

1 **Productivity of low-input short-rotation coppice American sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis***
2 **L.) grown at different planting densities as a bioenergy feedstock over two rotation cycles**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Short rotation coppice culture of woody crop species (SRWCs) has long been considered
26 a sustainable method of producing biomass for bioenergy that does not compete with current
27 food production practices. In this study, we grew American sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis* L.)
28 for nine years corresponding to two rotation cycles (first rotation (FR) = 2010 – 2014, second
29 rotation (SR) = 2015 – 2019). This was done at varying tree planting densities (1250, 2500,
30 5000, and 10000 trees per hectare (tph)) on a degraded agricultural landscape under low-input
31 (e.g. no fertilizer and low herbicide application) culture, in the Piedmont physiographic region of
32 eastern North Carolina. Tree productivity was proportional to planting density, with the highest
33 cumulative aboveground wood biomass in the 10,000 tph treatment, at $23.2 \pm 0.9 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ and
34 $39.1 \pm 2.4 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ in the first and second rotations, respectively. **These results demonstrate**
35 increasing productivity under a low-input SRWC management regime over the first two
36 rotations. Biomass partitioning was strongly affected by planting density during FR, allocating
37 less biomass to stems relative to other plant parts at low planting density (44 to 59 % from 1250
38 to 10000 tph, respectively). This effect disappeared during SR, however, with biomass
39 partitioning to stems ranging from 74 to 79 % across planting densities. **Taken together, our**
40 **results suggest that American sycamore has the potential to be effectively managed as a**
41 **bioenergy feedstock with low input culture on marginal agriculture lands.**

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47 **Keywords**

48 Sustainable bioenergy, low-silvicultural input, degraded land, woody biomass
49 partitioning, short rotation woody crops

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51 **1. Introduction**

52 Renewable energy such as solar energy, wind energy and bioenergy derived from
53 biomass are alternative sources that could reduce GHG emissions, thereby supporting goals of
54 the Paris Agreement [1]. This agreement aims to mitigate climate change in the 21st century by
55 decreasing CO₂ from the atmosphere and limiting temperature increase in this century to 2 °C [2,
56 3]. The focus of the current study is on cellulosic bioenergy, a renewable energy source
57 produced from a variety of plant materials including herbaceous perennial crops, crop residues
58 and woody bioenergy species. Biomass-based energy can offset the effects of GHG emissions on
59 the environment, as well as enhance domestic economic development by supporting rural
60 communities and industries involved in bio-based products [4].

61

62 There are long-term data on the biomass productivity of corn and perennial grasses
63 because of extensive research on these species compared to woody bioenergy species [5, 6].
64 However, when corn and perennial grasses are grown solely for ethanol production, this can
65 increase production costs greatly, add carbon to the atmosphere during fertilization and tillage,
66 and can stress water resources [5, 7, 8]. A more sustainable bioenergy feedstock would be plants
67 that can be grown with minimal agricultural/silvicultural inputs, which decreases costs and the
68 environmental footprint. Trees, especially species that coppice vigorously after harvesting, have
69 great potential as bioenergy feedstocks. Trees produce deep, extensive root systems to access soil

70 resources and withstand many environmental stresses. Fine root mortality and turnover provide
71 biochemically complex carbon inputs to **the soil**, in contrast to the shallow root systems of many
72 annual crops [5, 9, 10]. Furthermore, the production of woody biomass is energy efficient,
73 requiring minimal inputs such as pesticides and fertilizers [6, 11]. The United States National
74 Defense Authorization Act of 2010 has mandated federal agencies to produce or consume 25 %
75 of their total energy from renewable energy sources beginning in 2025 [12]. The US Department
76 of Energy considered wood to be the major potential source of renewable biomass energy
77 because wood burns highly efficiently, with relatively low emissions of sulfur dioxide and
78 methane, making woody fuel preferable to coal and natural gas [13, 14]. **Some environmental**
79 **organizations have argued that the increasing demand for wood pellets will lead to loss of old**
80 **growth forests and loss of forest biodiversity [15, 16]. However, other researchers suggest that a**
81 **strong wood pellet market will encourage forest planting/regrowth and reduce GHG emissions**
82 **over multiple cycles of forest harvest [17, 18]. The thriving wood pellet industry in the**
83 **Southeastern US has emerged as an alternative to the decline of pulp and paper production,**
84 **sustaining high employment and regional economic stability [19]. In addition, the**
85 **implementation of the European Union Renewable Energy Directive has prompted the**
86 **development of wood pellet manufacturing facilities in the southeastern US [20, 21],**
87 **accompanied by a local growing demand for woody biomass [22, 23]. Therefore, wood pellet**
88 production provides an opportunity if economically sustainable biomass production rates of 8 –
89 10 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ can be achieved over multiple growing rotations [24, 25], offering economic
90 diversification for landowners and rural communities [26, 27, 28].

91

92 SRWCs with a fast growth rate and optimal productivity at age 3 – 5 years can provide a
93 continuous supply of biomass, as they re-sprout into multiple stems after coppicing. The genera
94 *Populus* L. and *Salix* L. are the most widely investigated SRWC candidate trees in the
95 southeastern US [5, 29]. However, many species of these genera are highly susceptible to pests
96 and diseases, and do not establish well on marginal lands, hence requiring high input culture [6,
97 11, 30]. On the other hand, American sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis* L.) is a tree species native
98 to the southeastern US. In contrast to other native hardwood species considered difficult to
99 establish, sycamore has shown superiority in survival, biomass increment, resilience to adverse
100 conditions and the ability to establish on marginal lands [6, 11, 12]. It has fast growth with
101 medium wood density, excellent coppice ability, and thin bark (thus low ash content) and can
102 thrive on highly degraded agricultural lands [31, 32]. Degraded agricultural land has been
103 described as lands not suitable for agricultural cultivation due to poor crop productivity,
104 abandoned croplands, and pasturelands with environmental liabilities [33]. American sycamore
105 was once considered one of the most promising hardwood plantation species in the Southeastern
106 US, however, there has been a decline in the study of American sycamore. This is partly due to
107 its susceptibility to *Xylella* sp. (Pierce's disease for grapes) and *Ceratocystis* sp., as well as the
108 occurrence of an anthracnose disease that resulted in high mortality in plantations of 13 years or
109 more [34, 35]. Coppicing the stems for SRWC could be a way to keep shoots in the juvenile
110 stage, preventing disease such as anthracnose from forming on mature stems. As such, current
111 research focuses on growing the species in SRWC for bioenergy in multiple short rotations of
112 under 5 years each [6, 11].

113

114 Although planting at high density increases (short-term) productivity, it also requires
115 more resources and larger economic investment. However, this initial increased planting cost
116 may be compensated for by a decreased need for weed control in the first growing season
117 compared to wider spaced trees. Closely spaced American sycamore trees have been shown to
118 rapidly shade out competing vegetation [11]. Furthermore, planting trees at wider spacing has
119 been shown to reduce inter-specific competition, causing less efficient nutrient-use and inability
120 to shade out competing vegetation, which could increase stool mortality [6]. Higher planting
121 densities produce smaller individual trees, higher total aboveground biomass, more partitioning
122 to stem wood relative to branches, and are generally favored for SRWC [6, 12]. This suggests
123 that short rotation coppicing of American sycamore may be a **regionally appropriate** source of
124 bioenergy feed stocks to meet current and future demands. Studies on the effect of planting
125 density on SRWC productivity have involved high inputs such as fertilization, irrigation or both
126 [32, 36 – 38]. Excluding our previous work [6], we know of no other studies that have
127 investigated the effects of planting density on the productivity and growth response of American
128 sycamore over multiple rotations under a low input cultural regime. In the current study, we
129 quantify productivity of low-input American sycamore SRWC (no
130 fertilization/irrigation/herbicides) over multiple rotations on **an infertile, eroded soil** in the
131 Piedmont of North Carolina. An allometric approach that scales to the stand level [39] was used
132 to quantify aboveground biomass production and examine the effects of planting density and
133 coppicing on biomass productivity, stool mortality, and patterns of biomass partitioning. We
134 hypothesized that productivity would be proportional to planting density, and that high planting
135 density would result in greater biomass partitioning to stems due to competition for light, and
136 greater stool mortality (greater intra-specific competition). We also hypothesized that

137 productivity would not be reduced between the first and the second rotation, demonstrating the
138 sustainability of American sycamore as a bioenergy feedstock.

139

140 **2. Materials and Methods**

141 2.1. Study site

142 The study site is located on North Carolina Department of Agriculture and Consumer
143 Services land near Butner, Granville county, North Carolina (36° 7'58.20" N 78°48'26.49" W)
144 in the Piedmont physiographic region of North Carolina. The soil is classified as an Altavista silt
145 loam and a Creedmoor sandy loam (fine, mixed, semi active, thermic Aquic Hapludults on a 2–
146 6% slope and made of 13% clay and 62% sand) with a bulk density of 1.52 g cm⁻³ and a field
147 capacity of around 29% (USDA NRCS Web Soil
148 Survey, <http://websoilsurvey.sc.egov.usda.gov/>). The site is considered marginal land, that is,
149 ancient, highly weathered soils of the Ultisol soil order with declining productivity due to
150 historical unsustainable farming practices and resulting soil erosion common to the region [40].
151 Weather data from a nearby station indicate a mean annual precipitation of 1412 mm, mean
152 annual high temperature of 21 °C, and mean annual low temperature of 7.8 °C from 2010 – 2013.
153 Between 2014 – 2018, mean annual precipitation was 1398 mm, mean annual high temperature
154 was 21.6 °C and mean annual low temperature was 9.7 °C. The precipitation for 2017 (1218 mm)
155 was markedly low compared to the other years in the second rotation, particularly year 2018 of
156 1738 mm (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/cag/>) .

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160 2.2. Experimental design and treatments

161 The study site was originally established to quantify the effects of planting density and
162 simulated drought on the aboveground biomass productivity of sweetgum (*Liquidambar*
163 *styraciflua*), American sycamore (*Platanus occidentalis*), tuliptree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*) and
164 the hybrid poplar 'NM6' (*Populus nigra* × *P. maximowiczii*) under short rotation coppice culture.
165 Bare-root seedlings were purchased from the North Carolina Forest Service Tree Seedling Store
166 (<http://nc-forestry.stores.yahoo.net/sycimpied1yr.html>) and hand planted in January 2010, to
167 establish the experiment. During the first and second growing seasons of the study, in-between
168 tree rows were mowed, and glyphosate herbicide was applied thrice to help the trees get
169 established, but no other inputs were applied thereafter. A 4 x 2 completely randomized block
170 design study was used, consisting of three blocks as replicates, four levels of planting density
171 (0.5 x 2.0 m (10,000 tph⁻¹), 1.0 x 2.0 m (5,000 tph⁻¹), 2.0 x 2.0 m (2,500 tph⁻¹), and 4.0 x 2.0 m
172 (1,250 tph⁻¹). Planting densities were randomized within each block, with two levels of drought
173 per planting density (20 % reduction and control) randomized within each block as well,
174 amounting to 24 plots in total, each 14 m x 14 m in size. The drought treatment was created by
175 installation of PVC gutters that covered 20 % of the plot surface area, 50 cm above the soil
176 surface to avoid artifacts to the soil and divert water off the plots. Consistent with the previous
177 study on this site [5], the effect of the throughfall reduction treatment (drought) was not
178 significant for tree variables quantified (P=0.5). Therefore, data were averaged over drought
179 treatment for all analyses of the current study and will not be discussed for the remainder of the
180 paper. After two growing seasons, the sweetgum, tulip tree, and poplar had high mortality
181 despite replanting and competition control efforts. In contrast, American sycamore experienced
182 very minimal mortality (<3%), and therefore, the study continued with that species alone. The

183 trees were harvested/coppiced in March 2014, ending the first rotation (FR) and beginning the
184 second rotation (SR) with no additional weed control or other inputs. The trees were then
185 harvested/coppiced again in March of 2019 to complete the SR and begin the third rotation (TR)
186 with no additional inputs.

187

188 2.3. Inventory and biomass allometry measurements

189 In FR, tree heights, basal diameter, and diameter at breast height (DBH, mm) were
190 recorded for all trees in the plots. The relationship between DBH and plant dry mass was derived
191 [6] to estimate the aboveground biomass of individual trees in each treatment plot and were
192 summed to the plot level (kg plot^{-1}) and subsequently scaled to the ecosystem level (Mg ha^{-1}).
193 Edge trees were excluded from the analysis to minimize edge effects. Woody biomass
194 aboveground net primary productivity ($\text{ANPP}_{\text{wood}}$, $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) was calculated as the
195 difference in aboveground wood biomass between successive years [6].

196

197 For the first three growing seasons of SR (2014 – 2016), DBH of all dominant shoots
198 (Fig. 1) were recorded for every tree. The diameters were converted into basal area (BA) and
199 summed to give total BA to weight ratio. These measurements allowed for development of
200 allometric biomass regressions to scale the biomass for the main shoots to the whole tree (Table
201 1). For the fourth and fifth growing seasons of the SR (2017 and 2018), DBH was measured on
202 the three dominant shoots of each tree for allometric analysis. For the fifth growing season, one
203 individual shoot from each of the planting densities in each block was harvested with a chainsaw,
204 measured, and weighed (12 shoots total). Branches were partitioned into live and dead, and
205 weighed to derive individual diameter to weight ratio. Fresh samples of stems and branches were

206 weighed green, dried at 70 °C and reweighed to measure **dry weight and derive** water content.
207 Tree diameters were converted into BA and summed to give total BA to weight ratio, excluding
208 trees growing on the edge of plots to avoid edge effects. Biomass regression equations (Table 1)
209 were used to quantify biomass/productivity of all individual trees and components (stem wood,
210 live branches, dead branches) per plot for 2017 and 2018, which were then summed to arrive at
211 plot-level estimates (per unit ground area), then scaled to the stand level (e.g. Mg ha⁻¹). The
212 diameter ranges were between 10 – 58 mm. Total foliage biomass was calculated by subtracting
213 the sum of the other predicted components (stem weight, live and dead branches) from total tree
214 biomass. Aboveground net primary production (ANPP) was derived by difference between
215 successive years.

216

217 2.4. Statistical analysis

218 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) for a randomized complete block design was used to test
219 for planting density, drought, and interactive effects. Block was considered as fixed effect to
220 account for the effects of slope at the field site, and significant interactions between Block and
221 treatments was counted as error. Tukey adjustment for least square means (LSMeans) was
222 conducted in case of significant differences between treatments. Statistical analysis was
223 performed with PROC GLM in SAS statistical software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) using a
224 significance level of $P < 0.05$.

225

226 3. Results

227 3.1. Suitable planting density for total woody biomass of American sycamore

228 There were significant effects of tree planting density on aboveground biomass
229 productivity in all years from 2010 to 2018. **Published biomass data from the first rotation cycle**
230 **[6]** indicated that the 10,000 tph treatment produced the highest aboveground biomass at $23.2 \pm$
231 0.9 Mg ha^{-1} , followed by the 5,000 tph treatment at $19.6 \pm 1.6 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$, but the difference
232 between these treatments was not significant ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 2). The 2,500 tph treatment had a
233 biomass of $12.3 \pm 2.5 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$, which was also not significantly different from the 1,250 tph
234 treatment, with the lowest biomass of $8.4 \pm 1.6 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$. By the end of the second rotation, mean
235 cumulative aboveground biomass in the 10,000 tph treatment was $39.1 \pm 2.4 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$ and $36.5 \pm$
236 0.9 Mg ha^{-1} in the 5,000 tph treatment, which were not significantly different from one another,
237 but were significantly greater than the two lower planting densities ($P < 0.05$). The 2,500 tph
238 treatment had a cumulative biomass of $22.1 \pm 1.5 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$, which was significantly greater than
239 the 1,250 tph treatment, which had the lowest biomass of ($14.5 \pm 1.6 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1}$) ($P < 0.001$) (Fig.
240 2).

241 In SR, the 10,000 tph treatment increased total biomass 11 % between the third and
242 fourth growing seasons (27.1 to 30.1 Mg ha^{-1}), and had the highest percentage growth increase at
243 30 % (30.1 to 39.1 Mg ha^{-1}) between the fourth and the fifth growing seasons, compared to the
244 other planting densities. The 5,000 tph treatment had a 19.6 % increase in total biomass (25.3 to
245 30.3 Mg ha^{-1}) between the third and fourth growing seasons, and a 20.6 % increase (30.3 to 36.5
246 Mg ha^{-1}) between the fourth and fifth growing seasons. The 2,500 and 1,250 tph treatments had
247 the lowest growth percentage increases. Between the third and fourth growing seasons, the 2,500
248 tph had 2.3 % increase in total biomass (20.2 to 20.6 Mg ha^{-1}), and a 6.9 % increase between the
249 fourth and fifth growing seasons (20.6 to 22.0 Mg ha^{-1}). The 1,250 tph treatment had the least

250 percentage increase at only 0.43 % (13.8 to 13.9 Mg ha⁻¹) in aboveground total tree biomass
251 between the third and fourth growing seasons, and 4.4 % increase (13.9 to 14.5 Mg ha⁻¹)
252 between the fourth and fifth growing seasons (Fig. 2). The higher planting densities in SR had
253 significantly smaller tree basal diameter ($P < 0.05$) with the 10,000 tph and 5,000 tph with basal
254 diameter ranging from 1,500 to 1,800 mm⁻² and 2,300 – 2,500 mm⁻² respectively compared to the
255 lower planting densities ($P < 0.05$). The 1,250 tph produced significantly bigger tree basal
256 diameter ranging between 8,000 – 10,000 mm⁻² (Fig. 3).

257

258 3.2. Aboveground Net Primary Productivity (ANPP) dynamics

259 The third growing season of the first rotation (year 2012) had the highest ANPP across all
260 planting densities, with the highest occurring in the 10,000 tph treatment at 12.7 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹.
261 In the second rotation, the third growing season (2016) again showed the highest ANPP across
262 the planting densities, where the 10,000 and 5,000 tph treatments produced 10.8 and 11.1 Mg
263 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ respectively, compared to the lower planting densities. The year 2017 had the lowest
264 ANPP (Table 2). After the five growing seasons of the second rotation, the highest ANPP was
265 recorded in the 10,000 tph treatment, with an average of 9.0 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and lowest was in the
266 1,250 tph planting density at 0.6 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Fig. 4; Table 2).

267

268 3.3. Biomass partitioning

269 Planting density treatments affected partitioning of biomass components (stem wood, live
270 branches, dead branches, and foliage mass), with the highest planting density treatments
271 producing significantly more biomass in all plant parts. In all planting density treatments, stem
272 wood made up the majority of total biomass in both rotations, followed by leaf mass. Over the

273 two rotations, the partitioning of biomass to stem wood ranged from 44 – 79 % (Table 3). At the
274 end of the first rotation, total aboveground biomass was partitioned as 59 %, 57 %, 51 % and 44
275 % stem wood in the 10,000, 5,000, 2,500 and 1,250 tph treatments, respectively (Fig. 5; Table 3).
276 At the end of the second rotation, stem wood ranged from 74 to 79 % of total aboveground
277 biomass, from the lowest to the highest planting density treatments, with differences remaining
278 statistically significant ($P < 0.001$) while dead branch biomass was the lowest component
279 regardless of planting density, at about 1 % of the total biomass. Foliage and live branches
280 ranged between 11 % to 14 % and 9 % to 11 % respectively from the lowest to highest planting
281 density treatments (Fig. 5).

282 Coppicing of the stands during the first harvest fundamentally changed patterns of
283 biomass partitioning. At the end of the FR, the lowest planting density allocated 31 % of total
284 aboveground wood to live branches and 44 % to stems, compared to an average of 11 % in live
285 branches and 56 % in stems for the other planting density treatments. By the end of SR, all
286 planting densities had similar patterns of biomass partitioning, with an average of 10 % in live
287 branches and 77 % in stems (Fig. 5; Table 3).

288

289 3.4. Stool mortality

290 At the end of SR, the 1,250 tph had significantly higher stool mortality, at 15 % of the
291 total trees planted, compared to the other planting densities ($P = 0.01$). The other three planting
292 density treatments had minimal mortality (ranging from 1 - 5 %) with no significant differences
293 between them ($P > 0.05$), with the 10,000 tph recording the 5 %. Planting density treatments
294 showed a general relationship of decreasing mortality with increasing tree diameter, but this was
295 significant only for the 1,250 tph treatment (Fig. 6).

296

297 4. Discussion

298 American sycamore SRWC in the southeastern US has great potential to help meet the
299 growing demand for alternative energy and achieve the United States mandate to increase biofuel
300 production [30]. This study confirmed that planting density strongly affects the amount of total
301 aboveground biomass produced by American sycamore and its partitioning into stem, leaves, live
302 and dead branches, and above all that productivity is maintained over multiple rotations of
303 SRWC culture, without the need for replanting (Fig. 2, Fig. 5 and Table 3). In this study, high
304 planting densities of sycamore in short rotation lengths **increased** biomass productivity,
305 **indicating great potential to help meet future demands for woody feedstocks and diversify**
306 **agricultural economics of landowners [12]**. Adoption of this planting establishment (short-
307 rotation coppice of sycamore) can contribute to the growing demand of wood pellets in the
308 southeast of the US, that is expected to reach 11.6 Mt from a starting point of 0.5 Mt in 2010 [20,
309 41]. Further, **the successful establishment of sycamore plantations on degraded lands [6, 11, 12]**
310 can help address loss of natural timberlands, following the permitted woody biomass for biofuels
311 production credit under RFS2 (U.S Congress, 2007) limiting wood bioenergy feedstocks from
312 natural forest stands [42].

313

314 Our study showed relatively **high ANPP of American sycamore at 11.0 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in**
315 **the third growing season of the second rotation** (Table 2), even on **degraded agricultural land**
316 **without fertilizer, herbicides and/or irrigation**. This reduces concerns of the loss of agricultural
317 land being used for bioenergy production [12] and provides economic and environmental
318 advantages due to the use of minimal inputs. **When compared to** other studies that have estimated

319 the effects of planting density on biomass production of SRWC and used irrigation, fertilizer
320 and/or herbicides [12, 43, 44], thus reducing both economic and environmental benefits. In a
321 study conducted in Poland that incorporated lignin and fertilization as soil amendments [45], the
322 biomass productivity of poplar matched the productivity of sycamore in our study with no
323 fertilizer inputs (Fig. 7). Another economic advantage of American sycamore compared to other
324 bioenergy crops is its resilience under environmental stress [11]. During this study, sycamore
325 seedlings survived weather extremes and intense competition with agricultural weeds, where
326 several other prominent candidate SRWC species experienced very high mortality under the low-
327 input management regime [6]. On a former agricultural soil in South Carolina, sycamore
328 survived weed competition and performed better than sweetgum in growth and biomass
329 productivity in their first seven growing seasons [36]. Sycamore also out-grew sweetgum on a
330 former pine forest site in Georgia [46]. These results are similar to the outcome of sweetgum,
331 tulip tree and poplar establishments of our study, where these other tree species did not
332 successfully establish despite competition control and repeated planting efforts [6]. Although
333 unplanned, this outcome is evidence of the capacity of American sycamore to establish
334 successfully, tolerate environmental stress, and maintain productivity under low input culture, all
335 of which are necessary for woody bioenergy crops to be economically competitive with other
336 land uses [5, 11].

337

338 Ultimately, we found increasing total biomass production during the first three years of
339 both rotations, followed by a decline in subsequent years, and significantly higher biomass
340 production of SR relative to FR (Figs. 2 and 3). We have found this “hysteresis effect” of
341 American sycamore SRWC productivity in a totally unrelated study at a geographically distant

342 field site [11], and it appears to be a real biological phenomenon (e.g. not driven by climate or
343 site factors). In economic terms, this may suggest an optimal harvest age of 3 y, since
344 productivity peaks at that age. However, the quality of the wood produced in subsequent years is
345 high and the overall amount and quality of feed stocks produced may thus be higher at 4 or even
346 5 y of age. Although, our experience suggests individual tree diameters become too large to
347 facilitate efficient mechanized harvesting after this amount of time. Other authors have shown
348 that planting fast growing species on adequate sites for the optimal rotation length can improve
349 economic performance [12]. In the current study, the total woody biomass productivity at the end
350 of each growing season in the second rotation was higher than each growing season of the first
351 rotation due to the pre-existing root systems/stool from the previous rotation after coppicing.
352 Studies have shown increased productivity of sycamore after coppicing because of stored sugars
353 in the roots [36], allowing shoots to sprout quickly from the stool, hence, producing a large
354 amount of biomass quickly. This is further evidence that sycamore is a good candidate for
355 bioenergy SRWC, with increasing productivity through multiple rotations [44].

356

357 The establishment of bioenergy trees at high planting densities increases intraspecific
358 competition and nutrient-use efficiency, leading to higher biomass productivity in shorter
359 rotation lengths to meet feedstock demands [46]. In the current study, the high-density planting
360 treatments (10,000 tph and 5,000 tph) had the smallest size individual trees, but the highest total
361 biomass yield compared to the lower density planting treatments (Fig 2, Fig 3, and Table 2).
362 Further, the productivity of the 5,000 and 10,000 tph treatments were not statistically different
363 over most years of the study, meaning that establishment costs can be substantially decreased
364 with no loss in revenues by planting at the lower density. Planting density also influenced

365 intraspecific competition, resulting in higher biomass partitioning to stem wood relative to other
366 plant parts at higher densities [6, 47]. In all four planting densities of both rotations, stem wood
367 had by far the highest proportion of total aboveground biomass. Foliage biomass was similar in
368 both rotations due to canopy closure (e.g. light limitation), and by the end of the second rotation
369 it ranged from 1.9 to 4.3 Mg ha⁻¹ across planting densities. In studies by Burkes et al. [48] and
370 Wood et al. [49], investigating the relationship between stand density and leaf biomass, they also
371 reported little change in the leaf mass allocation at different planting densities. With the
372 increased biomass allocation to stem wood and live branches and less to dead branches in the
373 second rotation compared to the first rotation (Fig. 5), it would be interesting to see what the
374 trend will be in the third rotation (plateau or increase). An additional advantage of coppicing
375 American sycamore is that it may extend the lifespan of the plantation by keeping the trees in the
376 juvenile stage, thereby reducing the possibility of disease infestation, such as anthracnose which
377 in early research was reported to limit sycamore plantation success [35]. The current study is
378 now in its third rotation (to be harvested again in 2022), and the health and productivity show no
379 sign of diminution. Multiple rotations of hardwood SRWC also improves the environmental
380 footprint of bioenergy SRWC by avoiding the energy-use and expense involved with plantation
381 establishment and may increase ecosystem C storage due to decreased site disturbance [50].

382

383 Our results show an average ANPP of 5.0 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ woody biomass across planting
384 densities at the end of the second 5-year rotation, with the highest planting density treatment
385 producing as much as 9.0 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. The ANPP of 11.1 Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the third growing
386 season of the second rotation is higher than the result of a similar study in Belgium (fourth
387 growing season of fourth rotation) (Fig. 7) [51]. Where sixteen-year old poplar trees (10,000 tph)

388 were established without fertilizer, herbicides or irrigation [51]. With an average biomass
389 productivity of over $9.0 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, the performance of sycamore in this study is within
390 productivity range of other tree species [11-12, 45, 51-53], including establishments that applied
391 fertilizers, lignin and irrigation (Fig. 7). *Eucalyptus* spp, and loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*) are tree
392 species that could also rival our estimates of sycamore ANPP, with the former having mean
393 ANPP of $17.5 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under high-input silviculture [5], and the latter about 15.0 Mg ha^{-1}
394 yr^{-1} [54]. However, *Eucalyptus* spp are not indigenous to the southeastern US, while loblolly
395 pine, though indigenous to this region, does not have coppicing ability. Non-native species could
396 be susceptible to infections, diseases, and may not be environmentally favorable [55].
397 Furthermore, since loblolly pine trees are used as bioenergy feedstocks and considered for
398 ethanol production [5, 12, 56], the lack of coppicing ability of the pine trees would increase
399 production costs as replanting is required after every rotation. In addition, the higher lignin
400 content and 5-C sugars of pines results in lower enzymatic hydrolysis efficiency and lower
401 ethanol yields compared to hardwoods, such as American sycamore [56]. These limitations of
402 other species do not apply to American sycamore for plantation establishment in the southeastern
403 US.

404
405 In the current study, the 1,250 tph treatment had the highest stool mortality, at 15 % of
406 the number of planted stools, by the end of the second rotation. It is uncertain why this occurred,
407 but perhaps intense competition with competing weeds due to the high light environment after
408 coppicing played a role. Although stool mortality in the 10,000 and 5,000 tph treatments were
409 not statistically different, the relationship between stool mortality and mean tree diameter (Fig.
410 6) showed high mortality in the 1,250 tph and 10,000 tph which declined with increasing tree
411 size (DBH). The impact of each tree dying in the 1,250 tph was higher than in the denser stands,

412 maybe because the large size of the trees in this spacing density was a contributing factor, or
413 maybe because when trees died, the remaining trees were not able to take advantage of the extra
414 space. In longer rotations, the impact of mortality may even out as the trees may eventually
415 occupy open growing space. The stool mortality is another benefit of establishing American
416 sycamore at 5,000 tph planting density, compared to higher and lower levels. The low mortality
417 in the 5,000 tph treatment, along with its high total woody biomass of 36.0 Mg ha^{-1} , by the end
418 of the rotation, which was statistically not different from the 10,000 tph treatment (39.0 Mg
419 ha^{-1}), suggests this planting density may be best for efficient productivity. Establishment costs
420 could be greatly reduced due to purchasing and planting half the number of trees as the 10,000
421 tph planting density, in turn increasing profit for the landowner or farmer.

422

423 **5. Conclusions**

424 American sycamore SRWC produced total woody biomass of up to 39.0 Mg ha^{-1} , with
425 average ANPP of up to $9.0 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ by the end of the second rotation with minimal
426 silvicultural inputs. An advantage of the second (and subsequent) rotation(s), is that it produced
427 more biomass than the first rotation, and had no costs associated with new plantation
428 establishment, such as labor, seedlings, herbicides, and fertilization. This illustrates the
429 advantage of coppiced SRWCs over pines, which would have to be re-planted with each rotation.
430 The established root systems/stools from the previous rotation greatly increase the speed of
431 establishment of the new stand, and early productivity, and likely provide additional ecosystem
432 services such as preventing soil erosion and fostering biodiversity. The current study shows that
433 American sycamore grown as SRWC for bioenergy in the Piedmont of North Carolina has good

434 productivity under low input regimes, even on **marginal land**, with the potential to produce
435 environmentally sustainable and competitive woody biomass feedstocks.

436

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Figures



Figure 1

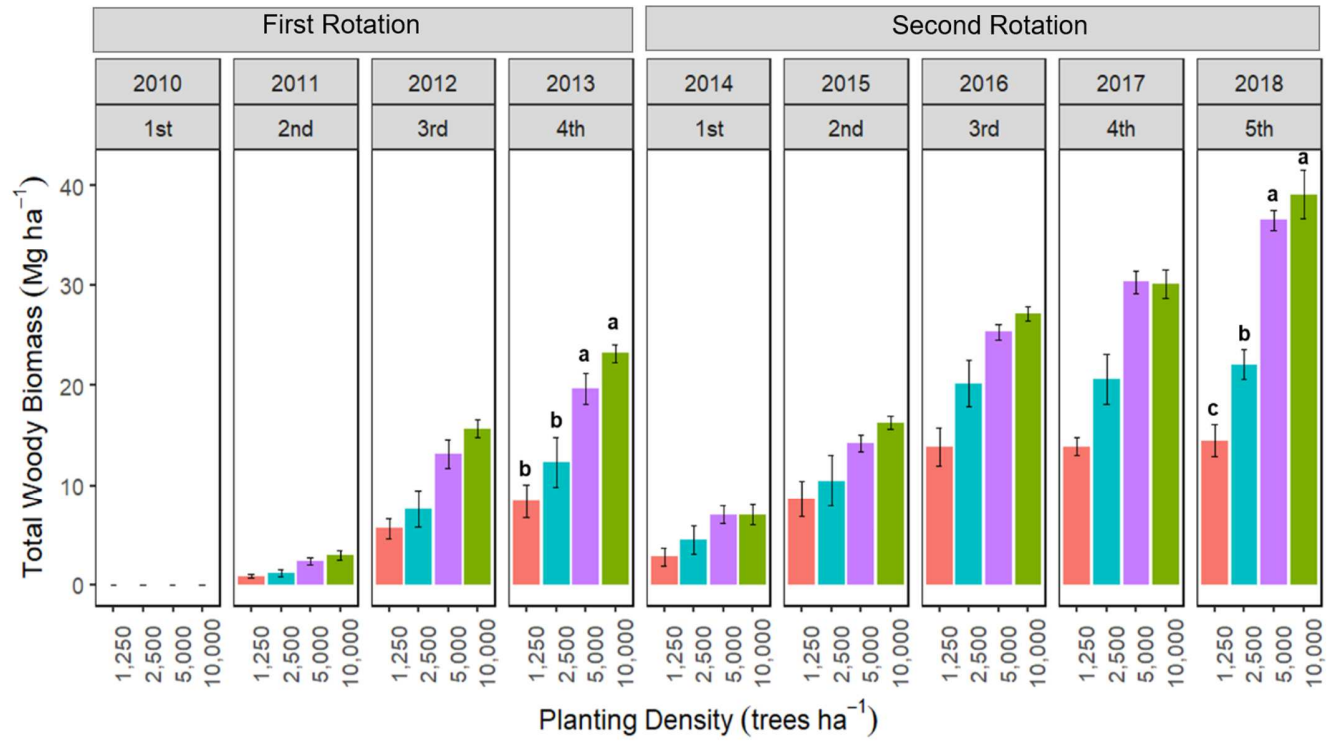


Figure 2

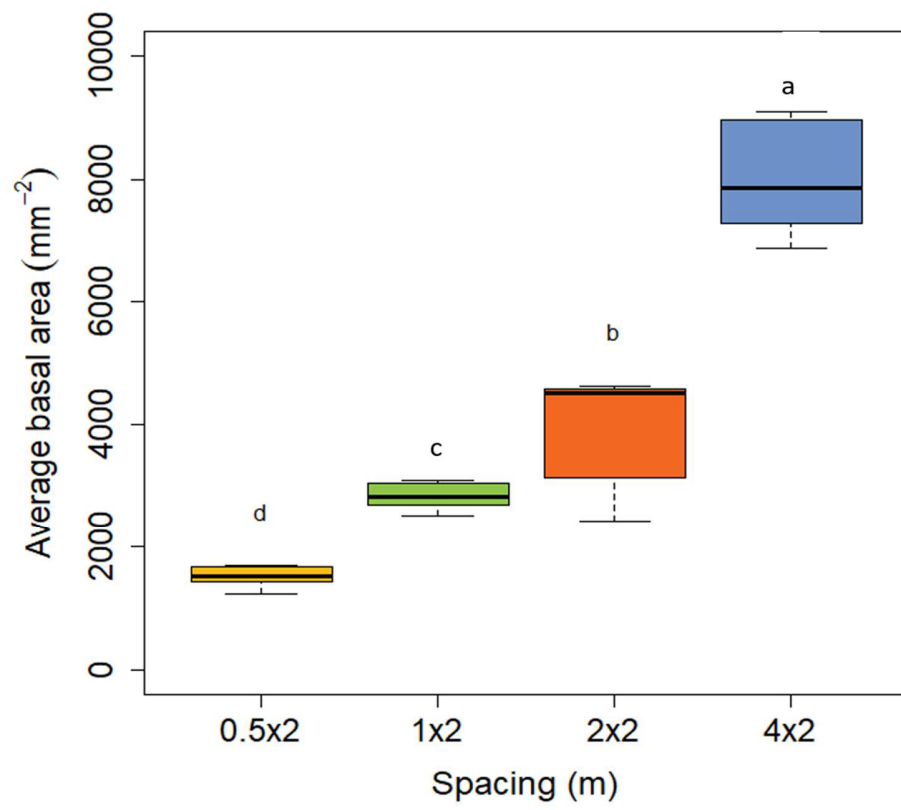


Figure 3

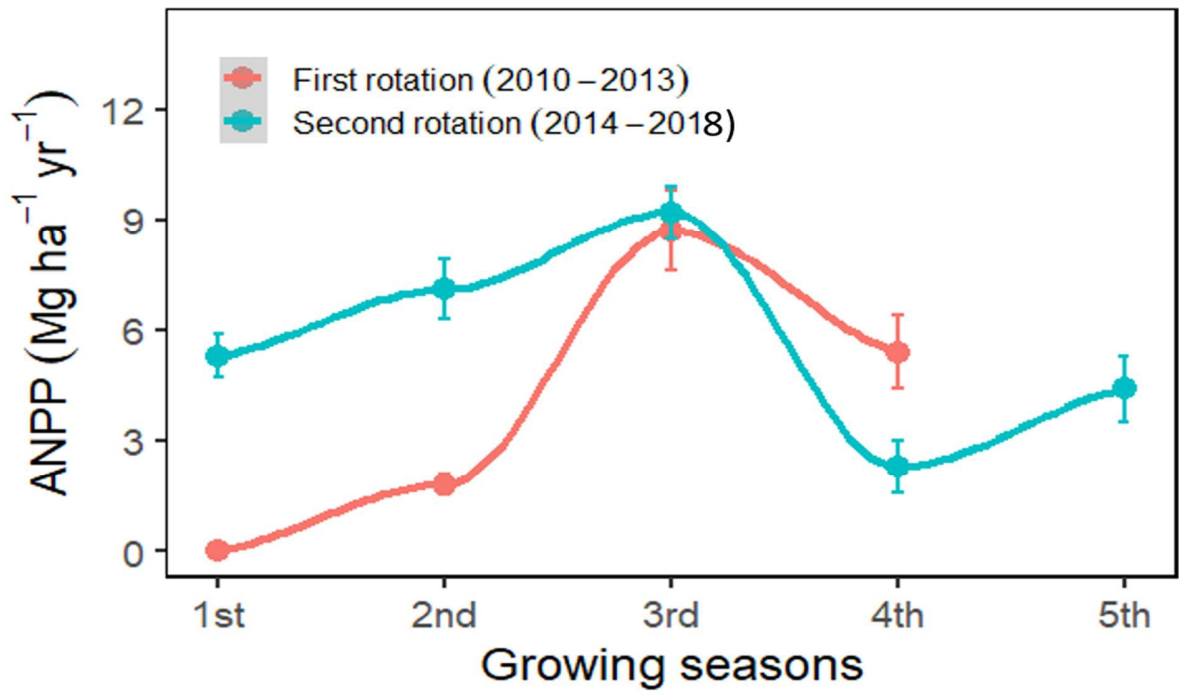


Figure 4

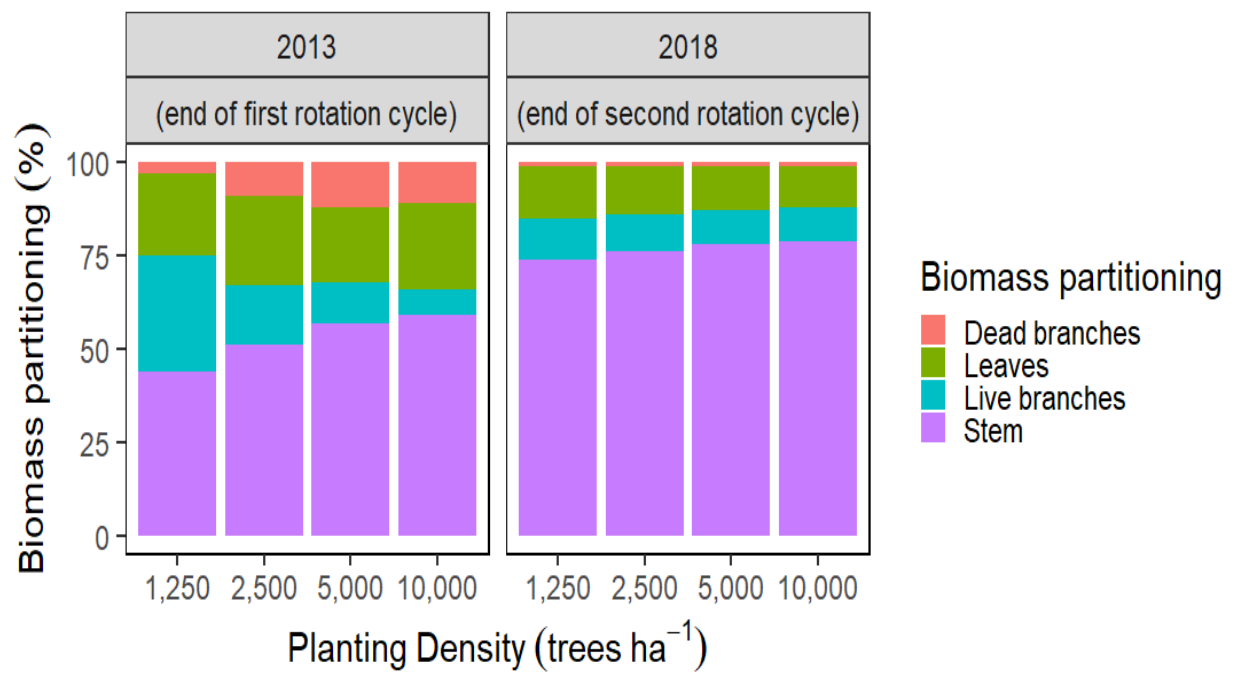


Figure 5

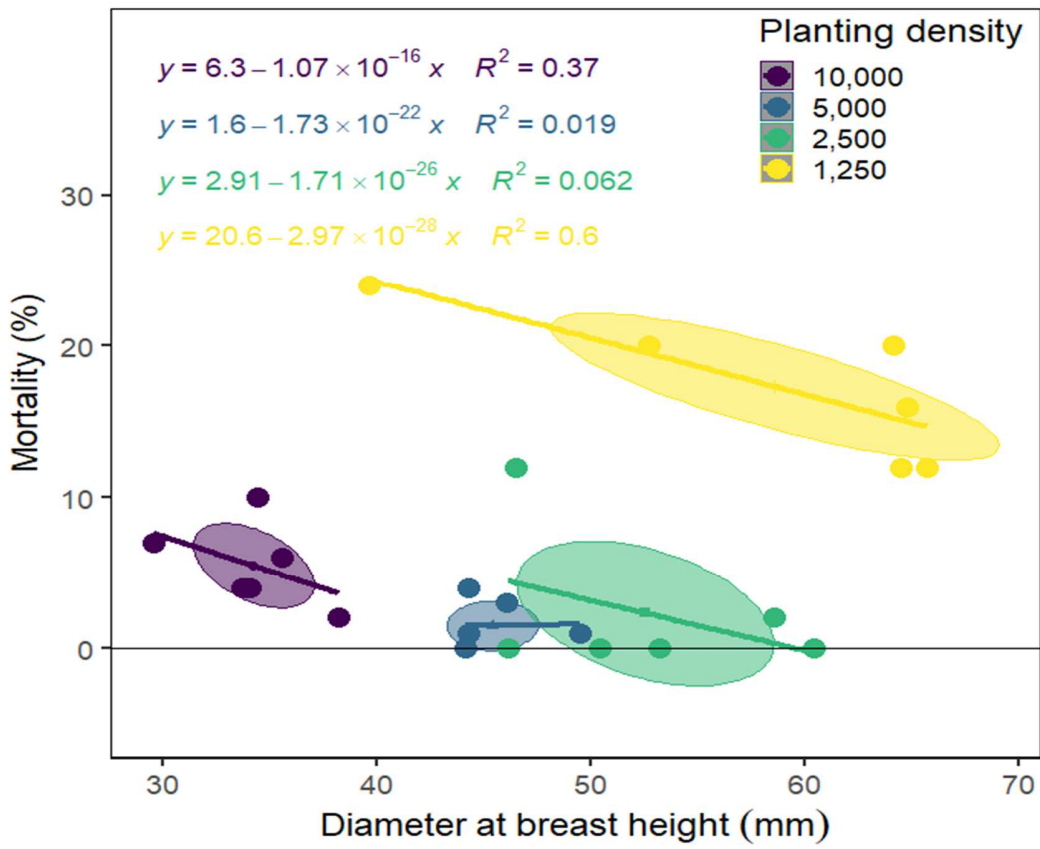


Figure 6

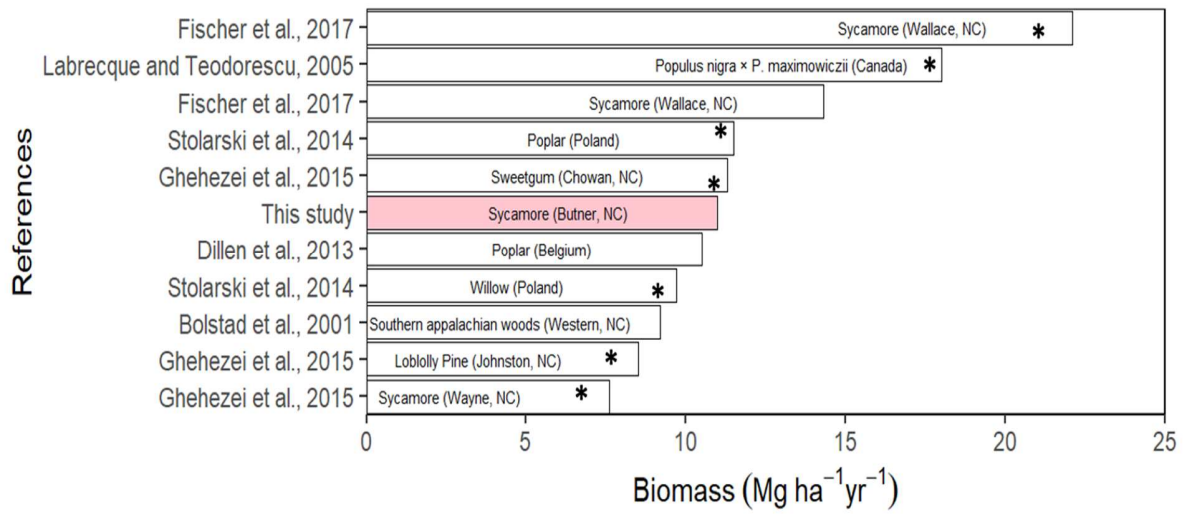


Figure 7

Tables

Table 1: Biomass regression equation used to estimate productivity of American sycamore. Adapted from Boone, 2017 [57]

Estimated variable	Biomass regression equation	R ²
Total tree	$0.0013(BA)^{1.0922}$	0.9594
Total stem weight	$0.0015(BA)^{1.0447}$	0.9751
Total live Branches	$0.00002(BA)^{1.3088}$	0.6649
Total dead Branches	$0.00002(BA)^{1.0426}$	0.7466

Table 2: Average (standard error) **Aboveground Net Primary Productivity** (ANPP) ($\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$) for each planting density (trees per hectare, tph). Year 2013 ends the first rotation (FR = 2010 – 2013) and year 2014 begins the second rotation (SR = 2014 – 2018). 2010 represents the year of establishment, hence, there are no available data for that year.

ANPP								
Planting density (tph)	First Rotation (2010 – 2013)			Second Rotation (2014 – 2018)				
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
10,000	2.98 (0.45)	12.69 (0.74)	7.49 ^a (0.82)	7.00 (0.70)	9.27 (0.70)	10.84 (0.75)	2.98 (1.40)	9.03 ^a (1.70)
5,000	2.34 (0.37)	10.83 (1.21)	6.46 ^a (1.24)	7.00 (0.50)	7.20 (0.51)	11.11 (0.47)	4.96 (1.11)	6.25 ^a (0.50)
2,500	1.18 (0.34)	6.45 (1.60)	4.69 ^b (1.16)	4.48 (0.80)	5.99 (1.00)	9.70 (0.66)	0.46 (0.21)	1.42 ^b (1.00)
1,250	0.88 (0.21)	4.76 (0.99)	2.80 ^c (0.92)	2.82 (0.50)	5.85 (0.91)	5.14 (1.09)	0.06 (0.01)	0.61 ^b (0.40)

Different superscript letters indicate significant differences between planting density treatments ($P < 0.05$) at the end of each rotation.

Table 3: Mean total aboveground biomass (Mg ha^{-1}) of the trees partitioned into stem, leaves, live and dead branches by planting density at the end of the first (2013) and the second (2018) rotation. Year 2013 is adapted from Domec et al., 2017 [5].

Year	Tree planting density (ha^{-1})	Stem (Mg ha^{-1})	Leaves (Mg ha^{-1})	Live branches (Mg ha^{-1})	Dead branches (Mg ha^{-1})
2013	10,000	17.83 (0.67)	7.10 (0.92)	1.87 (0.06)	3.25 (0.13)
	5,000	13.60 (1.07)	5.04 (0.63)	2.61 (0.17)	2.87 (0.33)
	2,500	8.38 (1.67)	3.72 (0.69)	2.49 (0.42)	1.63 (0.39)
	1,250	4.84 (0.94)	2.61 (0.60)	3.34 (0.64)	0.19 (0.05)
2018	10,000	31.08 (1.81)	4.32 (0.28)	3.31 (0.24)	0.41 (0.02)
	5,000	28.43 (0.71)	4.32 (0.13)	3.4 (0.11)	0.37 (0.01)
	2,500	16.71 (1.08)	2.96 (0.32)	2.16 (0.10)	0.22 (0.01)
	1,250	10.77 (1.13)	1.95 (0.72)	1.62 (0.20)	0.14 (0.01)

Values in bracket represent the standard error of the mean