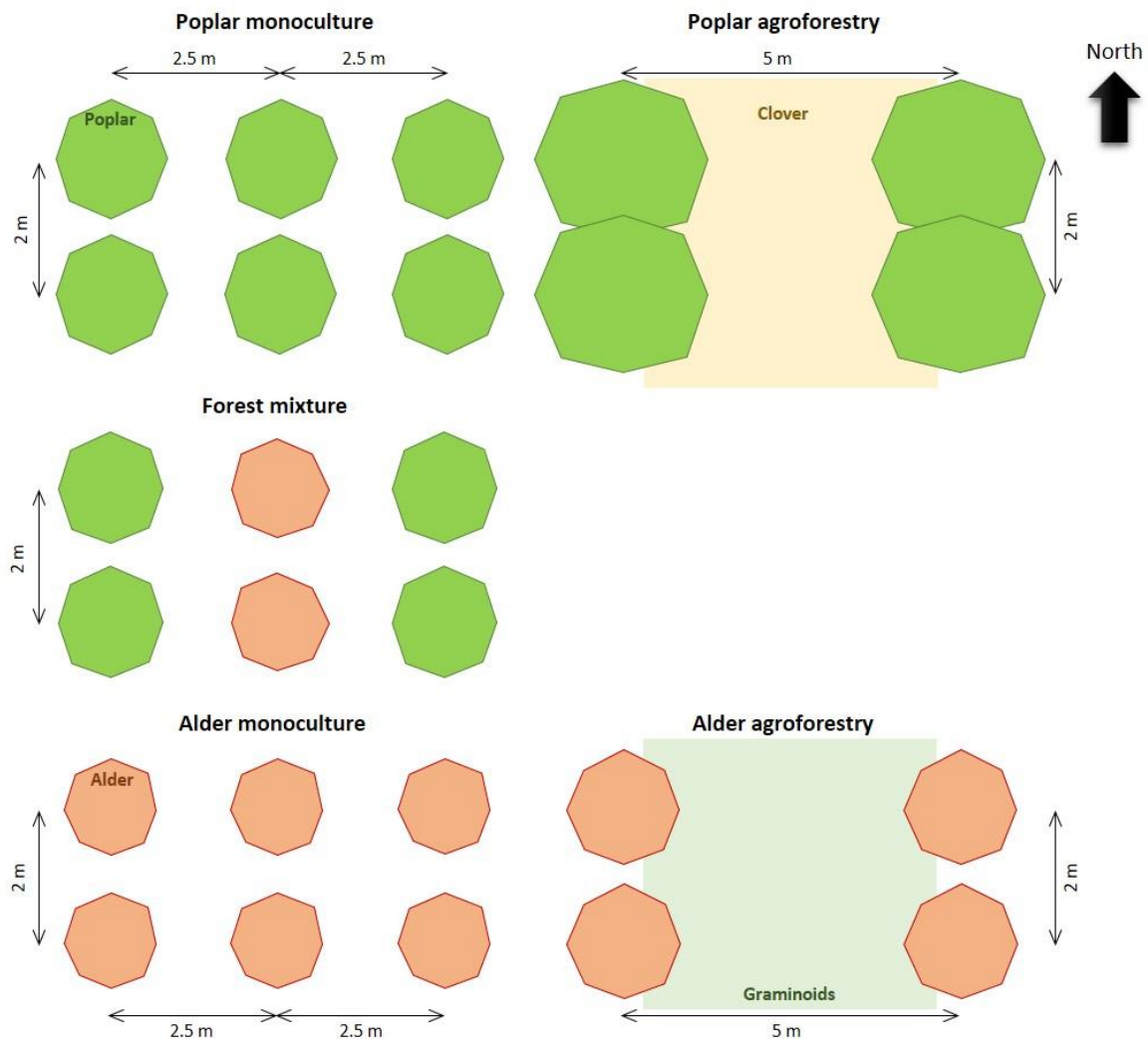
195 The poplars generally developed longer and more horizontal branches than did the alders;  
 196 this difference was more pronounced between the agroforestry poplars and the alders regardless  
 197 of treatment ( $P \leq 0.001$ ; Table 2). The poplars in the agroforestry treatment developed longer  
 198 branches than in the corresponding monoculture and the forest mixture, regardless of branch

199 orientation, with the highest values found for the three western directions ( $P \leq 0.001$ ; Table 2).  
200 For the agroforestry poplars only, significantly lower branch-length values were recorded for  
201 the North and South, than for the East and West (Fig.3). In the forest mixture, the poplars and  
202 the alders developed similar branch lengths, regardless of branch orientation ( $P = 0.31$ ).

203 **Table 2.** Sizes of the longest branches in the eight cardinal and subcardinal directions (north N, northeast NE, east E, southeast SE, south S,  
 204 southwest SW, west W, northwest NW) of the poplars and alders in the agroforestry, forest mixture and monoculture treatments. Within each  
 205 column, significant differences between species and treatment are indicated with different letters. The effects of treatment (*T*), species (*S*) and their  
 206 interaction (*T*×*S*) are indicated for  $P \leq 0.05^*$ ,  $P \leq 0.01^{**}$  and  $P \leq 0.001^{***}$ , *ns* for non-significant. Mean ± standard errors are shown.

Species	Treatment	Mean N	Mean NE	Mean E	Mean SE	Mean S	Mean SW	Mean W	Mean NW
Poplar	Agroforestry	116.6 ± 6.3 <sup>c</sup>	124.4 ± 6.4 <sup>b</sup>	123.7 ± 6.3 <sup>c</sup>	129.5 ± 7.0 <sup>c</sup>	116.1 ± 6.5 <sup>c</sup>	130.9 ± 7.0 <sup>c</sup>	131.6 ± 7.0 <sup>b</sup>	131.1 ± 7.1 <sup>b</sup>
	Forest mixture	84.7 ± 3.4 <sup>ab</sup>	84.4 ± 4.0 <sup>a</sup>	79.7 ± 3.7 <sup>ab</sup>	80.1 ± 4.0 <sup>ab</sup>	80.6 ± 3.7 <sup>ab</sup>	82.1 ± 3.9 <sup>ab</sup>	77.1 ± 4.1 <sup>a</sup>	83.7 ± 4.2 <sup>a</sup>
	Monoculture	88.1 ± 3.6 <sup>ab</sup>	84.8 ± 4.1 <sup>a</sup>	83.9 ± 4.6 <sup>b</sup>	83.5 ± 4.9 <sup>b</sup>	88.2 ± 4.2 <sup>b</sup>	86.8 ± 4.4 <sup>b</sup>	79.9 ± 4.3 <sup>a</sup>	83.8 ± 4.1 <sup>a</sup>
Alder	Agroforestry	89.0 ± 3.6 <sup>b</sup>	84.9 ± 2.5 <sup>a</sup>	82.0 ± 4.5 <sup>ab</sup>	83.5 ± 4.6 <sup>ab</sup>	80.5 ± 3.5 <sup>ab</sup>	80.8 ± 3.8 <sup>ab</sup>	77.4 ± 3.9 <sup>a</sup>	83.7 ± 3.3 <sup>a</sup>
	Forest mixture	73.8 ± 2.9 <sup>ab</sup>	73.6 ± 3.4 <sup>a</sup>	76.4 ± 3.4 <sup>ab</sup>	74.5 ± 3.5 <sup>ab</sup>	70.4 ± 3.1 <sup>a</sup>	71.3 ± 3.7 <sup>ab</sup>	66.0 ± 2.8 <sup>a</sup>	73.3 ± 3.2 <sup>a</sup>
	Monoculture	75.1 ± 3.0 <sup>ab</sup>	76.6 ± 3.4 <sup>a</sup>	66.0 ± 3.6 <sup>a</sup>	68.2 ± 3.0 <sup>a</sup>	67.2 ± 3.4 <sup>a</sup>	66.5 ± 3.1 <sup>a</sup>	69.1 ± 3.4 <sup>a</sup>	73.2 ± 3.6 <sup>a</sup>
		<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> * <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> <i>ns</i> ( <i>P</i> = 0.07)	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> **	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***	<i>S</i> *** <i>T</i> *** <i>S</i> × <i>T</i> ***

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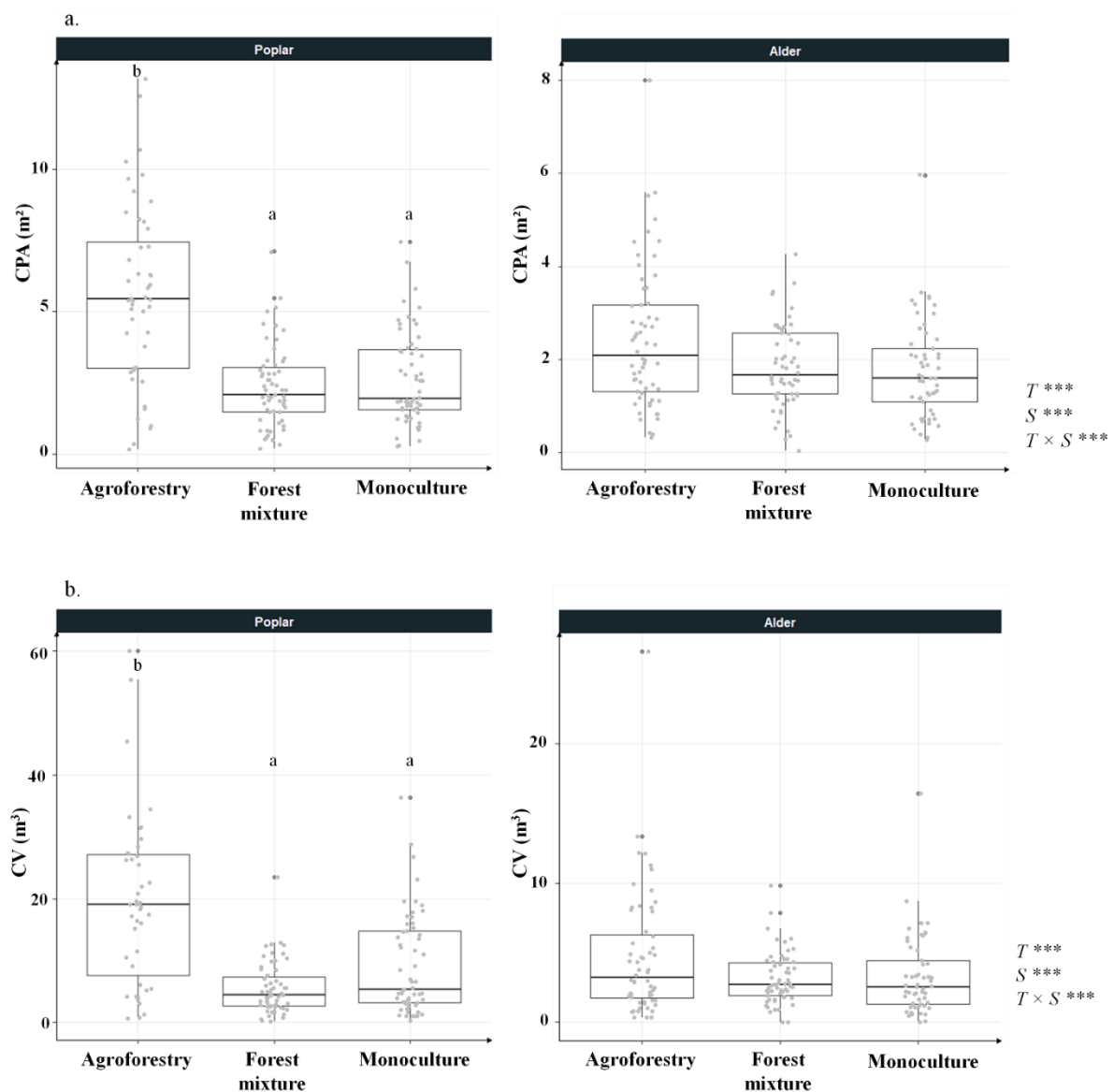
210 **Fig.3** Crown projection area (CPA) based on mean crown size of the poplars (in green) and  
 211 alders (in orange) in the different treatments (agroforestry, forest mixture and monoculture).  
 212 Mean size of the crowns in the eight cardinal and subcardinal directions are respected. The  
 213 spacing between two trees in the same row and between two different rows of trees is indicated.

214

215 The poplars in the agroforestry and the monoculture treatments had a higher crown  
 216 projection area (CPA) and crown volume (CV) than did the alders, but there was no significant  
 217 difference between the two species in the forest mixture (Fig.3; Fig.4). CPA was higher for the  
 218 poplars in the agroforestry treatment than in either of the forest plots, with a value of  $5.6 \pm 0.4$



219  $\text{m}^2$  versus  $2.4 \pm 0.2 \text{ m}^2$  in the forest mixture and  $2.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ m}^2$  in the monoculture (Fig.3; Fig.4a).  
 220 It is noteworthy that, on the tree line, crown overlap occurred only for the poplars in  
 221 agroforestry (Fig.3). CV was much higher for the poplars in agroforestry than for the poplars  
 222 in the forest plots, with a value of  $19.5 \pm 2.1 \text{ m}^3$  versus  $5.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ m}^3$  in the forest mixture and  
 223  $9.2 \pm 1.0 \text{ m}^3$  in the monoculture (Fig.4b). For the alders, CPA and CV were not significantly  
 224 different among treatments; CPA values were around  $2.0 \pm 0.15 \text{ m}^2$  and CV values ranged from  
 225  $3.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ m}^3$  (forest mixture) to  $4.7 \pm 0.6 \text{ m}^3$  (agroforestry) (Fig.3; Fig.4). A trend towards higher  
 226 CPA values was nevertheless visible for the agroforestry alders (Fig.3).



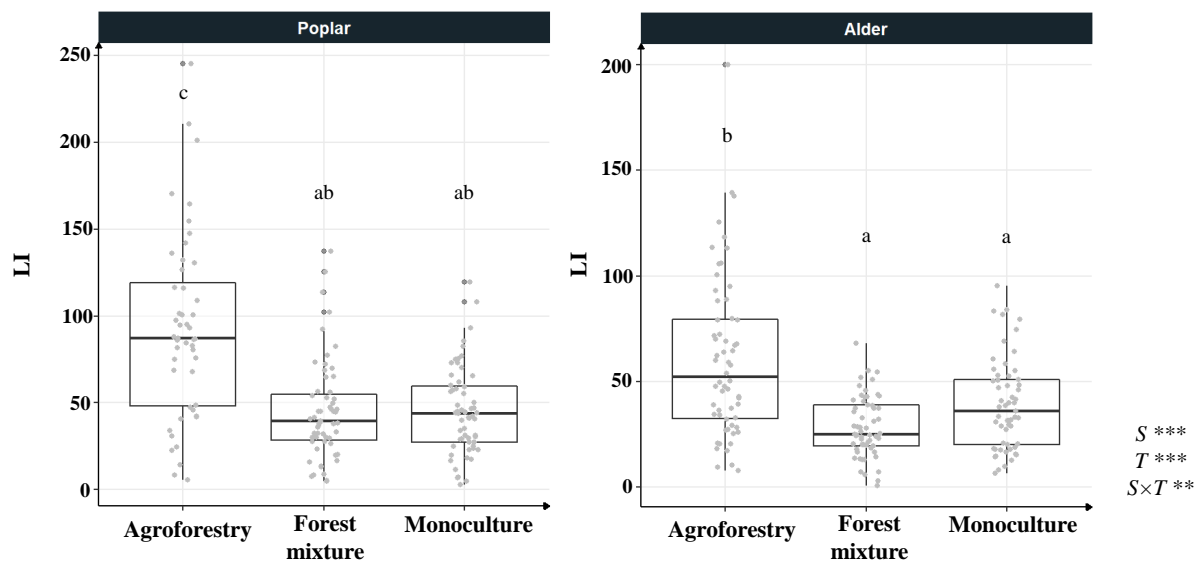
227

228 **Fig.4** (a) Crown projection area (CPA, m<sup>2</sup>) and (b) crown volume (CV, m<sup>3</sup>) of the poplars and  
 229 alders in the agroforestry, forest mixture and monoculture treatments. For each species,  
 230 different letters indicate significant differences between treatments. The effects of treatment  
 231 (*T*), species (*S*) and their interaction (*T*×*S*) are indicated for  $P \leq 0.001$ \*\*\*. Each box represents  
 232 the quartile below (Q1) and above (Q3) the median value. Vertical bars represent minimum and  
 233 maximum values.

234

### 235 Light interception index

236 The light interception index (LI) was higher for both poplars and alders in the  
 237 agroforestry plots (93 and 61, respectively) than in the forest mixture (45 and 29, respectively)  
 238 and in their respective monocultures (45 and 39, respectively; Fig.5). Poplar LI was not  
 239 significantly different from alder LI in the forest mixture; however, LI was significantly higher  
 240 for poplar than for alder in the agroforestry treatment.



241

242 **Fig.5** Light interception index (LI) of the poplars and alders in the agroforestry, forest mixture  
 243 and monoculture treatments. For each species, different letters indicate significant differences  
 244 between treatments. The effects of treatment (*T*), species (*S*) and their interaction (*T*×*S*) are

245 indicated for  $P \leq 0.01^{**}$  and  $P \leq 0.001^{***}$ . Each box represents the quartile below (Q1) and  
246 above (Q3) the median value. Vertical bars represent minimum and maximum values.

247

## 248 **Discussion**

249 This study investigated how tree crown development was affected after seven growing  
250 seasons in three different contexts: poplars and alders associated in a forest mixture, poplars  
251 and alders in association with clover or graminoids (agroforestry), and poplar and alder  
252 monocultures. We hypothesized that the trees would occupy the canopy space in a more  
253 optimized way in the two types of mixtures than in their respective monocultures, thus  
254 improving light interception by the trees, thanks to reduced competition for light and / or a  
255 facilitation effect due to the presence of an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species in the mixtures.

256 In our study, the poplars and the alders in the forest mixture did not benefit from any true  
257 mixing effects; indeed, they did not have longer and wider crowns, therefore crown volume  
258 remained the same as in the monocultures. Our results contrast with those of Jucker et al. (2015),  
259 who reported that trees growing in mixtures were shorter than in monocultures, but had wider  
260 and deeper crowns and longer horizontal branches than in their monocultures. Guillemot et al.  
261 (2020) also showed greater space exploration along the vertical crown gradient for tropical trees  
262 growing in a mixture due to a greater investment in branches than in the monocultures.  
263 However, the poplars in our forest mixture may have benefited from additive effects. Indeed,  
264 as the poplars in our plantation were taller than the alders, they may have had more access to  
265 light in the mixture than in their monoculture due to aerial canopy stratification (Forrester et al.  
266 2004). According to William et al. (2017), canopy stratification can lead to a reduced  
267 competition for light, compared to monocultures. The light interception index of the poplars in  
268 our forest mixture was no higher than that of the alders, meaning that the vertical stratification  
269 of the two species did not improve poplar light interception. Thus, our hypotheses 1 (additive

270 effects on the changes in crown morphology of the poplars in the forest mixture) and 2 (a  
271 facilitation effect due to the presence of alders resulting in true mixing effects) were refuted.  
272 Indeed, the poplars in the forest mixture did not exhibit any new structural aspects resulting  
273 from the interspecific environment, indicating that the presence of alders, even though they are  
274 an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species, did not benefit the poplars. In the same plantations, Thomas et al. (2021)  
275 found that the soil mineral N was more than five times higher in the poplar agroforestry than in  
276 the forest mixture, associated with better poplar growth performances in the agroforestry, while  
277 there was no significant effect of the presence of alder on either soil N content or poplar growth  
278 in the forest mixture. This suggests that the beneficial effects of N enrichment are likely to be  
279 seen more quickly with an herbaceous N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species due to the shorter rotations and may  
280 be delayed when a woody N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species is involved (Binkley et al. 1992, Forrester 2014).  
281 Moreover, poplar/alder mixtures are sometimes unsuccessful, as shown by Teissier du Cros et  
282 al. (1984). In their study, the poplar/alder association with a 1.5 × 2 m spacing was no more  
283 productive than the poplar monoculture because the N<sub>2</sub> fixed by the alder (*A. glutinosa*) was  
284 not yet beneficial to the poplar (*P. trichocarpa* Torr. & Gray × *P. deltoides*, Belgian clone  
285 ‘Unal’) after only three years of growth.

286 The poplars in our agroforestry treatment modified both their crown size and architecture.  
287 Indeed, they had longer and wider crowns than in the forest plots (both mixed and monoculture),  
288 which resulted in a crown volume twice as large. Our results are in line with Ribeiro and Righi  
289 (2020), who showed that crown projection area and crown volume for eucalyptus hybrids  
290 (*Eucalyptus grandis* Hill ex Maiden × *E. camaldulensis* Dehnh, hybrid COP-1277) were higher  
291 in an agroforestry system compared to the monoculture. In addition, Kunz et al. (2019) found  
292 that diversifying neighboring species allowed trees to optimize their crown morphology. The  
293 changes in crown shape for the poplars in our agroforestry treatment resulted from true mixing  
294 effects. These true mixing effects could be attributed to a facilitation effect due to the presence

295 of a leguminous crop in the mixture. Indeed, as an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species, the clover planted in the  
296 inter-rows may have benefited the growth of the poplars by increasing the availability of  
297 nitrogen in the soil compared to the monoculture, as shown in Thomas et al (2021). Taghiyari  
298 and Efhami (2011) showed a positive effect on the diameter increment of *P. nigra* L. var.  
299 *betulifolia* in mixtures with alfalfa, which is also an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species. This is consistent with  
300 what we found for our agroforestry poplars. Since every other tree line in the forest plots was  
301 replaced with clover, it is also likely that tree-planting density influenced the crown morphology  
302 of our agroforestry poplars. Indeed, Benomar et al. (2012) showed that larger planting spacing  
303 can lead to increased poplar crown volume through increased branch length and diameter at  
304 breast height. Moreover, *Populus sp.* crown architecture exhibits high morphological plasticity  
305 in response to spacing (Ceulemans et al. 1990). In our study, the agroforestry poplars had a  
306 larger diameter at breast height and a higher live crown ratio (i.e. tree vigor) than in their  
307 monoculture, even though they were no taller. The trees may have allocated more carbon to  
308 diameter and branchiness than to height due to the reduced competition for light in the  
309 agroforestry treatment (i.e. where tree-planting density was lower) (Benomar et al. 2013).  
310 Moreover, many studies have shown that crown and stem diameter growth are more sensitive  
311 to competition than height growth, which can remain stable over a wide range of planting  
312 densities (Piotto 2008; Pretzsch et al. 2015). Han et al. (2020) showed that the diameter at breast  
313 height of 11-year-old *Populus × tomentosa* Carrière clones was higher in treatments with a  
314 planting density of 417 and 833 stems ha<sup>-1</sup> than in treatments with a planting density of 1667  
315 stem ha<sup>-1</sup>. Zhang et al. (2020) showed higher leaf and branch biomass production for poplar  
316 clones in wide-spaced than in narrow-spaced plantations.

317 The larger planting spacing in the agroforestry plot probably lead to a reduced competition  
318 for light compared to the monoculture. This was shown by Benomar et al. (2011) for two hybrid  
319 poplar clones (*P. balsamifera* L. × *P. trichocarpa* and *P. maximowiczii* Henry × *P.*

320 *balsamifera*) growing in wider spacings (3 m × 3 m and 5 m × 5 m) compared to those growing  
321 in a closer spacing (1 m × 1 m). Indeed, the poplars in our agroforestry treatment had a higher  
322 light interception index than the poplars in the monoculture. Thus, intraspecific competition  
323 among poplars in the monoculture was stronger than interspecific competition in the  
324 agroforestry treatment. These results are consistent with the competition indices calculated  
325 previously by Thomas et al. (2021) for the two treatments after six years of growth at the same  
326 experimental site. Moreover, the higher live crown ratio for the agroforestry poplars reflects the  
327 fact that the trees had branches and foliage lower down on the stem than in the forest treatments.  
328 In Forrester et al. (2004), eucalyptus (*E. globulus* ssp. *pseudoglobulus* Naudin ex Maiden  
329 Kirkpatr.) in a monoculture did not produce branches and foliage along the first few meters of  
330 the stem due to higher intraspecific competition for light compared to the eucalyptus in a  
331 mixture with acacia (*Acacia mearnsii* De Wild.). A natural pruning process is common in trees  
332 to mitigate intraspecific competition for light, as shown by Van de Peer et al. (2017) for birch  
333 (*Betula pendula* Roth.) – the trees decreased the number of first order branches. This is  
334 consistent with height measurements of the first live branch in our study, which show greater  
335 natural pruning for the poplars in the monoculture.

336 The different crown architecture we found for the agroforestry poplars, with a higher crown  
337 volume and better light interception than in the monoculture, may partially explain the increased  
338 growth performance found previously in Thomas et al. (2021) as well as the higher water use  
339 efficiency demonstrated in Thomas et al. (2022). However, vertical stratification of the two  
340 species in the forest mixture did not lead to higher growth performance than in the monoculture.  
341 For the alders, there were no additive or true mixing effects on crown size and shape in any of  
342 the treatments, although they tended to have a higher crown projection area in the agroforestry  
343 plot. This could be explained by a higher LI in the agroforestry treatment than in the forest

344 treatments, probably due to the lower planting density and the subsequent reduced competition  
345 for light.

## 346 **Conclusion**

347         After seven growing seasons, positive interactions seem to be at play in the poplar /  
348 clover association, in agreement with our main hypothesis. Our results show that intercropping  
349 poplar with an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing crop can significantly improve tree crown volume through changes in  
350 crown morphology (lateral and vertical extension) as compared to trees growing in the  
351 monoculture. Thus, the agroforestry poplars were able to benefit from true mixing effects,  
352 probably due to the presence of clover, an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing species, as well as to reduced competition  
353 for light due to the larger planting spacing than in the monoculture. On the other hand, in the  
354 poplar / alder association, poplar crown volume was unaffected compared to their monoculture,  
355 despite a stratification of the canopy suggesting a shared aerial niche and a subsequent additive  
356 effect. This lack of effect could be because nitrogen fixed by the alders was not yet sufficient  
357 to benefit the poplars. Finally, alder crown morphology did not appear to be affected by the  
358 different types of mixtures, although a trend toward an increased crown volume seemed to  
359 emerge for the agroforestry alders.

360         From an agronomic point of view, the increase in crown volume, and therefore in biomass  
361 production, that occurs when poplar is grown in association with an N<sub>2</sub>-fixing crop make these  
362 mixtures a promising way to increase biomass production for renewable energy in Europe.  
363 However, broader lateral development and branches growing lower on the stem in agroforestry  
364 could potentially pose a problem for the passage of agricultural machinery on the crop close to  
365 the trees. Moreover, while the development of more numerous branches on trees growing in  
366 agroforestry can be an asset for the production of biomass in a system where the whole tree is  
367 valorized, branchiness could also be an inconvenience when the objective is to produce

368 timber/lumber in a system where trees are commonly pruned to avoid knots in the wood due to  
369 the presence of branches.

### 370 **Competing Interests**

371 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
372 relationships that could have influenced the work reported in this paper.

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### 379 **Authors' Contributions**

380 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection  
381 and analysis were performed by Anaïs Thomas, Pierrick Priault, Erwin Dallé and Nicolas  
382 Marron. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Anaïs Thomas and all authors  
383 commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final  
384 manuscript.



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