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1	Are operational plantations meeting expectations? A large-scale assessment of realized vs	
2	anticipated yield in eastern Canada	
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### 23 Abstract

Forest plantations play an increasingly important role in meeting global demand for 24 25 wood. They usually have higher yield than naturally regenerated forests. Thus, plantations can support economically viable wood production, enable forest conservation 26 elsewere, help mitigate climate change by contributing to carbon sequestration and 27 28 increase forest resilience and resistance to biotic and abiotic stressors. If yield of plantations is not as high as anticipated, then their use could generate important 29 sustainability issues. There are still major gaps in our understanding of the factors that 30 influence yield, even with respect to black spruce, white spruce, and jack pine, three of 31 the most commonly planted tree species in northeastern North America. Our objective 32 was to evaluate the yield of forest plantations of these species over a 416 000 km<sup>2</sup> region 33 that was representative of northeastern North American forests. Contrary to our 34 prediction, realized yield of operational plantations was consistently lower than 35 36 anticipated. Site index and competition both played a significant role in determining the yield of plantations. In the context of uncertain realized yield of operational plantations, 37 we emphasize the necessity of relying on adaptive management to determine harvest 38 39 levels that are compatible with sustainable management objectives.

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41 Keywords: sustainable forest management, allowable cut, silviculture, boreal forest,
42 temperate forest

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### 44 Introduction

Forest plantations play an increasingly important role in meeting global demand for wood 45 products (McEwan et al. 2019) and are established to meet economic, conservation and 46 climate change issues (Thiffault et al. 2023). They usually have higher yield than 47 naturally regenerated forests, given that they make better use of the space due to 48 49 optimized stocking that maximize space use, and applications of cultural treatments such as vegetation management and are based upon genetically improved material (e.g., 50 Ackzell 1993; Paquette and Messier 2010). Thus, plantations can support economically 51 viable wood production (Gardiner and Moore 2014), while enabling forest conservation 52 elsewere (Betts et al. 2021; Royer-Tardif et al. 2021). Plantations can also help mitigate 53 54 climate change by contributing to carbon sequestration (Wade et al. 2019; Ménard et al. 2022; Portmann et al. 2022), and by increasing forest resilience and resistance to biotic 55 and abiotic stressors (Ray et al. 2015; Palik et al. 2022). Hence, issues related to 56 57 sustainability, such as ensuring economically viable wood production, supporting forest conservation, and promoting carbon sequestration, may arise if the yield of plantations 58 59 does not meet anticipated levels.

In forest management plans, forest yield is typically estimated using a combination of field measurements, remote sensing data, and growth and yield models. Yield models for plantations are usually developed for specific tree species, site fertility and management regimes (e.g., Stiell and Berry 1967; Bolghari and Bertrand 1984). They are based upon data that are collected from long-term research plots or from networks of permanent sampling plots, taking into account factors such as tree growth rates, mortality rates, and competition among trees. Yet, yield in forest plantations is driven by a complex array of

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67	factors, including species selection, site preparation, planting density, and management
68	practices. For example, Fu et al. (2007) demonstrated a significant increase in the growth
69	of planted jack pine (Pinus banksiana Lamb.), black spruce (Picea mariana [Mill.]
70	B.S.P.), white pine (Pinus strobus L.), and white spruce (Picea glauca [Moench] Voss)
71	over a 15-year period. This growth was observed to be significantly higher following
72	high mechanical site preparation intensity, without additional vegetation management
73	treatments. However, when chemical vegetation management was applied, site
74	preparation showed no discernible impact on tree growth. Thus, the yield of plantations
75	that are incorporated into forest management plans is highly dependent upon the data that
76	are used for constructing growth and yield models. This dependence stresses the
77	importance of establishing and managing plantations according to the same standards that
78	are used to generate growth and yield models, to ensure that anticipated production is
79	realized. Failure to do so would compromise the attainment of sustainable forest
80	management objectives.
81	Moreover, regional differences in climate, soil and other environmental factors can
82	substantially affect the yield of forest plantations, stressing the need for region-specific
83	predictors of growth. For example, recent research that has simulated the effects of
84	various CO <sub>2</sub> emission scenarios has suggested that stand-level yield under a changing
85	climate will vary by species, site quality, geographic locale, and emission scenario
86	(Newton 2016). Yet, significant gaps remain in our understanding of the factors that
87	influence yield, even with respect to black spruce, white spruce, and jack pine, three of

88

the most frequently planted tree species in northeastern North America (CCFM 2023).

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In this context, our objective was to evaluate the yield of forest plantations, which were 89 established in Quebec, Canada, over a 416 000 km<sup>2</sup> region that is representative of 90 91 northeastern North American forests. More specifically, we aimed to identify the drivers of forest plantation yield. We predicted that plantation yield would be as high as 92 anticipated, given that silviculture scenarios usually comprise adequate vegetation 93 94 management strategies (MRN 2013). We also predicted that site index, planting density and competition would be important drivers of plantation yield (Wiensczyk et al. 2011; 95 Neufeld et al. 2014; Barrette et al. 2019, 2021; Sharma 2022). To verify our predictions, 96 we studied vield in operational plantations of the three most commonly planted tree 97 species in northeastern North America. 98

### **99** Materials and methods

100 *Study area* 

101 Our study area encompasses the actively managed forest region of Quebec (eastern

102 Canada), which includes temperate and boreal forests that have been classified into four

ecological regions (Grondin et al. 2007; Fig. 1). Climatic conditions in southern

104 ecological regions are warmer than in northern regions, as would be expected, while

105 precipitation regimes are generally similar (Table 1).

106 The main natural disturbances include insect outbreaks (e.g., eastern spruce budworm

107 [*Choristoneura fumiferana*]), windthrows and wildfires (Barrette et al. 2020). The most

abundant tree species are black spruce, balsam fir (*Abies balsamea* [L.] Mill.), white or

109 paper birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh.), yellow birch (*B. alleghaniensis* Britt.) and sugar

110 maple (*Acer saccharum* Marsh.). Depending on the ecological region, these species are

111 found in mixtures with varying densities of companion species, such as white spruce, red

112	spruce (Picea rubens Sarg.), jack pine, eastern white pine, red pine (Pinus resinosa Sol.
113	ex Aiton), eastern hemlock (Tsuga canadensis [L.] Carrière), eastern white cedar or
114	arborvitae ( <i>Thuja occidentalis</i> L.), eastern larch or tamarack ( <i>Larix laricina</i> [Du Roi] K.
115	Koch), balsam poplar (Populus balsamifera L.), bigtooth aspen (Populus grandidentata
116	Michx.), trembling aspen (Populus tremuloides Michx.), red maple (Acer rubrum L.),
117	American beech (Fagus grandifolia Ehrh.), red oak (Quercus rubra L.), silver maple
118	(Acer saccharinum L.), American ash (Fraxinus americana L.), American basswood
119	(Tilia americana L.), and American elm (Ulmus americana L.) (MRN 2013).
120	Data
121	We used a network of 475 sample plots that were established by the Government of
122	Quebec to monitor operational plantation yield of the three most commonly planted tree
123	species in northeastern North America, i.e., black spruce, white spruce and jack pine (Fig.
124	1). These plots were established from 1995 to 1999 in plantations that were about 8-
125	years-old at the time. Planted trees were then tagged for monitoring purposes. Trees with
126	DBH (diameter at breast height, 1.3 m) $\ge$ 1.1 cm were counted within 400-m <sup>2</sup> circular
127	plots, by species, origin (i.e., planted or naturally regenerated). DBH of each tree was
128	measured in millimeters. Height (cm) of the 4 highest planted trees of the stand was also
129	measured for dominant height estimation. Measurements were repeated up to six times in
130	each plot, on a 5-year cycle. Vegetation management was performed based on
131	governmental guidelines which includes site preparation and a number of tendings
132	dependent on competition levels (MRN 2013; Barrette et al. 2020b).
133	Potential natural vegetation in each plot was obtained from the Eco-Forest Stand Map
134	(MRNF 2009). Potential natural vegetation is a stand-level land classification unit that is

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135	determined by climate, superficial deposits, soil texture, slope, drainage and indicator
136	plant species in the understory (Grondin et al. 2014). By considering potential natural
137	vegetation, we can anticipate the composition and resilience-driven successional
138	trajectories of a given site (Barrette et al. 2019, 2021). Resilience refers to the capacity of
139	a system to absorb a disturbance and reorganize so that the same structure and functions
140	are essentially recovered (Gunderson, 2000). Assessing potential natural vegetation can
141	assist in determining whether the plantation scenario aligns with or deviates from the
142	resilience-driven successional trajectories. For example, a black spruce plantation
143	scenario carried out on a black spruce potential natural vegetation or a black spruce
144	plantation scenario carried out on a balsam fir potential natural vegetation, respectively.
145	This assignment helps predict whether planted trees would be prone to intraspecific or
146	interspecific competition (Barrette et al. 2019, 2021). Thus, the four ecological regions of
147	our study can support a diversity of potential natural vegetation types, but they will
148	typically maintain the potential natural vegetation of the species that denotes the region,
149	e.g., black spruce-moss region will typically hold black spruce potential natural
150	vegetation (Grondin et al. 2007). It should be noted that a white spruce plantation
151	scenario will always deviate from resilience-driven successional trajectories, given that
152	white spruce potential natural vegetation does not occur within the four ecological
153	regions (Grondin et al. 2007; Barrette et al. 2014; Grondin et al. 2014).
154	Data analysis
155	To evaluate the yield of operational plantations, we compared their realized with their
156	anticipated yield. To obtain realized plantation yield, we calculated stand basal area based

on DBH of planted trees for each plot, by time-since-planting, i.e., classes of 10-15, 16-

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20, 21-25 and 26-34 years. These age classes were used to balance the number of 158 plantations in each class, while representing age classes that are relevant to silviculture. 159 160 To obtain anticipated yield of planted trees, we used stand basal area growth models that were developed for black spruce and jack pine plantations (Auger et al. 2021) and for 161 white spruce plantations (Prégent et al. 2010; Auger and Power 2021). Anticipated yield 162 163 of planted trees for each plantation at each measurement was estimated with the growth model according to their age, planting density and site index (i.e., mean height of the 100 164 highest trees per hectare in meters at age 25-years-old, estimated using equations from 165 Auger et al. 2021 and Prégent et al. 2010). To evaluate competition, we calculated stand 166 basal area based on the DBH of naturally regenerated trees for each plot, by species and 167 time-since-planting. Competition was quantified as a percentage of the total stand basal 168 area, calculated as: (basal area of naturally regenerated trees / (basal area of naturally 169 regenerated trees + basal area of planted trees))  $\times$  100. Planted trees were excluded from 170 171 the assessment of potential competitors, as our focus was on their yield. Composition of the competition was analyzed specifically in plantations with a scenario that deviates 172 173 from or is aligned with resilience-driven successional trajectories. We used potential 174 natural vegetation to determine whether the plantation scenario aligns with or deviates from resilience-driven successional trajectories (Barrette et al. 2019, 2021). 175 176 The difference between realized plantation yield and anticipated yield of planted trees 177 (i.e., yield gap) was calculated for each plantation for the oldest age class (i.e., 26- to 34-178 years-old) since it provides an extended time depth for comprehensive analysis. The yield 179 gap of a given plantation was expressed as a percentage of anticipated yield for that 180 plantation: (realized yield – anticipated yield)/anticipated yield  $\times$  100). Plantations with a

181	realized yield lower than anticipated by more than 5% were considered to be
182	unsuccessful; otherwise, they were considered successful. We analyzed the linear
183	relationship between the yield gap and potential yield drivers (i.e., site index, planting
184	density or competition; Wiensczyk et al. 2011; Neufeld et al. 2014; Barrette et al. 2019,
185	2021; Sharma 2022) with simple linear regressions by ecoregion and species (PROC
186	MIXED, SAS/STAT 15.1; SAS Institute, Cary, NC) .We also analyzed differences
187	between successful and unsuccessful plantations for each potential yield driver with
188	analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA), using yield status (i.e., successful or
189	unsuccessful) as a fixed effect. We used $\alpha = 0.05$ as the significance threshold. Analyses
190	conformed to normality and homogeneity of variance requirements.
191	Results
192	Realized plantation yield
192 193	Realized plantation yield Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig.
192 193 194	<ul><li><i>Realized plantation yield</i></li><li>Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig. 2). Site index was a significant yield driver in boreal regions, more so than in the</li></ul>
192 193 194 195	<ul> <li><i>Realized plantation yield</i></li> <li>Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig.</li> <li>2). Site index was a significant yield driver in boreal regions, more so than in the</li> <li>temperate regions. The yield gap generally decreased with increasing site index in all</li> </ul>
192 193 194 195 196	<ul> <li><i>Realized plantation yield</i></li> <li>Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig.</li> <li>2). Site index was a significant yield driver in boreal regions, more so than in the</li> <li>temperate regions. The yield gap generally decreased with increasing site index in all</li> <li>ecological regions (Fig. 3). In boreal regions, site index of successful plantations was</li> </ul>
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192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200	Realized plantation yield Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig. 2). Site index was a significant yield driver in boreal regions, more so than in the temperate regions. The yield gap generally decreased with increasing site index in all ecological regions (Fig. 3). In boreal regions, site index of successful plantations was always higher than the site index of unsuccessful plantations, while site index was generally similar between successful and unsuccessful plantations in temperate regions (Tables 2 and 3). Planting density was rarely a significant yield driver. The yield gap was almost always
192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200 201	<ul> <li>Realized plantation yield</li> <li>Realized yield was always lower than anticipated yield 26 to 34 years after planting (Fig. 2). Site index was a significant yield driver in boreal regions, more so than in the temperate regions. The yield gap generally decreased with increasing site index in all ecological regions (Fig. 3). In boreal regions, site index of successful plantations was always higher than the site index of unsuccessful plantations, while site index was generally similar between successful and unsuccessful plantations in temperate regions (Tables 2 and 3).</li> <li>Planting density was rarely a significant yield driver. The yield gap was almost always index of related to planting density (Fig. 4). Moreover, planting density was generally similar</li> </ul>

203 Competition was a significant yield driver in both boreal and temperate regions. The

yield gap generally decreased with increasing competition (Fig. 5). Moreover,

205 competition was always higher in successful plantations than in unsuccessful plantations

206 (Tables 2 and 3).

207 Composition of the competition in unsuccessful plantations

208 In unsuccessful black spruce plantations, balsam fir and hardwoods were the main

209 naturally regenerated species when the plantation scenario deviated from resilience-

210 driven successional trajectories, i.e., black spruce plantations that were located on balsam

fir potential natural vegetations (Fig. 6). Other conifers and black spruce also regenerated

naturally but mainly in boreal regions. When the plantation scenario was aligned with

resilience-driven successional trajectories (i.e., black spruce plantations located on black

spruce potential natural vegetations), black spruce was the main naturally regenerated

species followed mostly by other coniferous and hardwoods in the black spruce moss

region, by other conifers in balsam fir-white birch region, and by balsam fir and

hardwoods in the balsam fir-yellow birch region (Fig. 7).

218 In unsuccessful white spruce plantations, for which the scenario always deviates from

resilience-driven successional trajectories, balsam fir and hardwoods were the main

naturally regenerated species (Fig. 6). Black spruce and other conifers also regeneratednaturally but mainly in boreal regions.

222 In unsuccessful jack pine plantations, balsam fir and hardwoods were the main naturally

regenerated species when the plantation scenario deviated from resilience-driven

successional trajectories, i.e., jack pine plantations that were located on balsam fir

potential natural vegetation types (Fig. 6). Jack pine also regenerated naturally but only in

boreal regions. When the plantation scenario was aligned with resilience-driven
successional trajectories (i.e., jack pine plantations located on black spruce potential
natural vegetations), black spruce was the main naturally regenerated tree species,
followed mostly by jack pine and other coniferous in the black spruce moss region, by
jack pine in the balsam fir-white birch region, and by hardwoods in the balsam fir-yellow
birch region (Fig. 7).

232 Discussion

Contrary to our prediction, realized yield of operational plantations was consistently 233 lower than anticipated yield that had been projected by growth and yield models for 234 plantations of similar ages, planting densities and site indices. The yield gap at ages 26-235 34 varied between -97% and +83%, depending on ecological region and planted species. 236 This finding suggests that anticipated yield may not be achieved in operational 237 plantations, thereby potentially compromising the attainment of sustainable forest 238 239 management objectives. For instance, in Ouebec, where about 20% of annual harvested sites are regenerated using plantation scenarios (Lapointe 2022), the calculation of 240 241 allowable cut levels considers the potential increase in yield of planted areas compared to 242 natural regeneration (Poulin 2013). To account for differences between anticipated and realized yield, an adaptive management process is necessary. Adaptive management is a 243 244 process involving periodic monitoring to assess the achievement of objectives and the 245 need for adaptations in response to new contexts or knowledge (Barrette et al 2014). As 246 such, the calculation of allowable cut levels in Quebec is revised every five years, taking into account the most recent survey data and research findings. This practice is crucial in 247

248	the context of sustainable forest management, where the success of plantation forestry
249	plays a pivotal role in determining the level of sustainable harvest (BFeC 2015).
250	As predicted, site index played a significant role in determining the yield status of
251	plantations in boreal regions, but it did not have much influence on yield status in
252	temperate regions. In boreal regions, we observed that yield of plantations that were
253	established on sites with low site indices was lower than anticipated, while those that
254	were established on sites with higher indices exhibited the anticipated yield. One possible
255	explanation for the yield gap in sites with lower site index could be their
256	underrepresentation in the plot network that was used for constructing growth models.
257	Prégent and Végiard (2000) studied the growth and yield of 41 of the oldest black spruce
258	plantations in northern Quebec on mesic sites (~98%) and found that nearly 34% of the
259	plots that were studied had site quality indices below the minimum value used to
260	construct yield tables for this species at that time (Prégent et al. 1996). Although the
261	latest growth models have incorporated a greater number of plantations, there continues
262	to be an underrepresentation of lower site index classes, notably for black spruce and
263	white spruce plantations (Prégent et al. 2010; Auger et al. 2021).
264	Another factor could be variation in plantation establishment techniques. After harvest,
265	low fertility sites in boreal ecosystems of northeastern Canada are typically colonized by
266	ericaceous shrubs, which negatively affect conifer establishment and growth (Mallik
267	2003). Studies have demonstrated that mechanical site preparation treatments can
268	enhance seedling growth, particularly by reducing understory vegetation cover and
269	rhizomatous growth (Wotherspoon et al. 2020; Reicis et al. 2023). Yet, the intensity of
270	the treatment can influence its effect on seedling growth, with more intensive treatments

271	favouring faster height growth compared to lower intensity treatments (Thiffault et al.
272	2004), thereby affecting the site index over time. Consequently, differences between
273	establishment practices in the modelling plots and operational plantations may lead to
274	variation in yield.
275	Contrary to our prediction, planting density was rarely a driver of yield. Planting density
276	is usually recognized to play an important role in plantation yield (Thiffault et al. 2021).
277	Yet, we may have not been able to link plantation density to the yield status of
278	plantations, given that it did not vary significantly in our plots. Moreover, yield tables for
279	black spruce, white spruce and jack pine are more strongly affected by site index than by
280	planting density (Prégent et al. 2010, Auger et al. 2021).
281	As predicted, competition was a significant driver of yield in both boreal and temperate
282	regions where it played a major role in determining the yield status of plantations.
283	Paquette and Messier (2011) also found that tree yield was determined mostly by the
284	intensity of competition in such regions. Moreover, it is widely recognized that yield of
285	forest plantations is closely linked to competition by naturally regenerating tree species
286	(Wiensczyk et al. 2011; Hawkins et al. 2012; Faure-Lacroix et al. 2013; Neufeld et al.
287	2014; Bérubé-Deschênes et al. 2017). Finally, Anyomi et al. (2014) also found that
288	species composition and successional changes drive yield more so than do climatic
289	effects and site index.
290	Despite vegetation management was performed (MRN 2013; Barrette et al. 2020b),
291	competition from naturally regenerated trees likely occurred in forest plantations because
292	of resilience-driven, successional trajectories. Depending on whether the plantation
293	scenario was aligned with or deviated from resilience-driven successional trajectories,

planted species respectively suffered mostly from intraspecific or interspecific
competition. It is recognized that naturally regenerating tree species can recover to the
detriment of planted species because of the resilience of the natural forest (Barrette et al.
2019, 2021).

298 Forest management implications

299 Forest plantations could generate important sustainability issues if their yield is not as

high as anticipated (Gardiner and Moore 2014; Wade et al. 2019; Betts et al. 2021;

301 Portmann et al. 2022). To ensure that plantations promote sustainability, forest managers

302 could favour establishment of plantations in stands with high site indices, but more

importantly, favour plantation scenarios that are aligned with resilience-driven,

304 successional trajectories that would reduce interspecific competition (Barrette et al. 2019,

305 2021).

Efforts have already been made to map site index values for white spruce, black spruce 306 307 and jack pine plantations in eastern Canada (Barrette et al. 2022). Yet these maps do not consider the potential effects of competition that are incurred by naturally regenerated 308 309 trees. Integrating plantation scenarios that are aligned with resilience-driven successional 310 trajectories to these existing site index maps could help to identify the best sites for establishing forest plantations. Moreover, integration of this information could help 311 312 determine the level of tending that is needed to reach anticipated plantation yield. A 313 within-hectare specific predictors of growth would also eventually be useful to ensure plantation reach anticipated yield (Watt et al. 2017). 314

Reducing interspecific competition in white spruce plantations may prove more difficult, since there is no resilience-driven successional trajectory that is oriented towards white

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spruce stands (Grondin et al. 2007; Grondin et al. 2014; Barrette et al. 2014). White
spruce plantations, therefore, may need more intensive tending for them to achieve
anticipated yield even with the use of site index maps. Finally, in the context of uncertain
realized yield of operational plantations, we emphasize the necessity of relying on
adaptive management to determine harvest levels that are compatible with sustainable
management objectives.

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503 Table 1. Climatic conditions in the four ecological reg	ions.
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	Mean annual temperature (°C)	Mean annual precipitation (mm)	Mean annual number of frost-free days		
Boreal regions					
Black spruce-moss region	-2.0	1000	165		
Balsam fir-white birch region	0.5	1200	175		
Temperate regions					
Balsam fir-yellow birch region	1.5	1100	180		
Sugar maple-yellow birch region	3.0	1100	190		

506	Table 2	2.	Char	acteris	tic	5 0	f s	uccess	ful	(Succ.)	and	unsuccessful	(Uns	Succ.	) p	lant	ations	by
	1							4		D:00		• . •					·	

507 ecological region and planted species. Different superscript letters indicate significant

508 differences (see Table 3).

	Nun p	nber of lots	Site (1	index n)	Plan der (trees	nting nsity s∙ha⁻¹)	Competition (%) *		
	Succ.	UnSucc.	Succ.	UnSucc.	Succ.	UnSucc.	Succ.	UnSucc.	
Boreal regions									
Black spruce-moss region									
Black spruce plantation	11	53	8 a	7 <sup>b</sup>	2458 a	2424 <sup>a</sup>	7 <sup>a</sup>	50 <sup>b</sup>	
Jack pine plantation	10	33	11 <sup>a</sup>	9 <sup>b</sup>	2587 <sup>a</sup>	2308 <sup>b</sup>	4 <sup>a</sup>	27 <sup>b</sup>	
Balsam fir-white birch region									
Black spruce plantation	28	54	9 a	8 <sup>b</sup>	2565 a	2339 <sup>b</sup>	13 a	44 <sup>b</sup>	
White spruce plantation	10	52	11 <sup>a</sup>	9 <sup>b</sup>	2602 a	2443 a	4 a	33 <sup>b</sup>	
Jack pine plantation	9	44	12 <sup>a</sup>	10 <sup>b</sup>	2327 a	2300 <sup>a</sup>	4 <sup>a</sup>	22 <sup>b</sup>	
Temperate regions									
Balsam fir-yellow birch region									
Black spruce plantation	16	42	10 <sup>a</sup>	10 <sup>a</sup>	2570 a	2576 <sup>a</sup>	10 a	26 <sup>b</sup>	
White spruce plantation	15	28	11 <sup>a</sup>	11 <sup>a</sup>	2334 a	2618 <sup>a</sup>	6 <sup>a</sup>	26 <sup>b</sup>	
Jack pine plantation	3	17	14 <sup>a</sup>	13 a	2359 a	2682 a	5 a	7 a	
Sugar maple-yellow birch region									
Black spruce plantation	13	11	10 <sup>a</sup>	11 <sup>a</sup>	2808 a	2716 <sup>a</sup>	8 a	10 a	
White spruce plantation	10	16	12 <sup>a</sup>	11 <sup>b</sup>	2657 a	2638 a	6 a	19 <sup>b</sup>	

509 \* 26–34-year-old plantations

# Table 3. ANOVA and associated *p*-values of characteristics of plantations by ecological

- region and planted species. Numerator degrees-of-freedom is 1 for all analyses, with one
- fixed effect (yield status, i.e., successful or unsuccessful). Df den. is denominator
- degrees-of-freedom. Significant effects (p < 0.05) are highlighted in boldface.

		Site i	ndex	Planting	density	Competition (%) *		
	<i>Df</i> den.	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	
Boreal regions								
Black spruce-moss region								
Black spruce plantation	79	6.91	0.010	0.12	0.734	39.23	< 0.001	
Jack pine plantation	51	16.04	< 0.001	4.60	0.037	12.14	0.001	
Balsam fir-white birch region								
Black spruce plantation	104	5.05	0.027	9.78	0.002	63.34	< 0.001	
White spruce plantation	79	20.49	< 0.001	2.29	0.134	18.28	< 0.001	
Jack pine plantation	68 5.81		0.019	0.05	0.830	15.15	< 0.001	
Temperate regions								
Balsam fir-yellow birch region								
Black spruce plantation	68	2.14	0.148	0.00	0.957	9.03	0.004	
White spruce plantation	46	1.49	0.228	4.03	0.051	14.92	< 0.001	
Jack pine plantation	28	3.22	0.084	2.72	0.110	0.71	0.406	
Sugar maple-yellow birch region								
Black spruce plantation	28	1.35	0.256	0.15	0.706	0.32	0.578	
White spruce plantation	29	4.48	0.043	0.02	0.884	10.99	0.003	

514 \* 26–34-year-old plantations

## 515 Figure captions

- **Fig 1** Locations of plots in plantations of black spruce (black triangles; n = 228), white
- 517 spruce (white triangles; n = 131) and jack pine (white circles; n = 116). Figure 1 was
- 518 created using ArcMap version 10.4.1 and assembled from the open access data of the
- 519 MRNF available at https://mffp.gouv.qc.ca/le-ministere/acces-aux-donnees-gratuites/.
- 520 Fig 2 Realized vs anticipated plantation yield.
- 521 Fig 3 Yield gap according to site index in 26- to 34-year-old plantations.
- **Fig 4** Yield gap according to planting density in 26- to 34-year-old plantations.
- 523 Fig 5 Yield gap according to competition in 26- to 34-year-old plantations. X-axis runs
- from 100 to 0%. Competition was quantified as a percentage of the total stand basal area,
- 525 calculated as: (basal area of naturally regenerated trees / (basal area of naturally
- regenerated trees + basal area of planted trees))  $\times$  100.
- 527 Fig 6 Composition of the competition in unsuccessful 26- to 34-year-old plantations with
- a plantation scenario that deviates from resilience-driven successional trajectories, i.e.,
- 529 black spruce and jack pine plantations that are located on balsam fir potential natural
- 530 vegetations types and white spruce plantations that are located on balsam fir or on black
- spruce potential natural vegetation types.
- 532 Fig 7 Composition of the competition in unsuccessful 26- to 34-year-old plantations with
- a plantation scenario aligned with resilience-driven , successional trajectories, i.e., black
- spruce and jack pine plantations that are located on black spruce potential natural
- 535 vegetation types.





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Fig 2 Realized vs anticipated plantation yield.

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Fig 3 Yield gap according to site index in 26- to 34-year-old plantations.

Fig 4 Martin Barrette et al. Page 31 of 34 Canadian Journal of Forest Research (Author?s Accepted Manuscript)



Fig 4 Yield gap according to planting density in 26- to 34-year-old plantations.







Fig 5 Yield gap according to competition in 26- to 34-year-old plantations. X-axis runs from 100 to 0%.



Fig 6 Composition of the competition in unsuccessful 26- to 34-year-old plantations with a plantation scenario that deviates from resilience-driven successional trajectories, i.e., black spruce and jack pine plantations that are located on balsam fir potential natural vegetations types and white spruce plantations that are located on balsam fir or on black spruce potential natural vegetation types.





**Fig 7** Composition of the competition in unsuccessful 26- to 34-year-old plantations with a plantation scenario aligned with resilience-driven ,successional trajectories, i.e., black spruce and jack pine plantations that are located on black spruce potential natural vegetation types.