1	Clear-cutting without additional regeneration treatments can trigger successional setbacks
2	prolonging the expected time to compositional recovery in boreal forests
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22 Abstract

Clear-cutting is one of the most widespread forestry practices used in boreal forests. 23 24 Clear-cutting of boreal forests in late successional stages could trigger reversion of successional trajectories back toward forests of earlier stages. Such successional setbacks 25 could generate sustainability issues by prolonging the expected time to compositional 26 27 recovery after clear-cutting. This could lead to overestimation of allowable cuts of 28 economically important late-successional species if the occurrence of successional 29 setbacks remains unassessed. Our objective was to assess whether clear-cutting without 30 additional regeneration treatments has triggered successional setbacks. We studied postclearcut successional trajectories by using forest inventory data in post-clearcut stands, in 31 light of conceptual successional dynamics models. These data covered the actively 32 managed boreal forest region of Quebec, eastern Canada, which is classified into two 33 ecological regions, themselves subdivided into eastern (cool-wet) and western (warm-34 35 dry) sub regions. Clear-cutting triggered successional setbacks in half of these regions. Such setbacks could prolong, by at least an additional century, the expected time to 36 compositional recovery after clear-cutting. To prevent the overestimation of allowable 37 38 cuts of economically important late-successional species, foresters could monitor postclear-cut successional trajectories to assess if setbacks were triggered. Post-clear-cut 39 40 successional setbacks occurred in the two western ecological regions where climatic 41 conditions are warmer and drier than in their eastern counterpart where no setbacks 42 occurred. Hence, sustainability issues brought on by successional setbacks may be 43 exacerbated by climate change. Finally, furthering our understanding of the

- 44 transformation of successional dynamics by anthropogenic disturbances will be essential
- 45 to insure sustainable forestry practices.
- 46
- 47 Keywords: successional dynamics; forest landscapes; allowable cuts; sustainable
- 48 forestry; climate change.

50 Introduction

Clear-cutting is one of the most widespread forestry practices used in boreal forests (Cyr 51 et al. 2009; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018; Boucher et al. 2021). It removes the entirety 52 of the mature forest cover, which can favor the establishment of early successional light-53 demanding species to the detriment of pre-established late-successional, shade-tolerant 54 55 species (Carleton and MacLellan 1994; Chen and Popadiouk 2002; Laguerre et al. 2009; Danneyrolles et al. 2019). Hence, clear-cutting of forests in late successional stages could 56 trigger the reversion of successional trajectories back toward forests of earlier stages 57 (Lieffers et al. 2008; Cyr et al. 2009; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018). Such successional 58 setbacks could generate sustainability issues by prolonging the expected time to 59 compositional recovery after clear-cutting (van der Veen et al. 1997; Angelstam and 60 Kuuluvainen 2004; Barrette et al. 2020). More especially, this could lead to 61 overestimation of allowable cuts of economically important late-successional species if 62 63 the occurrence of successional setbacks remains unassessed. National forest inventory data available worldwide could be useful for identifying the 64 occurrence of successional setbacks since they are gathered to monitor long-term forest 65 66 growth and compositional change over large areas and diverse climatic conditions (de Bello et al. 2020; Barrette et al. 2021; Heym et al. 2021). However, a significant problem 67 68 with these data sources is a general lack of information on pre-clearcut composition, 69 making it difficult to identify the occurrence of post-clearcut successional setbacks in a straightforward manner (Didion et al. 2009; de Bello et al. 2020). A way to circumvent 70 71 this problem could be to study national forest inventory data in light of conceptual 72 successional dynamics models developed for predicting potential natural vegetation (van

73	der Veen et al. 1997; Didion et al. 2009; Barrette et al. 2020). Potential natural vegetation
74	is a land classification unit that is determined by climate, superficial deposits, soil texture,
75	slope, drainage and understory indicator plant species, tree species, and which predicts
76	stand composition, but only for the latest successional stage (Grondin et al. 2013;
77	Robitaille et al. 2015; Prach et al. 2016). Since conceptual successional dynamics models
78	predict stand compositions of all successional stages, their use can help determine the
79	stage toward which the successional trajectory of post-clearcut stands is oriented
80	(Barrette et al. 2020; Keane et al. 2020). If the successional trajectory of these post-
81	clearcut stands generally points toward early successional stages (i.e. early successional
82	light-demanding species predominate late-successional, shade-tolerant species), this
83	suggest that successional setbacks occurs (van der Veen et al. 1997; Cyr et al. 2009;
84	Didion et al. 2009).
85	The actively managed boreal forest (529 000 km ²) of the province of Quebec, eastern
86	Canada, make up about 1% of the world's boreal forest area (National Forestry Database
87	2020). Since the early 20 th century, clear-cutting has been the most widespread forestry
88	practices used in boreal forests of Quebec (Barrette and Bélanger 2007; Boucher et al.
89	2021). These clearcuts generally have occurred in mature and old-growth forests
90	dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species (Bergeron 2000; Cyr et al. 2009;
91	Boucher et al. 2017; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018). Our objective was to assess
92	whether clear-cutting without additional regeneration treatments has triggered
93	successional setbacks in boreal forests. To do this, we studied post-clearcut successional
94	trajectories by using Quebec's forest inventory data in post-clearcut stands, in light of
95	conceptual successional dynamics models (Prach et al. 2016; Barrette et al. 2020; Keane

et al. 2020). We studied successional trajectories by analyzing species composition in 5
97 935 plots located in post-clearcut stands ranging in age from 1- to 91-years-old. To
98 determine if the trajectory of post-clearcut stands was oriented toward early successional
99 stages, we compared the transition of their composition versus the predicted compositions
100 of all successional stages obtained from the conceptual successional dynamics models.

101

102 Materials and methods

103 *Study area*

Our study area encompasses the actively managed boreal forest region of Quebec, eastern 104 105 Canada, which is classified into two ecological regions, themselves subdivided into eastern and western sub regions (Grondin et al. 2007; Fig. 1). Climatic conditions are 106 warmer and drier in the western part of an ecological region compared to its eastern 107 counterpart (Table 1). The main natural disturbances include insect outbreaks (e.g. 108 109 eastern spruce budworm [Choristoneura fumiferana]), windthrows and wildfire, which is the main ecological driver in western ecological regions (Boucher et al. 2014; Boucher et 110 111 al. 2021). The most abundant native tree species are black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Miller) 112 B.S.P.), balsam fir (Abies balsamea (L.) Miller) and white birch (Betula papyrifera 113 Marsh.). Depending on the ecological region, these species are found in mixtures with 114 varying densities of companion species, such as white spruce (*Picea glauca* (Moench) Voss), jack pine (Pinus banksiana Lambert), eastern white cedar (Thuja occidentalis 115 116 (L.)), eastern larch or tamarack (Larix laricina (Du Roi) K. Koch), balsam poplar 117 (Populus balsamifera L.), bigtooth aspen (Populus grandidentata Michaux) and trembling aspen (Populus tremuloides Michaux) (MRN 2013). 118

119 *Data*

We used sample plots (n = 5.935; Fig. 1) of the forest inventory data of Quebec, Canada 120 121 (MRNF 2006a; 2006b). To monitor forest growth, plots were spread across the forest area in a stratified random sampling design. We selected all plots that were established 122 after clear-cutting, located in the balsam fir-white birch (western, n = 700, eastern, n =123 124 3053) and black spruce (western, n = 1814, eastern, n = 368) ecological regions. Preclearcut stand conditions or disturbance history were not available. To be selected, plots 125 also had to be located on the typical potential natural vegetation of the ecological region 126 (e.g. on black spruce potential natural vegetation in the black spruce ecological region) 127 according to the forest inventory data (MRNF 2009). Five percent of the plots were 128 permanent sample plots measured up to 4 times while the other 95% were temporary 129 sample plots measured only once. Trees (diameter at breast height, $DBH \ge 9.1$ cm) were 130 counted by species and by 2-cm DBH classes in either 400-m² circular plots (forest 131 height ≥ 7 m) or 100-m² circular plots (forest height < 7 m). Saplings (DBH 1.1–9.0 cm) 132 were counted by species and by 2-cm DBH classes in concentric 40-m² circular subplots. 133 Clearcuts were performed, between 1919 and 2016, by removing the entirety of the 134 135 mature forest cover. Clearcuts in the ecological regions covered by our study have always been dedicated to supply to pulp and paper industry in addition to the sawmill industry 136 137 both of which target all commercial trees (i.e. $DBH \ge 9.1$ cm) in mature and old-growth 138 forests dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species (Barrette and Bélanger 139 2007; Alvarez et al. 2011; Boucher et al. 2021). Clearcutting without any particular 140 modalities (82% of plots) and clearcutting with modalities to protect pre-established 141 regeneration (17%) occurred during the complete period of the study while clearcutting

with modalities to protect pre-established regeneration and soils (< 1%) occurred only in 142 143 the last ten years. Moreover, the three modalities can be considered similar for analysis purposes also because the majority of clearcuts without any particular modalities most 144 probably have been done in winter (MFFP 2020) during which the snow cover offered a 145 protection to pre-established regeneration and soils (Archambault et al. 2006; Wolf et al. 146 147 2008). We removed, from the data set, all plots in which natural (e.g. fire, insect outbreak, windthrow) or anthropogenic (e.g. thinning modalities, plantation scenario) 148 disturbances other than clearcutting occurred. 149

150

151 *Data analysis*

152 To determine if the trajectory of post-clearcut stands was oriented toward early successional stages we compared the transition of their composition to the predicted 153 compositions of all successional stages obtained from the conceptual successional 154 155 dynamics models. Models were developed by Barrette et al. (2020) for the two main types of potential natural vegetation that are found in the boreal forest of eastern Canada, 156 i.e. balsam fir-white birch forests (Fig. 2) and black spruce forests (Fig. 3). Development 157 158 of the conceptual models was based on a synthesis of available knowledge regarding 159 successional dynamics occurring in the boreal forest of eastern Canada (Bergeron 2000; 160 Chen and Popadiouk 2002; MRN 2013; Grondin et al. 2013; Maleki et al. 2020). In order to allow the development of comprehensive models, model complexity was reduced by 161 162 grouping species according to their capacity to dominate the forest cover (i.e. dominant 163 or companion species) and shade tolerance (i.e. tolerant or intolerant species). Species groups were classified as dominant intolerant (DI), dominant tolerant (DT), and 164

companion tolerant (CT) species. The models were driven by five natural processes (i.e. 165 regeneration, growth, self-thinning, senescence and natural disturbances) within four 166 167 developmental stages (i.e., regeneration, young, mature, old) and four successional stages (i.e. early, transition, stabilization and equilibrium). Early and transition stages are 168 169 considered early successional stages while stabilization and equilibrium stages are 170 considered late successional stages (Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018; Barrette et al. 2020; Maleki et al. 2020). In the early successional stage of the balsam fir-white birch potential 171 natural vegetation model, DI species are the only ones present. In the transition 172 successional stage, DT species appear and can come to co-dominate stand composition. 173 In the stabilization successional stage, CT species can appear, but they remain 174 subdominant while they are more abundant than DI species in the equilibrium 175 successional stage. In the early successional stage of the black spruce potential natural 176 vegetation model, DI and DT species can occur alone or co-dominate stand composition, 177 178 because both species groups can come back after stand replacing fires. Moreover, CT can now occur in the transition stage. 179 180 We analyzed the transition of the composition of sapling density and tree basal area in 181 post-clearcut stands separately for each of the four ecological regions with two-way analysis of variance, which was implemented through linear mixed-effects models 182 183 (PROC MIXED; SAS/STAT 15.1 (2018) of SAS software 9.4) with stand age groups 184 (10-year classes) and species groups, and their interaction, as fixed effects, and plots as a 185 random effect. We tested mean sapling density and tree basal area differences using a 186 simulation method (LSMESTIMATE statement) between the youngest and oldest age 187 groups within each species group and between species groups (pairwise) within the oldest

age group. A species group predominated composition (e.g. early successional lightdemanding species predominate late-successional, shade-tolerant species latesuccessional, shade-tolerant species) if its basal area or density was statistically significantly higher than the basal area or density of any other species group. We used α = 0.05 as a significance threshold. We log-transformed the data to meet normality assumptions. We present data back-transformed to their original scales, for the sake of clarity.

195

196 **Results**

197 Western balsam fir–white birch ecological region

198 The successional trajectory of trees in post-clearcut stands pointed toward the

199 composition of an early successional stage (i.e. transition stage: $DI \ge DT$; Fig. 2 and 4a).

After an increase over more than 40 years (Table 2; t = 5.2, p < 0.001), mean basal area

of DI species was two times higher than the basal area of DT species (t = 3.16, p =

202 0.002).

203 The successional trajectory of saplings in post-clearcut stands also pointed toward the

composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT > DI \ge CT$; Fig. 2

and 4b). Mean density of DT species remained stable over the 40 year-period (Table 2; t

206 = 0.65, p = 0.513), and then was three times higher than density of DI species (t = 2.34, p

207 = 0.019) while density of DI species was similar to the density of CT species (t = 1.55, p

= 0.122). Finally, mean density of non-commercial species (NC) was abundant only in

the first 20 years.

211 Eastern balsam fir-white birch ecological region

212 The successional trajectory of trees in post-clearcut stands pointed toward the

- 213 composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT > DI \ge CT$; Fig. 2
- and 4c). After an increase over more than 60 years (Table 2; t = 26.4, p < 0.001), mean
- basal area of DT species was five times higher than the basal area of DI species (t = 15.0,

216 p < 0.001) while basal area of DI species was similar to the basal area of CT species (t =

217 1.33, p = 0.182)

- 218 The successional trajectory of saplings in post-clearcut stands also pointed toward the
- composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT > DI \ge CT$; Fig. 2
- and 4d). Mean density of DT species remained stable over the 60-year-period (t = -1.11, p

221 = 0.269), but was then eight times higher than the density of DI species (t = 11.2, p < 10.269)

222 0.001) while density of DI species was two times higher than the density of CT species (t223 = 3.06, p = 0.002).

224

225 Western black spruce ecological region

226 The successional trajectory of trees in post-clearcut stands pointed toward the

- 227 composition of an early successional stage (i.e. transition stage: $DI \ge DT > CT$; Fig. 3
- and 5a). After an increase over more than 30 years (Table 2; t = 19.5, p < 0.001), mean
- basal area of DI species was similar to the basal area of DT species (t = 0.94, p = 0.349)
- while DT species was two times higher than CT species (t = 19.9, p < 0.001).
- 231 Conversely, the successional trajectory of saplings in post-clearcut stands pointed
- toward the composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT > DI \ge$

CT; Fig. 3 and 5b). After an increase over more than 30 years (t = 6.25, p < 0.001), mean density of DT species was three times higher than the density of DI species (t = 12.27, p< 0.001) while DI species were similar to CT species (t = -0.27, p = 0.790). Finally, mean density of NC species was abundant only during the first 20 years.

237

238 Eastern black spruce ecological region

239 The successional trajectory of trees in post-clearcut stands pointed toward the

240 composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT \ge CT$; Fig. 3 and 5c).

After an increase over more than 40 years (Table 2; t = 12.9, p < 0.001), mean basal area

of DT was 1.2 times higher than the basal area of CT (t = 2.82, p = 0.005), while DI

243 species were almost absent.

244 The successional trajectory of saplings in post-clearcut stands also pointed toward the

composition of a late successional stage (i.e. stabilization stage: $DT \ge CT$; Fig. 3 and 5d).

After an increase over more than 40 years (t = 6.49, p < 0.001), mean density of DT

species was similar to the density of CT species (t = -1.6, p = 0.109) while DI species

248 were almost absent. Finally, the mean density of Non-Commercial species (NC) was

abundant only during the first 20 years.

250

251 Discussion

252 Clear-cutting without additional regeneration treatments triggered successional setbacks

253 in half of the ecological regions. Effectively, after clear-cutting, successional trajectories

of trees pointed toward the composition of an early successional stage in the western

black spruce and western balsam fir ecological regions. Clear-cutting did not trigger 255 256 successional setbacks in in the eastern black spruce and eastern balsam fir ecological 257 regions where post-clear-cut successional trajectories of trees and of saplings pointed toward the composition of a late successional stage. The main limit of our study is that 258 259 we could not consider the important influence pre-clearcut stand condition has on post-260 clearcut species composition because information on pre-clearcut stand condition was not available. However, we are confident that these clearcuts generally have occurred in 261 mature and old-growth forests dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species 262 263 (Bergeron 2000; Cyr et al. 2009; Boucher et al. 2017; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018). Effectively, all plots were on potential natural vegetation where successional trajectories 264 always leads to stands dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species (Grondin et 265 al. 2013; Robitaille et al. 2015; Prach et al. 2016). Moreover, the ecological regions 266 covered by our study have always been dedicated to supply to pulp and paper industry in 267 268 addition to the sawmill industry both of which target mature and old-growth forests dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species (Barrette and Bélanger 2007; 269 Alvarez et al. 2011; Boucher et al. 2021). Finally, there is evidences in our own study that 270 271 pre-clearcut stand condition was dominated by late-successional shade-tolerant species. Notably, successional trajectories of saplings in the two western regions pointed toward 272 273 the composition of a late successional stage. These saplings probably established 274 themselves before clear-cutting under the canopy of a late stage stand for their trajectory 275 to already be pointing toward the composition of a late stage while now being in the 276 understory of an early stage stand (Chen and Popadiouk 2002; Laquerre et al. 2009). This 277 indicates that these stands, now in an early stage, were in a late stage before clear-cutting;

278	hence, clear-cutting did indeed trigger a successional setback. The occurrence of
279	companion tolerant species in early stage stands is a similar indication that these early
280	stage stands were in a late stage before clear-cutting. Effectively, companion tolerant
281	species are mostly found in late stage stands since they generally do not regenerate after
282	fire (Bergeron 2000; Barrette et al. 2019; Maleki et al. 2020). Moreover, these companion
283	tolerant species could be legacies from clear-cutting of late stage stands since clear-
284	cutting can maintain pre-established regeneration to a certain degree (Bouchard et al.
285	2019; Boucher et al. 2021).
286	Clear-cutting without additional regeneration treatments triggered successional
287	setbacks in the two warmer and drier regions probably because it favored dominant
288	intolerant species (e.g. Betula papyrifera, Acer rubrum, Populus sp., Pinus sp.) to the
289	detriment of dominant tolerant species (e.g. Acer saccharum, Betula alleghaniensis,
290	Abies Balsamea, Picea mariana). Clear-cutting can favor the establishment of such early
291	successional light-demanding species to the detriment of pre-established late-
292	successional, shade-tolerant species because it removes the mature forest cover in its
293	entirety, which puts seedlings under full sunlight (Carleton and MacLellan 1994;
294	Laquerre et al. 2009). Successional setbacks probably occurred because clear-cutting did
295	not spare sufficient pre-established seedlings of dominant tolerant species for them to
296	steer succession (Wurtz and Zasada 2001; Chen and Popadiouk 2002). Effectively,
297	natural disturbances that kill seedlings (e.g. fire) can trigger successional trajectories to
298	revert back toward forests of earlier stages while natural disturbances that spare pre-
299	established seedlings (e.g. insect outbreaks, windthrows) can maintain a successional

trajectory oriented toward late successional stages (Bergeron 2000; Kuuluvainen and
Gauthier 2018; Barrette et al. 2020).

302 Post-clear-cut successional setbacks occurred in the two western ecological regions where climatic conditions are warmer and drier than in their eastern counterpart where 303 304 conditions are cooler and wetter and where no setbacks occurred. Warmer and drier 305 conditions usually enables dominant intolerant species to steer successional trajectories generally more so than for dominant tolerant species or companion tolerant species 306 307 (Boisvert-Marsh et al. 2014; Brecka et al. 2018; Boulanger and Pascual Puigdevall 2021). For instance, in only modestly warmer conditions (i.e. +2 °C), deciduous broadleaf trees 308 may become more dominant to the detriment of conifers (Schaphoff et al. 2016). Such a 309 temperature differential is generally found between warmer and drier western ecological 310 regions where we found that successional setbacks did occur compared to cooler and 311 wetter eastern ecological regions where they did not occur. Moreover, a higher frequency 312 313 of drought even brought on by drier conditions can favor drought-tolerant species such as Pinus spp. (Brecka et al. 2018). More specifically, red maple, white birch and poplar 314 species may outperform balsam fir, eastern white cedar, yellow birch as well *Picea spp*. 315 316 under warmer and drier conditions (Boisvert-Marsh et al. 2014; Boulanger et al. 2019; Vaughn et al. 2021). Warmer and drier conditions also favor short fire cycles (e.g. 150 317 318 years; Boucher et al. 2017; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018). Hence, clearcuts in western 319 regions where such conditions occur could also be more susceptible to being colonized by dominant intolerant species occurring in neighboring areas, since these species are 320 321 frequent in fire-prone landscapes (Bouchard et al. 2019; Brice et al. 2019). In cooler and 322 wetter eastern regions where fire cycles are longer (e.g. 400 years), dominant intolerant

species may be generally less frequent than dominant tolerant species in the landscape
hence also be less available to colonize neighboring clearcuts (Boulanger et al. 2021).

325

326 Forest management implications

327 Post-clear-cut successional setbacks could prolong, by at least an additional century, the 328 expected time to compositional recovery after clear-cutting without additional regeneration treatments (Bergeron 2000; Kuuluvainen and Gauthier 2018; Barrette et al 329 330 2020). To prevent the overestimation of allowable cuts of economically important late-331 successional species, foresters could monitor post-clear-cut successional trajectories to assess if setbacks were triggered. Moreover, to prevent successional setbacks, foresters 332 could insure that regeneration of late-successional species prior to logging is sufficiently 333 established to steer successional trajectories toward forests of late successional stages 334 after clear-cutting. Furthermore, care should be taken during clear-cutting to spare 335 336 enough pre-established regeneration of late-successional species to enable it to steer succession. To wait until stands reach the old-growth developmental stage would 337 338 probably ensure that sufficient regeneration is established to prevent setbacks (Barrette et 339 al. 2020).

Post-clear-cut successional setbacks occurred more frequently in warmer and drier
conditions. Hence, sustainability issues brought on by post-clear-cut successional
setbacks may in turn be exacerbated by climate change in the boreal forest of eastern
Canada, which is believed will become warmer and drier (Flanagan and Syed 2011;
Boisvert-Marsh et al. 2014; Reich et al. 2018). Finally, furthering our understanding of

- 345 the transformation of successional dynamics by anthropogenic disturbances (e.g. forestry,
- 346 climate change) will be essential to insure sustainable forestry practices.

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357

358 Conflict of interest

359 None declared.

360

361 Data availability

362 Data is available at https://mffp.gouv.qc.ca/le-ministere/acces-aux-donnees-gratuites/

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Ecological region	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)	Mean annual number of frost-free days
Balsam fir-white birch			
Western	1.0	1000	175
Eastern	0.5	1300	170
Black spruce			
Western	0.0	900	165
Eastern	-2.0	1100	145

501 Table 1. Climatic conditions in the four ecological regions.

503 Table 2. Analysis of variance and associated probabilities (*p-values*) for mean tree basal

area and mean sapling density in each ecological region. Df num.: numerator degrees-of-

505	freedom; df den.	denominator	degrees-of-freedom.
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-			<i>F</i> -value	
Sources of variation	df num.	df den.	(tree; sapling)	p-value
Western balsam fir-white birch				
Age group	4	2085	81; 12	< 0.001
Species group	3	2085	317; 85	< 0.001
Age group × Species group	12	2085	9; 17	< 0.001
Eastern balsam fir-white birch				
Age group	6	9138	401; 68	< 0.001
Species group	3	9138	2212; 1384	< 0.001
Age group × Species group	18	9138	50; 13	< 0.001
Western black spruce				
Age group	3	5430	228; 31	< 0.001
Species group	3	5430	576; 143	< 0.001
Age group × Species group	9	5430	23; 30	< 0.001
Eastern black spruce				
Age group	4	1089	47; 17	< 0.001
Species group	3	1089	319; 157	< 0.001
Age group × Species group	12	1089	17; 8	< 0.001

507 Figure captions

Fig 1 Location of sample plots (black triangles; n = 5 935) of the forest inventory data for the province of Quebec, eastern Canada. We used data from plots that were established after clear-cutting that was performed between 1919 and 2016 (white line separates the western ecological region from its eastern counterpart).

512 Fig 2 Conceptual successional dynamics model from Barrette et al. (2020) predicting

stand compositions of the different successional stages of the balsam fir-white birch

514 potential natural vegetation.

515 Fig 3 Conceptual successional dynamics model from Barrette et al. (2020) predicting

stand compositions of the different successional stages of the black spruce potential

517 natural vegetation.

Fig 4 Distribution of tree basal area (a, c; diameter at breast height $[DBH] \ge 9.1$ cm) and

sapling density (b, d; DBH: 1.1–9.0 cm) by species groups in sample plots in post-

520 clearcut stands located in the balsam fir-white birch ecological region on balsam fir-

521 white birch potential natural vegetation. Diamonds and horizontal lines in each box

522 represent means and medians, respectively. Boxes enclose the 25th and 75th percentiles

523 (the interquartile range (IQR); whiskers enclose $1.5 \times IQR$; open circles enclose $>1.5 \times$

524 IQR).

525 Fig 5 Distribution of tree basal area (a, c; diameter at breast height $[DBH] \ge 9.1$ cm) and

- sapling density (b, d; DBH: 1.1–9.0 cm) by species groups in sample plots in post-
- 527 clearcut stands located in the black spruce ecological region on black spruce potential
- 528 natural vegetation. Diamonds and horizontal lines in each box represent means and
- 529 medians, respectively. Boxes enclose the 25th and 75th percentiles (the interquartile
- range (IQR); whiskers enclose $1.5 \times IQR$; open circles enclose $>1.5 \times IQR$).

Fig 1.











Fig 5.