

Early afforestation on islands of proglacial Lake Ojibway as evidence of post-glacial migration outposts

Marianne F. S. Vogel, Hugo Asselin, Sébastien Joannin, Yves Bergeron,

Sabrina Leclercq, Cécile Latapy, Adam Ali

▶ To cite this version:

Marianne F. S. Vogel, Hugo Asselin, Sébastien Joannin, Yves Bergeron, Sabrina Leclercq, et al.. Early afforestation on islands of proglacial Lake Ojibway as evidence of post-glacial migration outposts. The Holocene, 2023, pp.975-985. 10.1177/09596836231169988 . hal-04096508

HAL Id: hal-04096508 https://hal.science/hal-04096508v1

Submitted on 17 Oct 2023 $\,$

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Early afforestation on islands of proglacial Lake Ojibway as evidence of post-glacial migration outposts
2	Marianne F.S. Vogel ^{1,2*} , Hugo Asselin ³ , Sébastien Joannin ² , Yves Bergeron ^{1,4} , Sabrina Leclercq ⁵ , Cécile
3	Latapy ⁶ , Adam A. Ali ²
4	
5	¹ Institut de Recherche sur les Forêts, Université du Québec en Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Rouyn-Noranda,
6	Québec, Canada, Canada.
7	² ISEM, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, IRD, Montpellier, France; marianne.vogel@uqat.ca;
8	sebastien.joannin@umontpellier.fr; ahmed-adam.ali@umontpellier.fr
9	³ École d'études autochtones, Université du Québec en Abitibi-Témiscamingue, Rouyn-Noranda, Québec,
10	Canada; <u>hugo.asselin@uqat.ca</u>
11	⁴ Département des sciences biologiques, Université du Québec à Montréal, Montréal, Québec, Canada;
12	yves.bergeron@uqat.ca
13	⁵ Faculté des Sciences, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, Québec, Canada;
14	sabrina.leclercq@usherbrooke.ca
15	⁶ Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France; <u>cecile.latapy@etu.umontpellier.fr</u>
16	*Author for correspondence: marianne.vogel@uqat.ca
17	
18	ORCID IDs
19	Marianne F.S. Vogel <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0727-5133</u>
20	Hugo Asselin <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9542-4994</u>
21	Sébastien Joannin <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8345-9252</u>
22	Yves Bergeron <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3707-3687</u>
23	Adam A. Ali <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6927-6633</u>
24	

25 A Abstract

26 At the end of the last glacial period in the northern hemisphere, meltwater from receding ice sheets 27 accumulated into large proglacial lakes, potentially limiting postglacial afforestation. We explored 28 whether former islands of proglacial Lake Ojibway (Canada) (hilltops in the current landscape) could have 29 acted as migration outposts and thus accelerated the postglacial migration. We extracted sediments 30 from two small lakes located on "paleo-islands" and used XRF to detect changes in soil erosion and 31 vegetation biomass. We also used plant macro-remains and wood charcoal to determine if (and which) 32 tree species colonized the sites and to detect local fire events. Organic sediment accumulation started 33 around 9657 and 9,947 cal. yr BP at Lakes Perché and Despériers, respectively, before the level of Lake 34 Ojibway started to decrease and liberate parts of the studied landscape ca 9,400 cal. yr BP. Lithogenic 35 elements (Ti, K, Sr, Fe, Zr and Rb) decreased between the beginning of organic sediment accumulation 36 and 8,800-8,700 cal. yr BP, indicating reduced soil erosion, possibly due to soil stabilization by 37 vegetation. Then, the S/Ti ratio, a proxy of organic matter accumulation increased around 8,800 and 38 8,400 cal. yr BP. The earliest tree macro-remains (needles of Larix laricina, Picea spp., and Pinus spp., and 39 seeds of Betula spp.) were found between 9,850 and 9,300 cal. yr BP. Local fires were detected around 40 9,820, 9,360 and 8,362 cal. yr BP. Early afforestation occurred on the islands of Lake Ojibway, 200 and 41 450 years before its level started to decrease, confirming the hypothesis that some islands acted as 42 migratory outposts accelerating postglacial migration.

43

Keywords: Afforestation, Island biogeography, Plant macro-remains, Postglacial migration, Proglacial
 Lake Ojibway, XRF analysis

46 A Introduction

At the end of the Pleistocene, large portions of the northern hemisphere were covered by ice sheets
which were progressively retreating to the north. From the beginning of the Holocene (11,700 years ago)
to the mid-Holocene (ca 6,000 years ago), the Laurentide Ice Sheet slowly melted over north-eastern
Canada (Dalton et al., 2020). As landscapes became free of ice, they were available for colonization by
vegetation from forests located at the southern margins of ice sheets.

52 Meltwater from receding ice sheets sometimes accumulated at their front and created so-called 53 proglacial lakes (Carrivick and Tweed, 2013) that prevented vegetation colonization of deglaciated areas 54 for centuries. Several Holocene proglacial lakes have been identified in Canada, including Lake Ojibway, 55 one of the largest proglacial lakes (115,000 km³), covering what is currently western Quebec and eastern 56 Ontario (Godbout et al., 2020; Veillette, 1994; Vincent and Hardy, 1977). Lake Ojibway was formed 57 because the crustal depression beneath the ice caused the adjacent terrain to slope down towards the 58 north, which prevented meltwater from leaving the ice front (Fig. 1). The ice sheet produced meltwater, 59 which was prevented from flowing north by the ice itself acting as a wall. Water accumulated at the ice 60 sheet front and created proglacial Lake Ojibway around 10,570 cal. yr BP (calibrated years before 61 present). Then, as the ice sheet continued its northward retreat, the southern end of James Bay was 62 eventually freed from ice and Lake Ojibway gradually drained into it. Different phases of lake level have 63 been recorded before the final drainage of Lake Ojibway. The level of proglacial Lake Ojibway reached its 64 maximum during the Angliers phase ca 9,400 cal. yr BP (Brouard et al., 2021; Godbout et al., 2020). Then, 65 lake level gradually decreased and was ca 65 m lower around 9,000 cal. yr BP when the Kinojévis phase 66 started. As the level of Lake Ojibway decreased, more and more islands emerged. The level of Lake 67 Ojibway had lowered ca 35 m more, at the beginning of the La Sarre phase ca 8,300 cal. yr BP (Brouard et 68 al., 2021). Several dates were proposed for the final drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway, with most

studies placing it at ca 8,200 cal. yr BP (Brouard et al., 2021; Daubois et al., 2015; Godbout et al., 2020;
Roy et al., 2015).

71 The observed postglacial migration of several tree species in western Quebec was faster than the 72 estimated migration time based on the mean distance dispersal capacities observed nowadays, a 73 phenomenon called Reid's paradox of rapid plant migration (Clark, 1998). Indeed, several vegetation 74 reconstructions based on palynological and macro-remain studies in Western Quebec indicated that 75 afforestation closely followed the drainage of Lake Ojibway (Ali et al., 2008; Carcaillet et al., 2001; 76 Richard, 1980). Such rapid colonization can either be explained (1) by the presence of glacial refugia 77 (Brochmann et al., 2003; Varga, 2010); or (2) by long distance dispersal events (Bullock et al., 2017; Cain 78 et al., 2000). As there is no evidence that glacial refugia were ever present in western Quebec, the 79 second hypothesis can be retained but remains to be supported by empirical data.

During its >2,300 years presence over western Quebec and north-eastern Ontario, Lake Ojibway should have acted as a barrier slowing down postglacial forest migration, unless its islands were colonized early and acted as outposts facilitating colonization of lowlands following the drainage of Lake Ojibway into James Bay. For the islands of Lake Ojibway to be colonized, long-distance dispersal events from the vegetation front south of the lake were necessary. According to Schurr et al. (2009), long-distance seed dispersal via abiotic or biotic action happens when ≤1% of seeds travel >1km. Although such events are rare, they can strongly affect plant biogeography and population dynamics (Cain et al., 2000).

If the "paleo-islands" on Lake Ojibway had remained uncolonized, while Lake Ojibway was present, ie., if
no long-distance dispersal events succeeded, colonization following the drainage of the proglacial lake
would have followed a south-north trajectory limited by average seed dispersal distance, as most tree
species in north-eastern Canada are wind-dispersed (Burns and Honkala, 1990) (Fig. 1 – first hypothesis).
This scenario does not explain how sites located several hundreds of kilometers north of the migration
front could have been afforested almost immediately after the drainage of Lake Ojibway (Ali et al.,

2009). An alternative hypothesis would be that some islands on Lake Ojibway were colonized through
long-distance seed dispersal before the final drainage of the proglacial lake into James Bay, which would
explain how sites far from the postglacial migration front could have been afforested quickly, then our
study would enlighten an early colonization of paleo-islands, ie., while the Lake Ojibway still covered
Quebec (Fig. 1 – second hypothesis, Fig. 2).



98

Figure 1: Schematic representation of proglacial Lake Ojibway (LO) creation and hypotheses concerning
 the colonization of paleo-islands before the drainage of Lake Ojibway and implications on postglacial
 migration thereafter.



studies have been conducted so far on the afforestation of sites located near the maximum shoreline levels of proglacial lakes in eastern Canada (Richard, 1980; Richard and Larouche, 1989) and they did not allow to clearly demonstrate the potential role of paleo-islands on postglacial forest migration. Our study documents environmental conditions above the maximum limit of Lake Ojibway, therefore allowing us to test the hypothesis of early colonization of paleo-islands on a proglacial lake.

115

116 A Material and methods

117 B Study area

118 The study area is located in the Abitibi-Témiscamingue region of western Quebec and is part of the clay 119 belt of Quebec and Ontario created by deposits of proglacial Lake Ojibway (Fig. 2a). The Abijévis hills are 120 located within the Aiguebelle National Park, whereas the Kekeko hills are 50 km southward of the park. 121 Both hill formations originated from marine volcanism and are composed of mafic rocks, ie., mostly non-122 carbonate rocks such as gabbro and andesite. Surface deposits are glacial till (MERN - Système 123 d'information géominière, 2022; Nutz et al., 2020). The hills were aerially exposed following ice sheet 124 retreat ca 10,650 cal. yr BP (Dyke, 2004; Veillette, 1994). Although they were rounded by ice sheet 125 action, the hills remain among the highest elevations in Abitibi-Témiscamingue, with maximum 126 elevations of 570 m and 488 m above sea level (a.s.l.) for Abijévis and Kekeko, respectively. They are 127 surrounded by a generally flat topography (between 180 and 350 m a.s.l.). 128 Ancient shorelines of proglacial Lake Ojibway are still visible on hillsides in the current landscape and 129 allowed reconstructions of lake level history (Godbout et al., 2017, 2020) and the identification of several 130 paleo-islands that became hills following the final drainage of Lake Ojibway ca 8,200 cal. yr BP (Richard, 131 1980; Richard et al., 2020; Veillette, 1994). Lake Ojibway's highest shorelines (ca 9,400 cal. yr BP) are 132 estimated to be slightly below 400 m a.s.l. and 380 m a.s.l. for the Abijévis and Kekeko hills, respectively

133 (Godbout et al., 2017). Areas above these elevations are therefore considered to have always been



134 paleo-islands (Fig. 2b).



Figure 2: (a) Extent of proglacial Lake Ojibway in western Quebec around 9,600 cal. yr BP (Brooks, 2020), showing the locations of the two studied paleo-islands (yellow stars) according to the lake level at the time. The location of Aiguebelle National Park (ANP) is also shown. The inset shows the location of ANP relative to Hudson Bay (HB) and James Bay (JB), where proglacial Lake Ojibway finally drained around 8,200 cal. yr BP. (b) Close-up of the study area showing paleo-islands (in light to dark orange), including the Abijévis and Kekeko Hills, where Lakes Perché and Despériers were sampled, respectively.

142

143 **B** Site selection and lake sediment sampling

144 We selected two small headwater lakes surrounded by steep shores to maximize sediment collection: 145 Lake Perché (formerly known as Lake Edrien) in the Aiguebelle National Park (Abijévis hills) and Lake 146 Despériers on the Kekeko hills (Table I; Fig. 2). Lake Perché is located at 380 m a.s.l. While this is slightly 147 below the highest shoreline of Lake Ojibway in the area (400 m a.s.l.), Lake Perché was formed before 148 the complete drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway and could have recorded part of the paleo-island's 149 history. Lake Despériers is located at 407 m a.s.l., ie. almost 30 m above the highest shoreline of Lake 150 Ojibway in the area (Table I). Current forest vegetation around the sampled lakes is dominated by black 151 spruce (Picea mariana [Mill.] BSP), white spruce (Picea glauca [Moench] Voss), jack pine (Pinus

152 banksiana Lamb.) and balsam fir (Abies balsamea [L.] Mill.). Both lakes are surrounded by rolling hills less

than 100 m in height.

154

155 Table I: Main characteristics of Lakes Perché and Despériers.

Name	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Area (ha)	Organic sediment core length (cm)	Water column depth at sampling location (cm)	Current local vegetation by order of dominance
Lake Perché	48°30'8.10"N	78°41'56.90"W	380	9.70	554	370	Picea mariana, Pinus banksiana
Lake Despériers	48°11'4.22"N	79° 9'38.80"W	407	8.89	292	750	Picea mariana, Picea glauca, Ahies halsamea

156

We extracted lake sediment cores from the center of each lake with a 60-mm diameter Livingstone corer. We selected headwater lakes to avoid sediment disturbance by incoming water flows. We collected complete gyttja sequences (organic sediments), from the water-sediment interface to the contact with the underlying mineral glacial sediments. We stored sediments in plastic tubes and kept them in cold conditions (4°C) until further analyses.

162

163 **B Age-depth models**

164 We built age-depth models with the Bayesian statistics-based 'Bacon' v2.2 package in R (Blaauw and

165 Christen, 2011) for the bottom part of the sediment sequences at each lake, as we wanted to focus on

166 the period corresponding to the beginning of organic sediment accumulation on the paleo-islands.

- 167 Despite our efforts, we found few macro-remains and we only managed to obtain ¹⁴C dates for two
- 168 levels at lake Perché and one level at lake Despériers (Table II). Hence, we also dated bulk sediment from

169 three levels from each core to complete the age-depth models (Table II). We calibrated the ¹⁴C dates

170 with the IntCal20 calibration curves (Reimer et al., 2020).

171

- 172 Table II: Radiocarbon dates obtained from samples near the bottom of the sediment cores from Lakes
- 173 Perché and Despériers.

Lake	Sample depth (cm)	¹⁴ C yr BP	Cal. yr BP	Material dated	Lab. Code	
Perché	512.5 - 513	6670 ± 20	7537 ± 30	Bulk sediment	ULA-9479	
Perché	537 - 538.5	7225 ± 20	8044 ± 25	Bulk sediment	ULA-9477	
Perché	553 - 553.5	7510 ± 30	8341 ± 30	Plant macro-remains ^a	BETA-644328	
Perché	555 – 555.5	7680 ± 40	8466 ± 30	Plant macro-remains ^b	BETA-644329	
Perché	564 - 564.5	8695 ± 20	9626 ± 30	Bulk sediment	ULA-9478	
Despériers	232.5 – 233.5	5975 ± 15	6813 ± 30	Bulk sediment	ULA-10171	
Despériers	260 - 261	7055 ± 20	7891 ± 30	Bulk sediment	ULA-10172	
Despériers	276 – 277.5	7510 ± 30	8341 ± 30	Plant macro-remains ^c	BETA-638098	
Despériers	289 – 289.5	8775 ± 20	9774 ± 40	Bulk sediment	ULA-10173	

^a bark fragment and other unidentified vegetal fragments; ^b bark fragment, *Cristatella mucedo* statoblast

and other unidentified vegetal fragments; ^c Larix laricina needle fragment and unidentified seed and
vegetal fragments.

177

178 **B Geochemical analyses**

179	We performed XRF analyses on the basal sediments corresponding to the first millennium of the paleo-
180	islands' existence. To detect semi-quantitative variations of geochemical composition, we used the
181	TestAllGeo analysis mode on the Niton XL3t 900SHE portable scanner and continuously scanned the
182	sediments every 0.5 cm along the cores. Changes in the concentration of several major and minor
183	elements can be used as proxies of ecological phenomena (Croudace and Rothwell, 2015). We used K, Ti,
184	Rb, Sr, Zr and Fe (lithogenic elements) as indicators of erosion from the watershed to the lakes, which we
185	expected to decrease following afforestation of the paleo-islands. In addition to being an erosion
186	indicator, low levels of K indicate extensive vegetation presence (Foerster et al., 2012). While S and Ca
187	have various environmental interpretations (Croudace and Rothwell, 2015), we considered S to be

188 indicative of organic matter presence and Ca to be indicative of biogenic carbonate (algae production). 189 As plants fix sulfur (S), we used the S/Ti ratio as an indicator of organic matter presence (Moreno et al., 190 2007). The fact that S, Ca and the S/Ti ratio are indicators of organic matter presence compensates for 191 our inability to perform loss-on-ignition (LOI) analysis due to lack of material. For each lake, we applied 192 principal component analysis (PCA) with the 'factoextra' package in R (Kassambara, 2017) to differentiate 193 portions of the sediment sequences based on their chemical signature. We used the Kaiser criterion to 194 select significant principal components (PCs), ie., those with eigenvalues >1 (Kaiser, 1960). As variations 195 along the PCs were semi-guantitative because of the XRF scanning method and scanner calibration, we 196 could only compare trends in element dynamics (increase or decrease), and not their absolute values.

197

198 **B** Identification of plant macro-remains

We bathed half of each 0.5-cm slice of basal sediments in a hexametaphosphate (Na₆P₆O₁₈) solution for
at least 12 hours under agitation, for deflocculation purposes. We then filtered each sample through a
250-µm sieve to keep plant macro-remains. We identified plant macro-remains under a dissecting
microscope using a published key (Lévesque et al., 1988) and recorded the presence and absence of taxa
for each level studied.

204

205 **B** Charcoal extraction and analysis

To perform charcoal extraction, we cut the basal sediments continuously into 0.5-cm-thick slices. We
extracted a 1-cm³ subsample from the middle of each slice to avoid contamination risk (Mustaphi and
Pisaric, 2014). We bathed the subsample in a solution of potassium hydroxide (KOH), sodium
hexametaphosphate (Na₆P₆O₁₈), and sodium hypochlorite (NaClO) for at least 24 hours under agitation to
perform deflocculation and to help differentiate charcoal particles from organic matter (Whitlock and
Larsen, 2001). We sieved the solution through a 160-µm mesh to extract macro-charcoal particles and

measured their surface area under a dissecting microscope using the WinSEEDLE TM image analysis
software (Regents Instruments Inc., https://regent.qc.ca/, August 2021).

214 To reconstruct local fire history, ie., fire events that occurred within the lakes' watersheds and thus on 215 the paleo-islands, we applied the Charcoal Size Distribution (CSD) method (Asselin and Payette, 2005; 216 Oris et al., 2014a; Remy et al., 2018) to every fire event detected using the CharAnalysis software v1.1 217 (Higuera et al., 2008; http://CharAnalysis.googlepages.com). We calculated geometric mean diameters 218 of charcoal particles from the square root of the surface area (Clark and Hussey, 1996) and converted 219 them to log mm. We sorted charcoal particles of each sample according to their size into six classes 220 ranging from -0.9 log mm to 0.3 log mm (every 0.2 log mm). We applied a linear regression to the 221 distribution of the proportion of charcoal particles in each size class (-0.8, -0.6, etc.) for each sample. As 222 large charcoal particles travel less far, local fires are characterized by a greater proportion of large 223 charcoal particles than regional fires, which is reflected by a gentler slope of the size distribution 224 regression (Asselin and Payette, 2005). According to this principle, we classified as local fires (on the 225 paleo-island) the samples with a slope more gentle than a threshold fixed at -1.77 based on a previous 226 study (Oris et al., 2014a). In addition, we considered as local fires only the samples having at least one 227 charcoal particle >-0.3 log mm (Supplemental Figure 1). We considered that other fires (extra-local or 228 regional) did not burn on the paleo-islands.

229

230 A Results

231 **B** Organic sediment accumulation during Lake Ojibway presence

Basal ¹⁴C dates obtained from organic sediments at or close to the contact with the glacial mineral
sediments were 9,657 cal. yr BP and 9,947 cal. yr BP for Lakes Perché and Despériers, respectively (Fig.
3). These basal ages are older than the estimated date of Lake Ojibway's final drainage (8,200 cal. yr BP).
Radiocarbon dates based on macro-remains that are coeval with the gradual lowering of the level of Lake

236 Ojibway were recorded 10 cm above the basal dates obtained from bulk sediments. Despite being a little 237 younger than expected, these radiocarbon dates based on macro-remains are the oldest dates obtained 238 for the region. Moreover, they are from the Kinojévis phase (9,000-8,300 cal. yr BP), before the final 239 drainage of Lake Ojibway. Radiocarbon dates based on bulk sediment and on plant macro-remains are 240 consistent, suggesting that no or little reservoir effect altered the age-depth models and basal age 241 estimations (Grimm et al., 2009). 242 At Lake Perché, the sediment sequence we analyzed spanned from 9,657 to 6,503 cal. yr BP, and at Lake 243 Despériers from 9,947 to 6,850 cal. yr BP (Fig. 3). The mean sedimentation rates were relatively similar at 244 both lakes at the beginning of the Holocene (44 yr.cm⁻¹ for Lake Perché and 53 yr.cm⁻¹ for Lake 245 Despériers). The mineral sediments found below the gyttja were olive-grey colored silt for both lakes, 246 which was markedly different from the clay characterizing sites located below the shorelines of 247 proglacial Lake Ojibway. Silt is indicative of glacial till associated to the direct action of the ice sheet on

the bedrock without a proglacial lake intermediary (Boulton, 1978; Normandeau et al., 2013).





Figure 3: Calibrated age-depth models based on the radiocarbon dates (Table II) obtained from basal
sediments (brown = organic sediments and olive-grey = mineralogic sediments) at a) Lake Perché and b)
Lake Despériers. The purple rectangle illustrates the period when the level of proglacial Lake Ojibway
gradually decreased until its final drainage ca 8,200 cal. yr BP.

256 **B Geochemical signature of the organic sediments**

Two groups were detected by the PCA analysis in the gyttja of Lake Perché: (1) from the silt-gyttja transition at 9,600 cal. yr BP to 9,000 cal. yr BP and (2) between 9,000 and 6,500 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4a). The first two principal components explained 88.66% of the variability in the dataset (PC1 = 73.67% and PC2 = 14.99%). PC1 was positively associated to lithogenic elements (K, Ti, Fe, Rb, Zr, Sr) coming from the steep shores surrounding the lake, while PC2 was positively correlated to S. One element (Ca) was positively related to both PCs (Fig. 4a).



Figure 4: Principal component analysis (PCA) of sediment samples (dots), associated centroids for each cluster (larger dots and triangles), and XRF results (arrows) for a) Lake Perché and b) Lake Despériers. At both sites the sediment samples pre- and post-dating afforestation are clearly separated along PC1.

Variations of PC1 and PC2 loadings, and of the S/Ti ratio across time at c) Lake Perché and d) Lake
Despériers. The purple rectangle illustrates the period when the level of proglacial Lake Ojibway
gradually decreased until its final drainage ca 8,200 cal. yr BP.. Note that the data for PC2 at Lake
Despériers does not respect the Kaiser criterion of eigenvalue >1 and should be interpreted with caution.

271

277

The PCA also differentiated two groups in the gyttja of Lake Despériers: (1) from the silt-gyttja transition at 10,000 cal. yr BP to 8,800 cal. yr BP and (2) between 8,800 and 6,800 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4b). The first two principal components explained 94.56% of the variability (PC1 = 87.15% and PC2 = 7.41%). As was the case for Lake Perché, the lithogenic sediments were positively correlated to PC1 at Lake Despériers, S

was positively associated to PC2, and Ca was positively related to both PCs.

BP, and then increased until 8,300 cal. yr BP. After 8,250 cal. yr BP, values slowly decreased and reached
their minimum until the end of the record, ie. 6,500 cal. yr BP. PC2 values (associated with S) increased
between 9,350 and 9,000 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4a, c) and then remained relatively stable (despite short-term

For Lake Perché, PC1 values (associated with lithogenic elements) quickly decreased until 8,800 cal. yr

variations) between 9,000 and 7,900 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4c). The S/Ti ratio slowly increased with peaks

around 8,800 cal. yr BP, between 8,000 and 7,800 cal. yr BP, between 7,700 and 7,500 cal. yr BP, and ca

283 6,900 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4c). The absence of a distinguishable pattern at 8,200 cal. yr BP indicates that the

284 environment remained stable during the drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway.

For Lake Despériers, PC1 values (associated with lithogenic elements) gradually decreased from the
beginning of gyttja accumulation around 10,000 cal. yr BP until 8,700 cal. yr BP, then they strongly
decreased around 8700 cal. yr BP to reach minimum values after 8,200 cal. yr BP. (Fig. 4b, d). PC2 did not
respect the Kaiser criterion (eigenvalue = 0.59) and therefore could not be interpreted (Supplemental
Table 1). The S/Ti ratio remained stable during the early Holocene at Lake Despériers, with peaks at ca
9,900, 9,300 and 8,800 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4d). Then, ca 8,400 cal. yr BP, the S/Ti ratio started to increase until

7,900 cal. yr BP. Around 7,700 cal. yr BP, the S/Ti ratio decreased and remained stable until 7,000 cal. yr
BP, then it increased until 6,500 cal. yr BP (Fig. 4d).

293

294 **B** Plant macro-remains: early presence of local trees

295 Despite the paucity of macro-remains in the sediments, we were able to extract and identify some of

them. The earliest tree macro-remains that we found were larch (*Larix laricina [Du Roi]* K. Koch) needles

dating from around 9,513 cal. yr BP at Lake Perché (Fig. 5a; Supplemental Figure 2a, b). Spruce (Picea

spp.) needle fragments were also found ca 8,385 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5a; Supplemental Figure 2c). At Lake

299 Despériers, the earliest tree macro-remains that we found were pine (*Pinus* spp.) needles, dating from

around 9,845 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5b; Supplemental figure 2d). Needles of spruce (*Picea* spp.) and larch (*Larix*

301 *laricina*), as well as birch (*Betula* spp.) seeds were also found ca 9,584-9,300 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5b;

302 Supplemental Figure 2e-i). Trees were therefore present on the studied paleo-islands at least 1,400 years

303 before Lake Ojibway drainage.



Figure 5: Fire events detected with CHARanalysis (red triangles), and local fire events detected with the Charcoal Size Distribution (CSD) method (blue circles) and oldest tree macro-remains retrieved from the sediments at (a) Lake Perché and (b) Lake Despériers according to the age-depth models (Fig. 3). The purple rectangle illustrates the period when the level of proglacial Lake Ojibway gradually decreased until its final drainage ca 8,200 cal. yr BP.

310

311 B Evidence of local forest fires on a paleo-island

- 312 CHARanalysis detected 21 and 25 fire events in the Lake Perché and Lake Despériers sediments,
- 313 respectively (Fig. 5). At Lake Perché, eight events met the conditions to be considered local fires having
- burned within the watershed, the earliest local fires were dated at 8,362 (Fig. 5a) when charcoal influx
- was maximal (Supplemental Figure 3), 7,984 and 7,942 cal. yr BP (Fig. 5a) when charcoal influx was lower
- 316 (Supplemental Figure 3). The earliest local fire, evidenced by burned needle fragments (possibly Picea
- 317 spp.) (Supplemental Figure 2c), occurred around 160 years before the drainage of proglacial Lake
- Ojibway. At Lake Despériers, 11 events met the conditions to be considered local fires having burned
- 319 within the watershed. The earliest local fires at Lake Despériers were dated at 9,820 and 9,360 cal. yr BP,
- 320 while Lake Ojibway was still present (Fig. 5b).
- 321

322 A Discussion

- 323 Our analyses of two sites located 50 km apart revealed that both paleo-islands were colonized by tree
- 324 species several centuries before the level of Lake Ojibway lowered enough for paleo-islands to become
- 325 connected with the mainland to the south ca 9,000 cal. yr BP (Godbout et al., 2020; Roy et al., 2015). We
- 326 used proxies suited to reveal local vegetation establishment, and we avoided proxies such as pollen,
- 327 which can be influenced by extra-local vegetation inputs.

329 **B** Early afforestation of islands on proglacial Lake Ojibway

330 Gyttja started to accumulate at the bottom of small lakes on paleo-islands while Lake Ojibway was still at 331 its maximum level, ie., about 250-550 years before it started to gradually decrease. The presence of silt 332 rather than clay beneath the gyttja at both sites is evidence that they were never flooded by proglacial 333 Lake Ojibway. Radiocarbon dates obtained from plant macro-remains testify that shrubs and trees were 334 present on the paleo-islands at least 140-260 years before the final drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway 335 (Table II). According to the age-depth models, the oldest tree macro-remains we found were (indirectly) 336 dated to ca 9,600 cal. yr BP and 9,850 cal. yr BP at Lakes Perché and Despériers, respectively, 200 and 337 450 years before the level of Lake Ojibway first started to decrease (Brouard et al., 2021; Godbout et al., 338 2020). Hence, while deglaciation time has been estimated at 10,570 cal. yr BP in the study area (Daubois 339 et al., 2015; Godbout et al., 2020; Roy et al., 2015), our results indicate that the afforestation process 340 needed about 1,000 years to unfold after the glacier retreat. This is much longer than what has been 341 documented at recently deglaciated sites in Alaska, where primary succession took less than 200 years to 342 complete (Fastie, 1995). The difference would likely be due to the distance to seed sources having been 343 much greater at our sites (80 km over mostly water) compared to those in Alaska (<30 km over ground). 344 Furthermore, cold temperatures during the early Holocene (Viau et al., 2006) likely implied lower 345 vegetation productivity, as evidenced in our age-depth models by lower sediment accumulation rates 346 compared to the middle Holocene.

Geochemical analyses showed that lithogenic elements - therefore erosion (Joannin et al., 2022;
Lefebvre et al., 2021) - decreased rapidly at both sites from the beginning of gyttja accumulation until
8,800 cal. yr BP (Lake Perché) and 8,700 cal. yr BP (Lake Despériers). As soil cohesion and stabilization are
supported by plant root systems (Easterbrook, 1999), it is reasonable to assume that decreasing erosion
is an indirect indicator of vegetation colonization on paleo-islands. Indeed, more individual plants
produce more roots which stabilize the ground, meaning that less soil erosion is recorded in the lake

353	sediments. Therefore, PC1 variations suggest the presence of vegetation rapidly after the beginning of
354	gyttja accumulation at both lakes. The plateau PC1 values reached for both lakes around the final
355	drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway ca 8,200 cal. yr BP likely indicate densification of the vegetation.
356	Increased PC2 values (mostly linked to S fixation by plants) and a peak of the S/Ti ratio around 8,800 cal.
357	yr BP indicate a strong organic matter input and suggest the arrival (or densification) of local vegetation,
358	coherent with the decrease of the level of Lake Ojibway. Therefore, the variations in the concentrations
359	of lithogenic elements and elements indicating organic matter input into the lake sediments provide
360	indirect support of early vegetation establishment before the level of Lake Ojibway started to decrease
361	and possible densification on the paleo-islands before Lake Ojibway's final drainage.
362	Macro-remains analysis confirmed local presence of trees at both sites, while Lake Ojibway was still
363	present and before it gradually drained. According to the age-depth model, the earliest tree species
364	identified at Lake Perché is Larix laricina, possibly indicative of wet conditions around the lake ca 9,500
365	cal. yr BP (Johnston, 1990). It was followed by <i>Picea</i> spp. around 8,400 cal. yr BP, at a time when
366	geochemical analyses indicate that vegetation became denser. At Lake Despériers, Pinus spp. was the
367	earliest species found at the paleo-island around 9,850 cal. yr BP and could be indicative of
368	environmental conditions drier than at Lake Perché (Rudolph and Laidly, 1990). Then, between ca 9,585
369	cal. yr BP and 9,300 cal. yr BP, Picea spp., Larix laricina and Betula spp. were also present, possibly
370	indicating that environmental conditions had become more mesic, as at Lake Perché.
371	The fact that a local fire was dated at 8,362 cal. yr BP at lake Perché (burned unidentified needle) is yet
372	another confirmation of early afforestation of the paleo-island, as fire ignition and propagation are fuel-
373	dependent (ie., biomass-dependent) (Finney et al., 2021). At Lake Despériers, the earliest local fire
374	around 9,820 cal. yr BP (burned unidentified needle fragment, Fig. S.3.3) confirmed biomass presence
375	and afforestation on the paleo-island (Finney et al., 2021) before the drainage of proglacial Lake Ojibway
376	started.

378

379 For primary succession to be successful on a bare island on a proglacial lake, several biotic and abiotic 380 barriers must be overcome (Crofts and Brown, 2020). Climatic and meteorological factors are at play, 381 substrate characteristics are also important, but distance to seed sources is the main hurdle. 382 At the time of full extension of proglacial lake Ojibway, the distance between the studied paleo-islands 383 and the continental forest margin was about 80 km, with other islands located in between (Fig. 2b). 384 Colonization of the studied paleo-islands could have resulted from seeds coming directly from the 385 colonization front and traveling almost 100 km above water. Such long distance dispersal events have 386 been documented before (Davis et al., 1986). Seeds could also have come from other paleo-islands that 387 could have acted as 'stepping stones' (Harris et al., 2018). In either case, our results support the 388 hypothesis of tree population outposts on paleo-islands, far from the main source population of 389 propagules at the southern margin of the proglacial lake, as previously theorized (Davis et al., 1991). 390 Even with the 'stepping stones' scenario that would have reduced seed traveling distance to steps of ca 391 15-20 km, such dispersal would be considered very long, as the vast majority of boreal tree seeds are 392 dispersed less than 100 m from the parent tree (Asselin et al., 2001; Burns and Honkala, 1990; Greene 393 and Johnson, 1996). Estimating the seed rain at distances longer than a few hundred meters is very 394 difficult technically (Nathan, 2006). A modelling study estimated the proportion of seeds traveling 1-10 395 km (long distance dispersal events) at 0.1% (Higgins and Richardson, 1999). Knowing that yearly seed 396 production of most boreal tree species reaches 1-5 million seeds/ha (Burns and Honkala, 1990), between 397 12,500 and 62,500 seeds could have reached the studied paleo-islands each year. Multiplied by 1000 398 years between deglaciation and vegetation establishment on paleo-islands and adding the probability of 399 germination and survival, the possibility of colonization through long distance dispersal is, after all, not 400 so unlikely. Moreover, as the level of Lake Ojibway gradually decreased from ca 9,400 cal. yr BP, more

B The paleo-island colonization process: an answer to Reid's Paradox

and more land became available for colonization, which would have decreased the travel distance
between mainland and islands, thus gradually increasing the probability of successful dispersal events
and colonization of paleo-islands.

404 Catabatic winds blowing from the ice sheet to the south could have slowed down the migration process 405 (Richard and Larouche, 1989). Reconstructions of paleo-wind directions indicate a dominant wind 406 blowing towards the east or south-east (Veillette, 1996), but do not indicate a predominance of catabatic 407 winds (Nutz et al., 2020). Active (biotic) dispersal (eg, by birds) could have contributed to long-distance 408 dispersal, even if most boreal tree species are generally dispersed by wind (Higgins et al., 2003; Nathan 409 et al., 2008; Wilkinson, 1997). Indeed, nonstandard dispersal of wind-dispersed seeds by omnivorous 410 birds has been hypothesized and later confirmed by empirical data (Nogales et al., 2012; Rumeu et al., 411 2014). We do not have palaeoecological proxies confirming or denying bird presence or passage on the paleo-island, but they could have facilitated tree seed dispersal. In the winter, secondary seed dispersal 412 413 over snow or ice, or on ice rafts in the spring, could have also favored long-distance dispersal (Alsos et 414 al., 2016; Greene and Johnson, 1997). Paleo-island plant colonization could also have occurred with 415 seeds from the Lake Ojibway free water at Lake Perché, as it was located close to the proglacial lake's 416 shoreline. In the spring, melting snow would have flushed plant material (including seeds) into Lake 417 Ojibway, and windrows would have facilitated their buoyancy and transport by wind up to the paleo-418 island shores (Glaser, 1981).

Simulation studies have estimated the migration rate of *Picea* spp. at about 50 m.yr⁻¹ (Snell and Cowling, 2015; Sulphur et al., 2016), which would mean that trees would have needed ca 4,000 years to migrate the 200 km from south to north of the area covered by proglacial Lake Ojibway following its final drainage around 8,200 cal. yr BP, if it were not for paleo-islands. However, basal dates of bulk sediments sampled in lakes located at the northern end of the area yielded ages very close to drainage time (Ali et al., 2009; El-Guellab et al., 2015; Oris et al., 2014b). Our demonstration of early afforestation of two

paleo-islands implies that they could have acted as migration outpost following the drainage of
proglacial Lake Ojibway, hence accelerating colonization of the lowlands. The total area covered by
paleo-islands represented ca 3,600 km², ie., about 10% of the area covered by proglacial Lake Ojibway at
its maximal extent (Fig. 2a). This means that several possible outposts were available for early
afforestation, from near the colonization front in the south, up to the ice sheet margin in the north (Fig.
2b). The contribution of paleo-islands as migration outposts is the most likely mechanism that could
explain Reid's paradox of rapid plant migration in western Quebec (Clark et al., 1998).

432

433 A Acknowledgements

434 We thank Thibaut Petry and his team at Aiguebelle National Park for their help and support. We also 435 thank Mary Robles, Raynald Julien and Danielle Charron for their help with fieldwork and data 436 processing. We are grateful to the Institut de recherche en mines et en environnement (UQAT) for 437 letting us use their XRF scanner, and to Yvan Poirier and Mathieu Villeneuve for their help with the 438 scanner. We thank Nils Ambec and Alayn Larouche for their help to identify plant macro-remains. We 439 also thank Jean J. Veillette for constructive discussions, and Raphaël Chavardès, Dorian Gaboriau and the 440 proofreading committee "Corrige-moi" who provided helpful comments on a first draft. We thank the 441 anonymous reviewers, whose comments improve our manuscript. This is a contribution of the 442 Laboratoire International de Recherche sur les Forêts Froides and ISEM contribution No XXX. 443

444 A Conflict of interest

445 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

447	A Funding					
448	This work was supporte	d by Mitacs Accelerat	ion in partnership witl	h Aiguebelle National Park [grant		
449	number IT25924].					
450						
451	A Data availability state	ement				
452	Data used for this article are available online:					
453	https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/k8b2t978hd/draft?a=bcbf8880-3a2a-4638-aa92-14aac331ac35					
454						
455	A Supplementary Mate	rial				
456						
457						
458 459 460	Supplemental Table 1: Eigenvalues for principal components 1 and 2 following principal component analysis on the data for Lake Perché and Lake Despériers (Fig. 3). Eigenvalues >1 met the Kaiser criterion for significance and are indicated in bold.					
		PC1 eigenvalue	PC2 eigenvalue			
	Lake Perché	5.65	1.38	-		
	Lake Despériers	6.97	0.59			

- 486 Supplemental figures



Supplemental Figure 1: Four examples of linear regressions performed on charcoal distributions and
their associated slopes. a) Local fire, as both criteria are respected (slope less steep than the -1.77
threshold and presence of charcoal particles >-0.3 log mm), b) Regional fire as the slope is steeper than
the threshold, c) Regional fire as no charcoal particle >-0.3 log mm was found, and d) Regional fire as
none of the criteria is respected.



Supplemental Figure 2: Nine of the oldest macro-remains found in the basal sediments of Lake Perché: (ab) *Larix laricina* needles, c) Possible *Picea* sp. needle (charcoal particles); and Lake Despériers: d) *Pinus* sp.
needle, (e-f) *Picea* sp. needle, (g-h) *Larix laricina* needles and i) *Betula* sp. seed. Magnification x40 under a
dissecting microscope (see Methods).





514 A References

- Ali AA, Asselin H, Larouche AC, Bergeron Y, Carcaillet C and Richard PJH (2008) Changes in
 fire regime explain the Holocene rise and fall of *Abies balsamea* in the coniferous forests of
- 517 western Québec, Canada. *The Holocene* 18(5): 693–703: doi:10.1177/0959683608091780.
- Ali AA, Carcaillet C and Bergeron Y (2009) Long-term fire frequency variability in the eastern Canadian boreal forest: the influences of climate vs. local factors. *Global Change Biology* 15(5):
- 520 1230–1241: doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2009.01842.x.
- Alsos IG, Ehrich D, Seidenkrantz M-S, Bennike O, Kirchhefer AJ and Geirsdottir A (2016) The
- role of sea ice for vascular plant dispersal in the Arctic. *Biology Letters* 12(9): 4:
- 523 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2016.0264.
- Asselin H, Fortin M-J and Bergeron Y (2001) Spatial distribution of late-successional coniferous
 species regeneration following disturbance in southwestern Québec boreal forest. *Forest Ecology and Management* 9.
- Asselin H and Payette S (2005) Detecting local-scale fire episodes on pollen slides. *Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology* 137(1–2): 31–40: doi:10.1016/j.revpalbo.2005.08.002.
- Blaauw M and Christen J (2011) Flexible paleoclimate age-depth models using an autoregressive
 gamma process. *Bayesian Analysis* 6: doi:10.1214/ba/1339616472.
- 531 Boulton GS (1978) Boulder shapes and grain-size distributions of debris as indicators of transport
- paths through a glacier and till genesis. *Sedimentology* 25(6): 773–779:
- 533 doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-3091.1978.tb00329.x.
- 534 Brochmann C, Gabrielsen TM, Nordal I, Landvik JY and Elven R (2003) Glacial survival or
- tabula rasa? The history of North Atlantic biota revisited. *TAXON* 52(3): 417–450:
- 536 doi:10.2307/3647381.
- 537 Brooks GR (2020) Evidence of a strong paleoearthquake in ~9.1 ka cal BP interpreted from mass
- transport deposits, western Quebec northeastern Ontario, Canada. *Quaternary Science Reviews*234: 106250: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2020.106250.
- 540 Brouard E, Roy M, Godbout P-M and Veillette JJ (2021) A framework for the timing of the final
- 541 meltwater outbursts from glacial Lake Agassiz-Ojibway. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 274:
- 542 107269: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2021.107269.
- 543 Bullock JM, Mallada González L, Tamme R, Götzenberger L, White SM, Pärtel M, et al. (2017)
- A synthesis of empirical plant dispersal kernels. *Journal of Ecology* 105(1): 6–19:
- 545 doi:10.1111/1365-2745.12666.
- 546 Burns RM and Honkala BH (1990) *Silvics of North America*. Forest Service, Washington, DC:
- 547 US Department of Agriculture. Available at:
- 548 https://www.srs.fs.usda.gov/pubs/misc/ag_654/volume_1/silvics_vol1.pdf.

- Cain ML, Milligan BG and Strand AE (2000) Long-distance seed dispersal in plant populations.
 American Journal of Botany 87(9): 1217–1227: doi:10.2307/2656714.
- 551 Carcaillet C, Bergeron Y, Richard PJH, Fréchette B, Gauthier S and Prairie YT (2001) Change of
- 552 fire frequency in the eastern Canadian boreal forests during the Holocene: does vegetation
- composition or climate trigger the fire regime? *Journal of Ecology* 89(6): 930–946:
- 554 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2745.2001.00614.x.
- 555 Carrivick JL and Tweed FS (2013) Proglacial lakes: character, behaviour and geological 556 importance. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 78: 34–52: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2013.07.028.
- 557 Clark JS (1998) Why trees migrate so fast: confronting theory with dispersal biology and the 558 paleorecord. *The American Naturalist* 152(2): 204–224: doi:10.1086/286162.
- Clark JS, Fastie C, Hurtt G, Jackson ST, Johnson C, King GA, et al. (1998) Reid's Paradox of
 rapid plant migration. *BioScience* 48(1): 13–24: doi:10.2307/1313224.
- 561 Clark JS and Hussey TC (1996) Estimating the mass flux of charcoal from sedimentary records:
 562 effects of particle size, morphology, and orientation. *The Holocene*. SAGE Publications Ltd 6(2):
 563 129–144: doi:10.1177/095968369600600201.
- Crofts AL and Brown CD (2020) The importance of biotic filtering on boreal conifer recruitment
 at alpine treeline. *Ecography* 43(6): 914–929: doi:10.1111/ecog.04899.
- 566 Croudace IW and Rothwell RG (eds) (2015) *Micro-XRF studies of sediment cores: applications*567 *of a non-destructive tool for the environmental sciences.* Dordrecht: Springer.
- 568Dalton AS, Margold M, Stokes CR, Tarasov L, Dyke AS, Adams RS, et al. (2020) An updated
- radiocarbon-based ice margin chronology for the last deglaciation of the North American Ice
 Sheet Complex. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 234: 106223: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2020.106223.
- 571 Daubois V, Roy M, Veillette JJ and Ménard M (2015) The drainage of Lake Ojibway in
- 572 glaciolacustrine sediments of northern Ontario and Quebec, Canada: The drainage of Lake
- 573 Ojibway, Canada. *Boreas* 44(2): 305–318: doi:10.1111/bor.12101.
- Davis MB, Schwartz MW and Woods K (1991) Detecting a species limit from pollen in
 sediments. *Journal of Biogeography* 18(6): 653: doi:10.2307/2845547.
- Davis MB, Woods KD, Webb SL and Futyma RP (1986) Dispersal versus climate: Expansion of
 Fagus and *Tsuga* into the Upper Great Lakes region. *Vegetatio* 67(2): 93–103.
- 578 Dyke AS (2004) An outline of North American deglaciation with emphasis on central and
- 579 northern Canada. *Developments in Quaternary Sciences*. Elsevier, 373–424. Available at:
- 580 https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1571086604802094: doi:10.1016/S1571-
- 581 0866(04)80209-4.
- 582 Easterbrook DJ (1999) *Surface processes and landforms*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ:
- 583 Pearson College Div.

- El-Guellab A, Asselin H, Gauthier S, Bergeron Y and Ali AA (2015) Holocene variations of
- wildfire occurrence as a guide for sustainable management of the northeastern Canadian boreal 2(1) 15 1 10 110(/ 10(62,015,0020,2))
- 586 forest. *Forest Ecosystems* 2(1): 15: doi:10.1186/s40663-015-0039-2.
- Fastie CL (1995) Causes and ecosystem consequences of multiple pathways of primary
 succession at Glacier Bay, Alaska. *Ecology* 76(6): 1899–1916: doi:10.2307/1940722.
- Finney MA, McAllister SS, Forthofer JM and Grumstrup TP (2021) Wildland fire behaviour:
 dynamics, principles and processes. Csiro Publishing.
- 591 Foerster V, Junginger A, Langkamp O, Gebru T, Asrat A, Umer M, et al. (2012) Climatic change
- recorded in the sediments of the Chew Bahir basin, southern Ethiopia, during the last 45,000
- 593 years ScienceDirect. *Quaternary International* 274: 25–37.
- Glaser PH (1981) Transport and deposition of leaves and seeds on tundra: A late-glacial analog.
 Arctic and Alpine Research 13(2): 173–182: doi:10.2307/1551193.
- 596 Godbout P-M, Roy M and Veillette JJ (2020) A detailed lake-level reconstruction shows
- evidence for two abrupt lake drawdowns in the late-stage history of the eastern Lake Agassiz-
- 598 Ojibway basin. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 238: 106327: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2020.106327.
- 599 Godbout P-M, Roy M, Veillette JJ and Schaefer JM (2017) Cosmogenic ¹⁰ Be dating of raised
- 600 shorelines constrains the timing of lake levels in the eastern Lake Agassiz-Ojibway basin.
- 601 *Quaternary Research* 88(2): 265–276: doi:10.1017/qua.2017.40.
- Greene DF and Johnson EA (1996) Wind dispersal of seeds from a forest into a clearing. *Ecology* 77(2): 595–609: doi:10.2307/2265633.
- Greene DF and Johnson EA (1997) Secondary dispersal of tree seeds on snow. *The Journal of Ecology* 85(3): 329–340: doi:10.2307/2960505.
- Harris A, Ickert-Bond S and Rodríguez A (2018) Long distance dispersal in the assembly of
- floras: A review of progress and prospects in North America. *Journal of Systematics and*
- 608 Evolution 56(5): 430–448: doi:10.1111/jse.12422.
- Higgins SI, Nathan R and Cain ML (2003) Are long-distance events in plants usually caused by
 nonstandard means of dispersal? *Ecology* 84(8): 1945–1956: doi:10.1890/01-0616.
- Higgins SI and Richardson DM (1999) Predicting plant migration rates in a changing world: the
 role of long-distance dispersal. *The American Naturalist* 153(5): 464–475: doi:10.1086/303193.
- Higuera PE, Brubaker LB, Anderson PM, Brown TA, Kennedy AT and Hu FS (2008) Frequent
- 614 fires in ancient shrub tundra: implications of paleorecords for Arctic environmental change. *PLoS*
- 615 *ONE* 3(3): e0001744: doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0001744.
- Joannin S, Capit A, Ollivier V, Bellier O, Brossier B, Mourier B, et al. (2022) First pollen record
- 617 from the Late Holocene forest environment in the Lesser Caucasus. *Review of Palaeobotany and*
- 618 *Palynology* 304: 104713: doi:10.1016/j.revpalbo.2022.104713.

- Johnston WF (1990) Larix laricina (Du Roi) K. Koch Tamarack. Sylvics of North America,
 141–151.
- Kaiser HF (1960) The application of electronic computers to factor analysis. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 20(1): 141–151: doi:10.1177/001316446002000116.
- Kassambara A (2017) Practical guide to Principal Component Methods in R: PCA, M(CA), *FAMD*, MFA, HCPC, factoextra. STHDA.
- 625 Lefebvre P, Sabatier P, Mangeret A, Gourgiotis A, Le Pape P, Develle A-L, et al. (2021)
- 626 Climate-driven fluxes of organic-bound uranium to an alpine lake over the Holocene. *Science of* 627 *The Total Environment* 783: 146878: doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.146878.
- 628 Lévesque PEM, Dinel H and Larouche A (1988) Guide to the identification of plant macrofossils
- *in Canadian peatlands*. Ottawa, Ont: Land Resource Research Centre, Research Branch,
 Agriculture Canada.
- 631 MERN Système d'information géominière (2022) Zones morphosédimentologiques indicatives
- 632 de la géologie du Quaternaire en Abitibi (Québec). Carte interactive. . Available at:
- https://sigeom.mines.gouv.qc.ca/signet/classes/I1108_afchCarteIntr?l=F&m=B&ll=48.48231,-
- 634 78.77259&z=16&c=z_morph_qc%7C36&op=mspQc%7Call%7C.
- Moreno A, Giralt S, Valero-Garcés B, Sáez A, Bao R, Prego R, et al. (2007) A 14kyr record of
- the tropical Andes: The Lago Chungará sequence (18°S, northern Chilean Altiplano). *Quaternary*
- 637 International 161(1): 4–21: doi:10.1016/j.quaint.2006.10.020.
- 638 Mustaphi CJC and Pisaric MFJ (2014) A classification for macroscopic charcoal morphologies
- 639 found in Holocene lacustrine sediments. Progress in Physical Geography: Earth and
- 640 *Environment* 38(6): 734–754: doi:10.1177/0309133314548886.
- Nathan R (2006) Long-distance dispersal of plants. *Science*. American Association for the
 Advancement of Science 313(5788): 786–788: doi:10.1126/science.1124975.
- 643 Nathan R, Schurr FM, Spiegel O, Steinitz O, Trakhtenbrot A and Tsoar A (2008) Mechanisms of
- Nathan R, Schurr FM, Spiegel O, Steinitz O, Trakhtenbrot A and Tsoar A (2008) Mechanisms of
 long-distance seed dispersal. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 23(11): 638–647:
- 645 doi:10.1016/j.tree.2008.08.003.
- Nogales M, Heleno R, Traveset A and Vargas P (2012) Evidence for overlooked mechanisms of
 long-distance seed dispersal to and between oceanic islands. *New Phytologist* 194(2): 313–317:
- 648 doi:10.1111/j.1469-8137.2011.04051.x.
- 649 Normandeau A, Lajeunesse P and Philibert G (2013) Late-Quaternary morphostratigraphy of
- Lake St-Joseph (southeastern Canadian Shield): Evolution from a semi-enclosed glacimarine
- basin to a postglacial lake. *Sedimentary Geology* 295: 38–52: doi:10.1016/j.sedgeo.2013.07.005.
- Nutz A, Lajeunesse P, Ghienne J-F, Schuster M, Brouard E, Dietrich P, et al. (2020) Deglacial to
- paraglacial history of the Lake Saint-Jean lowlands: A geomorphological perspective. In:
- 654 Slaymaker O and Catto N (eds) Landscapes and Landforms of Eastern Canada. Cham: Springer

International Publishing, 145–158. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-35137-3_5:
doi:10.1007/978-3-030-35137-3_5.

Oris F, Ali AA, Asselin H, Paradis L, Bergeron Y and Finsinger W (2014a) Charcoal dispersion
and deposition in boreal lakes from 3 years of monitoring: Differences between local and
regional fires: Monitoring charcoal deposition in lakes. *Geophysical Research Letters* 41(19):
6743–6752: doi:10.1002/2014GL060984.

- Oris F, Asselin H, Finsinger W, Hély C, Blarquez O, Ferland M-E, et al. (2014b) Long-term fire
 history in northern Quebec: implications for the northern limit of commercial forests. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 51(3): 675–683: doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12240.
- Reimer PJ, Austin WEN, Bard E, Bayliss A, Blackwell PG, Bronk Ramsey C, et al. (2020) The
 IntCal20 Northern hemisphere radiocarbon age calibration curve (0–55 cal kBP). *Radiocarbon*62(4): 725–757: doi:10.1017/RDC.2020.41.
- 667 Remy CC, Fouquemberg C, Asselin H, Andrieux B, Magnan G, Brossier B, et al. (2018)
- 668 Guidelines for the use and interpretation of palaeofire reconstructions based on various archives
- and proxies. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 193: 312–322: doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2018.06.010.
- 670 Richard P (1980) Histoire postglaciaire de la végétation au sud du lac Abitibi, Ontario et Québec.
 671 *Géographie physique et Quaternaire* 34(1): 77–94: doi:10.7202/1000385ar.
- 672 Richard PJH, Fréchette B, Grondin P and Lavoie M (2020) Histoire postglaciaire de la végétation
- de la forêt boréale du Québec et du Labrador. *Le Naturaliste canadien* 144(1): 63:
- 674 doi:10.7202/1070086ar.
- 675 Richard PJH and Larouche AC (1989) La végétation postglaciaire du Témiscamingue, Québec,
- durant l'épisode glaciolacustre Barlow. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 67(2): 544–558:
- 677 doi:10.1139/b89-076.
- Roy M, Veillette JJ, Daubois V and Ménard M (2015) Late-stage phases of glacial Lake Ojibway
- 679 in the central Abitibi region, eastern Canada. *Geomorphology* 248: 14–23:
- 680 doi:10.1016/j.geomorph.2015.07.026.
- Rudolph TD and Laidly PR (1990) *Pinus banksiana* Lamb. jack pine. *Silvics of North America*.
 U.S. Government Printing Office, 280–290.
- Rumeu B, Afonso V, Fernández-Palacios JM and Nogales M (2014) Diversity, distribution and
 conservation status of island conifers: a global review. *Diversity and Distributions* 20(3): 272–
 283: doi:10.1111/ddi.12163.
- Schurr FM, Spiegel O, Steinitz O, Trakhtenbrot A, Tsoar A and Nathan R (2009) Long-distance
 seed dispersal. *Fruit Development and Seed Dispersal*, 204–237.
- 688 Snell RS and Cowling SA (2015) Consideration of dispersal processes and northern refugia can
- improve our understanding of past plant migration rates in North America. *Journal of Biogeography* 42(9): 1677–1688: doi:10.1111/jbi.12544.

- Sulphur KC, Goldsmith SA, Galloway JM, Macumber A, Griffith F, Swindles GT, et al. (2016) 691
- Holocene fire regimes and treeline migration rates in sub-arctic Canada. Global and Planetary 692
- 693 Change 145: 42–56: doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2016.08.003.
- 694 Varga Z (2010) Extra-Mediterranean refugia, post-glacial vegetation history and area dynamics in
- Eastern Central Europe. In: Habel JC and Assmann T (eds) Relict Species. Berlin, Heidelberg: 695
- 696 Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 57-87. Available at: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-3-540-
- 697 92160-8 3: doi:10.1007/978-3-540-92160-8 3.
- Veillette JJ (1994) Evolution and paleohydrology of glacial lakes Barlow and Ojibway. 698
- Quaternary Science Reviews 13: 945–971. 699
- 700 Vincent J-S and Hardy L (1977) L'évolution et l'extension des lacs glaciaires Barlow et Ojibway
- en territoire québécois. Géographie physique et Quaternaire 31(3-4): 357: 701
- 702 doi:10.7202/1000283ar.
- Whitlock C and Larsen C (2001) Charcoal as a fire proxy. In: Smol JP, Birks HJB, Last WM, 703
- Bradley RS and Alverson K (eds) Tracking Environmental Change Using Lake Sediments. 704
- 705 Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 75–97. Available at:
- http://link.springer.com/10.1007/0-306-47668-1 5: doi:10.1007/0-306-47668-1 5. 706
- 707 Wilkinson DM (1997) Plant colonization: are wind dispersed seeds really dispersed by birds at
- larger spatial and temporal scales? Journal of Biogeography 24(1): 61–65: doi:10.1111/j.1365-708 2699.1997.tb00050.x.
- 709