

1 Is regulated even-aged management the right strategy for the Canadian boreal  
2 forest?

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45 This paper is based on a talk presented at the forest industry lecture series of the  
46 University of Alberta in March 2004.

1 Abstract

2

3 Over the past decade, there has been an increasing interest in the development of forest  
4 management approaches that are based on an understanding of historical natural  
5 disturbance dynamics. The rationale for such an approach is that management to favour  
6 landscape compositions and stand structures similar to those of natural ecosystems  
7 should also maintain biological diversity and essential ecological functions. In fire-  
8 dominated landscapes, this approach is possible only if current and future fire frequency  
9 are sufficiently low, in comparison to pre-industrial fire frequency, that we can substitute  
10 fire with forest management. I address this question by comparing current and future fire  
11 frequency to historical reconstruction of fire frequency from studies in the Canadian  
12 boreal forest. Current and simulated future fire frequencies using 2 x and 3 x CO<sub>2</sub>  
13 scenarios are lower than the historical fire frequency for most sites, suggesting that  
14 forest management could potentially be used to recreate the forest age structure of fire-  
15 controlled pre-industrial landscapes. Current even-aged management, however tends to  
16 reduce forest variability: for example, fully regulated, even-aged management will tend to  
17 truncate the natural forest stand age distribution and eliminate overmature and old  
18 growth forests from the landscape. The development of silvicultural techniques that  
19 maintain a spectrum of forest compositions and structures at different scales in the  
20 landscape is one avenue to maintain this variability.

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23 Keywords: boreal forest; even age management; fire regime; old-growth forests; climate  
24 change; partial cutting

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1 Introduction

2

3 Over the past decade, there has been an increasing interest in the development of forest  
4 management approaches that are based on an understanding of natural disturbance  
5 dynamics (Attiwil 1994; Bergeron and Harvey 1997; Angelstam 1998). The rationale is  
6 that management that favours the development of stand and landscape compositions  
7 and structures similar to those that characterise natural ecosystems should favour the  
8 maintenance of biological diversity and essential ecological functions (Hunter 1999). For  
9 the conservation of native flora and fauna, emulation of natural disturbance has been  
10 justified by the knowledge that boreal forest species are mostly generalists that are well  
11 adapted to the environmental forces that have been acting over thousands of years  
12 (Hunter *et al.* 1988).

13

14 Understanding of the fire regimes that characterise the boreal forest is still fragmentary.  
15 This lack of understanding has often led to false generalisations. For example, clear-  
16 cutting has been justified for use throughout the boreal forest based on the assumption  
17 that the fire regime is characterised by the presence of large, frequent and severe fires  
18 that produced even-aged stands. In fact, it has become increasingly evident that short  
19 fire cycles are dominant only in portions of the boreal forest and that the situation is  
20 regionally more complex (Bergeron *et al.* 2001).

21

22 In areas where current fire frequency is low, but which historically had more fire,  
23 clearcutting might be used as a means to partially emulate natural disturbance. As the  
24 length of the fire cycle increases, however, use of clear-cutting to mimic fire becomes  
25 more and more difficult to justify. Moreover, in areas where fires are still frequent,  
26 logging activities are competing with fire for timber, and even-aged short rotation

1 management systems may be unsustainable. Most of the productive boreal forest in  
2 Canada lies between these two extreme situations. In the context of climate change,  
3 however, the situation could either improve or degrade because model predictions for  
4 fire frequency vary significantly from region to region (Flannigan *et al.* 2001).

5

6 In this article, I present historical, current, and projected future frequencies of stand-  
7 replacing fires for Canadian boreal forest with an emphasis on eastern boreal forest. I  
8 discuss the extent to which the use of conventional even-aged management  
9 (clearcutting under short rotation) could potentially be used as a means to recreate the  
10 forest age structure of pre-industrial landscapes that were controlled mainly by fire  
11 regimes. I then discuss alternative strategies for managing boreal forest. Finally, I look at  
12 the future in the context of climate change.

13

14

15 Historical fire frequency & its implications for forest age structure: the bad news

16

17 Table 1 presents results for published fire history reconstruction along an east-west  
18 gradient in the boreal forest. It includes data from Labrador (Foster 1983), Central and  
19 Western Quebec (Bergeron *et al.* 2001), Eastern (Bergeron *et al.* 2001) and Western  
20 (Suffling *et al.* 1982) Ontario, Saskatchewan (Weir *et al.* 2000) and Alberta (Larsen  
21 1997). A more extensive data set is presented in Bergeron *et al.* (*in press*). Average age  
22 of the forest (time since-fire) or, if not available, fire cycle before large clear-cutting  
23 activities began, were used to estimate historic burn rates. The average age of the forest  
24 was preferred to the historic fire cycle because it integrates climatically induced changes  
25 in fire frequency over a long period, and because it is easier to evaluate than a specific  
26 fire cycle (Bergeron *et al.* 2001).

1

2 Although there are variations in the mean age of the forests, probably caused by  
3 changes in climate along our east-west gradient, in all cases there are a significant  
4 proportion of forests that are over 100 years. Reported historical mean age are in most  
5 cases well above the mean age of similar landscapes under a normal forest rotation. In  
6 fact, under a 100-year forest rotation, the mean age of the fully regulated forest would be  
7 50 years while a natural landscape with a 100-year fire cycle would have a mean age of  
8 100 years. (Fig. 1) This is because fire is a random process while forest management is  
9 not. With a 100 fire cycle, 37 % of stands in a landscape subject only to fires are, in fact,  
10 older than 100 years, while no stands in a fully regulated managed landscape are older  
11 than 100 years (van Wagner 1978). This means that a large proportion of the pre-  
12 industrial landscape was composed of forests older than the 100-year commercial forest  
13 rotation. The distribution of forest age classes over the landscape is the most important  
14 factor controlling the structure and composition of the forest, which, in turn, controls its  
15 biodiversity.

16

17 In the mixedwood forest located in the southern portion of the eastern boreal forest we  
18 generally observe a post-fire invasion of shade-intolerant hardwoods (birch and poplar)  
19 that are gradually replaced in the canopy by shade-tolerant conifers (Bergeron and  
20 Dubuc 1989; Bergeron 2000). Thus, successive replacement of hardwood stands by  
21 mixed stands then by softwood stands occurs over a 200-year period. Further north, in  
22 the coniferous boreal forest dominated by black spruce, stand establishment following  
23 fire is often dominated by an initial cohort of spruce which gives rise to a dense forest  
24 principally of seed origin. At maturity, this even-aged stand structure is gradually  
25 replaced by a more open forest containing stems originating from the fire and  
26 regeneration partly of layer origin. In the prolonged absence of fire, these stands develop

1 a very open and heterogeneous uneven-aged structure, maintained by layering. The  
2 presence and abundance of birds, insects, vascular and non-vascular species changes  
3 gradually along the time-since-fire sequence, with very few species restricted to a  
4 particular stand age (Harper *et al.* 2003).

5

6 In light of these results it has become clear that in comparison with natural landscapes,  
7 even-aged forest management under short rotations will lead to an important decrease  
8 of overmature and old-growth stands important for the maintenance of biodiversity  
9 (Kneeshaw and Gauthier 2003).

10

11

12 Current vs Past fire frequency : the good news

13

14 Table 2 presents the current burn rates for the same locations as in Table 1. Current  
15 burn rates were estimated from the Canadian large-fire database (Stocks *et al.* 2002).  
16 The large-fire database includes all fires 200 ha and larger and represents over 97 % of  
17 the total area burned in Canada. For each site, the average annual area burned was  
18 calculated within a 100 km radius using the large fire database for the period 1959-1999  
19 (Table 1). The inverse of average age (or fire cycle) was used as an estimator of the  
20 annual historic burn rate.

21

22 All study areas show current burn rates significantly lower than their associated historical  
23 burn rates. The observed shift from short fire cycles in the past to longer cycles over the  
24 last 50 years is probably due to a combination of climate change and more effective fire  
25 protection. Many studies from the Canadian boreal forest report a general decrease in  
26 fire frequency since the mid-nineteen century (Bergeron *et al.* 2001; Larsen 1997; Weir

1 *et al.* 2000). As most of the forest was still unexploited at that time, it is very likely that  
2 the decrease in fire frequency was driven by changes in climate. In northwestern  
3 Quebec, the decrease in fire frequency was related to a reduction in the frequency of  
4 drought events since the end of the Little Ice Age (Bergeron and Archambault 1993). It is  
5 hypothesized that the warming that started at the end of the Little Ice Age is associated  
6 with an important change in the circulation of global air masses (Girardin *et al. in press*).  
7

8 While the firefighting tools available during the first part of the twentieth Century seem to  
9 have been insufficient to deal effectively with large fires (Lefort *et al.* 2003), active fire  
10 suppression has increased during the last 50 years. Moreover, with the introduction of  
11 water bombers, firefighting methods have probably been improved continuously through  
12 enhanced fire detection and initial response systems. Fire suppression has very likely  
13 become more efficient due to increased landscape fragmentation from land clearing and  
14 a well-developed road system which increases the number of firebreaks and improves  
15 firefighting capacity.  
16

17 Whatever its causes, the recent decrease in fire frequency favours management  
18 strategies that use even-age management on a proportion of the landscape to create  
19 forest age structures that would exist under shorter fire-return intervals. Considering the  
20 good side and the bad side of even-aged management, what should we do?  
21  
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23 A new way to manage the boreal forest  
24

25 Use of rotations of variable length in proportions similar to those observed under the  
26 natural fire regime is a possible alternative (Burton *et al.* 1999). However, this approach

1 may be applicable only in ecosystems where species are long-lived and can thus  
2 support longer rotations. In boreal forests composed of relatively short-lived species  
3 such an approach will probably lead to fibre loss and a decrease in allowable cut. This  
4 dilemma is not without a solution, however. Silvicultural practices aimed at maintaining  
5 structural and compositional characteristics of overmature stands within treated stands  
6 could, in boreal regions, guarantee maintenance of habitat diversity while only slightly  
7 affecting allowable cut. Thus, it is possible to treat some stands by clear-cutting followed  
8 by seeding or planting (or another even-age silvicultural system whose outcome  
9 resembles the effect of fire), other stands with partial cuts which approximate the natural  
10 development of overmature stands, and still other stands with selection cuts in order to  
11 reflect the dynamics of old growth stands (Figure 2).

12

13 In a forest system under a natural fire regime, not all stands survive to a mature or old  
14 growth stage before again succumbing to fire. Similarly, in the proposed strategy, not all  
15 stands should develop to the latter, advanced cohorts. Thus, the reinitiation to a first  
16 cohort forest type can occur when forest types in any of the three cohorts are clear-cut  
17 and either naturally or artificially regenerated. Figure 2 provides an example of a  
18 possible forest age structure where maximum harvest age and fire cycle are both 100  
19 years. The approach provides a means of covering a forest management area with  
20 zones of regulated, even-aged forests with proportions of each decreasing in relation  
21 with time since the last stand-initiating clear-cut. It should be noted here that the third  
22 cohort includes all age classes greater than 200 years. It would thus be possible to  
23 partially recreate not only the natural composition and structure of stands, but also to  
24 reproduce a forest age structure (proportions of each cohort) that approaches the typical  
25 distribution produced by fires (Fig.1b).

26



1 This approach can easily be applied to a variety of different situations; it is only  
2 necessary to know the natural fire cycle and maximum harvest age to determine the  
3 relative area of each cohort to be maintained over the forest landscape. Silvicultural  
4 practices are varied according to the cohort distribution and the disturbance regime of a  
5 given forest region. Bergeron *et al.* (1999) present a framework for determining the  
6 proportion of cohorts based on fire cycle and maximum harvest age.

7

8

9 Future fire frequency what should we expect?

10

11 Flannigan *et al.* (2002) and Bergeron *et al.* (*in press*) calculated future burn rates using  
12 relations developed between observed annual area burned and observed weather and  
13 fire weather indexes. We then substituted weather and fire weather indexes from  
14 General Circulation Models (GCMs) into our calculations to obtain an estimate of the  
15 future area that would burn. We used the Canadian first generation coupled GCM for the  
16 2 x CO<sub>2</sub> and 3 x CO<sub>2</sub> scenarios. This model included both greenhouse gas and sulphate  
17 aerosol forcing contributing to a 1 % increase in CO<sub>2</sub> per year. At this rate, the time  
18 periods 2040-2060 and 2080-2100 roughly correspond to a 2 x CO<sub>2</sub> and 3 x CO<sub>2</sub>  
19 scenario, respectively. The grid spacing around each specific areas shown in table 2 is  
20 approximately 3.75 longitude by 3.75 latitude.

21 The 2 x CO<sub>2</sub> simulation (Table 2) shows a high degree of variability between regions  
22 with increases in burn rates such as northern Ontario (154 %) and Wood Buffalo (15 %).  
23 Except for central Quebec where a decrease of 11 % is predicted, all other regions show  
24 slight decreases or increases. The directional changes in the 3 x CO<sub>2</sub> scenario are  
25 generally similar to those in the 2 x CO<sub>2</sub> scenario (Table 2). Exceptions are Prince Albert  
26 and Wood Buffalo for which a 3 to 4 % change in the opposite direction is observed.

1

2 Even in a 3 x CO<sub>2</sub> scenario most of the regions still have future burn rates that are lower  
3 than their historical burn rates. Under these circumstances, the use of even-age  
4 management should still be allowable to make up differences between historical and  
5 predicted (2 x CO<sub>2</sub> and 3 x CO<sub>2</sub>) burn rates. However, our results have to be interpreted  
6 with caution. First, simulations based on different GCM scenarios often give a range of  
7 results. Moreover, it is dangerous to extrapolate from our study of specific locations. For  
8 one thing,, regions in the same ecozone showed wide variability in the effects of climate  
9 change. For another, certain regions (Northwestern Ontario) showed a significant  
10 increase in burn rates. In cases where current or future fire frequency is high, logging  
11 competes with forest fires for timber. Thus, logging might not be sustainable without a  
12 large investment in fire suppression (active and passive), and extensive use of salvage  
13 logging. However, fire suppression has its limitations, and is increasingly recognized as  
14 not really effective in large tracts of natural forest where access is limited, and in years of  
15 extreme fire weather.. Our belief in the efficacy of fire suppression may have been  
16 biased by the fact that fire suppression began during a period when climate change was  
17 already responsible for a decrease in fire activity.

18

19

20 Conclusions

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22 The answer to the question *Is even-aged management the right strategy for the*  
23 *Canadian boreal forest?* is neither a clear yes nor a clear no. Our results show that  
24 even-aged management could potentially be used to recreate pre-industrial, fire-  
25 controlled landscapes over a large part of the Canadian boreal forest. There are,  
26 however, important limitations to the use of clearcut systems for this purpose. Clear-

1 cutting and fire are obviously not the same process (McRae *et al.* 2001) and a careful  
2 examination of their respective effects on pattern and processes should help define  
3 clear-cutting guidelines (OMNR 2001; Bergeron *et al.* 2002). Moreover, clear-cutting is  
4 unable to emulate the overmature and old growth forests that comprised a large part of  
5 our natural forests. There is an urgent need to develop alternative silvicultural systems  
6 for boreal forests. Experience in uneven aged management in the Canadian boreal  
7 forest is limited but it would be a mistake to wait until we have all the answers. The rate  
8 at which the virgin forest is disappearing demands us to adopt an adaptive management  
9 strategy.

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10

11

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18 collaboration with colleagues and graduate students.

1 Table 1. Geographic location and burn rates for each study area.

2

Study area	Study area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Time period	Mean age	% >100 years
Wood Buffalo Park	44807	1750-1989	71	24
Prince Albert	3461	< 1890	97	36
Northern Ontario	24000	~1870-1974	52	15
LAMF	8245	1740-1998	178	78
Western Quebec	15793	~1750-1998	139	57
Central Quebec	3844	1720-1998	102	35
Southeastern Labrador	48500	1870-1975	500	81

3



1 Table 2 Geographic location and burn rates for each study area.

2

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Study area	Study area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Time period	Past burn rate (%)	Current burn rate (%) (1959-1999)	2xCO <sub>2</sub> (CCC) % variation	3xCO <sub>2</sub> (CCC) % variation
Wood Buffalo Park	44807	1750-1989	1.41	0.6603	15.2	11.2
Prince Albert	3461	< 1890	1.03	0.4697	-1.9	1.4
Northern Ontario	24000	~1870-1974	1.92	0.4615	153.7	219.7
LAMF	8245	1740-1998	0.58	0.0456	1.5	1.9
Western Quebec	15793	~1750-1998	0.72	0.0322	0.1	1.6
Central Quebec	3844	1720-1998	0.79	0.1109	-11.1	-11.1
Southeastern Labrador	48500	1870-1975	0.20	0.0379	1.9	3.0

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3

1 Figure captions

2

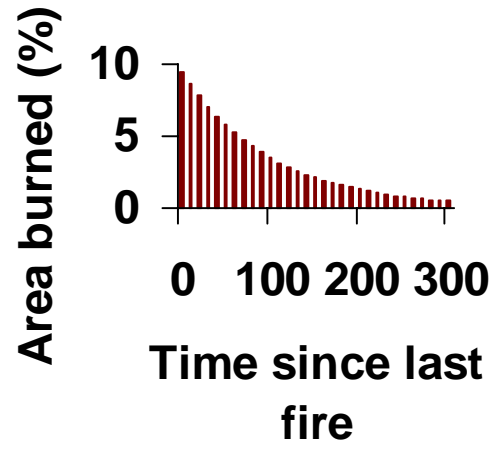
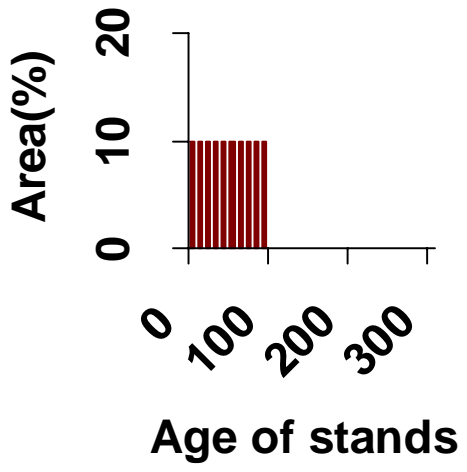
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4 Figure 1. A fully regulated forest with a rotation of 100 years has an equal  
5 distribution of stand ages that do not exceed 100 years. During a 100 year cycle,  
6 fires may burn some sites many times and leave some sites unburned. A  
7 significant proportion of the forest (36.9 %) will live for more than 100 years.

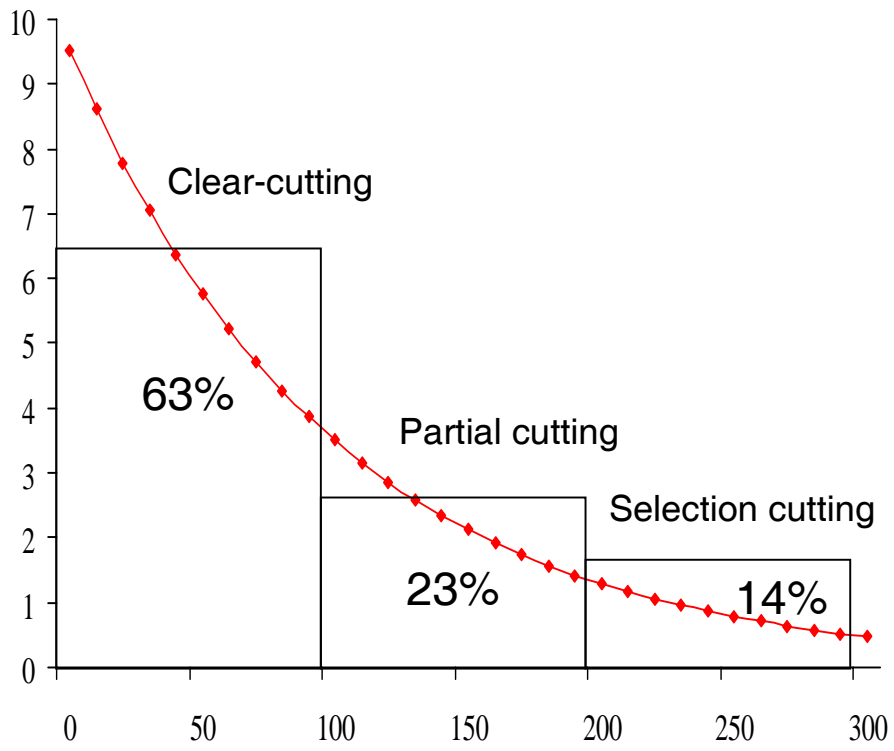
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9 Figure 2. As opposed to the exclusive use of clear-cutting which leads to a fully  
10 regulated, even-aged forest, the use of partial and selection cutting in a  
11 proportion of the stands permits the recreation of natural stand composition and  
12 structure as well as a forest age structure that approaches the typical distribution  
13 produced by fire. The proposed approach does not imply lengthening the forest  
14 rotation but only varying silvicultural practices.

1 BERGERON FIGURE 1



1 BERGERON FIG 2  
2  
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4