

1 **Reorganization of tree assemblages over the last century in the northern hardwoods**
2 **of eastern Canada**

3 Running title: Post-settlement tree assemblages

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 **Question:** How has European settlement of Eastern North America modified tree species
31 assemblages?

32 **Location:** The northern temperate forests of the Lower St. Lawrence region (Québec,
33 Canada).

34 **Methods:** Changes in relative prevalence of tree taxa were reconstructed with early land
35 survey records (1821-1900) and modern forest inventories (1980-2010). Forest
36 composition reconstructions were then used to analyse changes in tree taxa assemblages
37 at the landscape scale and test for potential landscape homogenization.

38 **Results:** Our results show important maples (*Acer saccharum* and *A. rubrum*) and poplar
39 (*Populus tremuloides* and *P. balsamifera*) encroachment, shifting from the 6th to the 2nd
40 positions of relative prevalence and from the 7th to the 5th positions, respectively,
41 resulting in a significant shift in tree assemblage. Maples have spread throughout the
42 whole landscape and have tended to become the most abundant taxa in community where
43 it was already present in pre-settlement times. Poplars also widely spread throughout the
44 landscape but rarely became the most abundant taxa. Accordingly, deciduous
45 encroachment clearly engendered a spatial homogenization of composition at the
46 landscape scale.

47 **Conclusion:** Considering that both red maple and trembling aspen are opportunist early-
48 successional species, the increased relative prevalence of both species, as well as the
49 consequent reorganization of tree taxa assemblages and landscape homogenization
50 probably, resulted from the regional convergence toward an early successional state.
51 Along with restoration of long-lived shade-tolerant conifer populations, land and forest
52 managers should aim to increase heterogeneity of forest stand composition to improve
53 forests resilience to future global changes.

54

55

56 **Keywords:** conifer decline, early land survey records, encroachment of deciduous
57 species, landscape homogenization, post-settlement forest composition, relative taxa
58 prevalence, eastern Canadian temperate forest

59 **Introduction**

60 In North America, settlement has caused major changes in the composition, structure, and
61 dynamics of forested landscapes. Several studies have shown that an increase in the
62 frequency and spatial extent of disturbances rejuvenated forests and modified their
63 composition toward a more homogeneous landscape (White, & Mladenoff 1994; Jackson,
64 Pinto, Malcolm, & Wilson, 2000; Black, & Abrams, 2001; Schulte, Mladenoff, Crow,
65 Merrick, & Cleland, 2007; Thompson, Carpenter, Cogbill, & Foster, 2013). Small-scale
66 disturbances, such as windthrow and insect epidemics (Lorimer, 1977; Lorimer, & White,
67 2003; Boulanger, & Arseneault, 2004), were replaced by larger disturbances that were
68 more severe at the site scale such as logging and anthropogenic fires (Boucher,
69 Arseneault, & Sirois, 2006; Boucher, Arseneault, & Sirois, 2009a; Boucher, Arseneault,
70 Sirois, & Blais, 2009b; Dupuis, Arseneault, & Sirois, 2011; Boucher, Grondin, & Auger,
71 2014).

72 In the northern temperate forests of eastern North America, the presettlement forests were
73 often dominated by long-lived, shade tolerant species, most notably conifers such as
74 white, black and red spruce (*Picea glauca* (Moench) Voss; *P. mariana* (Mill.) BSP and *P.*
75 *rubens* Sarg), white cedar (*Thuja occidentalis* L) and balsam fir (*Abies balsamea* (L)
76 Mill). Deciduous species, including sugar and red maple (*Acer saccharum*, Marsh; *A.*
77 *rubrum* L), and white and yellow birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh; *B. alleghaniensis* Britt)
78 were also present, but were less frequent and less dominant than conifers (Lorimer 1977,
79 Cogbill, Burk, & Motzkin, 2002; Dupuis et al. 2011; Danneyrolles, Arseneault, &
80 Bergeron 2016a). In contrast, the present-day forested landscapes possess a much greater
81 proportion of deciduous trees (White, & Mladenoff, 1994; Foster, Motzkin, & Slater,
82 1998; Jackson et al. 2000, Black, & Abrams, 2001; Dupuis et al. 2011; Danneyrolles et
83 al. 2016a). This encroachment is characterized by an increase in opportunist pioneer
84 species that take advantage of openings in the forest canopy and include red and sugar
85 maples, as well as shade-intolerant species that are favoured by stand-replacing
86 disturbances, such as trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides*, Michx) and white birch
87 (Siccama 1971; Schulte et al. 2007; Dupuis et al. 2011; Thompson et al. 2013;

88 Danneyrolles et al. 2016a). In contrast, amongst the conifers, cedar appears to be one of
89 the most vulnerable species to human disturbances and has shown strong decreases in
90 frequency and dominance in eastern Canada (Jackson et al. 2000; Dupuis et al. 2011;
91 Danneyrolles et al. 2017) and in northern Maine (Lorimer 1977; Thompson et al. 2013).

92 In the context of the ecosystem-based forest management, an evaluation of the changes
93 that occurred over the 20th century is required, to help understand how to maintain or
94 improve resilience to disturbances and climate change (Millar and Stephenson 2015;
95 Johnstone et al. 2016), particularly in the regions that have been heavily logged/exploited
96 and transformed, such as the temperate forest zone of eastern North America (Boucher et
97 al. 2009a,b). Changes in the frequency and dominance of species, as well as the spatial
98 structure of the major types of forest stands (coniferous, mixed, deciduous) at the
99 landscape scale are well documented and show a rapid transformation of conifer-
100 dominated, uneven-aged forests to young even-aged forests with a larger proportion of
101 deciduous trees (White, & Mladenoff, 1994; Foster et al. 1998; Boucher et al. 2009b;
102 Dupuis et al. 2011). However, to what extent forest rejuvenation and deciduous
103 encroachment have impacted tree communities at the landscape scale is less evident.
104 More particularly, reorganization of relative taxon abundance as a consequence of maples
105 and poplars encroachment has not been specifically addressed. Forest composition
106 (Boucher, Auger, Noël, Grondin, & Arseneault, 2016; Flinn, Mahany, & Hausman, 2018)
107 and spatial structure (i.e. spatial homogenization or heterogenization; Schulte et al. 2007;
108 Hanberry, Palik, & He, 2012b; Thompson et al. 2013; Danneyrolles, Arseneault, &
109 Bergeron, 2018) represent decisive knowledge for ecosystem-based forest management
110 plan.

111 In North America, the pre-settlement forest composition has been mostly reconstructed
112 using archives of the earliest surveys conducted in order to divide the land for settlement,
113 particularly during the 19th century (Whitney 1994; Vellend, Brown, Kharouba, McCune,
114 & Myers-Smith, 2013). The most frequently used data type consists in species
115 determination of individual witness trees, systematically distributed at grid points
116 (Vellend et al. 2013). A second data type consists in taxon lists, which are ranked tree
117 species enumeration at point or along segments of surveyed lines (e.g., Jackson et al.

118 2000; Scull, & Richardson 2007; Flinn et al. 2018). In eastern Canada, tree taxon lists are
119 generally the only available data type (Dupuis et al. 2011; Terrail, Arseneault, Fortin,
120 Dupuis, & Boucher, 2014; Danneyrolles et al. 2016a; Laflamme, Munson, Grondin, &
121 Arseneault, 2016) and recent studies pointed out that relative metrics (i.e. relative ranks)
122 of taxon abundance obtained with taxon lists are more reliable than absolute metrics
123 (Terrail et al. 2014; Larsen, Tulowiecki, Wang, & Trgovac, 2015). In this study, we use a
124 dataset comprising 22555 tree taxon lists over an area of 8910 km² to reconstruct changes
125 in position of relative order of prevalence for the principal tree taxa as a consequence of
126 maple and poplar expansion. A portion of this dataset (8500 taxon lists from the western
127 half of the study area) has already been analyzed for change in absolute metrics of taxa
128 prevalence and dominance (Dupuis et al. 2011), but not for the reorganization of the
129 relative order of taxa prevalence. We also analyse how deciduous encroachment impacted
130 tree community assemblages at the landscape scale and assess potential homogenization
131 or heterogenization of community composition.

132

133 **Study region**

134 The study area is located on the southern shore of the St. Lawrence River in eastern
135 Canada (Fig. 1). This region is part of the Appalachian geological formation and is
136 composed principally of sedimentary rocks (Robitaille, & Saucier, 1998). The
137 Appalachian Plateau has a mean altitude of 500 m and is comprised of local summits up
138 to 600 m along with valleys of variable depth. The surface deposits are primarily from
139 glacial and alteration origins. The region is under a temperate continental climate, with
140 mean annual temperatures of 3.1 °C (-12.3 °C in January and 17.5 °C in July), and a
141 mean annual precipitation of 929 mm, with 37% falling in the form of snow. The
142 growing season varies from 140 to 170 days and corresponds to 1500 degree-days above
143 5°C (Robitaille, & Saucier, 1998; Environment Canada, 2018).

144 The study region constitutes a transition zone between the northern temperate zone and
145 the boreal zone of eastern North America. According to Québec's ecological land
146 classification system, the forests in the west of the study area belong to the balsam fir-

147 yellow birch bioclimatic domain, while those in the easternmost section belong to the
148 balsam fir-white birch domain (Robitaille, & Saucier, 1998). Nowadays, the most
149 frequent tree species are balsam fir, white spruce, white birch, aspen, and red and sugar
150 maples.

151 Forest history

152 The European occupation of the Lower St. Lawrence region began in the 17th century
153 with the arrival of the first European settlers along the shores of the St. Lawrence River.
154 However, it was not until the start of the 19th century that forest industry developed and
155 triggered the true colonization of the region. Beginning in 1820, the Price Brothers
156 Company logged large timber species such as spruce and red pine (*Pinus resinosa*
157 (Aiton)). A significant development in agriculture accompanied logging and led to a
158 subsequent increase in the population starting around 1830 and a slow progression of
159 settlement from the St. Lawrence Lowlands towards the Appalachian Plateau in the
160 interior. The forest industry concentrated primarily on saw wood located within a few
161 hundred metres of the waterways up until the 20th century. The mechanization of the
162 forest industry and the construction of large pulp mills and sawmills then allowed logging
163 to rapidly develop inland (Fortin et al. 1993; Boucher et al. 2009b).

164

165 **Materials and methods**

166 Pre-settlement and modern data

167 In Québec, the public land division was implemented in the form of townships of around
168 16 km × 16 km (10 miles × 10 miles), that were subdivided into parallel ranges 1.6 km
169 deep (1 mile) and lots 261 m (13 chains; 1 chain equals 20.1 m) wide. In total, the study
170 region includes 91 townships that were covered by 153 field surveys made by 58
171 surveyors between 1821 and 1900. Surveys were conducted along range lines and
172 township boundaries and included the precise measurement of distances between
173 successive observations. Various observations on forest composition can be found in the
174 surveyor's notebooks, such as taxon lists (e.g. spruce, fir, birch, cedar, and a few maple)

175 and specific cover types (e.g. maple stand, cedar stand, etc.). In this study, specific cover
176 types were considered equivalent to pure stands of the corresponding taxon. General
177 cover types (e.g. mixed wood, hardwood) are also frequent but were not considered here.
178 For the analysis, we classified these observations into two geometric types, line or point,
179 according to the surveyors' notes. Lines could be clearly associated with both a starting
180 and an ending position along a range line whereas points could be clearly located, but
181 with no precise beginning or ending along a range line. When combining all observations
182 into the final database, each point observation was weighted by its mean spacing (mean
183 of the distances to the previous and next observations), whereas each line observation
184 was weighted by its length. Observations were georeferenced as points or lines over a
185 governmental cadastral map built from early land surveys.

186 In order to evaluate changes between the pre-settlement and present-day vegetation, we
187 used the last three decadal forest inventory programs conducted in the 1980s, 1990s, and
188 2000s by the provincial government. These inventories were conducted using 0.04 ha
189 sampling plots randomly stratified according to forest stand types (MFFP, 2016). Only
190 the plots located less than 1.6 km from a survey observation were considered, as this
191 distance also corresponds to the spacing between surveyed range lines. Each tree within a
192 plot was reported according to its species and diameter (using 2 cm DBH classes), which
193 allowed the total basal area ($\text{m}^2 \text{ha}^{-1}$) for each species in a plot to be calculated.

194 In total, over the entire study area, 22 555 taxon lists from the survey archives were
195 compared with 14 895 modern plots. Reclassification was required in order to compare
196 the two datasets. Spruces (white spruce, red spruce, black spruce), maples (sugar maple,
197 red maple) and poplars (trembling aspen, balsam poplar) were grouped to the genus level
198 for the two datasets as surveyors did not distinguish species for these genera. Only taxa
199 that occurred in more than 5% of survey observations or more than 5% of modern plots
200 were considered for this study, which includes four conifers (balsam fir, spruces, white
201 cedar, and pines) and four deciduous taxa (white and yellow birches, maples, and
202 poplars).

203 Relative taxa prevalence and spatial analysis

204 In a previous study, we have compared the reconstruction of forest composition obtained
205 with forest inventories from the early 20th century (i.e. reconstruction based on taxa basal
206 area) and early land survey taxon lists (Terrail et al. 2014). This showed that taxon lists
207 are highly accurate for reconstructing pre-settlement composition, and particularly when
208 using relative metrics (Terrail et al. 2014; Larsen et al. 2015). Thus, we computed relative
209 prevalence positions of the eight retained taxa in order to describe the vegetation for each
210 period. We first computed P_i , a measure of absolute taxa prevalence using the following
211 equation:

$$212 \quad P_i = (n_i/M_i) \times 100, \quad (\text{eq.1})$$

213 where n_i is the number of observations where the taxon i is present and M_i is the total
214 number of observations. The relative prevalence positions of taxa were then determined
215 from their absolute prevalence. The taxon with the highest absolute prevalence was
216 assigned a relative prevalence of 8, while a value of 1 was given to the taxon with the
217 lowest absolute prevalence. Taxa relative prevalence were firstly computed for the entire
218 study area and second, in order to analyse the spatial patterns of relative prevalence and
219 their reorganization between the two epochs, the relative prevalence was computed for
220 each cell of a grid with 412 cells of 5 km × 5 km (25 km²) across the study area. Cells
221 containing less than 5 observations for either of the epochs were excluded from the
222 analysis. We tested several cell sizes and determined that a size of 25 km² permitted
223 retention of the maximum number of cells with well-distributed observations. On
224 average, the cells contained 50 taxon lists and 33 modern plots. We created relative taxa
225 prevalence maps for the 8 retained taxa (Appendix S1).

226 Taxa relative prevalence at the 25-km² grid scale were finally used to conduct two
227 distinct analyses. First, we regrouped cells according to community composition using a
228 k -means clustering analysis, which maximizes extra-group variance and minimizes
229 intergroup variance. We clustered data of each of the 412 cells from both periods in a
230 single run to allow direct comparison of communities between periods. An optimal
231 number of four groups was identified using a simple structure index (SSI) criterion.
232 Second, we tested for landscape homogenization or heterogenization using a multivariate

233 dispersion analysis (Anderson, Ellingsen, & McArdle, 2006). The relative prevalence of
234 taxa from each of the 412 cells from both periods were first used to compute a principal
235 coordinate analysis (PCoA), where the Bray-Curtis distance between cells was reduced to
236 eight principal coordinates (i.e., axes). PCoA analysis gives the advantage of using non-
237 Euclidian dissimilarity measures (e.g. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity). The multivariate
238 dispersion was calculated as the multivariate distance from each cell to its group
239 centroids (i.e. time periods). We performed a paired permutation test (999 permutations)
240 to detect significant homogenization or heterogenization between the two periods. This
241 approach is particularly well appropriate for assessing differences in β -diversity among
242 different areas or groups of samples (Anderson, Ellingsen, & McArdle, 2006). *k*-means
243 cluster and multivariate dispersion analyses were performed in R using the *cascadeKM*
244 and *betadisper* functions, respectively, which are both included in the *vegan* R package
245 (Oksanen et al. 2017).

246 **Results**

247 Reorganization of relative taxa prevalence

248 For the entire study area, conifers such as spruces, balsam fir, and cedar were the most
249 common taxa found on the pre-settlement landscape and occupied the highest relative
250 prevalence positions of 8, 7, and 5, respectively (Table 1). In contrast, the pines were
251 rare, occupying the position of 1 (Table 1). White birch was the most prevalent hardwood
252 and occupied the position of 6. Yellow birch, maples, and poplars occupied positions of
253 4, 3, and 2, respectively (Table 1).

254 The expansion of hardwoods since the pre-settlement period was characterized by an
255 increase in the absolute prevalence of maples by more than 45% and close to 25% for
256 poplars throughout the entire study region. Maples now occupy the second highest
257 position in relative prevalence, corresponding to an increase of 4 positions since the pre-
258 settlement era (Table 1). At the cell scale, maples have become the most abundant taxa in
259 more than the half of the cells (Fig. 2, Appendix S1). The relative prevalence of poplars
260 increased by two positions throughout the entire study region (from 2 to 4; 5.2% to
261 30.6%; Table 1) and is now ranked in positions 5 to 3 in 68% of cells (Fig. 2, Appendix

262 S1). While the absolute prevalence of white birch increased by 4.3 % during this
263 encroachment period, its relative prevalence decreased slightly from 6 to 5. Yellow birch
264 was the single hardwood species to experience a decrease in both absolute and relative
265 prevalence. Although these changes were slight at the regional scale (position 4 to 3;
266 Table 1), yellow birch underwent an important decrease in relative prevalence with more
267 than 50% of 25 km² cells that recorded a decrease of two or more positions of prevalence
268 (Fig. 2, Appendix S1).

269 Overall, the increase in the prevalence of hardwoods was counterbalanced by a decrease
270 in conifers. The most significant decrease was for cedar, with an absolute prevalence
271 decrease of 16 % and a loss of 3 positions in relative prevalence at the regional scale
272 (positions 5 to 2; Table 1). At the landscape scale, cedar occupied one of the four highest
273 position (i.e. positions 5 to 8) in 60 % of cells in pre-settlement times and is now ranked
274 positions equal or smaller than 3 in 83 % of the cells (Fig. 2, Appendix S1). The spruces
275 decreased by 10% in absolute prevalence and by 1 position in relative prevalence
276 throughout the entire study region (positions 7 to 6; Table 1). In pre-settlement times,
277 spruces ranked one of the two highest position in 70 % of the 25 km² cells while is now
278 ranked positions equal or smaller than 6 in 72 % of the cells (Fig. 2, Appendix S1). The
279 two remaining conifers, balsam fir and pines, were stable and were the most prevalent
280 (balsam fir; position 8 to 8; Table 1) and the less prevalent (pines; position 1 to 1; Table
281 1) taxa for the two periods.

282 Reorganization of tree taxa assemblages

283 Cluster analysis reveals that encroachment by maples and poplars resulted in an
284 important reorganization of tree taxa assemblage at the landscape scale (Fig. 3). While
285 the analysis identifies the existence of similar landscape assemblage in both periods (i.e.
286 cells within the four groups are found in each periods), there is a clear difference of
287 groups distribution between the two periods. In pre-settlement times more than 85 % of
288 cells belonged to groups 2 and 4, while in modern times 76 % of the cells are in group 3
289 and 18 % in group 1 (Fig. 3a). Balsam fir, spruces and white birch shows high and
290 comparable relative prevalence in all cluster groups, which are mostly differentiated by

291 the relative prevalence of cedar, yellow birch, maples and poplars (Fig. 3b). Pre-
292 settlement dominant groups (i.e. 2 and 4) showed higher relative prevalence of cedar and
293 yellow birch compared to modern dominant groups (i.e. 1 and 3). Groups 2 and 4 mostly
294 differentiated by higher prevalence of maples in groups 4 along with the almost complete
295 absence of this taxon in group 2. In addition, the relative prevalence of maples and
296 poplars is higher in modern dominant groups compared to pre-settlement dominant
297 groups 2 and 4 (Fig. 3b). Groups 1 and 3 are mostly separated by the prevalence of
298 maples and yellow birch. Maples is the most prevalent taxon (i.e. relative prevalence rank
299 of 8) in more than 50% of group 3 cells, which also show higher yellow birch prevalence
300 than to group 1. Yellow birch is almost totally absent in group 1 and relative prevalence
301 of poplars is slightly higher.

302 Results of groups transition (Fig. 3c) provide an important insight into the dynamic
303 trajectories of tree communities at the landscape scale. Very few cells in pre-settlement
304 dominant groups (i.e. groups 2 and 4) have maintained in the same groups in modern
305 times. Almost half of the study area (48 % of the cells) followed a transition from group
306 4, which exhibited an important relative prevalence of maples in pre-settlement times, to
307 group 3 in which maples is nowadays the most prevalent taxa. Nearly all cells in group 3
308 in pre-settlement times have stayed in groups 3 (10 % of the study area). Cells currently
309 in groups 1 mostly originated from groups 2 and 4 (8 % and 6% of the study area,
310 respectively). Together, these changes resulted in a significant landscape homogenization
311 (Fig. 4). During pre-settlement times, mean cells distance to centroid was 0.16 and has
312 decreased to 0.12 in modern times, indicating that composition of cells is more similar in
313 modern compared to pre-settlement times. Our permutation test shows that this
314 homogenization is significant ($p < 0.001$).

315

316 **Discussion**

317 The results of this study are consistent with the majority of similar studies conducted in
318 the temperate zone of eastern North America that recorded a significant encroachment by
319 maples and poplars as a result of land use activities since pre-settlement times (e.g.

320 clearing for agriculture, anthropogenic fires, logging, farmland abandonment) (Whitney
321 1994; Jackson et al. 2000; Friedman, & Reich, 2005; Thompson et al. 2013; Danneyrolles
322 et al. 2016a; Flinn et al. 2018). Our study also agrees with works that recorded a
323 landscape homogenization as a consequence of these changes (Schulte et al. 2007;
324 Hanberry, Dey, & He, 2012; Hanberry, Palik, & He, 2012; Thompson et al. 2013). In this
325 context, our most important contribution here was to document the consequent
326 reorganization of relative taxon abundance. Although no taxon has been excluded or
327 introduced at the regional scale, the relative order of taxa prevalence has been reshuffled
328 for almost all taxa in all cells due to the regional expansion of maple and poplar
329 (Appendix S1). Because relative taxa prevalence condenses values of absolute prevalence
330 to a few discrete ranks, it provides easier to interpret and apply management targets for
331 ecosystem-based forest management. In the following sections we discuss the cause of
332 deciduous encroachment and resulting taxa reshuffling as well as the management
333 implications of our findings.

334 Causes of maples and poplars encroachment

335 Maples, the taxon that has increased the most throughout the study area corresponds to
336 both sugar and red maples since surveyors did not differentiated these two species. The
337 relative abundance of the two maples species in modern plots (Appendix S2) reveals that
338 red maple tends to be omnipresent across the modern landscape, while sugar maple is
339 more clustered. Red maple is known to be an opportunist early-successional, fast-
340 growing and short-lived species (Walter, & Yawney 1991; Abrams 1998) which has
341 benefited from disturbances and fire suppression in the eastern U.S.A. (Fei, & Steiner
342 2007, 2009; Nowacki, & Abrams 2008). Moreover, at its northern range limits, red maple
343 may even be favoured by stand-replacing fire (Zhang, Bergeron, Zhao, & Drobyshev,
344 2015). As such, it is very likely that red maple benefited from both stand-replacing and
345 partial disturbance (agricultural clearing, fire, clear-cutting, partial cutting, insect
346 outbreaks) from the last century in our study area. While sugar maple is generally
347 considered as very shade-tolerant late-successional species (Godman, Yawney, & Tubbs,
348 1991), studies near its northern range limit have shown that the species may also become
349 dominant quickly after stand-replacing disturbance such as clearcutting and fire (Nolet,

350 Bouffard, Doyon, Delagrange, 2008; Nolet, Delagrange, Bouffard, Doyen, & Forget,
351 2008; Pilon, & Payette 2015). By any means, sugar maple ability to maintain a vigorous
352 seedling banks and its strong response to canopy release allow it to take a substantial
353 advantage of low severity disturbances such as partial cutting and insect outbreaks
354 (Boucher et al. 2006; Danneyrolles, Arseneault, & Bergeron, 2016b).

355 Concerning poplars, trembling aspen certainly accounts for a very large proportion of the
356 increase in poplar prevalence in our study area (Appendix S2). Trembling aspen is
357 considered as an early-successional, fast-growing and short-lived species (Perala, 1991).
358 More particularly, its capacity to vigorously regenerate by roots-suckering after
359 disturbance makes trembling aspen particularly adapted to the severe or frequent
360 disturbances that have followed European settlement (Bergeron, & Charron, 1994;
361 Boucher et al. 2014; Danneyrolles et al. 2016a).

362 Spatial reorganization of tree communities

363 Our cluster analysis also provides important insight into spatial reorganization of
364 community composition. One particularly striking pattern is that cells in which maples
365 are currently the most abundant taxa predominantly came from groups with the highest
366 abundance of maples in pre-settlement times. Indeed, maples have tended to become
367 dominant (i.e. taxon with the highest relative frequency) mainly in area where they were
368 already present (Appendix S3). Moreover, areas where maples became dominant
369 corresponds to area in which both sugar and red maples are currently present, while area
370 where maples became present but not dominant correspond to areas where only red
371 maple is currently present (Appendices S2 and S3). This is not surprising since red maple
372 produce each year a large amount of wind-dispersed seeds that easily colonize recently
373 disturbed area (Walter, & Yawney, 1991; Abrams, 1998) where population can establish
374 quickly (Fei, & Steiner 2009). By contrast, sugar maple seed production is more irregular
375 and the species has typically poorer abilities than red maple to colonize new area but has
376 better capacity to become dominant in stands where it is already present (Abrams, 1998;
377 Caspersen, & Sapruff, 2005; Nolet et al. 2008b).

378 Trembling aspen has a high potential to colonize new area both by long seed dispersal
379 and vegetative reproduction (Perala, 1991), which explain its ubiquitous expansion across
380 the landscape (Figs 3, S1, S3). However, contrarily to maples, aspen is infrequently the
381 most abundant taxa in 25 km² cells. This may reflect the fact that aspen establishment is
382 more dependent to severe stand-replacing disturbance such as fire or clear-cut (Bergeron,
383 & Charron, 1994), and thus, within one cell, aspen may have become very abundant in
384 severely disturbed plots while remaining totally absent from others.

385 Spatial reorganization was also characterized by the landscape homogenization of forest
386 communities. Such a forest composition transformation in Northeastern North America
387 has been associated with the convergence of regional forest toward younger successional
388 states (Schulte et al. 2007; Hanberry et al. 2012b) and with a loss of influence of
389 environmental gradients in youngest forests (Hanberry et al. 2012a; Thompson et al.
390 2013). In our study area, landscape homogenization has been primarily driven by the
391 encroachment of maples and poplars. While balsam fir and spruces were omnipresent
392 across the pre-settlement landscape, heterogeneity was mainly determined by the
393 clustered distribution of maples (Appendix S1) that differentiated the two dominant
394 cluster groups in pre-settlement times (Fig. 3). Before European settlement maples
395 occurred mostly as small isolated stand on hilltops (Boucher et al. 2006; Dupuis et al.
396 2011). Conversely, maples tend to be omnipresent across the modern landscape, as
397 illustrated by the current large predominance of the maples-dominated group 3. This
398 ubiquitous distribution is likely linked to red maple present-day distribution (Appendix
399 S2). Considering than both red maple and trembling aspen are opportunist early-
400 successional species, landscape homogenization probably resulted from the regional
401 forest rejuvenation (i.e. convergence toward an early successional state). However,
402 because our analysis is limited to the 25 km² grid scale, it is not excluded that
403 disturbances of the last century have at the same time led to spatial heterogenization at a
404 finer scale (i.e. plot-to-plot variation within 25 km² cells; Thompson et al. 2013;
405 Danneyrolles et al. 2018).

406 Management implications

407 Spatial heterogeneity contributes to forest resilience to insect outbreaks and to broader
408 global changes (Knops et al. 1999; Turner, Donato, & Romme, 2013) and has been
409 weakened by landscape homogenization of the last century. Considering that ecosystem-
410 based forest management has recently become a priority in the province of Québec
411 (Gouvernement du Québec, 2015), our results (mainly Fig. 2) should be considered,
412 along with additional criteria of sustainable forest management, to identify reference
413 conditions of relative taxon abundance at large spatial scales (i.e., for spatial units of
414 about 25 km²) in order to restore heterogeneity and resilience. Because repeated
415 disturbance associated with settlement and forest management is the most likely process
416 that has increased and maintained high relative prevalence of maple and poplar, forest
417 managers should avoid systematically increasing the prevalence of these two taxa at the
418 expense of late-successional conifers. Maple and poplar dominance (i.e. frequency as the
419 more prevalent taxon) and prevalence should be decreased and heterogenized among
420 sites. Conversely, cedar and white and red spruces, as well as yellow birch, should be
421 actively restored to higher ranks of relative prevalence through planting whenever
422 possible. At the same time, it is encouraging that balsam fir, the most dominant and
423 prevalent taxon of the study area, has been sufficiently resilient to high rates of
424 anthropogenic disturbances and insect outbreaks of the 20th century that no specific
425 action is needed to manage its relative prevalence.

426 Although climate change is likely to affect the ability of forest management to reduce
427 gaps between current and pre-settlement forest composition, our results would still
428 provide functional targets for forest management (Boulangier et al. 2019). For example,
429 growth rate, longevity, and shade-tolerance of species can be considered in order to
430 maintain functionally diverse and spatially heterogeneous stands and landscape, similar
431 to the ones that prevailed before European settlement.

432

433 **Acknowledgments**

434 We thank Catherine Burman-Plourde and Pierre-Luc Morin for their help in building the
435 database. Luc Sirois provided constructive comments at several stages of the study.

436

437 **Authors' contributions**

438 All authors designed the study and methodology. RT and VD analyzed the data and wrote
439 the manuscript with inputs from DA, MJF and YB.

440

441 **Data accessibility**

442 Historical data are available from the corresponding author upon request. Modern forest
443 data are freely available from the Ministère des Forêts, de la Faune et des Parcs du
444 Québec website: (<https://mffp.gouv.qc.ca/le-ministere/acces-aux-donnees-gratuites/>).

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643 **List of appendices**

644

645 **Appendix S1:** Position of relative prevalence for the eight taxa in each 5 km × 5 km cell for
646 the preindustrial and modern time periods.

647

648 **Appendix S2:** Relative ranks of basal area in each modern plot (1980-2010) for species that
649 were regrouped at the genus level.

650

651 **Appendix S3:** Changes in taxa presence and dominance status between preindustrial and
652 modern times.

653 Table 1. Absolute and relative prevalence of the tree taxa across the entire study area for
 654 the two-time periods and their differences (Modern minus Archives). Ap: Absolute
 655 prevalence; Rp: Relative prevalence.

656

Taxa	Survey archives (1820-1900)		Modern inventory (1980-2010)		Difference	
	Ap	Rp	Ap	Rp	Ap	Rp
Maples	15.7	3	61.7	7	46.0	4
Poplars	5.2	2	30.6	4	25.3	2
Balsam fir	74.6	8	78.0	8	3.4	0
Pines	1.0	1	1.4	1	0.4	0
Spruces	67.7	7	57.7	6	-10.0	-1
White birch	50.5	6	54.8	5	4.3	-1
Yellow birch	32.9	4	27.2	3	-5.8	-1
Cedar	36.3	5	19.5	2	-16.7	-3

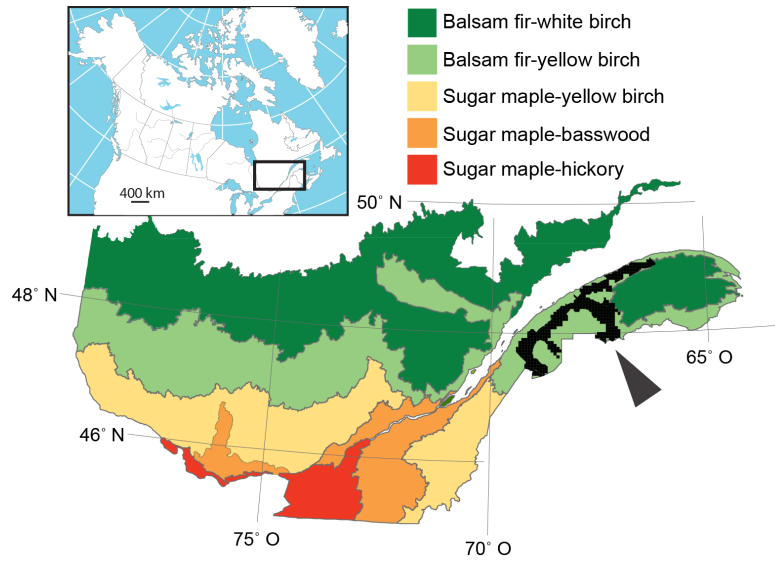
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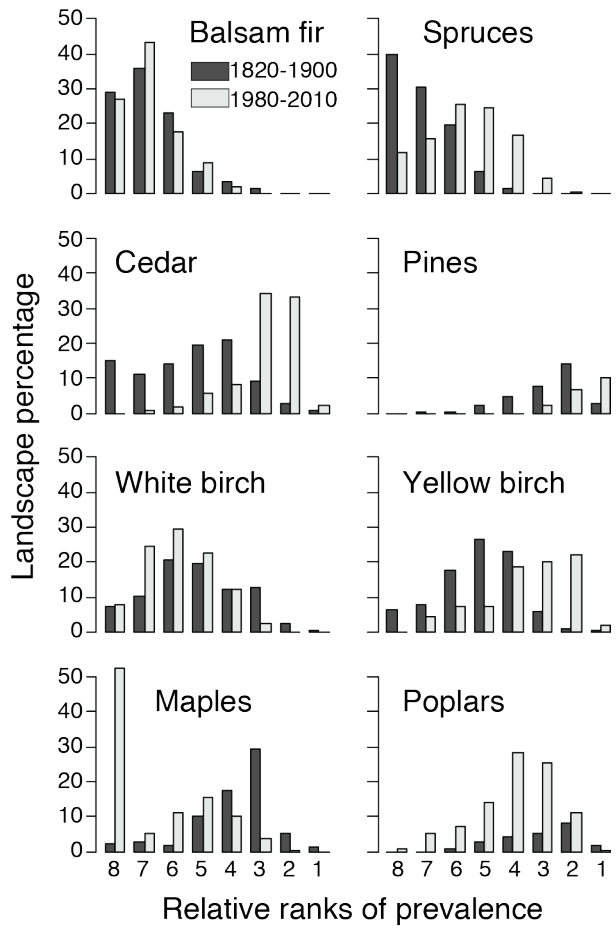
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662

663 Figure 1. Location of the study area in eastern Québec (black) in relation to the
664 bioclimatic domains.

665



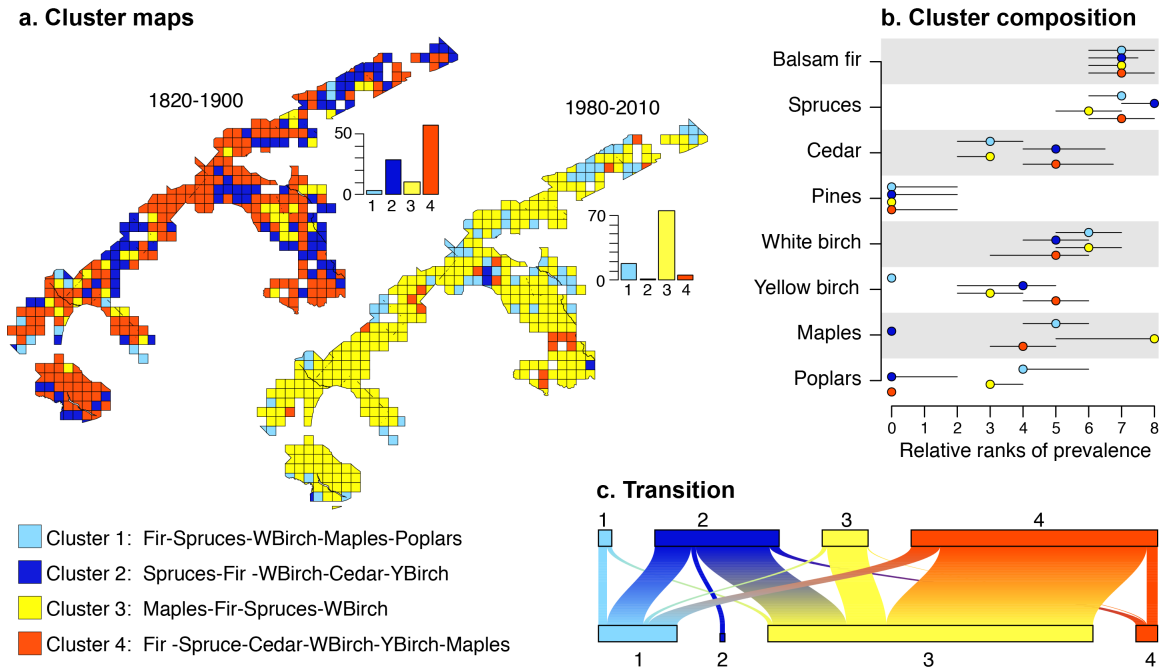
666

667 Figure 2. Percentage of cells occupied by each position of relative prevalence for each
 668 taxon and each time period.

669

670

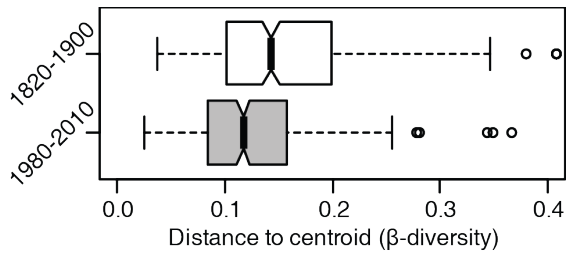
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672

673 Figure 3. Forest communities identified by *k*-means clustering of the 25 km² grid cells.
674 (a): Maps of the clusters for the two time periods with histograms showing the percent of
675 cells in each cluster for the two periods; (b): diagram of cluster composition with points
676 representing the median relative ranks of frequency and error bars displaying the first and
677 third quartiles; (c): diagram quantifying cell transition among cluster groups from
678 preindustrial (above) to modern (below) time periods (width of each box is proportional
679 to the corresponding number of cells).

680



681

682 Figure 4. Landscape homogenisation as assessed by multivariate dispersion analysis. The
 683 lower the distance to the centroid, the more cells are similar in terms of composition, thus
 684 resulting in a more homogeneous landscape. A permutation test shows significant
 685 difference between the two times periods ($p < 0.001$).

686