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Abstract Soil organic components are important factors in the quality and productivity of forest ecosystems. Timber harvesting reduces plant cover and the amount of organic matter in forest floor layer, increases surface runoff, soil erosion and alters microclimatic conditions over large areas. These changes can have important implications for nutrient cycling dynamics and soil organic matter mineralization. Fueguian temperate forests of *Nothofagus pumilio* (lenga) have been intensely harvested for the last decades, mainly by shelterwood-cut silvicultural system. Harvesting removes nutrients contained in logs from the site,

modifies light, temperature and soil humidity, constraining nutrient cycling process. In this study, we evaluate available copper (Cu_a), zinc (Zn_a), iron (Fe_a), and manganese (Mn_a) concentrations and reservoirs in stands that represent a chronosequence and their respective primary forests (controls): stands cut 1 year ago, stands cut 5–10 years ago, and stands harvested more than 50 years ago. Concentrations of Zn_a and Cu_a in primary forest were 39.9 and 2.6 mg/kg, and increased in harvested sites to 60.5 and 3.2 mg/kg, respectively. Fe_a and Mn_a concentrations showed similar ranges in both harvested and control sites. Recent harvested sites showed the highest Cu_a concentrations. Micronutrient reservoirs showed similar ranges in both harvested and primary forests. We concluded that micronutrient availability changes at short term after forest harvesting; thus, the inclusion of soil fertility assessment in forest management plans should be incorporated to preserve the fertility of lenga forests soils and ensure sustainability.

Keywords (separated by '-') Zinc - Copper - Shelterwood-cut silvicultural system - Lenga temperate forests

Footnote Information This article is part of a Topical Collection in Environmental Earth Sciences on “3RAGSU”, guest edited by Daniel Emilio Martinez.

2 **Temporal and spatial changes in soil micronutrients in managed**
3 ***Nothofagus pumilio* forest of Tierra del Fuego, Argentina**

4 **Romina Mansilla^{1,4} · Juan Carlos Nóvoa-Muñoz² · Xabier Pontevedra-Pombal³ ·**
5 **Verónica Pancotto^{4,1} · Antía Gómez-Armesto² · Julio Escobar¹ · Alicia Moretto^{4,1}**

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Keywords Zinc · Copper · Shelterwood-cut silvicultural 39
system · Lenga temperate forests 40

Introduction 41

The importance of micronutrients for the suitable develop- 42
ment and growth of forest trees has been widely recognized 43
(Stone 1968), but these elements have received little 44
attention compared with macroelements. At plant level, 45
micronutrients are required for normal growth and devel-**AQ3** 46
opment as they are important for biosynthesis of proteins, 47
nucleic acids, chlorophyll and secondary metabolites, 48
growth substances and stress tolerance (Rengel 2007). 49

Available micronutrient levels in the medium term play 50
a very important role in soil fertility of forests as they are 51
associated with organic matter (Sahuquillo et al. 2003), as 52
its progressive decomposition increases micronutrient 53
availability. Micronutrients, as trace elements, are present 54
in soil in a variety of forms (1) as free ions and complexes 55
in soil solution, (2) as nonspecifically and specifically 56
adsorbed ions, (3) as ions occluded in soil hydrous oxides 57
and carbonates, (4) organically bound in microbial and 58
plant biomass, detritus, and humic substances, (5) 59

A1 This article is part of a Topical Collection in Environmental Earth
A2 Sciences on “3RAGSU”, guest edited by Daniel Emilio Martínez.

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60 substituted in aluminum–silicate minerals, and (6) as pre- 113
 61 cipitates (Martens and Lindsay 1990). The complex of 114
 62 biogeochemical processes that controls the distribution and 115
 63 sustainability of mineral–soil nutrients includes: recycling 116
 64 processes, such as litterfall, root turnover, canopy leaching, 117
 65 organic matter decomposition, or removal processes, such 118
 66 as plant–root uptake and harvesting (Rengel 2007; Li et al. 119
 67 2008).

68 Each nutrient element is characterized by a unique 120
 69 biogeochemical cycle. Extractable zinc (Zn) and copper 121
 70 (Cu) are uniformly distributed in soil profile and both 122
 71 reflect little changes during forest growth (Boardman and 123
 72 McGuire 1990). These elements, as iron (Fe), are mainly 124
 73 distributed in small roots of tree biomass of deciduous 125
 74 species, while manganese (Mn) is mainly located in leaves 126
 75 (Fortescue and Marten 1979). Once the tree cover is 127
 76 removed, the nutrient cycling mechanisms which sustained 128
 77 the soil fertility are disrupted, dropping to levels unable to 129
 78 sustain even a marginal level of productivity. The infor- 130
 79 mation on micronutrients cycling in forest ecosystems is 131
 80 not enough compared with that available either for culti- 132
 81 vated plants or for macronutrients in forest plants. This 133
 82 lack of information is noteworthy in harvested forests 134
 83 (Imbert et al. 2004).

84 *Nothofagus pumilio*, commonly called lenga, is a 135
 85 deciduous and cold-tolerant species with a relatively shal- 136
 86 low rooting system. Lenga forest is found from sea level to 137
 87 high elevations (tree line approximately 600–700 m) in 138
 88 southern Patagonia (Arroyo et al. 1996), constituting part 139
 89 of the world’s most austral forests and reaching up to lat- 140
 90 itudes about 55°S. Lenga forests in Tierra del Fuego and 141
 91 southern Patagonia have been exploited since the begin- 142
 92 ning of European colonization (Gea-Izquierdo et al. 2004). 143
 93 Currently, shelterwood-cut silvicultural system is the most 144
 94 widespread method implemented in mature primary forests 145
 95 (Martínez Pastur et al. 2000). This method involves the 146
 96 gradual removal of the canopy by subsequent partial timber 147
 97 cuttings; after the first cut, 50 % of the basal area remains. 148
 98 This method results in regular and even-aged managed 149
 99 forests (Schmidt and Urzúa 1982), which are unable to be 150
 100 used for other uses, such as livestock. The state of the art 151
 101 related to the consequences of local forest management has 152
 102 been focused in species diversity (Deferrari et al. 2001), 153
 103 changes in microclimate patterns (Ibarra et al. 2011) and 154
 104 plant litter decomposition (Caldentey et al. 2001; Mansilla 155
 105 2013; Oro 2014); to our knowledge there are no studies that 156
 106 address aspects related to soil erosion or change in water 157
 107 regime.

108 Soils of *N. pumilio* primary forests of Tierra del Fuego 158
 109 have a preferential accumulation of medium-term available 159
 110 Fe and Cu in A horizons, whereas medium-term available 160
 111 Mn and Zn were mainly stored in O horizons (Peña- 161
 112 Rodríguez et al. 2013). Therefore, it is expected that tree

removal changes micronutrients availability in these hori- 113
 zons. Previous work has shown that Fe, Mn, Zn, and B 114
 concentrations in litter layer of forest floor varied in shel- 115
 terwood-cut *N. pumilio* forests (Caldentey et al. 2001). 116
 However, to our knowledge soil micronutrient response to 117
 shelterwood-cutting of *N. pumilio* forest has not been 118
 reported. The role of nutrients in the functioning and sta- 119
 bility of forest ecosystems has special relevance in those 120
 environments presenting conditions that limit the devel- 121
 opment of forest vegetation. Thus, this study was con- 122
 ducted to quantify available micronutrients (Fe, Mn, Zn, 123
 and Cu) present in the uppermost 10 cm of soil of *N.* 124
pumilio forest after shelterwood-cutting. In addition, the 125
 effects of time lapsed after logging on soil micronutrient 126
 concentrations and reservoirs were also assessed. 127

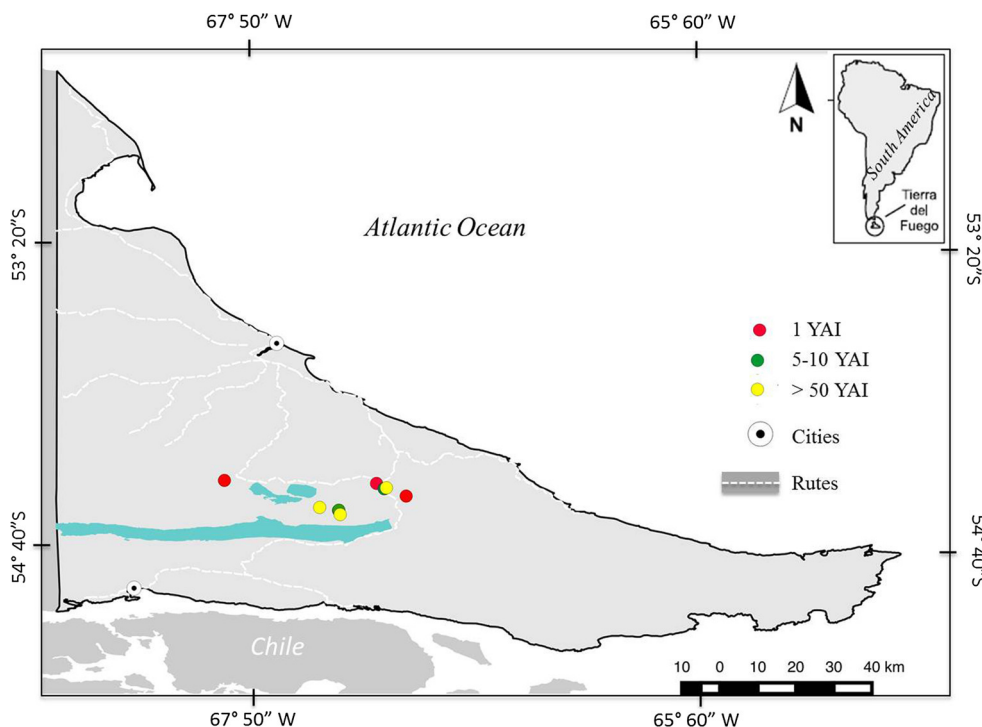
Materials and methods 128

Study sites 129

130 The study was conducted in monospecific *N. pumilio* for- 130
 131 ests located in the central part of Tierra del Fuego island, 131
 132 Argentina (54°51’S, 67°35’W) (Fig. 1). In 2009, nine 132
 133 stands with different years after intervention (YAI) by 133
 134 shelterwood-cut (here in after harvested forest or HF) were 134
 135 selected. Thus, there were three stands for each period 135
 136 lapsed after intervention (1, 5–10 and more than 50 years). 136
 137 Likewise, nine unharvested old growth forests (OGF) were 137
 138 selected nearby each harvested forest. These old growth 138
 139 forests are composed of trees with similar diameters at 139
 140 breast height and dominant height, corresponding to sites 140
 141 of quality II according to Martínez Pastur et al. (1997). 141
 142 Therefore, the experimental design consisted of a 2 × 3 142
 143 factorial experiment where two treatments were consid- 143
 144 ered: forest practices (HF and OGF), and years after 144
 145 intervention (1, 5–10 and >50 years). We took three 145
 146 replicates for each situation, totalizing *N* = 18 sites. 146

147 The climate of the region is characterized by short and 147
 148 cool summers, whereas winters are long showing fre- 148
 149 quently snow and frost. The average monthly temperature 149
 150 varies between −3 and −4 °C in winter and 9 °C in 150
 151 summer. Precipitation ranges from 400 to 500 mm/year, 151
 152 evenly distributed throughout the year (Iturraspe et al. 152
 153 1989; Tuhkanen et al. 1989–1990). The forest soils in the 153
 154 study area are characterized by a surface layer of litter 154
 155 almost 2 cm thick (O horizon), followed by a root zone of 155
 156 less than 40 cm (mostly A horizon), with a large proportion 156
 157 of stony material (Contreras et al. 1975). The forest soils in 157
 158 this area are usually slightly acid (pH ranging from 5.5 to 158
 159 6.0 in top horizons), and notably enriched in organic C 159
 160 especially in the O horizons where normally ranges from 160
 161 10 to 38 % (Nóvoa-Muñoz et al. 2008).

Fig. 1 Location of the study sites in Southern Patagonia. Different colors indicated different years after intervention



162 **Soil sampling and processing**

163 In autumn 2010, five composite samples (each after comprising four subsamples) of the top 10 cm of the forest soil were collected in each selected stands. After collection, composite soil samples were stored in plastic bags and transported to the laboratory where they were air-dried and then sieved by 2 mm mesh to obtain the fine-earth soil fraction. Soil samples (<2 mm) were used to determine available Fe (Fe_a), Mn (Mn_a), Zn (Zn_a), and Cu (Cu_a) which were extracted with a solution of 0.02 M Na₂-EDTA + 0.5 M NH₄OAc at pH 4.6 (Lakenen and Ervio 1971) using a soil:solution ratio 1:5 and a shaking time of 30 min. The extracts were centrifuged 15 min at 2800 g and filtered with a 0.45 μm pore size fiberglass filters to obtain a clear supernatant. Finally, available concentrations of micronutrients in the centrifuged and filtered extracts were determined by flame atomic absorption spectrometry, expressing the results as amount of micronutrient (mg) per soil mass (kg).

181 Medium-term reservoirs of soil micronutrients were calculated using the concentrations of available Fe, Mn, Cu, and Zn, soil bulk density and horizon thickness, being expressed in mass unit (Mg) per unit area (ha).

185 **Data analysis**

186 To evaluate the effect of the treatments on soil Fe_a, Mn_a, Zn_a, and Cu_a concentrations and reservoirs, we used two-

way ANOVA, with forest practices and years after intervention (temporal variation) as main factors. To evaluate spatial variation we tested micronutrient differences between old growth forests using one-way ANOVA. Tukey tests were performed to test differences among factors or sites when *F* values were significant (*P* < 0.05). All these analyses were carried out with InfoStat v2014 (Di Rienzo et al. 2014).

196 **Results and discussion**

197 The concentration of available micronutrients in forest soils follows the sequence Fe_a > Mn_a > Zn_a > Cu_a (Fig. 2a–d). The same sequence had been previously reported for *N. pumilio* forest, both the soil (Peña-Rodríguez et al. 2013) (horizons O and A) and the litter layer of forest floor (Caldentey et al. 2001).

203 Available concentrations of Fe_a and Mn_a showed the greatest variability, with values between 751–1015 mg/kg and 403–1016 mg/kg, respectively (Fig. 2a, b), while Zn_a and Cu_a showed less variation (Zn: 28–62 mg/kg; Cu: 2.3–4.4 mg/kg) (Fig. 2c, d). According to Kabata-Pendias (2011), micronutrient values found in this study are indicative of their high availability in forest soils. Similar values were reported by Peña-Rodríguez et al. (2013) and Gerding and Thiers (2002) for forests without intervention in Tierra del Fuego island. These high concentrations may be the result of soil acidity (pH 5.6–6), high organic carbon

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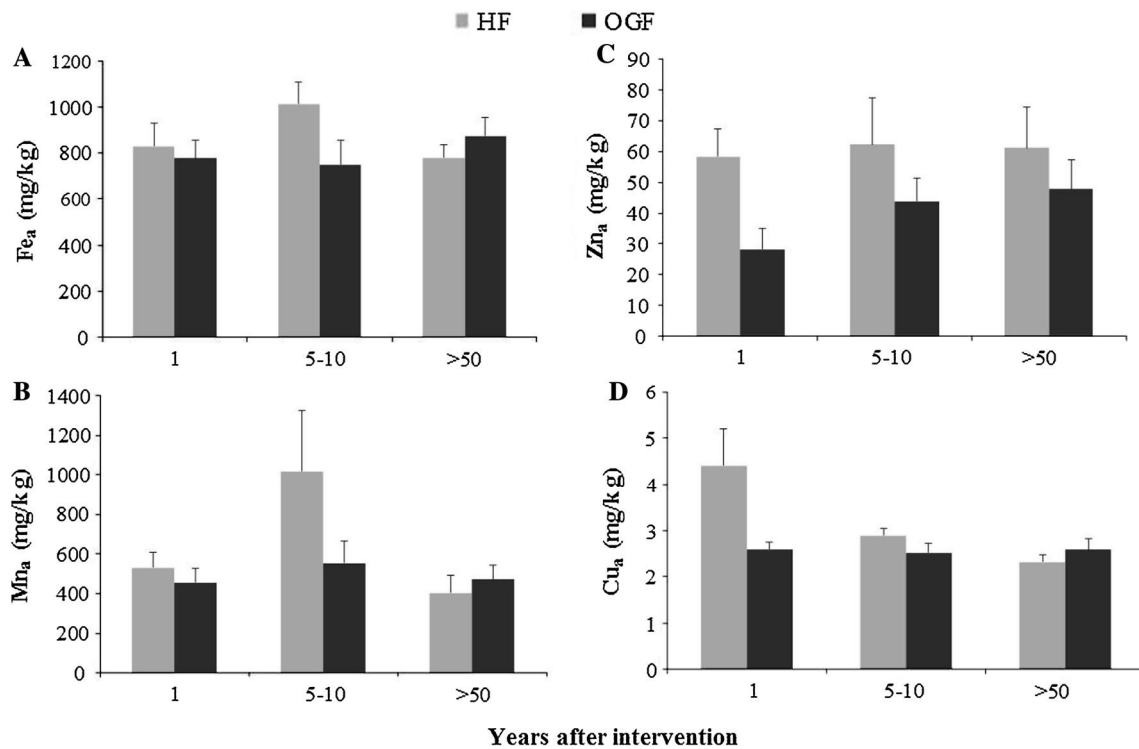


Fig. 2 Mean values (\pm standard error) of available concentrations micronutrients (Fe_a , Mn_a , Zn_a , and Cu_a) in the uppermost 10 cm of soils from *N. pumilio* forests intervened by shelterwood-cut (harvested forest—HF) and old growth forests (OGF) with different years after intervention

214 content (10–38 %), and predominantly fine-textured soils
 215 characteristic of the study area (Romanyá et al. 2005,
 216 Gerding and Thiers 2002, Nóvoa-Muñoz et al. 2008).
 217 Micronutrient concentrations showed high spatial vari-
 218 ability ($P < 0.05$) when comparing old growth forests
 219 (Table 1), which did not differ in their forest structure
 220 (Mansilla 2013). Fe and Mn presented the greatest

variability (Fe : $F = 5.60$, $P = 0.0014$; Mn : $F = 5.13$, $P = 0.0023$). This variability may be related to the natural
 221 heterogeneity of soils in the area, which is given by their
 222 glacial origin (Rabassa and Coronato 2007; Panigatti
 223 2010). Despite this heterogeneity, Fe_a presented an
 224 increased gradient in the EW direction. Furthermore, there
 225 are other variables that could control the availability of
 226
 227

Table 1 Two-way ANOVA for available Fe (Fe_a), Mn (Mn_a), Zn (Zn_a), and Cu (Cu_a) concentrations (mg/kg) in soil samples from *Nothofagus pumilio* forests, considering forest practices (FP) and years after intervention (YAI) as main factors of variation

Source	df	Fe_a F(P)	Mn_a F(P)	Zn_a F(P)	Cu_a F(P)
Between subject effects					
YAI	2	0.41 (0.663)	2.83 (0.069)	0.66 (0.521)	5.84 (0.005)
FP	1	1.07 (0.305)	0.56 (0.456)	6.39 (0.014)	5.70 (0.021)
Interaction					
YAI \times FP	2	2.05 (0.139)	1.68 (0.197)	0.73 (0.485)	4.43 (0.017)
Factor	Level	Averages			
YAI	1	804.60 ^a	493.87 ^a	43.34 ^a	3.51 ^b
	5–10	883.22 ^a	786.33 ^a	53.02 ^a	2.70 ^{ab}
	>50	827.75 ^a	436.53 ^a	54.38 ^a	2.45 ^a
FP	HF	875.78 ^a	650.82 ^a	60.54 ^b	3.21 ^b
	OGF	801.27 ^a	493.67 ^a	39.95 ^a	2.56 ^a

Different letters in the same column show significant differences by Tukey ($P < 0.05$)
 HF harvested forest, OGF old growth forests (control), df degree of freedom, F(P) Fisher test (Probability)

228 nutrients in the soils, such as texture, mineral composition,
 229 temperature and water regime, among others (Fageria et al.
 230 2002, Kabata-Pendias 2004).

231 Available Fe and Mn concentrations of the forest floor
 232 were not affected by the forest practices or by years after
 233 intervention ($P > 0.05$, Table 2). However, significant
 234 differences were found in Mn concentrations between years
 235 after intervention ($P = 0.069$). In the present study, a clear
 236 difference was observed particularly for Mn in sites with
 237 5–10 years after intervention, being the availability of this
 238 nutrient at harvested forests higher than controls (Fig. 2a,
 239 b; Table 2). Although the solubility of Mn always increases
 240 with the increase of soil acidity (Rengel 2007), high values
 241 of Mn found along with higher pH values in harvested sites
 242 compared to controls (Mansilla 2013) could be related to
 243 the ability of Mn to form anionic complexes and to com-
 244 plex with organic ligands. This situation could have been
 245 contributed to the increment of Mn solubility in soils with
 246 alkaline pH range (Kabata-Pendias 2011). In this sense,
 247 Caldentey et al. (2001) reported that shelterwood-cut sil-
 248 vicultural systems produce an increment in Mn levels and a
 249 decrease in Fe concentrations in L layer of the forest floor.
 250 The difference in micronutrient pools reflects how these
 251 nutrients are recycling in harvested vs control sites.
 252 Additionally it indicates the demand for these elements in
 253 relation to return to soil and uptake by young lenga trees at
 254 both sites. This also would imply that those differences
 255 could be manifested in F and H layers of the forest floor
 256 through the course of the time.

257 Available Zn concentration in harvested forests was
 258 increased by over 65 % compared to control forests
 259 ($F = 6.39$, $P = 0.014$). No differences were observed
 260 when considering years after intervention (Fig. 2c;

261 Table 2). Zn is a micronutrient with relatively high
 262 mobility in the Earth’s surface and its cycling may be
 263 increased by plant and organic debris accumulation, and
 264 agricultural practices (Huang and Jin 2008). This charac-
 265 teristic could explain the higher Zn concentration found in
 266 harvested sites. These results agree with those found by
 267 Caldentey et al. (2001).

268 Available Cu concentration was the only micronutrient
 269 that showed significant interaction ($F = 4.43$, $P = 0.017$)
 270 between treatments (Fig. 2d; Table 2). In contrast to Cal-
 271 dentey et al. (2001) that found no differences between
 272 control and harvested forests, in this study available Cu
 273 content showed an increase of 69 % in soils harvested
 274 1 year ago compared to the control ($F = 9.60$,
 275 $P = 0.0069$) and a rise up to 48 % in the other sites with
 276 more years after intervention ($F = 9.74$, $P = 0.0008$).
 277 High affinity between Cu and organic matter indicates that
 278 most of the available Cu is complexed with the soil organic
 279 matter (Kabata-Pendias 2011). It is known that this high
 280 affinity reduces the rate of mineralization (Parat et al.
 281 2002) favoring humidification and subsequent accumula-
 282 tion in surface soil levels. The highest values of C in soils
 283 recorded for sites of 1 year after intervention are consistent
 284 with these results (Mansilla 2013).

285 Similar to available micronutrient concentrations,
 286 medium-term reservoirs of soil followed the sequence
 287 $Fe > Mn > Zn > Cu$, for both harvested and control
 288 forests (Fig. 3a–d). Available Fe reservoirs showed a
 289 mean value of 0.33 Mg/ha, with a minimum of 0.02 Mg/
 290 ha in controls of 5–10 years, and a maximum of
 291 0.73 Mg/ha in controls of forest with more than 50 years
 292 after intervention (Fig. 3a). The average value of avail-
 293 able Mn reservoir was 0.22 Mg/ha; with a range between

Table 2 Two-way ANOVA for available Fe (Fe_a), Mn (Mn_a), Zn (Zn_a), and Cu (Cu_a) concentrations (mg/kg) in soil samples from *Nothofagus pumilio* forests, considering forest practices (FP) and years after intervention (YAI) as main factors of variation

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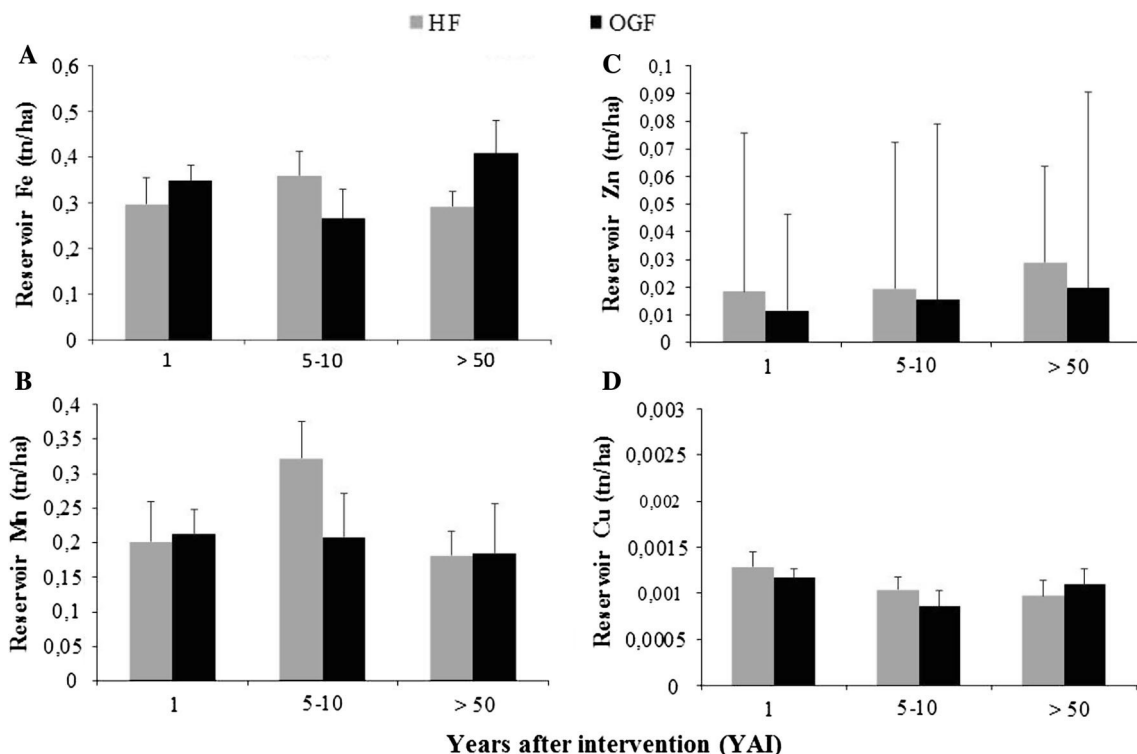


Fig. 3 Mean values (\pm standard error) of micronutrients reservoirs (Fe, Mn, Zn, and Cu) in the uppermost 10 cm of soils from *N. pumilio* forests intervened by shelterwood-cut (harvested forest—HF) and old growth forests (OGF) with different years after intervention

Table 3 Two-way ANOVA for nutrient reservoirs (Fe, Mn, Zn, and Cu) (Mg/ha) in soil samples from *Nothofagus pumilio* forests, considering forest practices (FP) and years after intervention (YAI) as main factors of variation

Source	df	Fe F(P)	Mn F(P)	Zn F(P)	Cu F(P)
Between subject effects					
YAI	2	0.45 (0.684)	0.76 (0.475)	1.41 (0.255)	2.37 (0.104)
FP	1	0.11 (0.740)	0.74 (0.392)	4.16 (0.047)	0.49 (0.485)
Interaction					
YAI \times FP	2	2.56 (0.088)	1.07 (0.352)	0.05 (0.948)	0.89 (0.417)
Factor	Level	Averages			
YAI	1	0.32 ^a	0.21 ^a	0.01 ^a	1.2exp-03 ^a
	5-10	0.30 ^a	0.25 ^a	0.02 ^a	9.0exp-04 ^a
	>50	0.35 ^a	0.18 ^a	0.02 ^a	1.0exp-03 ^a
FP	HF	0.32 ^a	0.24 ^a	0.02 ^b	1.1exp-03 ^a
	OGF	0.33 ^a	0.19 ^a	0.01 ^a	1.0exp-03 ^a

Different letters in the same column show significant differences by Tukey ($P < 0.05$)
 HF harvested forest, OGF old growth forests (control), df degree of freedom, F (P) Fisher test (Probability)

294 0.02 and 0.95 Mg/ha, both values recorded for harvested
 295 forests (Fig. 3b). In the case of Zn, available reservoir
 296 averaged 0.018 Mg/ha, with values between 0.0017 and
 297 0.070 Mg/ha; both registered in harvested sites with
 298 more than 50 years after intervention (Fig. 3c).

Available Cu showed an average value of 0.0010 Mg/ha
 299 ranging between 0.0001 and 0.0022 Mg/ha (Fig. 3d).
 300 Similar values of Cu were recorded by Peña-Rodríguez
 301 et al. (2013) for O horizons; however, reservoirs of the
 302 other micronutrients were significantly lower. The great
 303

304 variability shown in the case of Zn agrees with Peña
305 Rodríguez et al. (2013).

306 None of the studied reservoirs was affected by consid-
307 ered treatments (Table 3), with the exception of Zn. Har-
308 vested sites showed higher Zn values respect to the control
309 ($F = 4.16, P = 0.047$), according to the reported concen-
310 tration. Similar results were obtained for the reservoir layer
311 of the forest floor litter in forests of *N. pumilio* recently
312 managed (Caldentey et al. 2001). The contribution of litter
313 with different quality received by each site could play a
314 major role in micronutrients recycling (Mansilla et al.
315 2009). In deciduous forest ecosystems, Gallardo et al.
316 (1998) maintained that greater proportion of Zn returned to
317 the soil through canopy leaching.

318 Although the differences between years after inter-
319 vention for most micronutrients were not relevant, it is
320 remarkable that the differences of Fe and Mn concentra-
321 tions between harvested sites and controls sites were
322 greater at sites of 5–10 years after intervention. However,
323 in the case of Zn and Cu those differences were observed
324 in sites of 1 year after intervention. Data dispersion may
325 have masked the differences between treatments, so it
326 would be important to consider for future studies a larger
327 number of samples because of the great natural variability
328 of fuegian soils. Because control sites are nearby har-
329 vested sites, found differences between them are due to
330 forest management. This causes a series of changes in
331 forest biotic (Martínez Pastur et al. 2000; Sparagino et al.
332 2001; Lencinas et al. 2009) and abiotic factors (Promis
333 et al. 2010; Martínez Pastur et al. 2011), which could
334 affect the dynamics of soil microorganisms involved in
335 AQ5 micronutrients recycling, water availability, soil com-
336 paction, etc.

337 Trace elements are defined as elements that are present
338 at low concentrations (mg/Kg or less) in most soils, plants,
339 and living organisms (Phipps 1981). Therefore, higher
340 nutrient concentrations observed in harvested sites may
341 cause toxicity problems in plants as well as in other com-
342 ponents of the forest ecosystem. In contrast to agroec-
343 osystems, where if more trace elements are introduced
344 than those naturally present, they are accumulated in
345 landscapes over long periods and may eventually be
346 released to surface and ground waters, affecting both
347 aquifers and aquatic ecosystems (Zhenli et al. 2005), the
348 effect of intervention on micronutrient concentration is
349 poorly known. For this reason, future research needs to
350 focus on the balance of micronutrients in forest ecosys-
351 tems, as well as on quantification micronutrients transport
352 AQ6 from forest ecosystems to the whole environment. Since
353 these elements are essential to the vegetation, it is neces-
354 sary to know them because they are part of the factors that
355 affect the regeneration of the southernmost forests of the
356 world.

Conclusions

357
358 These results are the first data about the dynamic of soil
359 micronutrients, in terms of concentration and reservoir,
360 present in *N. pumilio* harvested forests of Tierra del Fuego.
361 It concludes that micronutrient availability changes at short
362 term after forest harvesting; thus, the inclusion of soil
363 fertility assessment in forest management plans should be
364 incorporated to preserve the fertility of *N. pumilio* forest
365 soils, assuring in this way forest sustainability.

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