

1 **Comparative growth behaviour and biomass production of exotic and native woody**  
2 **plantations on coal mine spoil in a dry tropical environment of India: A case study**

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13 **Running title:** Effect of exotic vs. native plantations on coal mine spoil

14

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## 23 **Abstract**

24 The restoration of lands damaged by opencast coal mining is an increasingly  
25 important problem in a dry tropical region of India. Plantations are often employed as a  
26 measure of revegetation and management of mine spoil; thus, mitigating the mining  
27 effects on the environment. However, the choice of species for plantations has emerged as  
28 a challenge for the restoration ecologists due to insufficient data. Therefore, the primary  
29 objective of the present paper is to compare the efficiency of exotic and native species on  
30 the coal mine spoils. Previous studies on the Singrauli coalfields allowed us to compare  
31 the growth performance, standing biomass, net primary production (NPP), litterfall and  
32 decomposition rates of exotic and native species plantations. Our results showed that  
33 native species have significantly higher survival, stem-diameter, biomass and NPP as  
34 compared to exotic species plantations. However, leguminous nature of species did not  
35 affect these parameters significantly. Further, litterfall and decomposition rates were also  
36 not differed either between exotic vs native or leguminous vs non-leguminous species.  
37 Thus, exotic species either legume or non-leguminous is not very much useful in mine  
38 spoil rehabilitation as that of native species.

39 **KEYWORDS** *Ecological restoration - soil redevelopment - exotic species - native*  
40 *species - coal mine spoil*

## 41 **1 INTRODUCTION**

42 Coal is a major energy source for developing countries like India where it is used for  
43 power generation and therefore, considered as an essential component of the economy of  
44 many nations. India is one of the major producers of coal worldwide; however, the  
45 demand of coal for electricity generation and industrial production in India is so high that  
46 it needs to import substantial quantities of coal (IEA, 2019). Since the forests and natural  
47 vegetation often cover most of the coal reserves under open cast mining areas, therefore,  
48 mining for coal extraction cause unavoidable loss of biodiversity. Further, most of the

49 coal in India is extracted by surface mining, which involves removal of the earth surface  
50 in the form of sheets resulting in a large amount of waste material usually referred as  
51 overburden or mine spoil (A. N. Singh & Singh, 2006; A. N. Singh, Zeng, & Chen, 2006;  
52 J. S. Singh, Singh, & Jha, 1995). Thus, mining drastically alters the physical and  
53 biological nature of the surroundings of the area where mining takes place (Pandey et al.,  
54 2016; A. N. Singh et al., 2006). The accumulation of overburden significantly alters the  
55 biological, chemical and physical attributes of the soil resulting in severe land  
56 degradation (Feng, Wang, Bai, & Reading, 2019). This leftover dump usually has a high  
57 concentration of metals and the limited amount of nutrients making it harsh for the  
58 development of vegetation and soil microbial communities (Novianti, Marrs, Choesin,  
59 Iskandar, & Suprayogo, 2018). Further, a large area becomes unproductive and wasteland  
60 due to the filling of overburden. Thus, the leftover waste poses a serious threat to  
61 ecological sustainability by disrupting the ecosystem structure and functions (Adibee,  
62 Osanloo, & Rahmanpour, 2013; Feng et al., 2019).

63 Growing concerns about environmental impacts of coal mining together with slow  
64 natural recovery of mine spoils urge technical solutions to restore these degraded  
65 ecosystems into their original state. But, restoration of such degraded lands is a  
66 challenging ecological problem (Lamb, Erskine, & Parrotta, 2005; A. N. Singh,  
67 Raghubanshi, & Singh, 2004b, 2004a; A. N. Singh & Singh, 1999; J. S. Singh et al.,  
68 1995; Vega, Covelo, & Andrade, 2005). However, a successful restoration programme  
69 attempts to accelerate the natural recovery processes to check the soil erosion, to restore  
70 the soil fertility and to enhance the biological diversity (A. N. Singh, Raghubanshi, &  
71 Singh, 2002). Therefore, the first step in any restoration programme, of course, is to  
72 protect the disturbed habitat and communities from being further wasted. Then follow  
73 attempts to accelerate the revegetation process for increasing biodiversity and stabilising  
74 nutrient cycling (A. N. Singh & Singh, 2006; A. N. Singh et al., 2006). The most  
75 important preconditions for ecosystem rehabilitation in post-mining landscapes are the

76 processes of soil redevelopment (A. N. Singh et al., 2004a, 2004b). Once soil fertility is  
77 restored, it will be easier for the more desirable species to establish. Therefore, the soil is  
78 considered to be one of the primary agents in determining vegetation development and  
79 the importance of soil characteristics in ecological studies cannot be underemphasised (A.  
80 N. Singh et al., 2004a).

81 Plantations have been contemporarily used to effectively restore degraded lands  
82 worldwide (A. N. Singh et al., 2002). However, the suitability of species and their  
83 performance on coal mine spoil have remained a challenging task as the characteristics of  
84 coal mine spoils are highly heterogeneous, lacked with soil organic matter (SOM), so that  
85 regarded as a recalcitrant medium for plant growth. Therefore, an ideal species needed for  
86 planting on mine spoils must possess the following abilities:

- 87 (i) to grow on poor and dry soils,
- 88 (ii) to develop the vegetation cover in a short time and to accumulate biomass rapidly,
- 89 (iii) to bind soil for arresting soil erosion and checking nutrient loss, and
- 90 (iv) to improve the soil organic matter status and soil microbial biomass, thereby  
91 enhancing the supply of plant-available nutrients (A. N. Singh & Singh, 1999)  
92 and
- 93 (v) to provide ecosystem services to attract more wild floras and biodiversity  
94 development under plantations.

95 Some of the earlier studies have evaluated the growth and biomass production of  
96 several plant species on coal mine spoil (Badía, Valero, Gracia, Martí, & Molina, 2007;  
97 Bohre & Chaubey, 2016; Erskine, Lamb, & Borschmann, 2005; Jeżowski et al., 2017; A.  
98 N. Singh et al., 2004a; A. N. Singh & Singh, 1999; A. Singh & Singh, 2001). Although  
99 exotic woody species are often suggested for the restoration of coal mine spoil due to  
100 their fast growth and high economic or livelihood benefits, it often results in poor  
101 development of biodiversity (D'Antonio & Meyerson, 2002; Dutta & Agrawal, 2003;  
102 Lamb et al., 2005). Further, many previous studies have shown that exotic species can

103 impart both positive and negative impact on soil fertility and native flora while restoring  
104 the degraded lands (Berger, 1998; D'Antonio & Meyerson, 2002; Yan et al., 2020).  
105 Exotic species may have higher survival (Citadini-Zanette et al., 2017) and improve soil  
106 properties (Yan et al., 2020). However, they often result in low carbon development as  
107 compared to native species (Citadini-Zanette et al., 2017). Furthermore, exotic species  
108 shows successful establishment and their fast-growth often outcompete the native species  
109 during the restoration (Huxtable, Koen, & Waterhouse, 2005). Another study showed that  
110 there are little differences in biomass production among the exotic and native plants  
111 established on degraded lands (Islam, Kamaluddin, Bhuiyan, & Badruddin, 1999). The  
112 biomass allocation to different plant parts can be controlled by environmental and  
113 biological (species-specific) factors (Boonman et al., 2020; Freschet, Swart, &  
114 Cornelissen, 2015; Poorter et al., 2012). Thus, the biomass allocation to different plant  
115 parts can vary between exotic and native species because species may have adapted to  
116 their native habitats and therefore may exhibit differential allocation strategies. Thus,  
117 there is a need for an increased understanding of the biology and impacts of exotic and  
118 native species on degraded lands. Therefore, a comparison of survival, growth and  
119 biomass production among exotic and native species becomes important to assess the  
120 suitability of plant species for the reclamation process.

121 The present study aims to compare the survival, growth performance, biomass  
122 accumulation, net primary productivity of 5-year old native and exotic woody plantations  
123 established on coal mine spoils. We expect that exotic species may have higher survival,  
124 growth and biomass production on coal mine spoils because these species usually exhibit  
125 higher competitive abilities. Therefore, they can sustain themselves on nutrient-poor and  
126 degraded lands. Specifically, we address the following four questions from our study: (1)  
127 Can native species have higher survival and growth performance on coal mine spoils? (2)  
128 What is the level of biomass and net primary production among native and exotic  
129 plantations at earlier stages? (3) What is the pattern of litterfall and litter decomposition

130 among different type of species? and, (4) Whether biomass production and net primary  
131 production (NPP) are the species-specific?

## 132 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 133 **2.1 Study Site and Climate**

134 The plantations under present study were located in the west section of Jayant block  
135 of Singrauli Coalfields in Singrauli district of Madhya Pradesh, India, which lies between  
136 latitudes 24° 6' 45" – 24° 11' 15" N and longitude 82° 36' 40" – 82° 41' 15" E. The study  
137 area is situated on a plateau above the plain (around 500 m above mean sea level) on its  
138 southwest side whereas the average elevation at the foot of the plateau is around 300 m  
139 above mean sea level. The climate of the area is tropical monsoonal and the year is  
140 divisible into a mild winter (November-February), a hot summer (April-June) and a warm  
141 rainy season (July-September). Data collected at a meteorological station present on the  
142 site showed that the mean monthly minimum temperature within the annual cycle ranges  
143 from 6 – 28 °C and mean monthly maximum from 20 – 40 °C. The rainfall annually  
144 averages 1069 mm, of which about 90% occurs from late June to early September. The  
145 rainfall is characterised by a high degree of inter-annual variation, as during the study  
146 period 1980–1996 it ranges from 700 to 1450 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> (A. N. Singh et al., 2004b, 2004a).

### 147 **2.2 Plantations and Experimental design**

148 All the plantations (native species) were raised in July–August by planting nursery-  
149 raised seedlings in previously dug pits of 40 cm × 40 cm × 40 cm size at a spacing of 2 ×  
150 2 m. The plantations of three native species (*Albizia lebbbeck* (L.) Benth., *Albizia procera*  
151 (Roxb.) Benth. and *Tectona grandis* L.f.) were raised in 1990 by planting 7 to 8 months  
152 old nursery raised seedlings. In contrast, the plantations of one native (*Dendrocalamus*  
153 *strictus* Nees) were raised in 1991 by planting eight months nursery-raised seedlings.  
154 These plantations have been raised for land rehabilitation as natural colonisation is very  
155 slow on the mine spoil. All the planted plots were seeded in 1994 at the rate of 6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
156 with Dinanath grass (*Pennisetum pedicellatum* Trin.) for preventing soil erosion and loss

157 of runoff nutrients. The total planted area for *A. lebbbeck* and *A. procera*, whereas the  
158 same for *T. grandis* and *D. strictus* was about 0.5 ha each. For sampling three permanent  
159 plots were established for each species. The size of the sample plots was 25 × 25 m for *A.*  
160 *lebbbeck* and *A. procera* whereas 15 × 15 m plot size for *T. grandis* and *D. strictus*.

161 Five individuals of average height and diameter (clumps in case of *D. strictus*) were  
162 marked in each replicate plot by using waterproof paint for various measurements in  
163 1993. The number of individuals (clumps in *D. strictus*) in each plot was inventoried in  
164 February 1993. Data collection was carried out annually in February–March since 1993.

### 165 **2.3 Estimation of biomass and net primary production**

166 For the measurement of tree biomass, allometric equations relating tree dimensions  
167 to the biomass of parts were developed. Twelve individuals of each species, representing  
168 a gradient of diameter, were felled from an area adjoining the permanent plots, and their  
169 diameter (D) and height (H) were measured. The felled individuals were separated into  
170 stem and foliage. The root systems of the felled plants were excavated to a depth of 1 m.  
171 The fresh weight of each component (stem, foliage and coarse roots with diameter greater  
172 than 5 mm) was recorded in the field. Sub-samples were brought to the laboratory for  
173 determining dry weights. The data were subjected to regression analysis to relate the dry  
174 weight of stem, foliage, rhizome and root with D or D<sup>2</sup>H or with their natural log values.  
175 The equations with highest R<sup>2</sup> (correlation coefficient) were selected, which were also  
176 used in earlier studies (Dutta & Agrawal, 2003; A. N. Singh et al., 2004a; A. N. Singh &  
177 Singh, 1999). The standing biomass of different components (stem, foliage and root) was  
178 calculated by using the biomass estimation equations. These values were then multiplied  
179 by the density of tree species. Per hectare, biomass estimations were obtained separately  
180 for each plot and were averaged across the number of plots to obtain the mean estimates  
181 at different ages.

182 Fine root (less than 5 mm in diameter) biomass was quantified by digging out 20 cm  
183 × 20 cm × 20 cm monoliths at 20 cm intervals from the plant base to 1-meter distance.

184 Monoliths were washed with a fine jet of water and fine roots were collected, dried and  
185 weighed. Tree roots were separated from roots of herbaceous plants based on colour and  
186 appearance.

187 The net primary production was estimated using diameter increments and biomass  
188 data as described by Singh and Singh (1991), Dutta and Agarwal (2003), and Singh *et al.*,  
189 (2004b).

#### 190 **2.4 Estimation of leaf litterfall and its decomposition rates**

191 Problems in the estimation of leaf-litter fall were encountered due to human  
192 disturbance, lack of homogenous ground surface and wind action, which did not permit  
193 accurate estimation of leaf fall. Therefore, leaf litterfall was considered equivalent to  
194 estimate foliage biomass, as the plantation species are deciduous (J. S. Singh *et al.*, 1995).  
195 Non-leaf litter (woody) was estimated by periodic collections from six permanent 1 m<sup>2</sup>  
196 quadrats marked on the ground in each plot. All the litterfall data are presented here on an  
197 oven-dry basis (80 °C).

198 For leaf litter decomposition, mature, nearly senesced but attached leaves were  
199 collected from the mid-crowns of all plantations during the peak period of leaf fall and  
200 air-dried. The litter bag technique was used to quantify decomposition rates. Nylon litter  
201 bags (10 cm × 10 cm, 1 mm mesh) containing 5 g air-dried leaf litter were placed on the  
202 floors of respective tree plantations at the start of the rainy season in 1994. Three litter  
203 bags were recovered from each permanent plot at each of the six sampling dates.  
204 Immediately after recovery, the litter bags were placed in individual polyethene bags and  
205 transported to the laboratory. The recovered material was carefully separated from soil  
206 particles, dried at 80 °C to constant weight and weighed. The daily instantaneous decay  
207 rate ( $k$ ) of litter for the study period was calculated using the negative exponential decay  
208 model of Olson (Olson, 1963). The time required for 50% and 95% weight loss was  
209 calculated as  $t_{50} = 0.693/k$  and  $t_{95} = 3/k$ , respectively.

## 210 **2.5 Data for exotic species**

211 Previous studies have investigated the restoration potential of some exotic species on  
212 the same study site and therefore, provided with an opportunity to compare the  
213 restoration potential of exotic and native species on coal mine spoils (Dutta & Agrawal,  
214 2001, 2003; J. S. Singh et al., 1995). These studies considered four exotic species  
215 (*Casuarina equisetifolia* L., *Cassia siamea* Lam., *Grevillea pteridifolia* Knight and  
216 *Acacia auriculiformis* A. Cunn. ex Benth.). The total planted area for *C. equisetifolia* and  
217 *G. pteridifolia* was 1.5 ha each, whereas the same for *A. auriculiformis* and *C. siamea*  
218 was about 0.5 ha each. For sampling three permanent plots were established for each  
219 species. The size of the sample plots was 25 × 25 m for *C. equisetifolia* and *G.*  
220 *pteridifolia* and; 10 × 10 m for *A. auriculiformis* and *C. siamea* (Dutta & Agrawal, 2001,  
221 2003; J. S. Singh et al., 1995).

## 222 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

223 SPSS-PC statistical software was used for all statistical analyses. To observe the  
224 effect of species the data were subjected to the General Linear Model (GLM) for analysis  
225 of variance (ANOVA). Mean values were tested for difference among plantation species  
226 with Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) mean separation test (SPSS, 2003,  
227 version 10.0). Regression equations were developed through the same statistical package.  
228 To observe the effect of origin (exotic vs native) student's t-test was conducted using the  
229 package *rstatix* (Kassambara, 2020) in the *R* statistical environment (R Core Team,  
230 2020).

## 231 **3 RESULTS**

### 232 **3.1 Survival**

233 The survival of plantations has been estimated as the stocking density (Individual  
234 stem ha<sup>-1</sup>) for each species (three plots) under exotic and native plantations and the results  
235 are tabulated in Table 1. The stocking density (individual stem ha<sup>-1</sup>) at the time of  
236 plantation was 2500 in both types of plantations. After five years of plantation

237 establishment, about 71-88% of individuals were survived in native and 63-74% in the  
238 exotic plantations. Among all plantations, the highest survival rate was observed in the  
239 native species (*A. procera*) and lowest in the exotic species (*C. equisetifolia*), therefore,  
240 ANOVA indicated significant differences in stocking density due to species (Table 6).  
241 However, the survival rates were significantly higher in native plantations as compared to  
242 exotic species (Figure 1).

### 243 **3.2 Growth performance**

244 The growth performance of exotic and native species was determined in terms of  
245 height and diameter. Height and diameter (growth parameter) were significantly varied  
246 among all plantations of exotic and native species (Table 6). Among all plantation species  
247 (native and exotics) the maximum height was attained by *G. pteridifolia*, whereas  
248 maximum diameter was observed for *A. lebbeck* after 5-years of their establishment. The  
249 values for height and diameter varied from 2.19 to 5.18 m and 4.32 to 7.58 cm,  
250 respectively in native and 2.75 to 5.88 m and 2.99 to 4.90 cm, respectively in exotic  
251 plantations (Table 2). However, the height was significantly higher and diameter was  
252 significantly smaller in exotic species plantations as compared to native species  
253 plantations (Figure 1). Consequently, the height to diameter ratio was significantly  
254 smaller in native species. Further, a significant positive correlation is observed for height  
255 and diameter in case of exotic species whereas selected native species did not exhibit any  
256 significant correlation (Figure 2a). Further, non-legumes showed a significant negative  
257 correlation (Figure 2b).

### 258 **3.3 Biomass production**

259 The observed values for the biomass of different components of the plant are  
260 summarised in Table 3 and it was noted that *D. strictus* has shown the highest total  
261 biomass production among all the species whereas *A. auriculiformis* exhibited highest  
262 total biomass production among the exotic species. The biomass of different components  
263 of plants was significantly varied due to species among all the plantations (Table 6).

264 Therefore, values in native plantations, significantly varied from 7.68 to 74.68 t ha<sup>-1</sup>,  
265 being minimum for *T. grandis* and maximum for *D. strictus* plantation and 8.49-31.03 t  
266 ha<sup>-1</sup> in exotic plantations, being maximum in *A. auriculiformis* and minimum in *C.*  
267 *siamea* (Table 3). Among plant parts, stem contributed more than 50% to the total  
268 biomass for both exotic and native species (Figure 3a) as well as for leguminous and non-  
269 leguminous species (Figure 3b). The share of aboveground components in the total  
270 biomass in the present study was 65.3-91.1% in native and 66.3-84.5% in exotic and  
271 belowground contribution was in the range of 8.9-34.7% in native and 15.5-33.7% in  
272 exotic plantations, respectively (Figure 3c). However, the belowground biomass was  
273 higher for leguminous species as compared to the non-leguminous species (Figure 3d).  
274 Moreover, relative contributions of short-lived components (foliage and fine root < 5  
275 mm) were small as compared to long-lived tree component (stem) to the tree layer  
276 biomass for both types of plantations calculated at 5-yr age (Figure 3e) and a similar  
277 pattern was observed for the leguminous and non-leguminous species (Figure 3f).  
278 Further, biomass production of all components except fine root biomass was significantly  
279 higher in native species plantations as compared to exotic species plantations (Figure 1).

### 280 **3.4 Net primary production**

281 The net primary productivity of different components of plant species is given in Table 4.  
282 Total net production (above + below ground) among these plantations on mine spoil  
283 varied from 4.76 to 32.04 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in native and 3.72-18.24 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in exotic species  
284 (Table 4). The differences in net production of all components of plant values were  
285 significantly varied due to species as indicated by ANOVA (Table 6). The aboveground  
286 net production of present planted species ranged from 3.75-24.28 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in native  
287 plantations, being maximum in *D. strictus* and minimum in *T. grandis* where 2.55-12.55 t  
288 ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in exotic plantations, being maximum in *A. auriculiformis* and minimum in *C.*  
289 *siamea* plantation. Similar to biomass, relative contributions of short-lived (foliage and  
290 fine root <5 mm) was lower long-lived tree components (stem) to the tree layer biomass

291 and NPP for both types of plantations calculated at 5-yr age. The contribution of foliage  
292 and fine root (<5 mm diameter) to the biomass was much smaller than that to NPP in all  
293 four native species while it was opposite in exotic species. For example, foliage  
294 component contributed in exotic plantations were in the range of 8.5-22.1%, being  
295 maximum by *G. pteridifolia* and minimum by *C. siamea*, and, fine roots were in the  
296 range of 1.8-9.8%, being maximum by *A. auriculiformis* and minimum by *C.*  
297 *equisetifolia*. Similarly, in case of native species, foliage contributed 12.7-32.1% being  
298 maximum by *T. grandis* and minimum by *A. lebbeck*, whereas fine root was in the range  
299 of 1.6-5.1%, respectively. Interestingly, the foliage and total net primary production of  
300 exotic species were significantly higher in native species than the exotic species (Figure  
301 1). However, the net primary production of stem and roots did not significantly differ  
302 among the exotic and native species (Figure 1). Further, a significant positive correlation  
303 was observed for total and stem net primary production with the foliage biomass (Figure  
304 4).

### 305 **3.5 Leaf litterfall pattern and decomposition rates**

306 Litterfall in exotic plantations was minimum in *C. siamea* (2.74 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and  
307 maximum in *A. auriculiformis* (6.68 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), whereas, in case of native plantations,  
308 maximum was in *D. strictus* (10.68 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and minimum in *T. grandis* (2.39 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
309 ), respectively (Table 5). The time required for 50% decomposition of leaf litter of all  
310 exotic species varied from 231 to 495 days and 1000-2142 days for 95% decomposition,  
311 which was lesser than the corresponding leaf litter of native species (Table 5). However,  
312 litterfall and decomposability did not vary significantly either between exotic and native  
313 species or between leguminous and non-leguminous species plantations (Figure 5).

## 314 **4 DISCUSSION**

### 315 **4.1 Native species plantations had higher survival**

316 The present study indicated that native species have better survival on degraded  
317 lands than exotic species which supported by earlier studies (Islam et al., 1999). Although

318 some previous studies have investigated survivability of native species on coal mine spoil  
319 (Mosseler, Major, & Labrecque, 2014; A. N. Singh et al., 2004a, 2004b), very few studies  
320 compared survivability with exotic species (Huxtable et al., 2005; Islam et al., 1999).  
321 Another study conducted on saline soils of northern Australia also suggested the high  
322 survival of native species (D. Sun & Dickinson, 1995). Evidently, in this study, greater  
323 survival was observed in all native species indicating better adaptability of species for  
324 mine spoil restoration. Thus, higher survival of native species may be due to their pre-  
325 adaptation to the environmental conditions. However, a recent study contrasted the above  
326 commonly held view and reported that exotic species may also have greater survival.  
327 This suggests that survival may not be directly linked to the origin of species, rather it  
328 may be a legacy of function and life-history traits. Therefore, survival cannot be  
329 considered as the only indicator of ecological restoration.

#### 330 **4.2 Growth performance**

331 Height and diameter of woody plant species are important structural parameters  
332 involved in the measurement of growth performance, which are affected by the  
333 environmental conditions (Lestari, Fiqa, Fauziah, & Budiharta, 2019; Sumida, Miyaura,  
334 & Torii, 2013). Our results suggested that exotic plants tend to invest more  
335 photosynthates in height growth whereas native plants invested more photosynthates in  
336 stem growth. Higher diameter in case of native species indicates the possibility of their  
337 adaptation to windbreak and endorse a longer establishment. Further, these observations  
338 indicate that exotic plants might be suffering from a limitation of light whereas native  
339 plants may be pre-adapted to environmental conditions and therefore invested more  
340 photosynthates in diameter for efficient supply of resources to the shoot (Boonman et al.,  
341 2020). However, this finding contrasts the reports of an earlier study in similar  
342 environmental conditions (Islam et al., 1999).

343 Height growth usually associated with the production of newer leaves and greater  
344 resource acquisition whereas the increase in stem diameter ensure the development of

345 conducting tissues to support the leaves (Sumida et al., 2013). Thus, the increase in  
346 height should be accompanied by an increase in the diameter of the stem as suggested by  
347 biomechanical models (Henry & Aarssen, 1999; J. Sun et al., 2019). Our results also  
348 seemed to support this hypothesis at least in case of exotic species but contrasted by the  
349 non-leguminous species. This suggests that there is a trade-off between height and  
350 diameter in case of non-leguminous plants possibly due to limited resources. It is  
351 believed that the height growth of many trees occurs primarily at the expense of  
352 carbohydrates rather than products of current photosynthesis. In contrast to height  
353 growth, diameter growth depends primarily on current photosynthesis, although some  
354 reserve carbohydrates may be used for diameter growth very early in the season  
355 (Kozlowski, 1962). Thus, the greater height in case of exotic species can be attributed to  
356 their higher photosynthetic rate 12.1 (*A. auriculiformis*) to 30.14  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (*C.*  
357 *equisetifolia*) as compared to native plantations in the present research site might be a  
358 promoting point to faster growth behaviour of exotic species (J. S. Singh et al., 1995).  
359 The smaller height to diameter ratio of exotic species indicates their higher competitive  
360 ability and rapid growth on degraded sites. This is supported by a study conducted on the  
361 degraded tropical pasture of southern Costa Rica, where it was shown that exotic species  
362 outperformed the native plantations (Carpenter, Nichols, & Sandi, 2004).

### 363 **4.3 Biomass and net primary production**

364 Biomass is a key parameter of structural attributes, while, net primary production is  
365 considered as a key functional parameter which helps to evaluate the quality of species  
366 because they directly contribute to organic matter, energy transformation and therefore  
367 maintain nutrient cycling between vegetation and soil. The present study indicated that  
368 native species produced higher biomass as compared to the exotic species. This suggests  
369 better adaptation and higher resource use efficiency of native species as compared to the  
370 exotic species on the coal mine spoil. In contrast to our finding, a previous study reported  
371 that there are little differences in biomass production among the exotic and native species

372 (Islam et al., 1999). Further, biomass partitioning into different plant parts revealed that  
373 native species produced significantly higher biomass for foliage, stem and coarse roots  
374 (diameter greater than 5 mm) as compared to exotic species whereas fine root biomass  
375 was higher in case of exotic species, though not significant. Higher biomass production  
376 of fine roots in case of exotic species suggests that these plants responded to the stressed  
377 environment of coal mine spoils to get available nutrient and water sources to maintain  
378 their growth performance especially height instead of diameter (Boonman et al., 2020).

379 Since the present study focused on woody tree species, the higher contribution of  
380 above-ground biomass to the total biomass is expectable and therefore supported by  
381 many previous studies (A. N. Singh et al., 2004b). However, exotic species invested more  
382 in below-ground components whereas native species invested more in above-ground  
383 components while responding to the same coal mine spoils. It is believed that plants tend  
384 to invest more in below-ground components during the disturbance or stressful conditions  
385 such as the nutrient-poor coal mine spoils (Poorter & Sack, 2012; Priest, Stovall, Coble,  
386 Oswald, & Williams, 2015). Further, both types of species invested more in long-lived  
387 components than in short-lived components; however, exotic species invested more in  
388 short-lived components especially the fine roots. Contribution of the long-lived  
389 component (stem) was much higher to biomass than to NPP in the all four native species  
390 but opposite in the exotic plantations. Thus, the short-lived components accounted for a  
391 greater proportion of ecosystem function than long-lived components which accounted  
392 for a greater proportion of structure in the native plantations indicating native species are  
393 the best fitting in the restoration theory that is required for mine spoil restoration at least  
394 during the initial stage of ecosystem development. Moreover, foliage accounted for a  
395 lower proportion of ecosystem function in all plantations of exotic species whereas native  
396 species showed considerably very high that indicates that production of more foliage  
397 biomass in such a stressed environment (degraded mine spoil) may provide more amount  
398 of soil organic matter to regulate the cycling of nutrient. Evidently, the native and exotic

399 species have different allocational strategies.

400 According to functional equilibrium hypothesis, this suggests that exotic species may  
401 experience below-ground resource (water and nutrients) limitation whereas native species  
402 experience an above-ground resource (sunlight and CO<sub>2</sub>) limitation (Boonman et al.,  
403 2020; Brouwer, 1983). Nevertheless, these changes may be more attributed to  
404 morphological adaptations or phenotypic plasticity rather than biomass allocation  
405 (Freschet et al., 2015; Poorter et al., 2012). However, if none of the resources is limiting  
406 or equally limiting then plants tend to allocate the resources optimally, this is referred as  
407 'optimal partitioning hypothesis' (Gedroc, McConnaughay, & Coleman, 1996) or  
408 'balanced growth hypothesis' (Shipley & Meziane, 2002). Thus, if both types of species  
409 faced equal environmental conditions (probably that was the case in the present study),  
410 those species which produce greater below-ground biomass during the initial stages may  
411 be better suited for reclamation of coal mine overburden. Following this, our results  
412 suggest that exotic and leguminous plants may be better suited for coal mine restoration,  
413 though these effects can be highly species-specific.

414 The net primary production or NPP is associated with the photosynthesis and  
415 biomass production as indicated by a strong positive relation between biomass and NPP.  
416 The present study suggested an overall NPP ranging from 3 to 32 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, which is  
417 comparable to earlier studies (Dutta & Agrawal, 2003; A. N. Singh & Singh, 1999; V.  
418 Singh & Toky, 1995). The early successional species are reported to exhibit net  
419 production of 8-21 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in natural dry tropical forests (Murphy & Lugo, 1986)  
420 whereas the above-ground net production of plantations on coal mine spoil and natural  
421 forests in the tropical zone ranged between 1.5 and 32.62 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Dutta & Agrawal,  
422 2003; L. Singh & Singh, 1991; P. K. Singh & Singh, 1998; V. Singh & Toky, 1995).  
423 However, our comparison suggested that native species had significantly higher total and  
424 foliage NPP as compared to the exotic species on coal mine spoils. This indicated that  
425 native species were much more efficient in resource utilisation possibly due to their pre-

426 adaptation to the tropical environments. Thus, achieving an early vegetation cover and  
427 high biomass production on mine spoil can be approached through proper selection and  
428 planting of pioneer native tree species because such species are able to exist under harsh  
429 soil conditions and require less long term maintenance (A. N. Singh et al., 2004a; A. N.  
430 Singh & Singh, 2006).

#### 431 **4.4 Leaf litterfall pattern and decomposition rates**

432 Litterfall and litter decomposition are important processes, which are associated with  
433 soil redevelopment and therefore, restoration of degraded habitats (A. N. Singh et al.,  
434 2006). Although litterfall and litter decomposition did not vary significantly among the  
435 exotic and native species, the litter of decomposed slightly faster than native species.  
436 Further, there is greater variation in decomposition rates of exotic species as compared to  
437 native species. This indicates that the decomposition rate in exotic species may depend on  
438 species identity. Earlier studies have also found that there is little variation in the  
439 decomposition rates of exotic and native species in different ecosystems (Jo, Fridley, &  
440 Frank, 2016; Patil et al., 2020), thus supporting the findings of the present study as well.  
441 Similar to exotic vs native comparison, the comparison between leguminous and non-  
442 leguminous species revealed non-significant differences among them; however, the  
443 decomposition rate of leguminous species was faster than non-leguminous species. This  
444 may be due to higher nitrogen content in litter from leguminous species, which might  
445 have promoted the decomposition rates.

### 446 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

447 The present study points out that native species may prove to be much more efficient  
448 than exotic species in rehabilitation and restoration of coal mine spoils. This conclusion is  
449 supported by the higher biomass and NPP for native species as compared to exotic  
450 species, though exotic species exhibited greater height growth. However, consideration of  
451 leguminous nature of species did not affect the biomass and NPP in the present study,  
452 though it may affect the redevelopment of soils in degraded habitats. Further, the effect of

453 exotic species seemed to be highly variable and species-specific. Therefore, more  
454 comparative knowledge on the species-specific effects on ecosystem restoration,  
455 biodiversity reconstruction and its possible effects their services towards the ecosystem  
456 and local people is still required. Therefore, more future investigations on various scales  
457 of the ecological restoration are warranted with a greater number of species while  
458 inferring effects of exotic and native species for comparative restoration potential.

459

#### 460 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

461 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

462

#### 463 **Data Availability Statement**

464 Data available on request from the authors

465

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638

639 **Table 1.** Stocking density of 5-yr old planted exotic and native woody species on coal  
 640 mine spoil.

Planted species	Originally planted (Individuals ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Surviving (Individuals ha <sup>-1</sup> )			Mean ± 1 SE
		Plot 1	Plot 2	Plot 3	
<b>Native</b>					
<i>A. lebeck</i>	2500	2192 (89)	2160 (86)	2208 (88)	2187±14 <sup>a</sup> (87)
<i>A. procera</i>	2500	2224 (89)	2192 (88)	2208 (88)	2208±9 <sup>a</sup> (88)
<i>T. grandis</i>	2500	1645 (66)	1822 (73)	1867 (75)	1778±68 <sup>b</sup> (71)
<i>D. strictus</i>	2500	2000 (80)	2000 (80)	2088 (84)	2029±29 <sup>a</sup> (81)
<b>Exotic</b>					
<i>A. auriculiformis</i>	2500	1600 (64)	1760 (70.4)	1670 (66.8)	1677±46 <sup>bc</sup> (67)
<i>C. equisetifolia</i>	2500	1450 (58)	1600 (64)	1650 (66)	1566±61 <sup>bc</sup> (63)
<i>C. siamea</i>	2500	1900 (76)	1778 (71)	1790 (72)	1822±39 <sup>abcd</sup> (73)
<i>G. pteridifolia</i>	2500	1789 (72)	2000 (80)	1786 (71)	1858±71 <sup>bcd</sup> (74)

641 Values given in parenthesis represent the per cent of survival of individuals.

642 Within the Mean ± 1 SE column, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at P < 0.05, using the Tukey's HSD test.

643

644 **Table 2.** Growth performance of 5-yr old planted exotic and native woody species on coal mine spoil.

Parameters	Exotic <sup>†</sup>				Native			
	AA	CE	CS	GP	AL	AP	TG	DS
Height (m)	5.00 <sup>d</sup>	5.29 <sup>e</sup>	2.75 <sup>ab</sup>	5.88 <sup>f</sup>	3.38 <sup>a</sup>	2.97 <sup>a</sup>	2.19 <sup>b</sup>	5.18 <sup>c</sup>
Diameter (cm)	3.95 <sup>bd</sup>	4.90 <sup>be</sup>	2.99 <sup>f</sup>	3.87 <sup>e</sup>	7.58 <sup>a</sup>	7.32 <sup>a</sup>	5.22 <sup>b</sup>	4.32 <sup>bc</sup>
H/D ratio	126.59 <sup>bc</sup>	123.31 <sup>bc</sup>	91.97 <sup>bc</sup>	151.94 <sup>b</sup>	44.59 <sup>a</sup>	40.57 <sup>ab</sup>	41.95 <sup>ab</sup>	119.91 <sup>b</sup>
D <sup>2</sup> H (cm <sup>3</sup> )	7801 <sup>a</sup>	12701 <sup>ab</sup>	2458 <sup>b</sup>	8806 <sup>a</sup>	19420 <sup>a</sup>	15913 <sup>b</sup>	5967 <sup>ca</sup>	9667 <sup>a</sup>

645 Values are means of three replicates.

646 †Data were obtained from Singh et al., (1995) and Dutta & Agrawal (2003).

647 AA, *Acacia auriculiformis*; CE, *Casuarina equisetifolia*; CS, *Cassia siamea*; GP, *Grevillea pteridifolia*; AL, *Albizia lebbek*; AP, *Albizia procera*; TG, *Tectona grandis*; DS, *Dendrocalamus strictus*.

648 Within the columns, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at P < 0.05, using the Tukey's HSD test.

649 **Table 3.** Biomass production (t ha<sup>-1</sup>) under 5-yr old planted exotic and native woody species on coal mine spoil.

Parameters	Exotic <sup>†</sup>				Native			
	AA	CE	CS	GP	AL	AP	TG	DS <sup>#</sup>
Foliage	6.68 <sup>a</sup>	2.74 <sup>b</sup>	0.72 <sup>bc</sup>	5.06 <sup>a</sup>	6.59 <sup>a</sup>	7.26 <sup>a</sup>	2.39 <sup>b</sup>	10.68 <sup>c</sup>
Stem	16.77 <sup>be</sup>	15.69 <sup>be</sup>	4.91 <sup>g</sup>	11.46 <sup>bh</sup>	32.32 <sup>a</sup>	14.21 <sup>b</sup>	2.98 <sup>c</sup>	57.33 <sup>d</sup>
Coarse root	4.53 <sup>de</sup>	2.98 <sup>fg</sup>	2.56 <sup>cg</sup>	5.84 <sup>dh</sup>	12.05 <sup>a</sup>	10.65 <sup>b</sup>	1.94 <sup>c</sup>	5.27 <sup>d</sup>
Fine root	3.05 <sup>bc</sup>	0.40 <sup>ac</sup>	0.30 <sup>a</sup>	0.57 <sup>a</sup>	0.85 <sup>a</sup>	0.74 <sup>a</sup>	0.37 <sup>a</sup>	1.40 <sup>ab</sup>
Total	31.03 <sup>be</sup>	21.81 <sup>f</sup>	8.49 <sup>cg</sup>	22.90 <sup>bh</sup>	51.81 <sup>a</sup>	32.86 <sup>b</sup>	7.68 <sup>c</sup>	74.68 <sup>d</sup>

650 Values are means of three replicates.

651 †Data were obtained from Singh et al., (1995) and Dutta & Agrawal (2003).

652 #Values of rhizome component included in the total biomass.

653 AA, *Acacia auriculiformis*; CE, *Casuarina equisetifolia*; CS, *Cassia siamea*; GP, *Grevillea pteridifolia*; AL, *Albizia lebbek*; AP, *Albizia procera*; TG, *Tectona grandis*; DS, *Dendrocalamus strictus*.

654 Within the columns, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at P < 0.05, using the Tukey's HSD test.

655

656 **Table 4.** Net primary production ( $\text{t ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) under 5-yr old planted exotic and native woody species on coal mine spoil.

Parameters	Exotic <sup>†</sup>				Native			
	AA	CE	CS	GP	AL	AP	TG	DS <sup>‡</sup>
Foliage	1.38 <sup>a</sup>	1.07 <sup>b</sup>	0.31 <sup>bc</sup>	1.67 <sup>a</sup>	6.59 <sup>a</sup>	7.26 <sup>a</sup>	2.39 <sup>b</sup>	10.68 <sup>c</sup>
Stem	11.17 <sup>be</sup>	7.78 <sup>be</sup>	2.19 <sup>g</sup>	6.75 <sup>bh</sup>	11.26 <sup>a</sup>	8.07 <sup>b</sup>	1.36 <sup>c</sup>	13.60 <sup>d</sup>
Coarse root	2.64 <sup>de</sup>	1.62 <sup>fg</sup>	0.92 <sup>cg</sup>	3.31 <sup>dh</sup>	3.61 <sup>a</sup>	2.54 <sup>b</sup>	0.63 <sup>c</sup>	1.12 <sup>d</sup>
Fine root	3.05 <sup>bc</sup>	0.40 <sup>ac</sup>	0.30 <sup>a</sup>	0.57 <sup>a</sup>	0.85 <sup>a</sup>	0.74 <sup>a</sup>	0.37 <sup>a</sup>	1.40 <sup>ab</sup>
Total	18.24 <sup>be</sup>	10.86 <sup>f</sup>	3.72 <sup>cg</sup>	12.27 <sup>bh</sup>	23.86 <sup>a</sup>	19.30 <sup>b</sup>	4.76 <sup>c</sup>	32.04 <sup>d</sup>

657 Values are means of three replicates.

658 <sup>†</sup>Data were obtained from Singh et al., (1995) and Dutta & Agrawal (2003).

659 <sup>‡</sup>Values of rhizome component included in the total biomass.

660 AA, *Acacia auriculiformis*; CE, *Casuarina equisetifolia*; CS, *Cassia siamea*; GP, *Grevillea pteridifolia*; AL, *Albizia lebbek*; AP, *Albizia procera*; TG, *Tectona grandis*; DS, *Dendrocalamus strictus*.

661 Within the columns, values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at  $P < 0.05$ , using the Tukey's HSD test.

662 **Table 5.** Leaf litterfall and decomposition parameters under 5-yr old planted exotic and native woody species on coal mine spoil.

Parameters	Exotic <sup>†</sup>					Native		
	AA	CE	CS	GP	AL	AP	TG	DS
Leaf litterfall (t ha <sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )	6.68	2.74	0.72	5.06	6.59	7.26	2.39	10.68
Decay constant (yr <sup>-1</sup> )	0.84	0.80	1.10	0.51	1.19	0.83	0.91	1.08
MRD (mg g <sup>-1</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> )	2.37	2.20	3.00	1.48	2.42	2.12	2.20	2.28
T <sub>50</sub> (days)	301	315	231	495	213	307	282	235
T <sub>95</sub> (days)	1304	1363	1000	2142	922	1329	1221	1016

663 Values are means of three replicates.

664 <sup>†</sup>Data were obtained from Singh et al., (1995) and Dutta & Agrawal (2003).

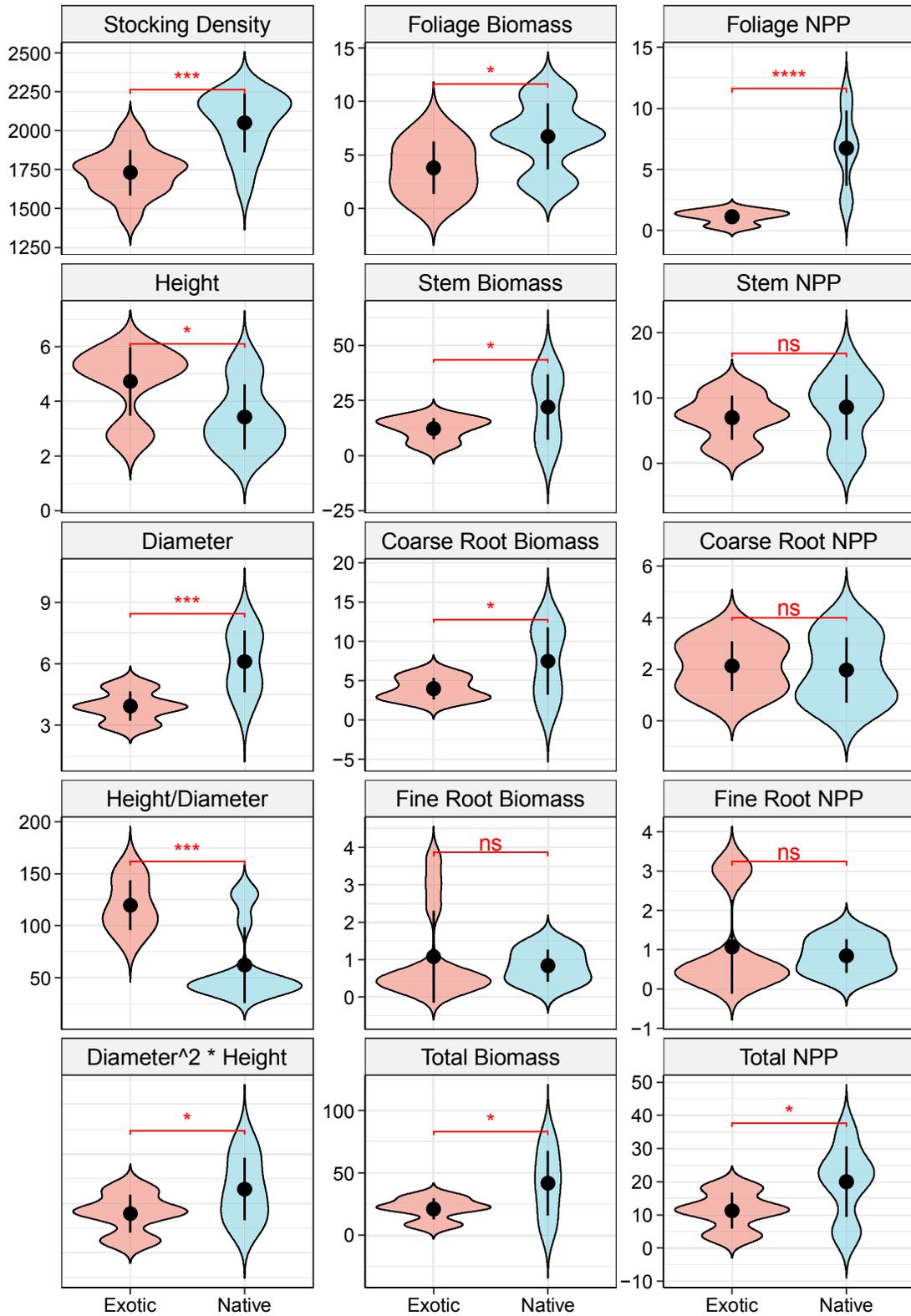
665 AA, *Acacia auriculiformis*; CE, *Casuarina equisetifolia*; CS, *Cassia siamea*; GP, *Grevillea pteridifolia*; AL, *Albizia lebbek*; AP, *Albizia procera*; TG, *Tectona grandis*; DS, *Dendrocalamus strictus*.

666 **Table 6.** Summary of ANOVA for the effect of plantation species on growth parameters,  
 667 biomass and net primary production components.

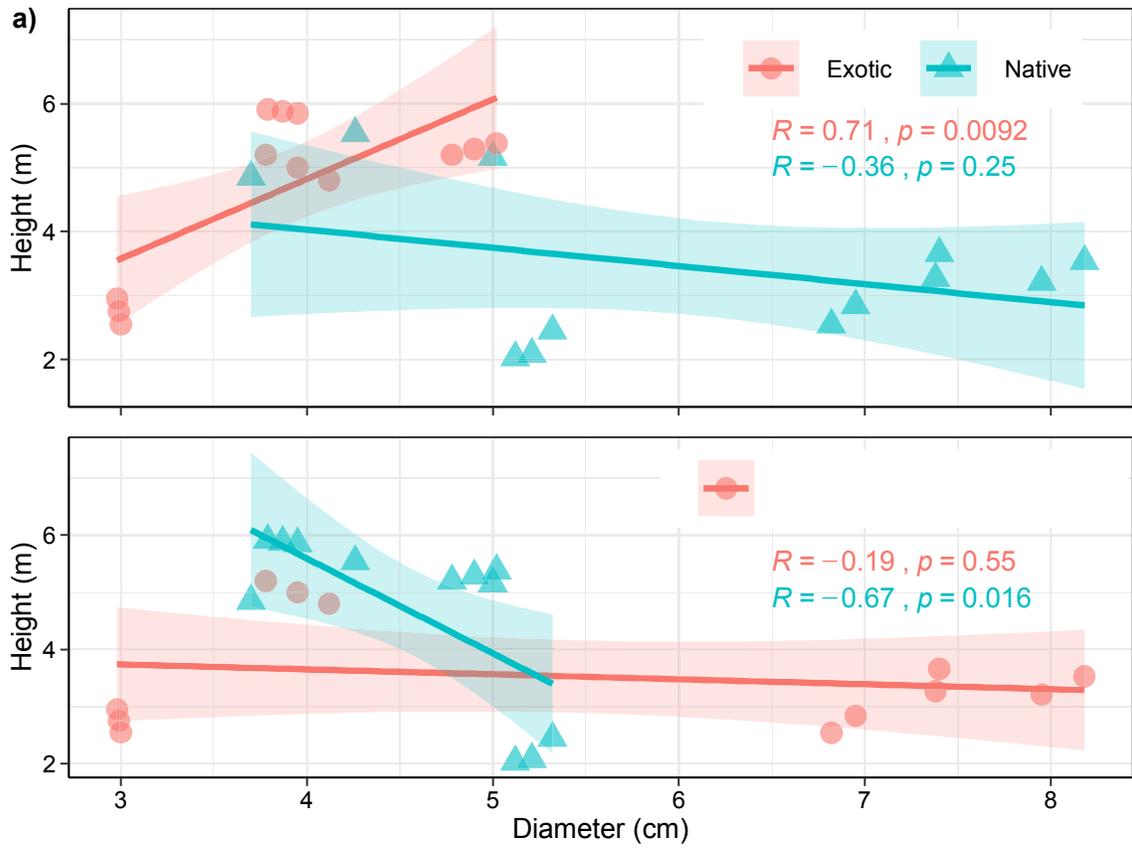
<b>Components</b>	<b>F- value (F<sub>7,16</sub>)</b>	<b>Significance level (P)</b>
Height	82.051	0.0000
Diameter	56.333	0.0000
H/D	97.601	0.0000
D <sup>2</sup> H	13.710	0.0000
Foliage biomass	86.147	0.0000
Stem biomass	220.673	0.0000
Coarse root biomass	266.112	0.0000
Fine root biomass	31.883	0.0000
Total biomass	304.449	0.0000
Foliage production	556.164	0.0000
Stem production	44.873	0.0000
Coarse root production	61.241	0.0000
Fine root production	98.281	0.0000
Total tree layer production	71.518	0.0000

668 H/D, a ratio of plant height to diameter; D<sup>2</sup>H, estimated tree volume.

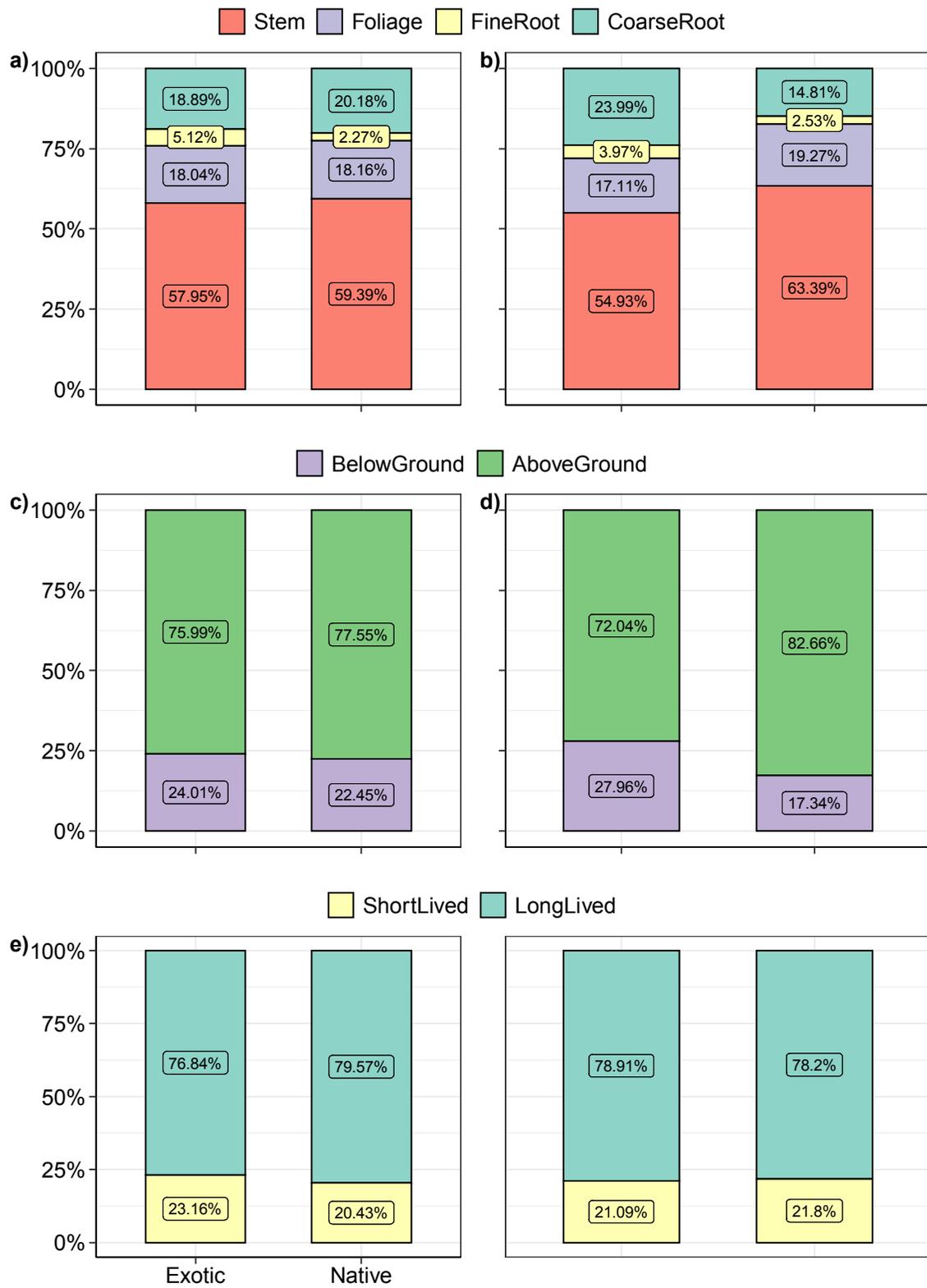
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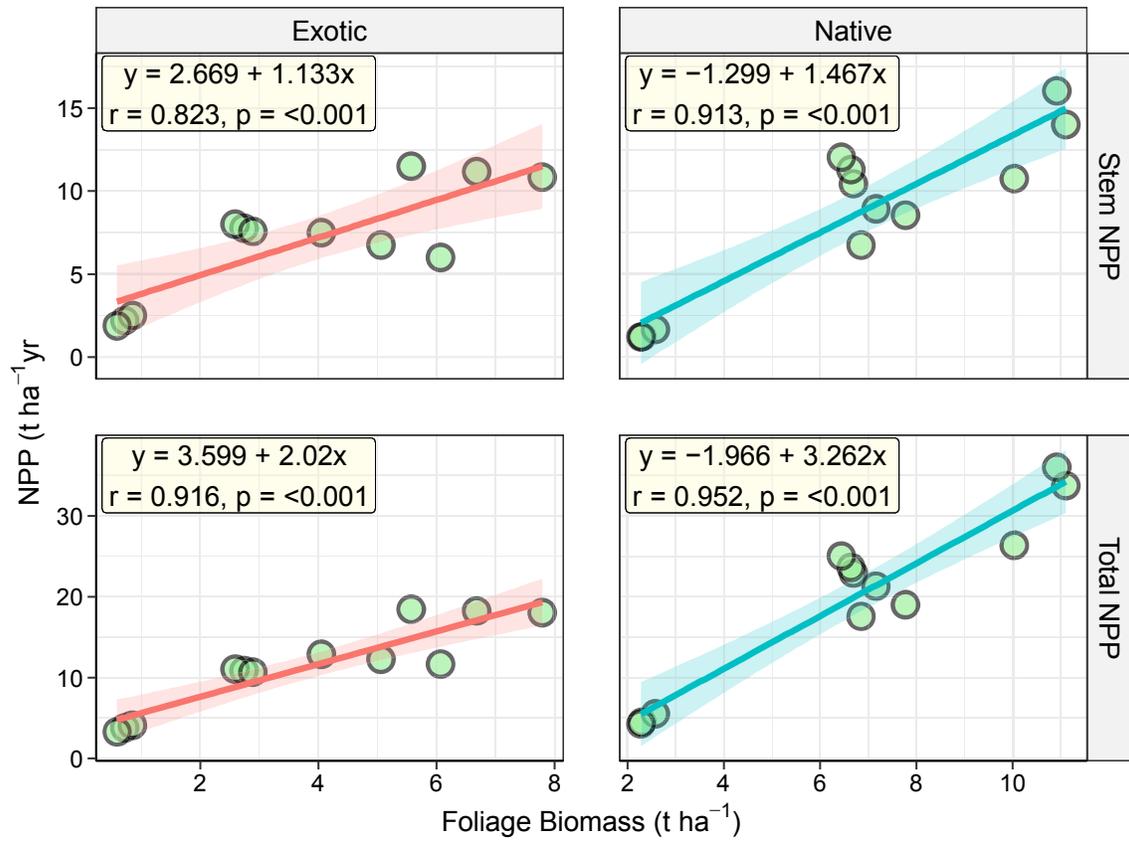


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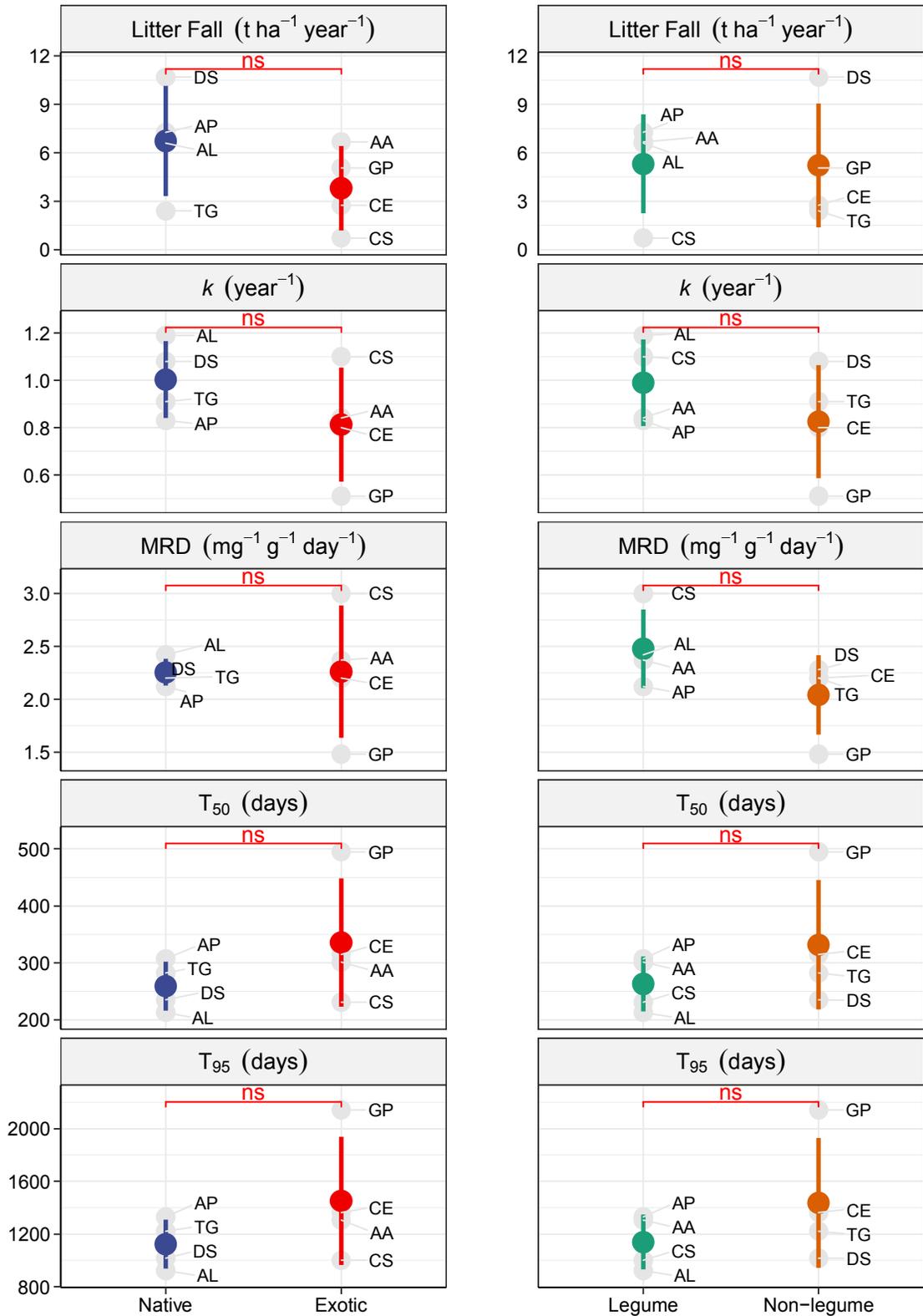
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680 **Legend to Figures**

681 **Figure 1.** Comparison of survival, growth, biomass and net primary productivity among  
682 the exotic and native woody species plantations on coal mine spoil. The units  
683 of the respective parameters are given in Table 1-5. The statistical  
684 significance was determined by using student's t-test and the p-values  
685 <0.0001, <0.001, <0.01, <0.05 and 0.1 corresponds to “\*\*\*\*”, “\*\*\*”, “\*\*”,  
686 “\*” and “ns”, respectively.

687 **Figure 2.** Relationship between Height and Diameter for exotic and native woody  
688 species (a), and legume and non-leguminous species plantations (b). The  
689 regression line was fitted using the linear model and Pearson's correlation  
690 coefficient values is represented as R with corresponding probability p-  
691 values.

692 **Figure 3.** Biomass partitioning among different plant parts (a), above-ground and below  
693 ground (b), and short-lived and long-lived components (c) for exotic vs.  
694 native and legume vs. non-legume species plantation.

695 **Figure 4.** Relationships between net primary production and foliage biomass for 5-yr  
696 old plantations of all exotic and all native woody species on coal mine spoil.  
697 The linear regression equation ( $y = a + bx$ ), Pearson's correlation coefficient  
698 ( $r$ ) and corresponding probability values ( $p$ ) shown in the top-left corner of  
699 each subplot.

700 **Figure 5.** Litterfall and litter decomposition parameters among the exotic vs. native

701 species, and legume vs. non-leguminous species plantations. The  
702 abbreviations used for species are AA, *Acacia auriculiformis*; CE, *Casuarina*  
703 *equisetifolia*; CS, *Cassia siamea*; GP, *Grevillea pteridifolia*; AL, *Albizia*  
704 *lebbeck*; AP, *Albizia procera*; TG, *Tectona grandis*; DS, *Dendrocalamus*  
705 *strictus*. The statistical significance was determined by using student's t-test  
706 at 0.05 significance level and the p-values greater than 0.05 are represented as  
707 "ns" respectively.