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SERVICES ÉCOLOGIQUES ET AMÉNAGEMENT FORESTIER-
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LISTE DES ABRÉVIATIONS, SIGLES ET ACRONYMES

DBH	Diameter at breast height (Diamètre à hauteur de poitrine)
EM-DSS	Ecosystem-management decision support systems
FFE-FVS	Fire and Fuels Extension to the Forest Vegetation Simulator
FIA	Forest Inventory and Analysis
FSC	Forest Stewardship Council
FVS	Forest Vegetation Simulator
HSI	Habitat suitability index (Indice de qualité de l'habitat)
ITS	Individual tree selection (Coupe de jardinage)
MCDA	Multicriteria decision analysis (Analyse décisionnelle multicritère)
NE-FVS	Northeast Variant of the Forest Vegetation Simulator
PAF	Plan d'aménagement forestier
PPMV	Plan de protection de mise en valeur
SID	Shade-intolerant deciduous (Feuillus intolérants à l'ombre)
SM	Sugar maple-beech (Érablière à hêtre)
SÉ	Services écologiques ou écosystémiques
WSP	White spruce plantation (Plantation d'épinettes blanches)

RÉSUMÉ

L'aménagement de la forêt privée au Québec se concentre sur la production de bois et considère en priorité la valeur de la matière ligneuse. Cependant, les coupes peuvent avoir des impacts sur les fonctions des écosystèmes forestiers. Il devient de plus en plus important d'informer les propriétaires des impacts possibles de ces coupes sur la valeur de plusieurs services écologiques ou écosystémiques (SÉ) que fournissent les forêts. Le projet a donc utilisé la modélisation de scénarios d'aménagement sur des peuplements afin d'évaluer les différentes performances entre ces scénarios en termes de SÉ. Nous avons utilisé le modèle Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS) pour simuler la dynamique des peuplements selon trois scénarios d'aménagement forestier d'intensité variable. Cinq peuplements de trois différents types de forêts ont été simulés individuellement ; érablière à hêtre (SM), feuillus intolérants à l'ombre (SID) et plantations d'épinettes blanches (WSP). La production de bois, le stock de carbone et la qualité de l'habitat étaient les SÉ calculés sur la base des résultats de simulations. Les résultats des scénarios uniques d'aménagement forestier ont ensuite été transposés dans une série de scénarios TRIADE où la proportion de la zone de conservation augmentait de 12 à 50 %. En vertu d'une analyse décisionnelle multicritère (MCDA), les valeurs de chaque objectif ont été transformées en utilités pour faciliter la comparaison et l'agrégation des résultats. L'aménagement intensif a permis de récolter le plus grand volume de bois mais engendrait de plus faibles valeurs de stock de carbone et de qualité de l'habitat qu'un scénario de conservation, dans tous les types de peuplement. Les scénarios TRIADE ont offert les meilleurs compromis entre les différents SÉ. Par exemple, ils ont permis dans les peuplements SM la récolte de bois tout en maintenant ou augmentant la valeur des deux autres services par rapport aux autres scénarios d'aménagement. Le choix du plan d'action en matière de gestion des forêts dépend en grande partie des intérêts et valeurs des parties prenantes. Le couplage de la modélisation avec la méthode MCDA est prometteur en termes de données requises, de flexibilité et de simplicité du transfert d'information provenant des simulations.

Mots clefs : Services écosystémiques, modélisation de la dynamique forestière, planification de l'aménagement, analyse décisionnelle multicritères, TRIADE.

INTRODUCTION

Le sud du Québec, domaine des érablières à caryer cordiforme, à tilleul et de celle à bouleau jaune, constitue le point chaud de la biodiversité provinciale en plus de contenir 34 % des plantes rares et plusieurs espèces s'y trouvant à leur limite septentrionale de distribution (Gagnon, 2004 ; Tardif, Lavoie and Lachance, 2005). Ces érablières sont donc des zones cruciales pour la conservation. Or, 16 % des terres forestières productives de la province, soit près de 7 millions d'hectares, appartiennent à environ 130 000 propriétaires différents et sont situées majoritairement dans cette zone méridionale riche en biodiversité (Ministère des Forêts, de la Faune et des Parcs du Québec (MFFPQ), 2003-2013a ; Comité des partenaires de la forêt privée, 2006). Ces terres sont aménagées plus ou moins selon le bon vouloir des individus à qui elles appartiennent, restreint surtout par des mesures variées et non harmonisées établies aux niveaux municipal et régional (Caron and Martel, 2012). En 2011, 27,5 % des propriétaires étaient enregistrés en tant que producteurs forestiers auprès du gouvernement du Québec (Fédération des producteurs forestiers du Québec, 2012). Cette faible proportion amène un questionnement sur les raisons poussant ces individus à posséder un boisé. Dans plusieurs régions, la majorité l'utilise pour le bois de chauffage, à des fins récréatives, pour offrir en héritage ou pour le simple plaisir de le posséder (Demers Gobeil Mercier et Associés Inc., 1998 ; Agence régionale de mise en valeur des forêts privées de Lanaudière, 2010-2011). Plus récemment, 49 % des propriétaires qui n'avaient pas aménagé leurs boisés dans les dernières années mentionnaient que l'aménagement forestier n'était pas un de leurs objectifs, alors que 45 % de ceux qui en avaient récolté mentionnaient désirer améliorer les habitats fauniques (Côté, Gilbert and

Nadeau, 2012). Pourtant, la majorité des plans d'aménagement forestier (PAF) actuels produits par les ingénieurs forestiers pour le compte des propriétaires privés ne visent que la production de bois. Il semble donc exister un décalage entre les objectifs de possession des propriétaires et l'offre d'aménagement existante.

En 1998 et 1999, une enquête révélait que la majorité des propriétaires forestiers québécois exprimaient leur volonté à modifier leurs activités sylvicoles pour protéger la forêt comme paysage et habitat pour la biodiversité (MFFPQ, 2003-2013a). Ainsi, l'importance de la préservation du caractère naturel des forêts à travers l'exploitation des ressources semble avoir peu à peu fait sa place dans leur mentalité, suivant la tendance aussi observée ailleurs dans le monde (Rickenbach *et al.*, 1998). Ce souci de diminuer l'impact de l'humain sur la nature apparaît comme logique quand est mis en relief le lien étroit entre le fonctionnement des écosystèmes et plusieurs aspects du bien-être humain, via, entre autres, l'approvisionnement en ressources premières et en nourriture, la régulation de la qualité de l'eau et de l'air ou l'apport en sites récréatifs (Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). Ils constituent les bénéfices directs et indirects que peuvent retirer les humains des écosystèmes et sont nommés services écologiques ou écosystémiques (ci-après nommés services ou SÉ) (Costanza *et al.*, 1997). Les exemples de monétarisation, c'est-à-dire attribuer une valeur économique, de SÉ sont de plus en plus nombreux dans la littérature (Farber, Costanza and Wilson, 2002; TEEB Foundations, 2010; Braat and de Groot, 2012). L'étude de Costanza *et al.* (1997) en est un exemple marquant, où la valeur des SÉ fournis par l'ensemble des écosystèmes mondiaux est trouvée supérieure à la seule valeur des ressources premières qui en sont extraites. Malgré l'engouement et le nombre exponentiel de projets proposant des cadres d'évaluation des services ou de leur mesure, l'application de ces connaissances sur le terrain lors de la prise de décision concernant l'aménagement des ressources naturelles tarde à se concrétiser (Daily *et al.*, 2009;

Müller and Burkhard, 2007; Pittock, Cork and Maynard, 2012). Le Québec ne fait pas exception à cette situation et la valeur des SÉ fournis par ses forêts n'est pas pour l'instant évaluée quand l'aménagement forestier est planifié. Suggérer une approche favorisant la production et le maintien de multiples SÉ par un plan d'activités sylvicoles qui vont dans ce sens pourrait inciter davantage de propriétaires à œuvrer positivement dans leur boisé. Une évaluation quantitative des SÉ facilite leur compréhension, l'identification de compromis entre eux (Boyd and Banzhaf, 2007) et la prise en compte dans les décisions lorsqu'ayant les mêmes unités de mesure (Busch *et al.*, 2012).

Cependant, le besoin d'outils appropriés à la réalité spatiale des décideurs et aménagistes se fait aujourd'hui sentir (Turner and Daily, 2008). Les forêts d'une superficie de moins de 100 hectares (ha) représentent 80 % des boisés privés au Québec (Roy *et al.*, 2009), et une revue des outils existants d'évaluation des SÉ fait ressortir l'absence de ceux qui seraient à une échelle adaptée aux propriétaires. Selon Chan *et al.* (2006), c'est ce manque d'informations aux niveaux local et régional sur les SÉ qui retarde leur prise en compte.

Ainsi, l'étude qui sera effectuée ici vise l'analyse des impacts sur les SÉ de l'approche actuelle en forêt privée du sud du Québec selon le type de peuplement, et de scénario d'aménagement simple et multiple sous format TRIADE (Seymour and Hunter, 1992). L'analyse des diverses performances de scénarios permettra d'identifier ceux fournissant le plus de bois, carbone ou qualité de l'habitat, ainsi que ceux obtenant les meilleurs compromis. L'utilisation de caractéristiques simples de peuplements forestiers, provenant d'un modèle, pourrait faciliter le transfert de la méthode et des résultats vers les aménagistes et propriétaires privés. Cette méthode faciliterait l'incorporation de la valeur des SÉ dans la planification de l'aménagement et dans le processus décisionnel des forestiers et propriétaires.

0.1 L'aménagement traditionnel en forêt privée québécoise

Au Québec, 16 % de la forêt productive est retrouvée en terres privées (MFFPQ, 2003-2012a) et sont pour la plupart de petits lots (<100 ha) situés dans les régions du sud (Roy *et al.*, 2009). Elles subissent de fortes pressions d'urbanisation et la conversion du territoire constitue une menace à la survie des massifs forestiers résiduels, particulièrement près de l'île de Montréal (Gratton *et al.*, 2011).

Les terres privées peuvent être enregistrées via le titre de producteur forestier donné par le gouvernement du Québec, requérant d'un propriétaire la possession d'un lot boisé d'un minimum de 4 ha faisant l'objet d'un plan d'aménagement forestier (PAF) (MFFPQ, 2003-2013b). Le statut de producteur permet de bénéficier d'une exemption annuelle des taxes foncières de l'ordre de 85 %, à la condition d'avoir exécuté certains travaux admissibles, inclus dans le PAF, dont les coûts égalent minimalement le montant desdites taxes. Pratiquement toutes les activités dont les dépenses entrent dans le calcul pour obtenir l'exemption de taxes ont pour but la production sylvicole (Gouvernement du Québec, 2012). Toutefois, lors de la rencontre des partenaires de la forêt privée en 2011, il a été prévu rendre des actions visant les plans multiressources en forêt privée (produits forestiers non-ligneux, p.ex. champignons et plantes médicinales) admissibles, de même que celles visant l'obtention ou le maintien d'une certification forestière (p.ex. FSC) (Ministère des Forêts, de la Faune et des Parcs du Québec, 2011). Cette décision reflète une prise de conscience de l'évolution des préoccupations des propriétaires et du grand public, de plus en plus tournées vers les autres rôles que jouent nos écosystèmes forestiers.

En plus de l'exemption de taxes foncières, les producteurs peuvent demander des subventions à la réalisation de travaux dans leur boisé auprès de leur agence

régionale de mise en valeur de la forêt privée. Chaque agence est en charge, entre autres, de mettre en place les grandes lignes du développement sylvicole régional via un Plan de protection et de mise en valeur (PPMV) et de gérer les budgets dédiés au secteur forestier privé (Comité des partenaires de la forêt privée, 2008). En 2012, 43 % de toute la superficie forestière privée était incluse dans un PAF et 57 % des propriétaires n'avaient pas récolté de bois pour le sciage ou pour la pâte (Fédération des producteurs forestiers du Québec, 2014 ; Gilbert, 2012). Une piste d'explication à la faible récolte autre que pour le bois de chauffage peut se dessiner en observant les résultats d'une étude menée aux États-Unis, où les petites forêts montrent un taux d'aménagement intensif inférieur aux forêts de grande taille. Cette situation serait attribuable à la difficulté et au coût plus élevé de l'aménagement intensif sur une petite superficie et, comme il a été possible de voir grâce aux enquêtes susmentionnées, aux objectifs autres que la production de bois par les propriétaires (Zhang, Zhang and Schelhas, 2009). L'aménagement actuel au Québec a cependant pour objectif principal la production de bois. Une volonté d'accroissement de l'apport des forêts privées dans l'approvisionnement des usines de transformation, et en général dans l'économie, s'est de plus affichée dans les dernières années (Laliberté and Lussier, 2002 ; Ministère des Ressources Naturelles et de la Faune du Québec, 2011). Pour atteindre ces objectifs, tout en gardant durables les volumes de bois prélevés et encourager plus de propriétaires à s'investir dans leur boisé, une modification de l'approche traditionnelle en forêt semble s'imposer.

0.1.1 Traitements sylvicoles

L'aménagement forestier au Québec a beaucoup changé depuis l'arrivée de l'approche écosystémique en forêt publique (Grenon, Jetté and Leblanc, 2010). Ce type d'aménagement vise à rendre les forêts aménagées plus similaires aux forêts

naturelles non-aménagées en effectuant des coupes analogues aux perturbations naturelles, dans une perspective de pérennité, d'acceptabilité sociale et de viabilité économique durable des ressources (Grumbine, 1994). Dans cet objectif, les coupes devraient pouvoir recréer des trouées de tailles diverses, mimant la mortalité naturelle des arbres ou l'impact de perturbations naturelles. Un virage vers un aménagement voulu plus durable s'est aussi observé en forêt privée, où les coupes partielles, comme l'éclaircie commerciale et la coupe de jardinage, ont remplacé les autres coupes (Commission d'étude sur la gestion de la forêt publique québécoise, 2004).

La coupe de jardinage s'effectue sur des peuplements d'arbres de plusieurs âges différents et permet de garder cette structure inéquienne. Utilisée surtout en forêt de feuillus tolérants à l'ombre, elle vise le retrait de 25 à 35 % des arbres malades ainsi que ceux matures ayant une valeur commerciale, mais de moins bonne qualité (Bureau du forestier en chef, 2012). Cette coupe peut être répétée environ aux 20 ans et engendre une diminution de la présence d'arbres morts (Bédard *et al.*, 2007). Les arbres restants ont ensuite plus d'espace pour une croissance optimisée, de l'ordre de 30 à 50 % plus rapide 10 ans après coupe, en plus de laisser la strate de régénération dans des conditions favorables grâce aux trouées créées (Forget *et al.*, 2004). Un peuplement jardiné devrait conserver une surface terrière minimale de 16 mètres carrés par ha ($\text{m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$) (Majcen, 1994) et est défini comme à l'équilibre lorsque le volume de prélèvement qui y est effectué correspond à son accroissement en volume à la fin de la rotation (Bureau du forestier en chef, 2012).

L'éclaircie commerciale est quant à elle pratiquée dans les peuplements équiens immatures, en forêt naturelle après coupe ou très régulièrement en plantation. Traitement sylvicole fréquent, il ne mènerait toutefois pas à l'augmentation de volume de bois brut à l'hectare (Mäkinen et Isomäki, 2004). En fait, il permet

d'améliorer le diamètre des tiges résiduelles d'espèces plus prisées par le retrait de 20 à 40 % des autres tiges aux 15 à 20 ans en forêt naturelle (Trottier, 2011). Les temps de rotation peuvent varier selon l'essence et la surface terrière (Bureau du forestier en chef, 2012).

On retrouve également des plantations, majoritairement de résineux, en forêt privée. Elles peuvent subir ou non une série d'éclaircies commerciales avant d'atteindre la taille désirée pour la coupe finale (Prégent, 1998). Les plantations visent un bon rendement en bois, mais offrent cependant la majorité des autres SÉ en moindre qualité et quantité que les forêts naturelles (de Groot and Van der Meer, 2010). D'autre part, les effets d'une coupe totale, souvent le traitement réservé aux plantations en fin de rotation, sont nombreux (Keenan and Kimmins, 1993 ; Rosenvald and Lõhmus, 2008). Entre autres, les cours d'eau avoisinants subissent diverses modifications en termes de qualité et de quantité de l'eau (Brown and Krygier, 1970 ; Jones and Grant, 1996). La biodiversité subit aussi les effets de la perte d'une zone d'habitat et de la fragmentation créée par cette coupe (Moses and Boutin, 2001). D'un autre côté, les plantations aménagées intensivement et judicieusement localisées permettraient de répondre à la demande en matière ligneuse tout en préservant les forêts naturelles qui fournissent des SÉ de qualité (de Groot and Van der Meer, 2010 ; Thiffault et al., 2003).

0.1.2 Les scénarios d'aménagement

Les scénarios d'aménagement peuvent combiner plusieurs traitements dans une forêt, avec des variations en proportions et intensités variables. Les objectifs d'aménagement d'un propriétaire sont un facteur déterminant dans le choix d'un scénario et peuvent être très variés : productivité ligneuse intensive, conservation, récréation, production de bois de chauffage, etc. (Gilbert, 2012). L'aménagement

intensif englobe, entre autres, l'usage de coupes retirant une grande proportion des arbres dans la majorité des peuplements d'une forêt. Cet aménagement est souvent associé au reboisement de plantations monospécifiques et est de plus en plus vu comme un moyen d'obtenir des rendements soutenus en bois pour pallier la perte de productivité occasionnée par l'aménagement écosystémique (Park and Wilson, 2007) ou la conservation d'autres zones forestières (de Groot and Van der Meer, 2010). Toutefois, il demeure un choix comportant des effets négatifs sur l'environnement (Laudon *et al.*, 2011). Il serait instinctif de s'attendre à ce que l'absence d'intervention en forêt soit l'option la plus bénéfique pour la majorité des SÉ fournis. Cependant, viser la meilleure production de plusieurs SÉ simultanément comme il sera suggéré dans cette étude pourrait ne pas équivaloir *de facto* au choix d'un scénario de conservation complète. En effet, en comparant les effets de scénarios de conservation et d'éclaircies d'intensités variées, Köchli et Brang (2005) ont calculé des indices de SÉ plus élevés avec des traitements légers qu'en absence de traitement. De plus, l'absence d'interventions sylvicoles équivaut à laisser à néant le SÉ d'approvisionnement en matière ligneuse.

Une forme de compromis possible se dessine au Québec via le concept de la TRIADE (Hunter and Calhoun, 1996; Seymour and Hunter, 1992), qui combine plusieurs types d'aménagement en un scénario. La forêt est aménagée en trois sections distinctes; intensive, conservée et aménagée selon une approche écosystémique. La taille de chacune de ces sections varie et est définie à l'avance selon les caractéristiques du territoire. L'approche a fourni ses premiers résultats en forêt publique (Côté *et al.*, 2010; Messier *et al.*, 2009) et son application en forêt privée suscite un intérêt grandissant (Montigny and MacLean, 2006). L'approche permettrait un meilleur rendement en bois via l'aménagement intensif, ce qui rend possible la conservation de terres plus sensibles ou de valeur écologique élevée (Montigny and MacLean, 2006).

0.2 Les services rendus par les écosystèmes

Les SÉ sont les bénéfices que les humains retirent du fonctionnement des écosystèmes, contribuant au bien-être général (Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). Quoique plusieurs nouvelles classifications des SÉ aient vu le jour suite à celle du rapport pivot des Écosystèmes pour le millénaire (Bastian, Haase and Grunewald, 2012; Boyd and Banzhaf, 2007; Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005), c'est à cette dernière qu'on se réfère encore largement aujourd'hui. Elle divise les SÉ en quatre catégories, soit les services d'approvisionnement, de régulation, culturels et de soutien (Fig. 0.1). Il y a déjà 30 ans, Ehrlich and Mooney (1983) affirmaient que la manière dont les SÉ étaient rendus était étroitement liée aux « rôles » fonctionnels des organismes. En effet, un écosystème qui conserve ses capacités fonctionnelles permet le soutien de divers SÉ (Fig. 0.2). Ainsi, l'état des forêts est fortement associé aux services qu'elles rendent, et profiter d'un service peut affecter la qualité d'un autre. Par exemple, un sol forestier subissant des coupes voit sa production de sédiments augmenter en lien avec une érosion accrue, diminuant également sa capacité à les filtrer (Grant and Wolff, 1991; Hamilton, 2008; Neary, Ice and Jackson, 2009; Sedell *et al.*, 2000). L'exploitation du service d'approvisionnement en matière première a ici diminué le service de régulation de la qualité de l'eau. De 50 à 55 % de la variation dans les coûts de purification de l'eau en usine serait d'ailleurs expliquée simplement par la variation de la couverture forestière au point de source (Ernst, 2004). La participation des arbres à la séquestration du carbone atmosphérique via la photosynthèse fait des forêts des éléments cruciaux dans la lutte qui s'engage envers les changements climatiques (Dervis *et al.*, 2010). Par ailleurs, une forêt naturelle ou aménagée selon certains régimes de coupe contiendra, entre autres, son lot de chicots, de débris ligneux au sol, constituant l'habitat et la nourriture pour plusieurs espèces animales (Desrochers, 2009).

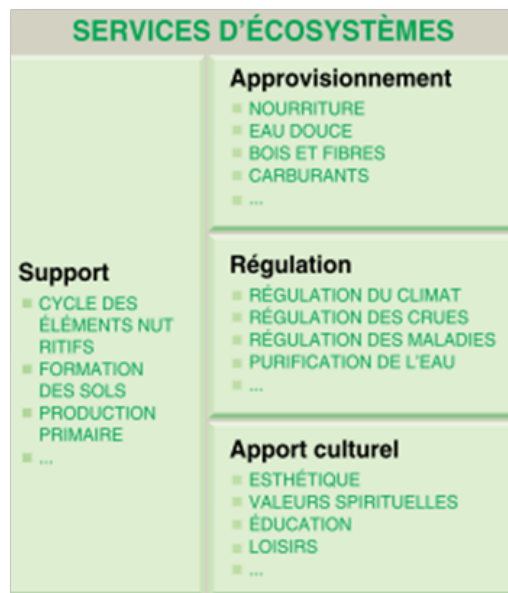


Figure 0.1 Classification des services écosystémiques du rapport *Écosystèmes pour le millénaire* (figure tirée du Millenium Ecosystem Assessment (2005)).

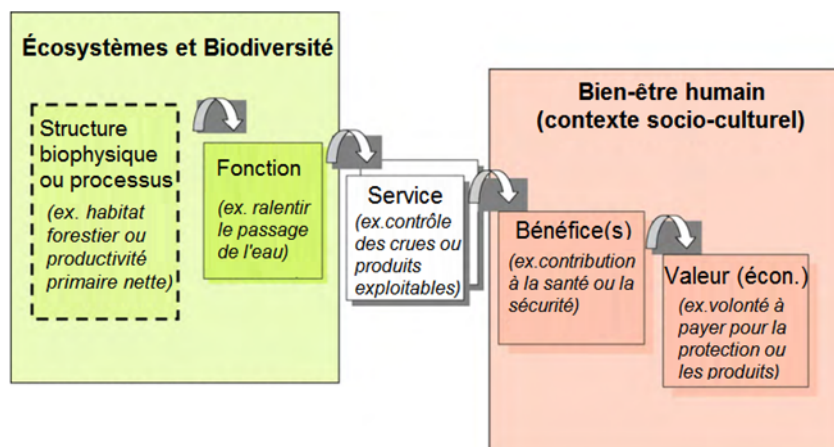


Figure 0.2 Schéma de la manière dont les écosystèmes et le bien-être humain sont liés (traduit de De Groot *et al.* (2010) et Haines-Young et Potschin (2009)).

Bref, les écosystèmes sont des assemblages dynamiques et complexes d'espèces dont les relations interspécifiques et interactions avec le milieu physique ont une grande influence sur les fonctions écosystémiques (Duffy *et al.*, 2007). Il est reconnu d'autre part que la biodiversité a des effets positifs sur les fonctions et services écologiques (Balvanera *et al.*, 2006 ; Burton *et al.*, 1992 ; Costanza *et al.*, 2007 ; Myers, 1996 ; Hooper *et al.*, 2005). Selon Limburg *et al.* (2002), diversité, SÉ et processus écosystémiques sont intimement reliés et c'est dans cet esprit des systèmes complexes que l'évaluation des services devrait se faire. Enfin, comme vu ci-haut avec l'impact des coupes sur l'eau, les SÉ réagissent non seulement aux fluctuations environnementales mais aussi à celles des autres SÉ, créant compromis et synergies maintenant considérés dans plusieurs études (Bennett, Peterson and Gordon, 2009 ; Müller and Burkhard, 2012 ; Raudsepp-Hearne, Peterson and Bennett, 2010).

0.2.1 Mesure des services écosystémiques et indicateurs

Les SÉ peuvent être mesurés selon des approches différentes, entre autres biophysique ou économique. La première vise à évaluer surtout l'état ou la capacité d'un écosystème à fournir un service en particulier, c'est-à-dire le niveau de production et d'utilisation durable du service qu'il fournit (de Groot *et al.*, 2010). Les services d'approvisionnement sont généralement assez simples à obtenir à l'aide de mesures de volumes. D'autres, comme ceux de régulation, sont souvent plus difficiles à évaluer, requérant des méthodes plus nombreuses et complexes, d'où l'utilité de l'emploi d'indicateurs. Müller et Burkhard (2012) disent des indicateurs écologiques qu'ils « [...] facilit[ent] la simplification de la grande complexité des systèmes humain-environnement. ». Ils permettent de surveiller les changements survenant dans les écosystèmes, et la manière dont ces changements modifient la qualité ou la présence en elle-même des SÉ (Dale and Polasky, 2007). Les espèces

d'amphibiens ou de reptiles, par exemple, sont reconnues comme étant indicatrices de l'état de l'écosystème puisqu'elles sont très sensibles aux modifications qui y surviennent (Wilson and McCranie, 2003). Plutôt que de mesurer à plusieurs moments une multitude de paramètres (pH du sol, température, éléments dissouts dans les cours d'eau, etc.), le changement ou déplacement d'une population de salamandres sera tout aussi révélateur des perturbations de son environnement.

Plusieurs indicateurs de SÉ ont été proposés dans la littérature. Par exemple, Burkhard *et al.* (2012) soutiennent que l'intégrité des écosystèmes permet le maintien de la provision de SÉ, rendant les indicateurs d'intégrité de potentiels indicateurs de SÉ. L'information sur la couverture du sol au niveau du paysage, comme le pourcentage de terres en culture ou de zones urbaines, en est un bon exemple (Lathrop, Tulloch and Hatfield, 2007). Elle doit toutefois être accompagnée d'une bonne compréhension de l'utilisation réelle de ce couvert par les habitants et de l'utilité qu'ils lui trouvent afin de la lier à l'intégrité et aux SÉ (Haines-Young, Potschin and Kienast, 2012). Les indicateurs de biodiversité pourraient également être de bons candidats pour mesurer les SÉ puisque, comme vu plus haut, la biodiversité et les SÉ sont positivement liés (Reyers *et al.*, 2010). Les indices de qualité de l'habitat (IQH), au Québec, et les « habitat suitability index » (HSI), élaborés aux États-Unis, visent quant à eux à évaluer à l'aide des caractéristiques d'un milieu la valeur de celui-ci en tant qu'habitat pour une espèce en particulier ou un groupe d'espèces (Doyon, Bouffard and Poirier, 2002; Schamberger and Krohn, 1982). Les producteurs et unités productrices de SÉ («ecosystem services providers», «service providing units») définis dans la littérature pourraient aussi être de bons indicateurs de services puisque ce sont eux qui les fournissent (Kremen and Ostfeld, 2005; Luck, Daily and Ehrlich, 2003). Par exemple, une population d'abeilles sera l'unité productrice du service de pollinisation d'un champ. Ces unités organisationnelles ont chacune un poids variable dans la production des

services, et l'identification de ces unités dans le milieu serait gage de la présence du service (Kremen and Ostfeld, 2005). Il a aussi été suggéré de déterminer les zones de production de services (« service providing areas ») et celles qui en bénéficient (« service benefit areas ») (Syrbe and Waltz, 2012). La prise en compte de la localisation spatiale de ces deux zones permettrait une estimation plus réaliste de la valeur des SÉ. Enfin, le choix d'un bon indicateur est crucial et dans les projets d'évaluation des SÉ, l'identification d'indicateurs appropriés reste encore aujourd'hui un obstacle important (Dale and Polasky, 2007; Seppelt *et al.*, 2011; Wallace, 2007).

0.3 Objectifs et hypothèses

L'objectif principal du projet est d'évaluer comment différents scénarios d'aménagement influencent la valeur de trois SÉ. Subséquemment, une approche de type TRIADE variant les proportions des zones permettra de voir à quel point il est possible de concilier ces SÉ. Cet objectif passe par la connaissance de la valeur des services et de sa modification suite aux coupes prescrites.

La présente étude va donc simuler l'effet de différentes interventions sylvicoles dans des peuplements forestiers typiques du sud du Québec sur la valeur de trois SÉ. Les SÉ retenus ici sont la production de bois, la séquestration de carbone, et la qualité de l'habitat pour la biodiversité. Les différents scénarios d'aménagement retenus seront simulés dans trois différents types de peuplements forestiers, soit une érablière à feuillus tolérants, un peuplement de feuillus intolérants décidus et une plantation d'épinettes blanches au cours d'une rotation de 70 ans (Fig. 0.3). Ainsi seront appliqués à l'aide du modèle Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS) un scénario passif (aucun aménagement), un aménagement écosystémique, un intensif, et plusieurs TRIADEs afin d'identifier leur performance en termes de SÉ.

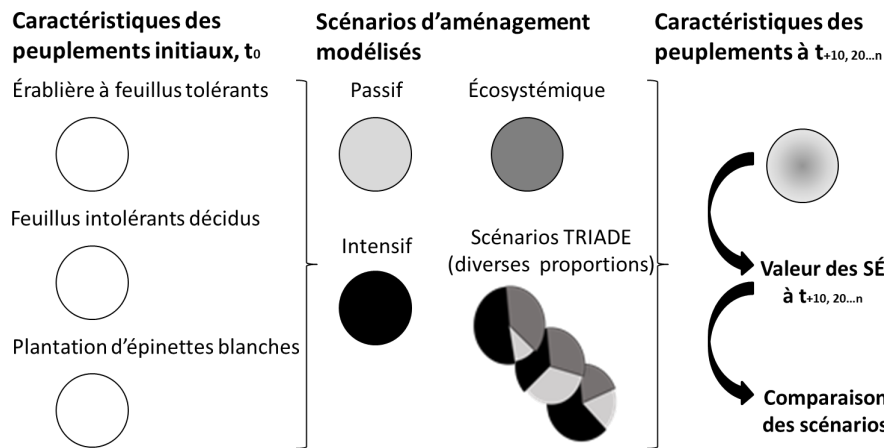


Figure 0.3 Schéma de la modélisation des scénarios d'aménagement sur les différents types de peuplements forestiers. Les caractéristiques des peuplements avant et après la simulation des scénarios d'aménagement servent à calculer la valeur des SÉ. La performance des scénarios est basée sur la comparaison des valeurs de SÉ.

- **Objectif 1 : Simuler l'effet de différents types de scénarios d'aménagement simples sur la valeur des SÉ pour dégager les compromis entre les SÉ et les scénarios les plus performants pour ceux-ci.**
 - H1.1. Plus les niveaux de récolte de bois seront élevés (% de retrait des tiges lors des coupes et nombre de coupes dans une rotation), plus les stocks de carbone et la qualité de l'habitat seront bas dans tous les types de peuplement.
 - H1.2. Le scénario intensif produira le plus de volume de bois récolté sur la rotation de 70 ans, alors que le scénario de conservation possèdera une moyenne plus grande de stock de carbone et de qualité de l'habitat dans tous les types de forêt considérés.

- **Objectif 2 : Varier les proportions de forêt allouées à chaque type d'aménagement (passif, écosystémique et intensif) dans des scénarios de type TRIADE afin de déterminer si ils offrent de meilleurs compromis pour l'ensemble des SÉ qu'une approche comportant un seul type d'aménagement.**
- H2. Une combinaison d'approche via des scénarios d'aménagement TRIADE permettra de maximiser la valeur moyenne de l'ensemble des trois SÉ évalués par rapport à un scénario unique d'aménagement (intensif, écosystémique ou conservation).

CHAPITRE I

MANAGING EASTERN NORTH AMERICAN FORESTS FOR MULTIPLE ECOSYSTEM SERVICES : A MODELING APPROACH

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Abstract

Managing for multiple ecosystem functions and services is a growing issue for forest managers. As trade-offs arise between conflicting management objectives, stakeholders must be informed of possible outcomes of alternative choices in a way that facilitates decision-making. In this study we use a modeling approach, based on the Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS), to simulate various stand dynamics under three different intensities of single-management scenarios over 70 years. Five stands of three distinctive forest types were simulated individually : sugar maple-beech (SM), shade-intolerant deciduous (SID), and white spruce plantations (WSP). For each of the three forest types and management scenarios, three ecosystem services (timber production, carbon stock and habitat quality) were calculated based on the simulation outputs. Habitat quality was measured using a habitat suitability index (HSI) that included three different stand structural indicators. Results from each management scenario were transposed in a series of functional zoning (TRIAD) scenarios with an increasing allocation of conservation area. Values of each service were transformed into utilities to perform a multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA), and to ease comparison and aggregation of results to rank scenarios. The expected performances tell us that the most intensive management yielded greater timber volumes but resulted in the weakest carbon and habitat quality scores. TRIAD multiple-management scenarios in SM stands allowed harvesting timber while maintaining or raising overall habitat and carbon levels compared to active single-management. In SID stands, there was a loss of timber production, but with greater carbon stock and habitat quality. Our study provides a unique insight of alternative management scenarios on ecosystem services within various forest types. It confirms that multiple harvest systems better achieves multiple services. This finding is crucial considering that the choice of action course in forest management depends largely on interests and values of sta-

keholders. The coupling of simulation modelling with MCDA constitutes a simple, flexible, and easily accessible data requirement method offering great promise to help stakeholders and managers make sound decisions.

Keywords : Ecosystem services ; forest dynamics modeling ; forest management planning ; multi-criteria decision analysis ; TRIAD.

Résumé

L'aménagement axé sur les multiples fonctions et services écosystémiques (SÉ) est un enjeu croissant pour les aménagistes forestiers. Puisque de nombreux compromis surviennent lorsque des objectifs d'aménagement sont contradictoires, les parties prenantes doivent être informées des résultats possibles de choix alternatifs d'aménagement d'une manière facilitant la prise de décision. Nous avons utilisé une approche de modélisation avec le Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS) pour simuler la dynamique des peuplements sous trois scénarios simples, d'intensité variable, sur un horizon temporel de 70 ans. Cinq peuplements de trois différents types de forêts ont été simulés individuellement ; érablière à hêtre (SM), intolérants à l'ombre (SID) et plantations d'épinettes blanches (WSP). Les trois objectifs calculés sur la base des résultats de simulations étaient la production de bois, le stock de carbone et la qualité de l'habitat. La qualité de l'habitat a été mesurée avec un indice de qualité de l'habitat (HSI) constitué de trois indicateurs de structure de peuplement. Les résultats des scénarios uniques ont ensuite été transposés dans une série de scénarios d'aménagements multiples TRIAD, incluant une augmentation de l'allocation du territoire à la zone de conservation. En vertu d'une analyse décisionnelle multicritère (MCDA), les valeurs de chaque objectif ont été transformées en utilités pour faciliter la comparaison et l'agrégation des résultats pour mieux classer les scénarios. Les performances estimées indiquent que l'aménagement le plus intensif a donné des volumes supérieurs de bois, mais a

entraîné les plus faibles scores de carbone et d'habitat. L'utilisation des scénarios d'aménagement multiples TRIAD dans les peuplements SM a montré un maintien du volume de bois récolté tandis que les niveaux de l'habitat et du carbone ont été conservés ou augmentés par rapport aux scénarios simples comportant des coupes. Dans les peuplements SI, il y a eu perte de production de bois, accompagnée d'une meilleure utilité pour les deux autres objectifs. Ainsi, notre étude apporte un éclairage unique sur les effets de plusieurs scénarios d'aménagement simultanés sur plusieurs SÉ dans des forêts variées. Elle confirme qu'un système à scénarios multiples permet de meilleurs compromis entre plusieurs SÉ. Ce résultat est d'autant plus crucial sachant que le choix du plan d'action en matière de gestion des forêts dépend en grande partie des intérêts et valeurs des parties prenantes. L'usage combiné de modèles de simulation et de MCDA constitue une méthode simple, flexible et requérant des données aisément accessibles, et offre ainsi une avenue prometteuse pour soutenir les gestionnaires dans des prises de décisions éclairées.

Mots-clés : Services écosystémiques ; modélisation de la dynamique forestière ; aménagement forestier ; analyse décisionnelle multicritère ; TRIADE.

1.1 Introduction

In recent decades, there has been increasing pressure to improve forest management so as to practice a more sustainable forestry that acknowledges the multiple functions and services provided by the forest beyond simply timber production (Brunson, 1993 ; Maser, 1994 ; Pagiola *et al.*, 2012 ; Toman and Ashton, 1996). Tree carbon storage, for example, is now increasingly recognized as an important forest function and it has become a central point in climate change discussions (Canadell and Raupach, 2008 ; Friend *et al.*, 2014 ; Newell and Stavins, 2000 ; Watson *et al.*, 2000 ; Whitehead, 2011). Different forest management practices can

either fix or release carbon (Dixon *et al.*, 1994), making carbon accounting crucial (Díaz-Balteiro and Romero, 2003; Moore *et al.*, 2012) and furthermore necessary for mitigating climate change through carbon markets (Tavoni *et al.*, 2007). Habitat quality for biodiversity is likewise an increasing concern for foresters and lumber companies, being now part of requirements in forest certifications (Brown *et al.*, 2001; Rametsteiner and Simula, 2003).

Around the world, ecosystems are generally managed for only one or very few services, like raw materials, leading to the depletion or loss of many other services (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2006). Strong trade-offs among supply, regulation and cultural services have been identified and described (Bennett *et al.*, 2009; Bradford and D'Amato, 2011; Raudsepp-Hearne *et al.*, 2010). Managing forest ecosystems with regards to the trade-offs among the many services represents a timely and impressive, although manageable, challenge for all stakeholders.

The forest of the eastern United States, mostly privately owned, has been the land cover most affected of all covers by urban sprawl in this country, and is forecasted to continue experiencing a similar pattern in the future (Smith *et al.*, 2003; Stein *et al.*, 2005). With a decreasing size, i.e. 4.1 % of land cover loss between 1973 and 2000 (Drummond and Lovel, 2010), the remaining forest cover is under a huge pressure to provide services to a growing population. It is still unclear how private forest owners and managers should integrate diverse and contrasted public demands (aesthetics, recreation opportunities, conservation) and their own motivations (family heritage, income from timber) when planning for forest management (Hugosson and Ingemarson, 2004). A TRIAD multiple-management scenario, also known as functional zoning (Messier *et al.*, 2009), could be a promising solution as it attempts to conciliate timber production with conservation issues (Montigny and MacLean, 2006; Seymour and Hunter, 1992). By segregating landscape areas for specific activities, TRIAD has proven to be

efficient in maintaining the levels of multiple services demanded by the population, and thus socially acceptable (Binkley, 1997; Messier *et al.*, 2009; Swallow *et al.*, 1990).

In the United States and Canada, tools to help managers integrate multiple management objectives in privately owned forests are needed. Forest simulation modeling aims at predicting, within uncertainty boundaries, the dynamics and the possible outcomes of management decisions on forests (Peng, 2000; Vanclay, 1994). Simulation outputs can indicate whether the future forest will offer the wanted ecosystem services and thus could help fully recognize and reward private owners for these services provided to the population (Mercer *et al.*, 2011; Molnar and Kubiszewski, 2012). However, well-informed management decisions based on the interpretation of simulation outputs can be overwhelming. A rigorous framework must be employed to compare the success of simulated management scenarios in achieving different management objectives (Mendoza and Martins, 2006; Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). Multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) has been proposed as a powerful tool to improve the structuring and understanding of management problem parameters (Belton and Stewart, 2002).

In this paper we compared levels of ecosystem services under various management scenarios using a modeling approach combined with MCDA, modified in some aspects from Schwenk *et al.* (2012). We measured timber production, carbon storage, and the maintenance of habitat quality, based on forest stand characteristics produced by the Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS). We developed a simple habitat suitability index (HSI) to easily measure the habitat quality service from FVS outputs. We used five stands from three forest types in order to cover a realistic range of the variety of stands encountered in eastern North America. Sugar maple-beech stands (SM), shade-intolerant deciduous stands (SID), and white spruce plantations (WSP) were each simulated under three alterna-

tive, intensity increasing, single-management scenarios. We then calculated five TRIAD scenarios, combining all ecosystem services results from the three single scenarios plus an intensively managed WSP, in different proportions. The goals of this study were to : (1) simulate the effects of contrasting management scenario intensities applied in three different forest types on multiple services ; (2) quantify trade-offs in ecosystem functions and services ; and (3) estimate if a combination of different management types under TRIAD scenarios could reach the fulfilment of multiple services at a time. Hereafter, we describe the modeled management outcomes and discuss the modeling details and implications of our method for practical decision-making in private land.

1.2 Methods

1.2.1 Study region and stands

Our model explores stands of the state of New York, USA, that one could encounter in a typical private northern hardwood forest. These forests are populated by a large proportion of *Acer saccharum* (sugar maple), *Fagus grandifolia* (American beech) and *Betula alleghaniensis* (yellow birch), and can include various additional species such as *Tsuga canadensis* (eastern hemlock), *Tilia americana* (basswood), *Abies balsamea* (balsam fir), *Acer rubrum* (red maple) and *Betula papyrifera* (paper birch). Stands of sugar maple-beech (SM), shade-intolerant deciduous (SID), and white spruce plantation (WSP) stands were selected for the simulation of various forest management scenarios.

Stands were taken from the most recent available Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) database of the state of New York, which comes from the 2012 survey. Selection criteria were based on characteristics that would make them ready to harvest, resulting in a bank of suitable stands from which to draw randomly (full

details, Appendix A). Briefly, for SM stands, criteria included forest type (sugar maple-beech-yellow birch), stand age (80-100 years old), basal area (minimum of $23 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$), slope ($>50 \%$) and stocking (all four plots of the stand can be forested, 100%). Criteria for SID stands included forest type (aspen or paper birch), stand age (50-70), basal area (minimum of $18 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$), slope ($>50 \%$) and stocking (all four plots of the stand can be forested, 100%). These criteria provided us with 44 SM and six SID stands. Considering the small number of SID stands available, the sampling size was set to five randomly chosen stands within the bank for each stand type. The selected forest stands for the simulation were between 80 and 97 years old (mean : 90 years) and 25.3 to $38.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ in basal area (mean : $30.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$) for the SM stands, and between 54 and 60 years old and 18.2 to $32.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ in basal area (mean : $26.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$) for the SID stands. Since the New York FIA database contained only one white spruce plantation, we used it to simulate five different plausible densities of white spruce trees (1000, 1500, 2000, 2500 and 3000 stems ha^{-1}). More details on all stands used for simulations can be found in Appendix A.

1.2.2 Forest simulation model

The Forest Vegetation Simulator (FVS) was used to perform simulations of three management scenarios, with different harvest types and cycles, applied on the stands described above. FVS is a distance-independent, individual-based, well-known modeling tool of forest growth that simulates stand dynamics following a wide range of potential silvicultural treatments (Crookston and Dixon, 2005). FVS suited best the purpose of this study partly because it possesses a Northeast Variant (NE-FVS) (Ray *et al.*, 2009), calibrated for the northern hardwood species found in our selected stands, and is easily compatible with the FIA databases that we used. The FIA2FVS pre-processor converted FIA data into FVS readable data

(Vandendriesche, 2012). However, after processing this converted data by FVS, some of the SID stands, initially fitting the described criteria, were found to be dominated by white ash or red maple instead of paper birch or aspen. Since those were otherwise co-dominated by aspen, they were kept in the selected SID stands.

1.2.3 Management scenarios and simulation parameters

Management scenarios were simulated over a 70-year horizon (length of one rotation for all but one scenario) using 10-year time steps starting in 2012. Two forest management scenarios, an ecosystem (Grumbine, 1994) and intensive management scenario that differed depending on forest types, were compared to a no-management scenario for each of the three different forest types (hereafter named No-management, Ecosystem, and Intensive, see Table 1.1). The scenarios and the rotation length of 70 years were based on usual silvicultural prescriptions for these kinds of stand in private woodlots. The Intensive scenario in the SM stand and the Ecosystem scenarios in all three forest types, were developed to reflect the current thinking in terms of current silvicultural practices.

The harvesting parameters for the individual tree selection (ITS) used for the Ecosystem management in SM stands were set to allow the initial basal area recovery in a 20-year harvest cycle. Parameters for merchantability of wood were set to 15 cm stump height, and both minimal diameter and minimal top diameter to 9 cm. A maximum basal area was set at $35 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ in the SM stands, representative of forests dominated by sugar maple and beech (McCune and Menges, 1986). That maximum was set to $40 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the denser SID stands, and to $50 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ for the WSP. Setting a maximum basal area ensured that the different stands would not grow to exceed what is sustainable for the site and has been recommended for FVS (Dixon, 2002).

Table 1.1 Management scenarios for the 70-year simulations (2012-2082). ITS : Individual tree selection.

Management scenario	Sugar maple-beech stands	Shade-intolerant deciduous stands	White spruce plantations
No-management	No management	No management	No management
Ecosystem management	ITS every 20 years: q-factor 1.4; Min DBH class: 5 cm; Max DBH class: 61 cm; DBH class width: 5 cm; residual basal area 21.6 m ² ha ⁻¹	Retention harvesting ^c : 2012, 2082 Commercial thinning ^b : 2052	
Intensive management	Clearcut: 2012, 2082; Pre-commercial thinning ^a 20 years after clearcut: 2032; Commercial thinning ^b 40 years after clearcut: 2052	Pre-commercial thinning ^a : 20 years after seedling plantation; Commercial thinning ^b 30 years before clearcut: 2052; Clearcut : 2082	

^a10% of basal area removed from below

^b35% of basal area removed from above

^c80% of basal area removed from below

TRIAD forest management scenarios consisted of applying simultaneously three simulated management scenarios (shown in Table 1, for SM and SID) within one stand of a particular forest type. The stand used for TRIAD was "artificial" given that for every service, the mean of the five stands under the single-management scenarios was used. Spatial components of management were not taken into account as we strictly wanted to compare scenarios. Our No-management scenario corresponded to the TRIAD's "Reserve" zone and the Ecosystem management to the "Extensive" zone. The Intensive management corresponded to the "Wood production" zone and was divided into two sub-zones : Intensive management of the original stand and Intensive management of a plantation. The most wood productive WSP stand under the Intensive scenario was implemented following a clearcut into the SM and SID stands. The timber thus harvested from this first clearcut in the original stand was taken into account when calculating the timber service. Following the work of Côté *et al.* (2010) where they simulated the effects

Table 1.2 Proportions (%) allocated to each TRIAD management scenario (modified from Côté *et al.* (2010)).

TRIAD Scenario	No-management zone	Ecosystem management zone	Wood production zone	
			Intensive	Plantation-Intensive
T12	12	74	10	4
T20	20	40	36	4
T33	33	33	17	17
T50	50	25	25	0
T50I	50	25	13	12

of different zoning scenarios on ecological and economic indices, we investigated five different zoning proportions (Table 1.2). From the T12 to T50, there is an increase of the land set aside for conservation. T12 and T20 have been simulated in the past (Côté *et al.*, 2010), while T50 and T50I represents the 50 % conservation that is currently demanded in the boreal forest by some environmental groups (Badiou *et al.*, 2013). The presence of a plantation differentiates the last two zoning proportions.

1.2.4 FVS simulation cycles and regeneration submodel

There is a fixed processing sequence of operations in a FVS simulation (Dixon, 2002). In short, the model first reads and computes the initial stand characteristics. Then, the thinning requests are processed, followed by the growth of trees. Mortality occurs afterwards, and finally, regeneration (establishment of new trees). Since FVS does not compute regeneration of new seedlings by itself and mortality is density-dependent, the user must specify these parameters to ensure proper forest dynamics (Hoover and Rebain, 2011; Nunery and Keeton, 2010; Robinson, 2008). When a harvest was scheduled, we added plantation or natural regenera-

Table 1.3 Regeneration inputs (seedlings per hectare) used for the simulations of sugar maple-beech and shade-intolerant deciduous stands, applied for each species and prescription (adapted from Nunery and Keeton 2010).

Silvicultural prescription	- <i>Acer saccharum</i>	- <i>Fagus grandifolia</i>	- <i>Abies balsamea</i>	- <i>Tilia americana</i> - <i>Picea rubens</i>	- <i>Fraxinus americana</i> - <i>Prunus spp.</i> - <i>Quercus rubra</i>	- <i>Betula alleghaniensis</i> - <i>Pinus strobus</i>	- <i>Acer rubrum</i>	- <i>Populus tremuloides</i> - <i>Populus grandidentata</i>	- <i>Betula papyrifera</i>
Clearcut	4448	1730	432	432	8154	8093	8093	15320	15320
Retention harvesting	3558	1384	346	346	6523	6474	6474	12256	12256
Commercial thinning	2471	1730	309	309	62	62	185	-	62
Individual tree selection (ITS)	1977	2224	309	309	62	57	185	-	62
Pre-commercial thinning	1977	2224	309	309	62	57	185	-	62
Background	494	247	62	62	-	62	62	-	-

tion the year after. Otherwise (if no harvest scheduled), regeneration took place the same year, at the beginning of the cycle.

In this study, parameters used in the regeneration submodel for SM and SID stands followed Nunery and Keeton (2010). The authors calculated the parameters based on natural and managed northern hardwood forests to test different management scenarios in FVS (see Nunery (2009) for calculation details). We used these parameters for simple harvest activities (Table 1.3). For individual tree selection (ITS) and pre-commercial thinning activities, which have the lowest impact on understory vegetation, we selected the parameter value associated with their “ITS_High Retention” management. For commercial thinning, we used their “ITS_Low Retention” regeneration numbers and considered their “Clearcut” regeneration reduced by 20 % as an approximation for retention harvesting (20 % of basal area retained). Regeneration parameters for the present species that were not calculated by Nunery and Keeton (2010) were selected from species with the

closest shade tolerance value (Appendix A of Niinemets and Valladares (2006)). Similarly to other studies that have used FVS, only a limited number of species were regenerated (Craig and Macdonald, 2009; Crookston *et al.*, 2010). In each of the five chosen stands, the four most abundant species in terms of adult trees already present at the initial conditions were identified and only those tree species were regenerated throughout the simulations. Shrub trees (such as *Acer pennsylvanicum*, *Amelanchier sp.* or *Carpinus sp.*) were not considered for regeneration.

A few adjustments were made on the regeneration parameters of the SID stands since the values found in Table 1.3 were calculated based on “site-specific average overstory species proportions” (Nunery and Keeton, 2010) coming from sugar maple-beech-yellow birch stands. Lacking better data, we gave the most abundant from the four species identified for regeneration the regeneration parameter occurring in Table 1.3. Parameters for the other three species were adjusted proportionally to their relative abundance compared to the most abundant one. For example, if a stand counted ten birches as its most abundant species, and five red spruces, the regeneration parameter for the birch was exactly the one given in Table 1.3 while the regeneration input for the red spruce was 50 % of the corresponding parameter in the table. Since the mean live canopy cover percentages of the chosen SM and SID stands were identical, no further adjustments were made regarding SID regeneration parameters.

In the WSP, natural regeneration was not incorporated in the Intensive and Ecosystem scenarios, to simulate human practice of understory vegetation removal to ensure plantation success. Natural regeneration was included in the No-management scenario. However, very few data for unmanaged WSP were found in the literature. Regeneration in a plantation depends largely on species surrounding it (Goldblum, 1998). To represent this process, the only natural regeneration in the No-management scenario was added by the implementation, at the first

Table 1.4 Measures of ecosystem services on 70-year simulations results.

Ecosystem service	FVS output measure
Timber	Total merchantable volume harvested over 70 years ($\text{m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1}$)
Carbon storage	Mean C stocked in above live trees, standing dead trees and down dead wood (tons ha^{-1})
Habitat quality	
Vertical structure	Mean Gini index
Large tree density	Mean number of trees of DBH > 40 cm (trees ha^{-1})
Large snag density	Mean number of standing soft and hard snags of DBH >30.5 cm (trees ha^{-1})

time step, of shade-intolerant species likely to colonize such an open space such as white ash, quaking aspen and black cherry. These species were present in the initial plantation from the database and were therefore considered most susceptible to naturally colonize. They were added in the regeneration submodel as new seedlings, when planted white spruce seedlings had a 36 cm height. The density gradient of white spruce seedlings was the same as in Intensive and Ecosystem (from 1000 to 3000 stems ha^{-1}), and the number of new seedlings from the three other species was divided equally to reach a final density of 3000 stems ha^{-1} .

1.2.5 Ecosystem services measurement and utility analysis

Timber, stored carbon and habitat quality were calculated based on the FVS outputs of the management scenario simulations on the different stands (Table 1.4). Merchantable volumes, regardless of wood quality, that were removed by a cutting activity were summed over the 70-year simulation for the timber service, including first and last harvest when scheduled. We used the submodel Fire and Fuels Extension (FFE-FVS) to evaluate carbon storage. The default 10-year time step was used for all the simulation outputs, including carbon, to avoid under or overprediction of certain stand attributes (Wykoff and Crookston, 1982). We

considered only the carbon stored in the aboveground live tree biomass and followed carbon calculation of Jenkins *et al.* (2003). This pool is the most important in terms of carbon quantity and variation following harvest, and it also represents the most accurate estimated pool (Fahey *et al.*, 2009).

Biodiversity values can be estimated using various environmental and forest stand attributes, encompassing more information about habitat quality than direct measures of species diversity (Kangas *et al.*, 2001; Kangas and Pukkala, 1996; Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2000; Wikström and Eriksson, 2000). In this study, habitat quality was quantified with a Habitat Suitability Index (HSI) (U.S. Fish and Wildl. Serv., 1980; Schamberger and Krohn, 1982) based on measurable structural components of a forest stand (Ferris and Humphrey, 1999). As old-growth forests are known and valued as an important habitat for a wide range of organisms in many ecosystems (Eiswerth and Haney, 2001; Hunter Jr, 1990; Lesica *et al.*, 1999), three characteristics of old-growth forests were considered as optimal in the calculation of the HSI for each stand (Bauhus *et al.*, 2009). The density of large trees (diameter at breast height, (DBH) ≥ 40 cm) and the density of large snags (DBH ≥ 30.5 cm) were averaged over the 70-year simulation. Furthermore, since tree diameter distribution is a good indicator of stand biodiversity (Buongiorno *et al.*, 1994), it was calculated using the Gini index (Gini, 1921) on DBH classes of 2 inches (5.08 cm). This coefficient has been found very well suited for discriminating diverse stand parameters, such as its vertical structure (Bílek *et al.*, 2013; Lexerød and Eid, 2006).

Stand characteristics used to calculate carbon and habitat quality were taken at different moments in the sequence of operations of a simulation cycle. At every time step, the three habitat quality components measures in FVS were taken at the beginning of a new cycle, i.e. just before a scheduled harvest activity, growth, mortality and regeneration (see section 1.2.4). Due to model limitations,

carbon was calculated just after the harvest. Differences in carbon values were then enhanced between active and passive management scenarios, and do not represent the same time snapshot as the HSI component values.

The multiple criteria decision-analysis approach (MCDA, also named MCDM (MCD making) or MCDS (MCD support)) allows to determine which alternative management scenario performs best considering multiple services, and visualizes trade-offs and benefits among them (Ananda and Herath, 2009; Díaz-Balteiro and Romero, 2008; Kangas and Pukkala, 1996; Mendoza and Martins, 2006). The measurements of ecosystem services of a given management scenario are designated as partial utilities scaled to 1, or 100 %. The services can be given certain weights depending on the priorities and values of the manager. Following the multi-attribute utility theory (Belton and Stewart, 2002), the overall performance of a scenario is quantified by the total utility obtained by adding up the partial utilities.

In this study, we gave services equal weights. For each of the three stand types (SM, SID and WSP), partial utilities were calculated as :

$$U_{P,i,j} = \frac{P_{i,j}}{P_{\max i,j}} \quad (1.1)$$

for all three objectives P, five sites i and three management scenarios j . To obtain the C stock utility, $U_{Cstock,i,j}$, every C stock annual mean for an i,j combination was divided by the maximum value of the annual mean C stock found in the five stands i , across all three management scenarios j . Likewise, for the timber utility $U_{T,i,j}$, the value of total harvested volume after 70-years, including the last cutting event if one was scheduled, of every i,j combination was divided by the maximum value showed by any combination i,j .

Habitat quality was measured with a HSI, $H_{i,j}$, where every component (or

sub-utility) had equal weight :

$$H_{i,j} = \sum_{i=1}^5 U_{LT,i,j} + U_{LS,i,j} + U_{G,i,j} \quad (1.2)$$

where sub-utilities (density of large trees $U_{LT,i,j}$, density of large snags $U_{LS,i,j}$ and vertical structure (Gini coefficient) $U_{G,i,j}$) were calculated as previously described for partial utilities. Partial utility of habitat quality $U_{H,i,j}$ was obtained with use of Equation (1.1) with $H_{i,j}$.

Finally for every management scenario j , the partial utilities of the five stands i of a specific type (SM, SID or WSP) for an objective P were averaged, giving a mean utility $U_{P,j}$:

$$U_{P,j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^5 U_{P,i,j}}{5} \quad (1.3)$$

The TRIAD management scenarios were evaluated on the SM and SID stands. The calculation of a total score U_{PTot} for a given objective P was realized by using the proportions p found in Table 1.2 to weight each mean utility U_j :

$$U_{PTot} = p_{NM}U_{P,j=NM} + p_{ECO}U_{P,j=ECO} + p_{INT}U_{P,j=INT} + p_{PI}U_{WSP,P,j=INT} \quad (1.4)$$

where p_{NM} is the proportion of the utility value U of the No-management scenario, p_{ECO} is the proportion of the Ecosystem management, and p_{INT} is the score coefficient of the Intensive scenario. The last term of the equation refers to the proportion, p_{PI} , that multiplies the partial utility found in the most timber productive WSP stand under Intensive management, $U_{WSP,P,j=INT}$.

Simulation outputs were analyzed as follows. First, utilities for single-management scenarios were computed. All TRIAD and single-management scenarios were

then compared with respect to every utility using MCDA. A non-parametrical Kruskal-Wallis test ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used to test the difference between single-management scenarios within a forest type, followed by a multiple comparisons test. All FVS output data analyses were conducted with R (R Development Core Team, 2010).

1.3 Results

1.3.1 Simulated stand characteristics over a rotation

Live tree basal area, aboveground live tree carbon and available merchantable volume changed over the rotation according to the harvesting interventions that were planned (Fig. 1.1). In all three forest types, the No-management scenario maintained the highest values for all three stand characteristics. The Ecosystem and Intensive scenarios were very similar except for the SM forest type where the Ecosystem scenario tended to maintain higher values throughout the rotation (see scenario descriptions in section 1.2.3). The fluctuating values for the two management scenarios reflect the scheduled harvests and density dependent mortality. In fact, after the first cutting event in 2012 in managed stands, levels of carbon and available merchantable volume could never reach those observed in stands with no management over the simulation period. Unmanaged stands all increased basal area, above-ground carbon and merchantable volume over time with a tendency to plateau at the end of the rotation. In SM stands, stored aboveground carbon at the end of the No-management scenario was twice that of the highest value of carbon stored during the rotation under the Intensive scenario (Fig. 1.1.b1). Sharp increases in the basal area of SID stands under both management scenarios after the first harvest were caused by a massive recruitment of seedlings, which also died in a large proportion in the following time step due to density-dependent

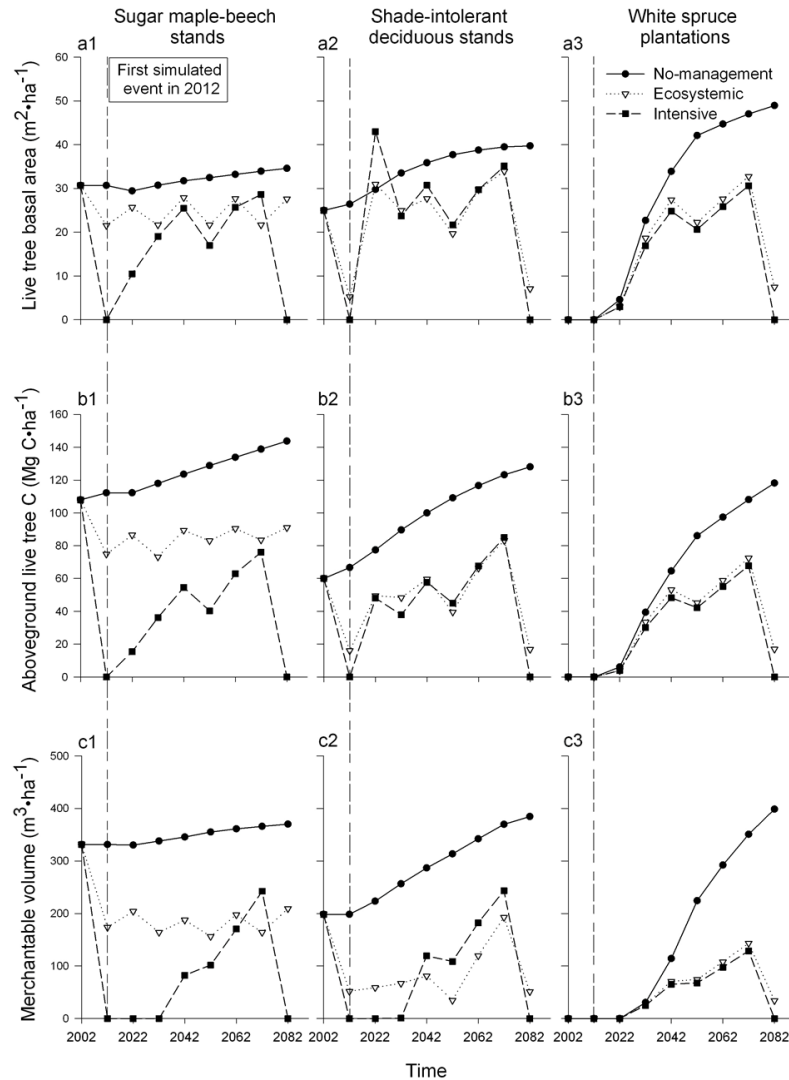


Figure 1.1 Results of the 70-year simulation (2012-2082) at a 10-year time-step, averaged over (1) five sugar maple-beech stands, (2) five shade-intolerant deciduous stands and (3) five white spruce plantations for three management scenarios. Measurements shown are the mean : a) live tree basal area, b) aboveground carbon in live tree and c) available merchantable volume, calculated after harvesting activities if scheduled. Values in 2002 for (1) and (2) were calculated using the predicted 70-year rate of change in the no-management scenario. The null values in 2002 for (3) represent the stand after a clearcut, at the beginning of the next rotation. These 2002 values are for visual purposes and not used in analyses.

mortality (Fig. 1.1.a2). This heavy mortality explained the drop in 2032 for basal area and carbon values in the Ecosystem scenario, while the drop in the Intensive scenario resulted from heavy mortality and a pre-commercial thinning. The Ecosystem and Intensive scenarios in SID stands showed almost the same amounts of carbon throughout the 70-year rotation (Fig. 1.1.b2).

Like timber production and carbon stocks (Fig. 1.1), habitat quality was greatest in the No-management scenario. We observed a higher density of large trees and large snags and high values of the Gini index throughout most of the simulation period for both SM and SID stands. The Gini indices under No-management exceeded the indices under the two management scenarios, except towards the end of the rotation in the SID stands (Fig. 1.2.a2). At this late moment in the rotation of the SID stand, the low regeneration of seedlings resulted in a steady decrease of vertical structure and consequently of the Gini index. In SM stands, the ITS silvicultural prescription for the Ecosystem scenario aimed at the removal of timber by modifying the overall heterogeneous stand structure as little as possible. During our simulations, the first two ITS events prescribed for the Ecosystem scenario resulted in a slight decrease of the Gini index, which eventually stabilized and stayed close to the No-management scenario for the rest of the rotation (Fig. 1.2.a1). The mean density of large trees in SM stands also dropped slightly after 10 years, but subsequently maintained itself at around 45 per hectare throughout the rotation (Fig. 1.2.b1). In the same forest type (SM), the number of large snags declined steadily to completely disappear within the first 30 years under the Intensive scenario, whereas it tended to stabilize at a low value after 30 years under the Ecosystem scenario (Fig. 1.2.c1). In SID stands, the density of large snags greatly increased when unmanaged, as more and more mature shade-intolerant trees died as the stands aged (from 50-70 years to 120-140 years) (Fig. 1.2.c2). The density of large living trees in SID stands also increased under the

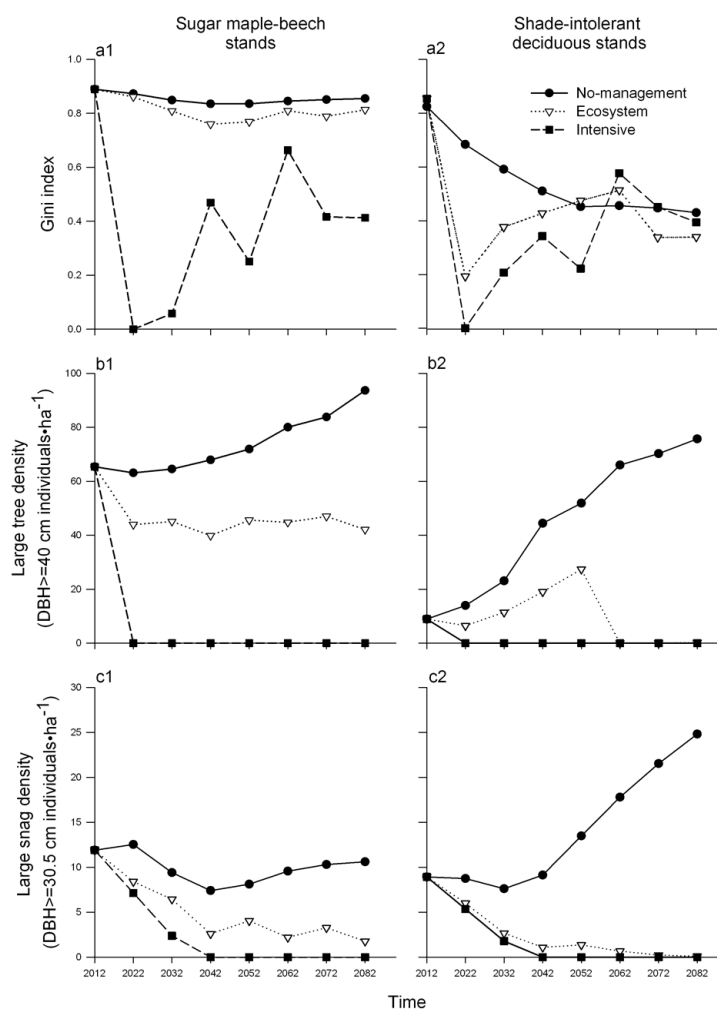


Figure 1.2 Results of the 70-year simulation (2012-2082) at a 10-year time-step for the three components of habitat quality, averaged over (1) five sugar maple-beech stands and (2) five shade-intolerant deciduous stands for three management scenarios. Measurements shown are the mean : a) Gini index, b) density of large trees and c) density of large snags. Values were calculated at the beginning of every 10-year cycle, i.e. before any harvest activities, growth or mortality occurred. Therefore, the effect of a cut, mortality, growth or regeneration event at any particular time step is observed in the value at the following time step.

No-management scenario, while the thinning in 2052 under the Ecosystem scenario reduced it to zero (Fig. 1.2.b2). The increase in the density of snags and large trees under the No-management scenario was less pronounced in the SM stands (Fig. 1.2.b1, c1). These stands were already quite old (90 ± 6 years) at the beginning of the simulation with attributes presumably close to that of old-growth shade-tolerant forests.

No WSP trees reached the necessary size to be considered as large trees or large snags during the 70-year rotation. Moreover, even if the Gini index was 50 times greater for the unmanaged plantation at all time steps (0.05 ± 0.03 for unmanaged vs 0.001 ± 0.001 for the managed, data not shown), it was still very low for all management scenarios (0 to 0.12) compared to the other forest types.

1.3.2 Multi-criteria decision analysis for single-management scenarios

Expected utility values showed a clear trade-off depending on the degree of management with general timber production highest with increasing management versus carbon and habitat quality that were highest in unmanaged scenarios (Fig. 1.3). The Intensive management scenario harvested more than two and a half times the timber in the Ecosystem management scenario (no harvest was scheduled in No-management) for all three forest types, although it was significant ($p < 0.001$) only in the SM forest type. The absence of significant differences elsewhere can partly be attributed to the similarities in parameters for Ecosystem and Intensive scenarios in SID and WSP forest types as compared to the SM forest type (see Table 1). When transformed in utilities (see Equation 1), timber scores for the SM forest type under Ecosystem management resulted in 25 % of the maximum timber produced (Fig. 1.3a) compared to 67 % for the Intensive management scenario.

Among the five SM stands, the one producing maximum timber ($678.0 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$), was achieved under Intensive management and yielded a volume that was more than a time and a half greater than the ones produced in the four other stands ($398.5 \pm 41.7 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$, mean \pm standard deviation (SD)). Nonetheless, even without considering this highly productive stand, Intensive management would also yield more harvested timber than Ecosystem management ($p < 0.05$).

For carbon storage, the No-management scenario resulted in higher utilities than the two management scenarios for all three forest types (Fig. 1.3). In SM stands, the carbon storage utility differed among management scenarios ($p < 0.005$). The No-management scenario had a predicted mean carbon utility of 72 %, which is 50 % and 300 % higher than the Ecosystem and Intensive management scenarios, respectively (Fig. 1.3a). The Ecosystem scenario, in return, stored more aboveground live carbon than the Intensive scenario. In the SID and WSP stands, a similar pattern emerged where the No-management scenarios had a consistently higher carbon utility than the other two management scenarios ($p < 0.01$), though only significant when compared to the Intensive management scenario. The No-management scenario achieved a utility score of 86 % in SID stands, more than twice the carbon stock of the other two management scenarios. In WSP unmanaged stands, carbon utility predictions were also around twice the utilities predicted under the Ecosystem and Intensive management scenarios (Fig. 1.3b, c).

The utilities for habitat quality displayed similar patterns as for carbon storage in the SM and SID stands (Fig. 1.3a, b). In WSP stands, while habitat quality had a higher utility score under the No-management scenario, none of the scenarios resulted in significant differences (Fig. 1.3c). In SM stands, the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a significant difference between No-management and Intensive scenarios only ($p < 0.005$) (Fig. 1.3a). The very low utility score for large

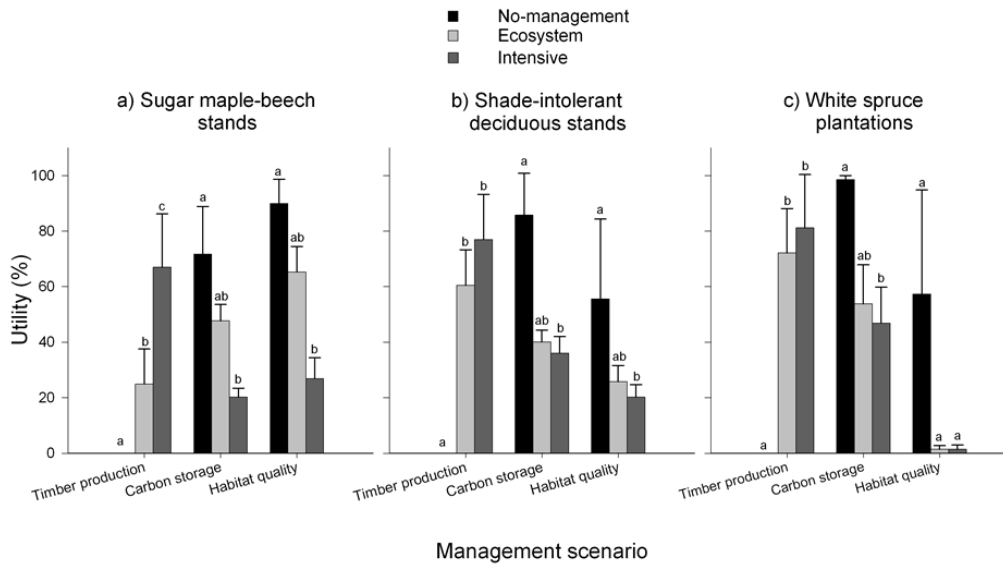


Figure 1.3 Expected mean utilities \pm SD for timber production, carbon storage and habitat quality over the 70-year rotation for the No-management, Ecosystem and Intensive management scenarios applied in : a) sugar maple-beech stands, b) shade-intolerant deciduous stands and c) white spruce plantations ($n=5$ for each forest type). Utilities are services values relative to each other, where the maximum value reached by any combination of a single stand for any of the three management scenarios is given 100 %. For each management scenario within each forest type a different letter (a, b or c) above bars indicates a significant difference between utility values.

tree density produced under Intensive management contributed predominantly to this difference (utility of 0.71 vs 0.08) (Fig. 1.4a). No-management produced a greater utility score for habitat quality than Ecosystem management (Fig. 1.3a). While the No-management and Ecosystem scenarios resulted in similar Gini index utilities, these scenarios exhibited large differences in the utilities for the density of large trees and snags (Fig. 1.4a). The habitat quality in stands under indi-

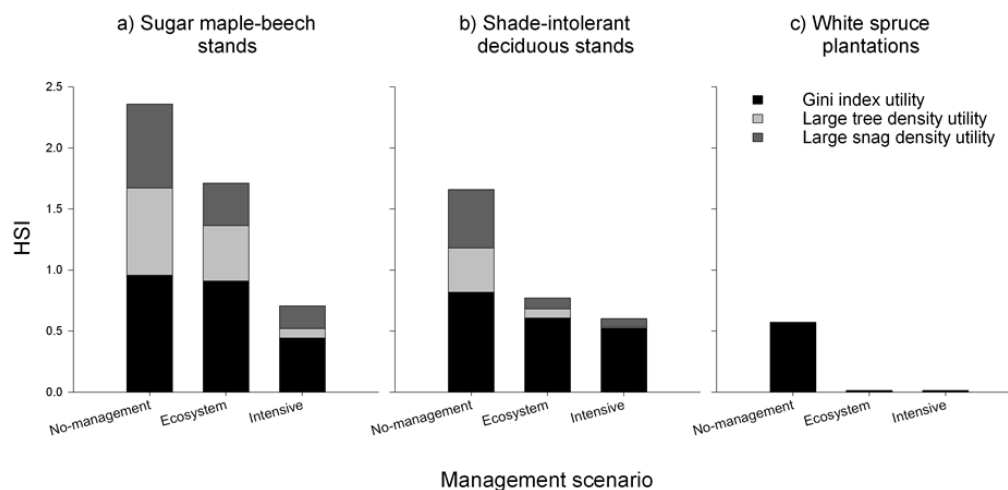


Figure 1.4 Habitat suitability index (HSI) for a) sugar maple-beech stands, b) shade-intolerant deciduous stands and c) white spruce plantations under three management scenarios. HSI is the sum of three mean sub-utility scores; Gini index, the density of large trees ($DBH \geq 40$ cm) and of large snags ($DBH \geq 30.5$ cm).

vidual tree selection prescriptions used in Ecosystem management was therefore inferior to the habitat quality of unmanaged stands because of the decrease in large individual trees and snag density (Fig. 1.4a). Large trees were subjected to a weak mortality rate, and hence contributed to the important density of large trees observed in unmanaged stands.

The habitat quality utility in SID stands differed between treatments ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 1.3b). Unmanaged stands displayed a large variability in habitat quality and their mean utility score reached only 56 %. Nevertheless, the mean utility score under the No-management scenario was greater than under the Ecosystem (0.77 ± 0.17 , not significant) and Intensive scenarios (0.60 ± 0.13 , significant (Fig. 1.3b)). Large trees and snags were scarce or absent in the active management scenarios

(Fig. 1.4b).

WSP stands showed the lowest HSI scores under all management scenarios (Fig. 1.4c). Because WSP stands did not contain any large trees or snags, the HSI is based only on the Gini index sub-component (Fig. 1.4c). With no natural regeneration and harvests targeted to a specific portion of the stand (thinning from above or below), the vertical structure remained very low, with at most two different size-classes, in active management scenarios. In the No-management scenario, at the first time step, natural regeneration of three additional species in addition to the planted white spruce seedlings (see section 1.2.4) allowed up to three size-classes. These extra species explain why the Gini index utility score under No-management was greater (although not significant) than the other two active management scenarios.

1.3.3 Multi-criteria decision analysis for single-management and multiple-management TRIAD scenarios

The different TRIAD scenarios resulted in different values of timber, carbon and habitats for each forest type (Fig. 1.5). For the SM forest type, the highest amounts of timber, carbon and best habitat quality were found in the T20, T50I and T50 scenarios, respectively. For the SID forest type, the highest amounts of timber, carbon and best habitat quality were found in the T12, T50I and T50 scenarios, respectively. Indeed, a decrease of timber production (Fig. 1.5.a1, a2) echoed a reverse tendency in carbon storage (Fig. 1.5.b1, b2) and habitat quality (Fig. 1.5.c1, c2).

Finally, the different levels of timber, carbon and habitat quality reported in Figure 5 for all five TRIAD scenarios and in the Appendix B for the single-management scenarios were transformed into single utility values (Fig. 1.6). The

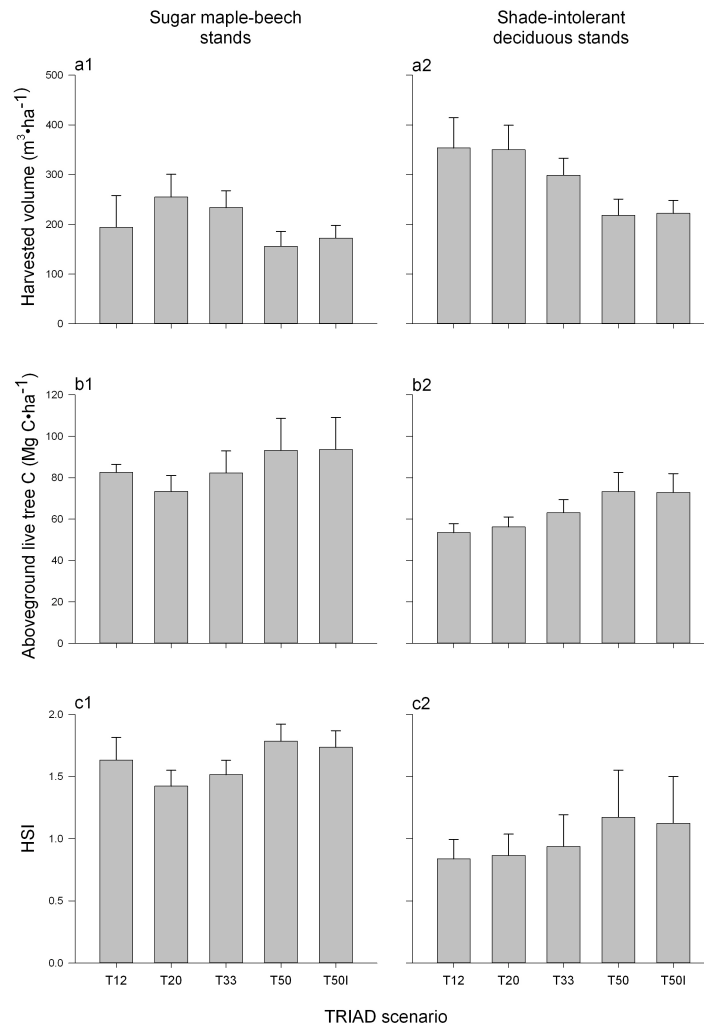


Figure 1.5 Comparison of a) total harvested volume (mean \pm SD), b) carbon stored in aboveground live trees biomass and c) habitat suitability index (HSI) among the five TRIAD scenarios in 1) sugar maple-beech and 2) shade-intolerant deciduous stands. Results are based on the 70-year means obtained from single-management scenarios (Appendix B), multiplied by their assigned proportion within the multiple-management TRIAD scenarios (see Table 1.2). The results of all the single-management scenarios are then summed within each TRIAD scenario.

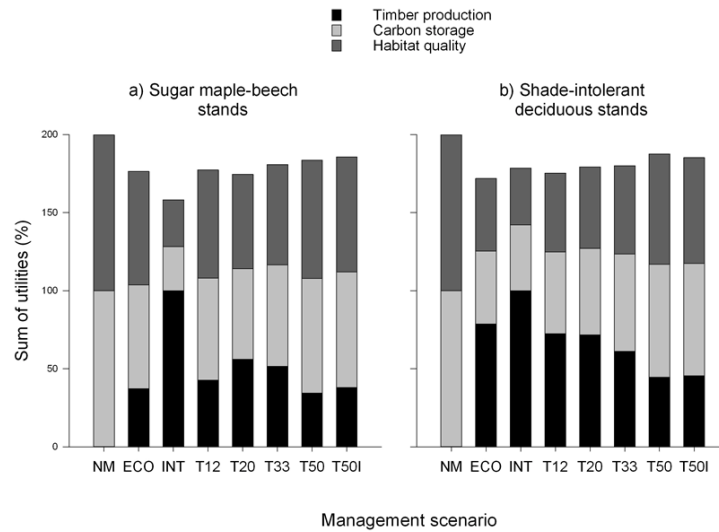


Figure 1.6 Comparison of the sum of expected utilities of timber, carbon and habitat quality among the three single management and five multiple-management TRIAD scenarios. Forest types are a) sugar maple-beech and b) shade-intolerant deciduous. Utilities here are results put in % of every scenario on one service, divided by the highest value reached for that service by any scenario. Single-management scenarios are NM : No-management, ECO : Ecosystem, INT : Intensive.

various tradeoffs that occur when managing a forest with a single-management scenario such as the No-management, Ecosystem and Intensive management scenarios are compared to five TRIAD scenarios where the areas of protected, intensive and extensive management differed (Fig. 1.6). Clearly, there was no clear winner for all three services and while the No-management scenario produced the best habitat quality and greatest carbon stock (Fig. 1.6), it did not produce any timber. Conversely, if the Intensive management scenario produced the most timber, it produced the lowest habitat and carbon values.

1.4 Discussion

Managing forests for multiple objectives is undoubtedly a challenge. The results from this modeling study investigating forest dynamics under various management scenarios allowed us to identify trade-offs among three important ecosystem services : timber, carbon and habitat quality. The MCDA approach helped assess and compare the performance of different management scenarios for each of these three services and revealed the best, average and worst management options for each service individually. Clear trade-offs were evident when considering multiple ecosystem services. While the single-management Intensive scenario had the greatest timber utility, the No-management scenario had the lowest, and vice versa for habitat quality and carbon storage. The Ecosystem management scenario provided a good compromise in terms of amount of timber harvested between the No-management and Intensive management scenarios, and therefore generated intermediate values, as did the other five TRIAD scenarios. Coupling modeling methods with MCDA provided a valuable tool to account for multiple services in the decision making process of managers. The different harvesting schedules and intensity on three types of forest stands highlighted the variability of responses to management practices. To our knowledge, this is the first analysis that combined even- and uneven-aged management prescriptions, within different forest types and contrasting management scenarios.

1.4.1 Functional zoning enhances multiple ecosystem services

The TRIAD concept evolved to allow forest managers to compromise the necessity of producing timber, while conserving carbon and biodiversity (Côté *et al.*, 2010 ; Seymour and Hunter, 1992). Our findings demonstrated that TRIAD scenarios can indeed achieve multiple goals forest management. With only single-

management scenarios at hand, one could select the Ecosystem management scenario as a compromise between producing timber, carbon and habitat quality closest to unmanaged levels, but all stands are then subjected to some level of management. Adding TRIAD scenarios to the portfolio of possibilities revealed that it is possible to harvest as much timber as for the Ecosystem scenarios while storing, on average, a greater quantity of carbon, and having a certain proportion of the forest under total protection. As ITS in SM stands is a harvest practice of predilection in northern hardwoods (Arbogast, 1967; O'Hara, 2002; Bédard and Majcen, 2003), this finding is most relevant and promising for future uneven-aged planning. Evidently, mean habitat quality in TRIAD may be poorer than in single Ecosystem management since zones under Intensive scenarios have lower HSI. One of the driving goals of functional zoning is to have many areas unmanaged (Montigny and MacLean, 2006), regardless of mean habitat quality of the entire forest, managed areas included. Our calculation method was not meant to assess, as done before, the value of TRIAD with regards to proportions of reserve areas (Côté *et al.*, 2010; Krmar *et al.*, 2003), but rather to determine if it was possible to maintain a high level of timber production while putting some of the forest aside for protection purposes.

One possible weakness of our approach is that all three ecosystem service objectives had the same weight and average utility over all objectives were ranked following an ordinal classification (if $x > y > z$, then x is preferred to y and z , and y is preferred to z). However, this approach could be modified to suit different values and interests attributed to each ecosystem service by various stakeholders (Arnette *et al.*, 2010; Bengston, 1994). Moreover, ranking based on values that are not significantly different, or within a range of acceptability determined by stakeholders, could be assigned a similar rank (Greco *et al.*, 2008; Saaty, 1980). It would then be possible to evaluate the variations in overall performance of ma-

nagement scenarios. Furthermore, additional objectives of relevance to managers could also be added to the method, such as the production of non-timber products and recreational services. In this study, harvesting had a strong impact both on carbon stock and habitat quality and tended to favor less intensive management scenarios. The observed variation in forest responses could be due to the management approaches investigated and the type of indicators used to measure the ecosystem services (for example the HSI). Also, different spatial configurations of TRIAD zones could be investigated to evaluate the effect of spatial heterogeneity, landscape fragmentation and connectivity on each service (Côté *et al.*, 2010 ; Tittler *et al.*, submitted). Consequently, modifying the weight assigned to each objective, the silvicultural treatments and the indicators used could alter the conclusions of this study.

1.4.2 FVS modeling for simple measurement of ecosystem services from stand characteristics

Timber production

With minimal data requirements, the timber management objective was evaluated using the total volume harvested from the beginning of the rotation to, and including the last cut. The measure of timber volume is largely used by foresters and is surely the easiest to grasp by stakeholders. Timber was however measured without regard to its quality. Since thinning usually does not modify volume of a stand but rather the quality of the stems, our method is likely to underestimate the value of timber-performant scenarios, depending on the type of products the manager or owner is interested in. The harvested species are also differentially valued on the market, and their values fluctuate over time and are highly uncertain in the future (Brazee and Mendelsohn, 1988). This study could

be extended to include monetary considerations into simulation outcomes. Monetary considerations would require the integration of exploitation costs, species composition and timber-product prices in the calculations, since these are likely to modify the value assessed by a manager to a particular active management scenario. For example, WSP under No-management achieved a greater final volume after 70 years than the sum of harvests throughout any active management scenario. A manager could therefore gauge the benefits of carrying a partial cut before the end of the rotation. Moreover, Ecosystem management in SM stands harvested only 25 % of the Intensive scenario. Managers would need to evaluate the gain in terms of timber volume in applying ITS in forest stands. Measures of the quadratic mean diameter (QMD) and sawlog volumes, which are already available FVS outputs, could help differentiate harvesting scenarios based on the quality of timber. The integration of these additional measures and the identification of the tree species of the harvested stems, would make future analyses on timber production more precise and facilitate the decision making process.

Recruitment of new seedlings (also named regeneration) is absent in most FVS variants, including the NE-FVS used in this study. Modeling recruitment is a challenge for various model types (Porté and Bartelink, 2002) and this issue has been raised for FVS as well (Nunery and Keeton, 2010 ; Ray *et al.*, 2008). Yet recruitment is a crucial parameter in any forest growth model as it can considerably change outcomes in terms of basal area and vertical structure (Kolström, 1993). Future work on regeneration for more variants of FVS will ease the simulation process for users and increase confidence in model outputs.

Carbon stock

Our study assessed carbon stored in aboveground live tree biomass during simulations of scenarios, with and without harvest. Results are consistent with

previous modeling studies where absence of management and ecosystem management (that conserves greater structural complexity) displayed higher carbon stock than other more intensive management scenarios (Eriksson *et al.*, 2007; Nunery and Keeton, 2010; Schwenk *et al.*, 2012). In single-management scenarios, the No-management scenario in SID and WSP stands yielded the highest levels of carbon stock, with values twice as high as the active management scenarios. Harvesting had a negative impact on the carbon stock, but this impact was mitigated in multiple-management TRIAD scenarios, where the forest area was divided between zones subjected to intensive management for timber production and zones under less intensive management.

The calculation of carbon stocking as an ecosystem service was realized here with the purpose of comparing the performance of different management scenarios and should be seen as an estimate rather than a precise prediction. Nonetheless, our mean expected aboveground live carbon stock for SM stands reached 126.4 ± 30.3 megagram of carbon per hectare (Mg C ha^{-1}), which is consistent with reported means for old-growth northern hardwood stands (Gunn *et al.*, 2014; Hoover *et al.*, 2012; MacLean *et al.*, 2014). We recognize that contemporary carbon accounting specialists call for a closer tracking of carbon fate in timber products (Hennigar *et al.*, 2008; Profft *et al.*, 2009). For example, different carbon pools (organic matter (live and dead) situated underground or on the forest floor, coarse woody debris, standing dead wood) not estimated here could improve estimates (Harmon *et al.*, 1990; Nunery and Keeton, 2010; Smith *et al.* 2006). We also suggest caution in the interpretation of our carbon results since no local calibration was carried out after direct FVS computation of FIA data processed with FIA2FVS.

Habitat quality

Values of habitat quality were found to be always greater in the No-management scenario, regardless of forest type. As reported elsewhere, unmanaged stands had greater snag densities than managed ones (Vanderwel *et al.*, 2006 ; Wilhere, 2003). The mean large snag density predicted in our unmanaged late-successional 90-year old SM stands (10 snags ha⁻¹) was smaller than the density reported by Goodburn and Lorimer (1998) who investigated old-growth stands up to 300-years old (12 snags ha⁻¹). On the other hand, the proportion between density in unmanaged and stands under selection harvesting, much like our Ecosystem scenario, was around two to one in both studies. It has been previously reported that repeated ITS harvests like the ones carried out under our Ecosystem management scenario may homogenize stand structure over the long-term (Angers *et al.*, 2005). The HSI reported in our study for stands under Ecosystem management may therefore be altered by modifying the scheduling of ITS and the rotation period.

In our SID stands, habitat quality was strongly affected by the almost complete absence of large trees and snags. In unmanaged stands, the increasing structural complexity of these stands as they aged following a clearcut was consistent with previous results from Bradford and Kastendick (2010) in clearcut-origin.

HSI scores exhibited great temporal variations especially in managed stands. Species community composition and richness changed as early-successional species established in post-clearcut forests. Late successional species can be driven away by these conditions and reestablish in aging stands with a certain lag (Elliott *et al.*, 1997). Our HSI was intended to give high values to stands showing "old-growthness" characteristics (Bauhus *et al.*, 2009). Thus, early-successional stands (Keller *et al.*, 2003) would not display a high HSI score even if they had rich species diversity. The attributes of the HSI favored management scenarios maintaining al-

ready present species in old uneven-aged stands, and increasing late-successional species in aging stands. Consequently, the low average HSI scores for SID and WSP stands were anticipated. While WSP stands may provide suitable habitats for some creatures, such as generalist carabid species (Brockerhoff *et al.*, 2008; Magura *et al.*, 2000), the quality of these stands is considered inferior compared to more mature stands (Lindenmayer and Hobbs, 2004) providing habitats for a wide range of species like cavity-dependent birds. Other criteria could have favored denser stands and early successional species created by some harvesting activities and disturbances (DeGraaf and Yamasaki, 2003; Dessecker and McAuley, 2001; Schwenk *et al.*, 2012). In fact, the decline of early successional habitats in the eastern United States has been shown to be caused by the absence of forest management in private lands (Brooks, 2003; Trani *et al.*, 2001). Variation in successional stages among forest stands is an interesting opportunity for TRIAD management. Multiplicity of harvest regimes in a forest generates a variety of conditions that may in the end harbor more species diversity than conservation areas alone (Doyon *et al.*, 2005).

Many studies in the past have focused on responses of a particular group of species or a specific species to management, often birds (Hobson and Schieck, 1999; Gustafson *et al.*, 2001; Marzluff *et al.*, 2002; Summerville and Crist, 2002; Thompson, 1993). In contrast, the HSI used here is designed to evaluate the habitat quality of a community of diverse species. It can be seen as measuring the "umbrella" capacity of the habitat in conserving a wide variety of species. This HSI is well suited to modeling studies with minimal resources and prior specific knowledge. Moreover, assessing habitat quality based only on forest characteristics from modeling outputs is very useful and interesting to evaluate the effects of actual management practices. Modeling approaches can require heavy datasets, spatial information and/or important knowledge of guilds or of single species

(Nelson *et al.*, 2009 ; Schwenk *et al.*, 2012). Availability or cost of these data complicates the modeling process, potentially discouraging model use. In contrast, FVS input and output data are based on forest inventory data which are familiar, understandable, and easy to acquire by forest managers. The use of forest inventory data could definitely ease future involvement of stakeholders in the modeling process (Participatory modeling), facilitate the interpretation of simulation results and simplify the decision-making process (Participatory Decision Analysis) (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). Further developments of ecosystem-management decision support systems (EM-DSS) (Rauscher, 1999) could integrate modeling forecasts and MCDA to design a valuable and timely decision-making toolbox for forest managers.

1.4.3 Integrating ecosystem services into private forest management

Mechanisms in North America are needed to incite private forest owners to adopt management plans that will sustain the public ecosystem services provided by their forest (Mercer *et al.*, 2011). Developments of decision-making tools that assess the values of different services under various managements are emerging (Rauscher, 1999 ; Twery *et al.*, 2005). Managers must acknowledge that an optimal decision today may not bear its optimal results through time. Decisions thus should be made with consideration of actual and future parameters such as timber value (Reed, 1993), climate (Duvneck *et al.*, 2014), or risk and attitude towards risk from decision makers (Pukkala, 1998). Uncertainties also include potentially shifting priorities of the owner or modification of forested land importance due to global change (Kendra and Hull, 2005 ; Rudel *et al.*, 2005). Simulation modeling does not attempt to make precise predictions about the future ; it is rather a tool that, in our particular study, helped compare different management scenarios

to facilitate decision-making. As this choice is in counterpart likely to stay deeply related to the interests and motivations of stakeholders, accessible and clear information on multiple objectives is essential.

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1.7 Appendix A

Environmental, regeneration and initial structural parameters for the 11 Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) plots used in the FVS model for scenario management simulation. SM : sugar maple-beech, SI : shade-intolerant deciduous, WSP : white spruce plantation.

Forest type	FIA plot code	FIA forest type	Age	Ecoregion	Site index (species)	Slope (%)	Elevation (m)	Aspect (degrees)	Basal area (m ² /ha)	Trees per hectare	QMD	Canopy cover (%)	Top height (m)	Species regenerated	
SM	247062781010661	801	90	M211Db	69 (WA)	7	598	110	30.7	387	6116	3.1	90	23.5	AB, RM, SM, YB
SM	247062774010661	801	96	M211De	69 (SM)	30	579	147	38.4	400	2906	5.1	80	29.3	AB, BW, SM
SM	247062742010661	801	97	M211Db	52 (SM)	15	546	156	25.3	316	4819	3.2	85	22.3	AB, RM, SM, RS
SM	247062729010661	801	85	M211Dd	50 (RM)	21	636	262	32.9	448	9630	2.6	85	22.3	AB, RM, SM, YB
SM	247062688010661	801	80	M211Dd	53 (SM)	21	671	5	26.2	370	9207	2.4	80	21.6	AB, RS, SM, YB
Mean	-	-	90	-	59	19	606	136	31	384	6535	3	84	23.8	
SD	-	-	6	-	10	8	44	83	5	43	2569	1	4	2.8	
SI	247062904010661	901	62	211Ec	63 (BT)	19	89	340	32.5	485	12,946	2.3	95	20.7	BT, SM, WA, WP
SI	247062725010661	902	60	M211Df	N/A	41	888	354	18.2	244	4952	2.7	80	11.3	BT, SM, WA, WP
SI	247062309010661	901	54	222Id	56 (RO)	1	551	0	22.6	350	18,019	1.5	85	14.6	BF, PB, RM, RS
SI	247062509010661	901	56	211Fb	53 (RM)	14	410	213	29.3	385	7215	2.8	70	17.7	BT, SM, WA, WP
SI	247062370010661	901	62	222Ie	69 (WA)	5	130	255	30.2	404	8043	2.7	90	23.8	PR, QA, RM, WA
Mean	-	-	59	-	60	16	414	232	27	374	10,235	2	84	17.6	
SD	-	-	4	-	7	16	328	143	6	88	5239	1	10	4.9	
WSP *	247062711010661	122	55	211Ib	N/A	13	600	285	27.54	314	19783	1.3	95	12.8	WS (planted)

* The simulations started at the plantation of 5 different densities of white spruce seedlings after this stand was clearcut. The information relative to trees given here was not taken into account.

FIA forest type: 801: Sugar maple / beech, / yellow birch, 901: Aspen, 902: Paper birch

Species code: AB: american beech, BF: balsam fir, BW: american basswood, BT: bigtooth aspen, PB: paper birch, PR: pin cherry, QA: quaking aspen, RO: red oak, RM: red maple, RS: red spruce, SM: sugar maple, WA: white ash,

WP: eastern white pine, YB: yellow birch.

Total harvested volume, mean aboveground live tree carbon and habitat suitability index (HSI) results of the 70-year simulation run for SM, SID and WSP stands (n=5 each) under three single-management scenarios. * No harvest was scheduled in No-management.

Stands	Management scenario	Value \pm SD		
		Harvested total volume (m ³ /ha)	Mean aboveground live carbon (Mg C/ha)	Mean HSI (sum of 3 sub-components)
Sugar maple-beech (SM)	No-management	0*	126.4 \pm 30.3	2.358 \pm 0.228
	Ecosystem	169.1 \pm 85.3	84.0 \pm 10.4	1.712 \pm 0.240
	Intensive	454.4 \pm 130.1	35.7 \pm 5.6	0.706 \pm 0.196
Shade-intolerant deciduous (SID)	No-management	0*	101.4 \pm 17.9	1.658 \pm 0.860
	Ecosystem	383.6 \pm 81.1	47.3 \pm 5.0	0.771 \pm 0.173
	Intensive	488.5 \pm 102.9	42.7 \pm 7.0	0.603 \pm 0.135
White spruce plantation (WSP)	No-management	0*	65.0 \pm 0.4	0.573 \pm 0.168
	Ecosystem	276.0 \pm 27.3	35.5 \pm 4.1	0.015 \pm 0.006
	Intensive	310.3 \pm 32.8	30.9 \pm 3.8	0.015 \pm 0.007

CONCLUSION

La présente étude a permis de mettre en lumière les différences dans l'apport en SÉ par une forêt sous aménagements simples et multiples. Les compromis entre ces SÉ ont pu être identifiés, permettant de voir une tendance inversée entre le volume de bois récolté, et la quantité de carbone entreposée et la qualité de l'habitat. En accord avec nos hypothèses de départ, le scénario intensif a produit le plus haut volume de bois marchand récolté, alors que l'approche de type TRIADE a prouvé sa valeur en offrant de meilleurs compromis sur l'ensemble des trois SÉ ici évalués. Conséquemment, les résultats de la modélisation de l'approche TRIADE démontrent la pertinence du zonage multiple dans l'apport de plusieurs SÉ à la fois. La combinaison de zones de conservation avec d'autres où un aménagement écosystémique est pratiqué, avec coupes de rétention par exemple, et des plantations productives est déjà vue comme permettant l'atteinte de multiples objectifs en forêt (Krcmar, Vertinsky and Van Kooten, 2003 ; Paquette and Messier, 2009 ; Gustafsson et al., 2012 ; Tittler, Messier and Fall, 2012). Cependant, la seule présence de zones protégées possédant une grande valeur d'habitat selon l'indice ici utilisé, dans les scénarios de type TRIADE, ne saurait malheureusement garantir la qualité de l'habitat qu'elles constituent. En effet, la matrice environnante de la zone en réserve et le niveau d'activité qui y est permis ont un impact sur le degré d'isolement de celle-ci (Ricketts, 2001 ; Seiferling et al., 2012). Sachant que l'isolement de populations animales a des effets sur la viabilité de celle-ci (Fahrig and Merriam, 1985), l'agencement spatial des zones du TRIADE pourrait être un aspect pertinent à intégrer à la méthodologie.

L'utilisation d'un indice de qualité d'habitat (IQH, ou HSI dans le chapitre précédent) a été sujet de plusieurs critiques (Brooks, 1997). La plupart des IQH sont des modèles basés sur les demandes en habitat d'une espèce en particulier, alors que l'adéquation de cet habitat pour plusieurs espèces simultanément est plus problématique et nécessite l'emploi d'indicateurs différents (Malcolm et al., 2004 ; Nicholson et al., 2006). L'importance de la prise en compte des attributs des milieux entourant l'habitat considéré, dans un contexte à l'échelle du paysage, a aussi été mentionnée et explorée (Riitters, O'Neill and Jones, 1997 ; Cabeza and Moilanen, 2003 ; Hirzel et al., 2006 ; Nicholson et al., 2006). Comme la quantité d'habitat est aussi primordiale dans l'adéquation de celui-ci pour la biodiversité animale, il semble encore une fois que l'aspect spatial soit incontournable dans l'amélioration des évaluations de plusieurs SÉ (Turner et al., 1995 ; Fahrig, 1997 ; Edenius and Mikusiński, 2006 ; Mitchell, Bennett and Gonzalez, 2013).

L'approche par modélisation utilisée dans la présente étude a permis de comparer les effets de différents scénarios d'aménagement forestier sur trois SÉ. Comme FVS est un modèle empirique déterministe, il ne prend pas en compte les processus physiologiques des arbres. L'impact des changements climatiques sur la croissance et mortalité n'est ainsi pas incorporé aux calculs du modèle. La calibration de la croissance se fait automatiquement à l'aide de l'inventaire forestier utilisé, sur la base de la croissance en diamètre de chaque tige par rapport à l'inventaire précédent (Dixon, 2002). La croissance future des tiges est donc basée sur leur croissance dans le passé, ce qui n'est pas optimal dans l'optique d'une modification de ce paramètre à l'intérieur de l'horizon temporel de la simulation (Solomon, 1986 ; Loehle and LeBlanc, 1996 ; Kramer, Leinonen and Loustau, 2000 ; Sabaté, Gracia and Sánchez, 2002). Pour mieux accorder les simulations avec FVS avec les futures conditions engendrées par les changements climatiques, il faudrait modifier les taux de croissances à l'intérieur des cycles de simulation. L'utilisation

d'un autre modèle, basé sur les processus serait alors probablement plus approprié (Korzukhin, Ter-Mikaelian and Wagner, 1996). Néanmoins, ce type de modèle est accompagné de défis différents, notamment liés à leur implantation à l'intérieur du schéma décisionnel (Mäkelä et al., 2000).

Afin de rendre efficace pour aménagistes et propriétaires forestiers une approche couplant la modélisation et l'analyse décisionnelle multicritères (MCDA dans le chapitre précédent), il est essentiel qu'elle leur soit compréhensible. Lors de la prise de décision, les préférences des parties prenantes doivent être clairement établies et les alternatives qui leurs sont proposées, bien exposées (Lahdelma, Salminen and Hokkanen, 2000). L'incorporation d'éléments spatiaux dans l'évaluation des SÉ lors de la prise de décision en aménagement ainsi que l'utilisation d'un modèle pouvant intégrer des paramètres dynamiques liés à la croissance semblent souhaitables (Jankowski, 1995). Il faudra toutefois que cela ne compromette pas son potentiel de compréhension par ceux et celles qui auront à l'utiliser ou interpréter ses résultats (Voinov and Bousquet, 2010). De surcroît, il faudra éviter que l'utilisation de ce modèle puisse être écartée par difficulté d'obtenir les données spatiales requises ou le support pour les manipuler.

Maintenir simple et accessible la méthode d'évaluation des SÉ suite à un aménagement forestier faciliterait l'étape ultérieure logique à cette étude, soit l'application de la MCDA concrètement, en forêt privée québécoise. Un moyen efficace d'y arriver pourrait passer par l'élaboration d'un outil se basant sur la méthode ici utilisée et adapté pour une utilisation par les ingénieurs forestiers directement impliqués dans l'aménagement des forêts. L'évaluation de SÉ fournis par des terres privées est susceptible d'être utile dès maintenant ou dans un avenir rapproché, dans une perspective d'un souci grandissant de la population pour la conservation de milieux naturels de valeur. Par exemple, Une forêt privée offrant plusieurs SÉ de qualité sera plus facilement ciblée d'intérêt avec une évaluation

déjà effectuée. De plus, les résultats des scénarios TRIADE sont encourageants puisque des essais de cette approche de zonage multiple en forêt privée sont déjà en cours (Truax and Gagnon, 2013 ; Fondation de la faune du Québec, 2014). La présence d'alternatives d'aménagement fournissant des informations sur plusieurs SÉ permettrait une prise de décision plus éclairée pour les propriétaires forestiers. Elle répondrait mieux à leurs intérêts variés en bonifiant significativement les plans d'aménagement forestier actuels.

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