



1 **Spatial and temporal patterns of plantation forests in the United States since the**
2 **1930s: An annual and gridded data set for regional Earth system modeling**

3 Guangsheng Chen¹, Shufen Pan¹, Daniel J. Hayes², and Hanqin Tian¹

4 ¹ International Center for Climate and Global Change Research and School of Forestry
5 and Wildlife Sciences, Auburn University, Auburn, AL, USA

6 ² School of Forest Resources, University of Maine, Orono, ME, USA

7 Correspondence to: Shufen Pan (panshuf@auburn.edu)

8

9 **Abstract.** Plantation forest area in the conterminous United States (CONUS) ranked
10 second among the world's nations in the land area apportioned to forest plantation
11 management. As compared to the naturally-regenerated forests, plantation forests
12 demonstrate significant differences in biophysical characteristics, and biogeochemical
13 and hydrological cycles as a result of more intensive management practices. Inventory
14 data have been reported for multiple time periods at plot, state and regional scales across
15 the CONUS, but there lacks the requisite annual and spatially-explicit plantation data set
16 over a long-term period for analysis of the role of plantation management at regional or
17 national scale. Through synthesizing multiple inventory data sources, this study
18 developed methods to spatialize the time series plantation forest and tree species
19 distribution data for the CONUS over the 1928-2012 time period. According to this new
20 data set, plantation forest area increased from near zero in the 1930s to 268.27 thousand
21 km² by 2012, accounting for 8.65% of the total forest land area in the CONUS.
22 Regionally, the South contained the highest proportion of plantation forests, accounting
23 for about 19.34% of total forest land area in 2012. This time series and gridded data set



24 developed here can be readily applied in regional Earth system modeling frameworks for
25 assessing the impacts of plantation management practices on forest productivity, carbon
26 and nitrogen stocks, and greenhouse gas (e.g., CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O) and water fluxes at
27 regional or national scales. The gridded plantation distribution and tree species maps, the
28 state-level tree planting area and plantation distribution area during 1928-2012 are
29 available from <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.873558>.

30

31 **1 Introduction**

32 A forest plantation is defined as an area of introduced or native tree species established
33 through planting or seeding for wood/non-wood forest products (i.e., industrial forests) or
34 the provision of other ecosystem services (i.e., protective forests; FAO, 2005). In the
35 conterminous United States (CONUS), all of the plantation forests are used for forest
36 products (FAO, 2005, 2015). The United States is ranked as the second largest country in
37 the world for plantation forest with a total area of about 263 thousand km² in 2012, which
38 accounts for about 8.5% the total national forestland area (or 12.72% of forest area
39 classified as “timberland”) (Oswalt et al., 2014; FAO, 2015). Plantation forests in the
40 CONUS are generally intensively managed, including practices such as the use of
41 genetically improved seedlings, site preparation, nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P)
42 fertilization, and pre-commercial thinning. These plantation forests could significantly
43 reduce the pressure on natural forests to meet fiber and other wood products demands
44 (Sedjo, 2001). Upper-estimates suggest that world demand for wood could be met by
45 harvesting 10% of the global forest area under intensive management (Oliver, 1999). In
46 the CONUS, dependence on forest plantations to supply wood and non-wood products is



47 increasing (Stanturf and Zhang, 2003). Plantation forests play a major role in current and
48 anticipated future supplies of timber because of their high growth rates, easy operability,
49 and intensive management (USDA Forest Service, 2011).

50 Due to intensive interventions of human activities, plantation forests are distinct
51 from naturally-regenerated forests. Plantation forests have more uniform stand structure
52 characterized by even-aged stands, single or low diversity of tree species, and less
53 understory vegetation. The simple stand structure is also often characterized by fixed
54 spaces among planted trees, which could significantly reduce the competition for
55 resources by more even allocation of nutrients, water, and light among dominant trees.
56 At present, most of the planted tree seedlings in the CONUS are genetically improved
57 through either best seed sources selection or seed orchard breeding (Fox et al., 2007). Site
58 preparation (e.g., root excavation, soil disking and bedding, slash burning, herbicide and
59 insecticide application, fertilizer use, etc.) is commonly used before and during plantation
60 forest establishment (Fox et al., 2004; Jokela et al., 2010; Allen et al., 2005). During tree
61 growth, forest plantations are generally managed with fertilization, mid-rotation thinning,
62 and weed control. In addition, plantation forests are more frequently harvested at a
63 younger stand age as compared to naturally-regenerated forests. These contrasting
64 management practices relative to naturally-regenerated forests significantly alter
65 biogeochemical and hydrological cycles in plantation forests (Gyawali and Burkhart,
66 2014; Jokela et al., 2010; Achat et al., 2015a; Allen et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2006).

67 It is still a challenge to study the feedbacks between human and natural systems
68 due to the complexity of both systems (Chen et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2014). With
69 increasing human interventions and the uniform ecosystem structure, plantation forests



70 are an ideal managed ecosystem to characterize the coupling effects of human activities
71 and natural environmental factors on biogeochemical and hydrological cycling at large
72 scale. Previous studies have reported the distinct, local-scale carbon, nitrogen and water
73 cycles in plantation forests as compared to naturally-regenerated forests (e.g., Fox et al.,
74 2007; Albaugh et al., 2012, 2015; Sun and Vose, 2016; Gyawali and Burkhart, 2015;
75 Vose et al., 2012; Hoover et al., 2014). Although the importance of plantation forests has
76 been recognized, there still lacks a representation of plantation management practices in
77 current Earth system models (e.g., Hayes et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2015),
78 mainly due to few established relationships between management practices and
79 ecosystem biogeochemical and hydrological cycling, as well as no available long-term
80 and high spatial resolution gridded plantation maps at regional/national scales (Escalante
81 Fernandez et al., 2002). In the CONUS, the effects of tree planting and management
82 practices on forest productivity, carbon sequestration and greenhouse gas emissions are
83 monitored through various ongoing field experiments and measurement programs,
84 including the USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program, Forest
85 Productivity Cooperative (FPC; <http://forestproductivitycoop.net/>), Plantation
86 Management Research Cooperative (PMRC; <http://pmrc.uga.edu/>), Forest Modeling
87 Research Cooperative (FMRC; <http://www.fmrc.frec.vt.edu/>), Forest Biology Research
88 Cooperative (FBRC; <http://www.sfrc.ufl.edu/fbrc/>) and the PINEMAP observation
89 network (<http://pinemap.org/>). These field observations build a solid basis for extending
90 field or local level studies to regional or national scales through remote sensing, modeling
91 or statistical extrapolation methods. Such scaling-up studies rely on a series of spatially-
92 explicit and long-term regional datasets including various management practices,



93 plantation distribution maps, and information on environmental conditions. The critical
94 first step is to generate long-term and spatially-explicit plantation distribution maps.
95 Therefore, in this study, we aim to develop a long-term (1928-2012) forest plantation
96 area and spatial distribution data for the CONUS, through a synthesis of various
97 inventory data sets across multiple scales. This dataset can be used for ecosystem
98 modeling and statistical extrapolations of productivity, carbon storage, greenhouse gas
99 fluxes, and hydrological cycling in plantation forests, which will improve the estimation
100 accuracy of greenhouse gas balance in the CONUS as well as advance our understanding
101 of how intensive land management modulates climate-ecosystem feedbacks.

102

103 **2 Data and Methods**

104 **2.1 The workflow**

105 Fig. 1 showed the datasets collected in this study and the workflow for overall processes.
106 At first, the initial collections of various inventory data (in gray color boxes; Fig. 1) at
107 plot-, state-, subregion- and region-scales were used to develop the middle products (in
108 black boxes) including gridded plantation forest fraction map, and the state-level annual
109 plantation area data. Then, these inventory data and middle products were integrated into
110 the mechanistic program (in the circle; Section 2.7) to determine spatial distributions of
111 plantation forest area and tree species (our final products) during 1928-2012.

112

113 **2.2 Divisions of study area**

114 In this study, we collected and synthesized various data from different scales organized
115 by division of the study area into several spatial units, as described here. The FIA reports



116 (e.g., Smith et al., 2009) commonly divide the CONUS into 8 ecological subregions (Fig.
117 2), and further grouped into 3 regions (South, West and North). The South Central
118 subregion includes states OK, AR, TX, LA, MS, AL, TN and KY. The Southeast
119 includes states GA, FL, SC, NC, and VA. The Northeast includes states ME, NY, VT,
120 NH, NJ, PA, MD, DE, CT, MA, and WV. The North Central includes the states MN, MI,
121 WI, IA, IL, MO, IN, and OH. The Great Plains includes states ND, SD, NE, and KS. The
122 Intermountain includes states MT, ID, WY, NV, CO, UT, AZ, and NM. The Pacific
123 Northwest includes states WA and OR, while the Pacific Southwest includes CA.

124

125 **2.3 FIA plot scale data and processing**

126 Due to the difficulty in distinguishing the optical reflectance of plantation forests from
127 naturally-regenerated forests, remote sensing products are not currently available to
128 directly identify spatial locations of plantation forests across landscape scales. However,
129 owing to thousands of FIA plots and the plantation forest records, here we are able to
130 roughly determine the spatial locations, despite of some inaccuracy due to assumptions
131 and extrapolations.

132 We collected the USDA Forest Service FIA plot-level stand origin data (the
133 variable is STDORGCD in the stand condition table of FIA data;
134 <https://www.fia.fs.fed.us/>) for generating the spatial locations of plantation forests. The
135 earliest available FIA plot data were collected in the mid-1980s. However, due to the
136 inconsistent inventory time periods and missing observations of forest origin for some
137 states, we chose only plot-level inventory data for the 5 years (2000-2004) when most of
138 the states have records for forest origin. We used these data to represent the distribution



139 of plantation forests in 2001, consisting of 16,677 plots in total with plantation forests
140 records (Fig. 3). According to FIA privacy policy, the geographic coordinates (i.e.,
141 latitude and longitude) of plots are “swapped” with near-by (within 675m x 675m),
142 ecologically similar plots and thus do not represent the exact locations at the fixed
143 latitude and longitude (<https://www.fs.fed.us/ne/rsb/plotlocl.html#need>). Our spatial units
144 for grid cells in this study are either 1 km or 8 km, so these deviations in spatial locations
145 may not significantly influence our accuracy for assigned grid-cell locations of plantation
146 forests.

147 Based on the collected plots for plantation forests, we calculated the gridded
148 fraction data using the method:

$$149 \quad F_{mn} = N_{mn} \times A/B + \epsilon_{mn} \quad (1)$$

150 Where, F_{mn} is the fraction of the plots that plantation forests within each grid cell; N_{mn} is
151 the plot numbers with plantation forest in each grid cell; A is the represented area (675 m
152 \times 675 m) of each plot; B is the grid cell area (8 km \times 8 km); ϵ_{mn} is a residue, which is
153 used to add a small fraction (at the 0.01% scale) to the grid cells with the same plot
154 numbers (N_{mn}) and calculated based on the percentage of forest (percentage% \times 0.0001)
155 from NLCD2001 land cover data (http://www.mrlc.gov/nlcd01_data.php). The calculated
156 F_{mn} of each grid cell will be a unique value, which is shown in Fig. 4.

157

158 **2.4 County-, state- and region- scale inventory data**

159 The inventory-based plantation forest area data at three spatial scales were collected to
160 generate the gridded dataset. First, county-level data from 2007 were collected to
161 evaluate the performance of the generated grid-scale plantation forest area for counties.



162 Second, state-level inventory data of plantation forest area for 8 time periods (i.e., 1952,
163 1962, 1970, 1982, 1989, 1999, 2007, and 2012) for the states in the South Central and
164 Southeast were collected from the southern forest resource assessment report (Wear and
165 Greis, 2002). Due to a lack of available historical data, our data set includes only years
166 2007 and 2012 for other states in the CONUS, as collected from USDA Forest Service
167 reports (Smith et al., 2009; Oswald et al., 2014). Third, the subregional (Fig. 1) annual
168 forest planted area data from 1928 to 2011 were collected from Oswald et al. (2014), in
169 which the data from 2003-2011 were not available for all subregions except for the
170 Southeast and South Central (Fig. 6). Annual tree planting area in the Southeast and
171 South Central exhibited two quick increasing periods during 1945-1960 and 1966-1989
172 and no obvious tendency after 1990.

173

174 **2.5 Forest species data**

175 We collected forest cover type data at spatial scale of 250 m generated by the USDA
176 Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis Program and Remote Sensing Applications
177 Center (<https://www.fia.fs.fed.us/library/maps/>). In total, 113 major tree species are
178 divided in this dataset. According to the plantation forest species area data for the three
179 regions (i.e., South, North and West) in Oswald et al. (2014), we identified the major
180 plantation forest species in the CONUS and further regrouped into 11 major tree species
181 groups, i.e., loblolly-shortleaf pine, longleaf-slash pine, Douglas fir, white-red-jack pine,
182 ponderosa pine, spruce-fir-large-hemlock, oak-hickory-gum-cypress, elm-ash-
183 cottonwood, maple-beech-birch-aspen, other hardwoods (including juniper, palm,
184 mangrove and others), and other pine species (including redwood, sand pine, western



185 white pine, lodgepole pine, and others). Using the aggregation method in ArcGIS, the
186 250 m forest type data were then aggregated to continuous values representing the
187 fraction of each species group per 8 km grid cell. Based on the same methods in section
188 2.7, we generated a map with the Boolean (0, 1) data for each forest type group, with 1
189 representing the grid cells occupied by this forest type. The forest type data were then
190 overlaid with our generated plantation maps (section 2.7) to obtain the 8 km resolution
191 plantation forest type information. In the report of Oswald et al. (2014), there is a
192 plantation group of non-stocked forest type (3.88 thousand km² in total), which mainly
193 includes young plantation stands and seedling orchards that have yet to reach a crown
194 density of 10% (https://www.fs.fed.us/ne/fia/methodology/def_ip.htm). We were unable
195 to directly assign it to the regrouped 11 plantation types; instead, we compared the
196 fractions of all 11 plantation types in the grid cells with “nonstocked”, and assigned the
197 plantation types with the highest fractions within these grid cells.

198 The USDA forest type map was also generated based on the FIA plot data.
199 Furthermore, the majority of the trees in plantation forests of the CONUS are native
200 species (Escalante Fernandez et al., 2002; FAO, 2005), which can help reduce the pixel
201 contamination due to the neighboring grid cells. Therefore, the forest type map matches
202 well with our generated plantation distribution data. Fig. 7 illustrated the generation of
203 plantation tree species groups based on the fractional data and regional inventory area of
204 each tree species group.

205 **2.6 Generation methods for state-level annual plantation area**

206 We have collected state-level plantation area data for 8 periods: 1952, 1962, 1970, 1982,
207 1989, 1999, 2007, and 2012, but we lack data to capture interannual patterns within these



208 periods. To make the state-level data consistent among all periods, we post-processed
 209 these inventory data. In this study, we assumed that the plantation forest area did not
 210 decrease with time for each state, so if the data at the previous period (e.g., 2007) was
 211 less than the data at present period (e.g., 2012), the data at the present period (e.g., 2012)
 212 was then replaced by the previous one (e.g., 2007). We assumed the data in 2007 is the
 213 actual plantation area (i.e., assume the inventory data in this year are accurate) to control
 214 the post-processing, and therefore, the plantation area in other periods could not be
 215 exactly the same with the collected inventory data. The annual tree planting area in 1928
 216 was used as the control of initial plantation area (A_0), and the other 8 time periods for the
 217 South and Southeast were assigned as A_1 to A_8 . The other states had data only for two
 218 periods (2007 and 2012) were assigned as A_1 and A_2 . We integrated the annual plantation
 219 forest area data for 8 subregions and state-level plantation area data to linearly interpolate
 220 annual distribution pattern for each state. The interpolation method is as follows:

$$221 \quad C_{sum} = \sum_{j=1}^N C_j \quad (2)$$

$$222 \quad TA_i = A_p + (A_{p+1} - A_p) \times \frac{C_j}{C_{sum}} \quad (3)$$

223 Where, i is the year (1928-2012); TA_i is the generated targeted plantation area in year i ; p
 224 is the time periods (0-8 for the South and Southeast states, while 0-2 for other states); A_i
 225 is the inventory plantation area at year i ; A_{p+1} is the inventory plantation area at time
 226 period $p+1$; j is the year between two periods (A_p and A_{p+1}); C_{sum} is the total planted area
 227 during period p to $p+1$; C_j is the planted area at time j during period p to $p+1$.

228

229 **2.7 Methods for spatialization of gridded plantation area and tree species data**



230 Boolean (0, 1) plantation data were developed at $8 \text{ km} \times 8 \text{ km}$ spatial resolution (125,718
231 grid cells), with 0 denoting naturally-regenerated and 1 denoting plantation forest. Since
232 plantation forests are generally pure forests and similarly managed at a large scale in the
233 CONUS, the Boolean data at a moderate (8 km) spatial resolution might be adequately to
234 apply in future modeling or statistical studies. During data generation, we assume that the
235 plantation forests will not be converted back to naturally-regenerated forests, i.e., if this
236 grid cell is identified as plantation in 1928, it will always be plantations since then.

237 Fig. 7 describes the procedure to produce the spatial distribution maps of
238 plantation forests. The state-level annual plantation forest area dataset (TA_i) generated in
239 section 2.3 is the targeted plantation area for this specific state i . To determine if a grid
240 cell is plantation forest, the fraction data set (F_{ij}) generated in section 2.2 is used. The
241 principle is to progressively narrow down the fraction threshold ranges ($T_{i,min}$ and $T_{i,max}$)
242 to a fixed threshold value (T_i), and based on this determined threshold, we ultimately
243 reach the targeted plantation area for state i . At the first-round run of the program, a
244 minimum threshold 0 and maximum threshold 1 are assigned. The T_i is calculated as the
245 average of $T_{i,max}$ and $T_{i,min}$. Based on this T_i value, we run the a program to check if the
246 fraction data (F_{ij}) is higher than T_i for each grid cell within the specific state, if “yes”,
247 then this grid cell is assigned as a value of Boolean 1 ($B_{ij} = 1$); otherwise, it is assigned as
248 0 ($B_{ij} = 0$). The B_{ij} values for all grid cells within this state are added to calculate the total
249 plantation area (A_i). If the total area is smaller than TA_i , the program will assign $T_{i,max} =$
250 T_i ; if the total area is larger than TA_i , the program will assign $T_{i,min} = T_i$. Based on the new
251 $T_{i,max}$ and $T_{i,min}$, the program will go to the second round run and repeat all above
252 processes. After the second round run, if the A_i is still not equal to $TA_i \pm 1 \text{ km}^2$, the



253 program will run more rounds until $A_i = TA_i \pm 1 \text{ km}^2$. Under this condition, the generated
254 state-level plantation area is very close to targeted plantation area at the end. Finally, the
255 B_{ij} maps (0 and 1 Boolean values) represent the spatial distributions of plantation forests
256 in this specific state i . This program was run for all the CONUS states, and eventually
257 resulted in the spatially-explicit plantation forest distribution maps from 1928-2012.

258 Based on the regional inventory data and gridded fractional data for individual
259 plantation tree species groups (see section 2.5), we also applied above methods to
260 generate the annual plantation tree species groups maps during 1928-2012.

261

262 **3 Results and Discussion**

263 **3.1 Plantation forest area and temporal variations**

264 plantation forest area in the CONUS showed a continuous increase from 1928 to 2012,
265 with the largest increasing rates during the 1950s (176% per decade) and during the 1960s
266 (86% per decade), and the least during the 1970s (Fig. 8). Plantation forest area was
267 268.27 thousand km^2 in 2012, accounting for 8.65% of CONUS forest land area and
268 2.93% of the total land area. The global plantation area was reported to account for about
269 6.95% of the total forest land area (FAO, 2015), which is lower than the fraction in the
270 CONUS. The increasing rate showed a slight leveling-off trend during the recent
271 decades; however, the total plantation area still increased by 36.81% from 2000 to 2012,
272 with this time period having the largest absolute increase (+72.16 thousand km^2) in
273 plantation area. The West region had the largest forest area (1.40 million km^2 ; Oswalt et
274 al., 2014) as compared to the North (0.71 million km^2) and South (0.99 million km^2);
275 however, the South had the highest plantation forest area since 1950, followed by the



276 West since 1976. In 2012, the plantation forest area in the South, North and West were
277 191.78, 25.90 and 50.55 thousand km², respectively. The plantation forest area accounted
278 for 19.34% of the total forest area in the South, while only about 3.62% in both the North
279 and West. Over the earlier time periods (1928-1950), the North had the highest planted
280 forest area. The West had the smallest plantation forest area before 1976, but it increased
281 faster than the North and overpassed its area after 1976. The plantation area in the South
282 increased the fastest since 1950 as compared to the other two regions. The plantation area
283 in the South and North maintained increasing rates in recent decades while the rate of
284 increase in the West was slowing down.

285 The smaller proportion of plantation forests in the West does not imply a greater
286 potential to increase plantation forest area in this region in the future, because the
287 mountainous terrains and relative dry climate (the southern and central portions) are not
288 suitable for tree planting and management. In addition, most of the forest area in the West
289 belongs to public land (USDA Forest Service, 2014), which is managed for multiple uses
290 and generally not managed as intensively for forest product yields as privately-owned,
291 profit-oriented forest properties. The North region has a far smaller fraction of public
292 forest than the West; however, the cooler climate may result in less productivity and thus
293 restrain its potential in wide spread of plantation forest area in the future. In contrast,
294 although the South has a very high fraction of plantation forest and provided most of the
295 wood/non-wood forest products for the CONUS, it still has a large potential to increase
296 plantation forest area, which was also predicted by Smith et al. (2012). The demands for
297 wood products in the US and global markets, as well as food and bioenergy price and
298 demands, are likely to significantly influence plantation forest area in the South in future.



299 By adding the annual planted forest area together (Fig. 5), we found that the
300 Southeast and South Central have in total planted 180.17 and 179.24 thousand km²,
301 respectively during 1928-2011. The total area of plantation forest in these two regions in
302 2012 was 101.13 and 90.69 thousand km², respectively. Total planted area was 54.03 and
303 87.41 thousand km² in the North and West, respectively during 1928-2003 (no annual
304 planted area data since 2004), while the plantation area in 2004 was 23.46 and 46.58
305 thousand km², respectively. Comparing the total planted area over the historical period
306 with the existing plantation area in 2004/2012, we can conclude that the plantation forests
307 in the CONUS have been harvested and replanted many times during the study period.

308

309 **3.2 Spatial distribution patterns**

310 Before the 1950s, there was only a small plantation forest area (230 grid cells), mainly
311 scattered among the South, Northeast, Pacific Northwest and North Central (Fig. 9). The
312 late 1950s was essentially marked as the beginning of extensive pine plantation
313 establishment in the South (Frederick and Sedjo, 1991). The time period 1950-1970 had
314 the fastest increasing rate of plantation forests; therefore, the plantation forests were
315 widely spread across the South, the Northeast and the Pacific Northwest. The spatial
316 distribution patterns of plantation forests were quite similar among the time periods after
317 1980 and the area expansions occurred within these three regions. Further analyses
318 indicated that the 20 states with the largest plantation area accounted for about 96.32% of
319 the total CONUS plantation area in 2012, and the top 10 states accounted for about
320 76.62% of the total (Fig. 9). Among the 20 states, GA had the highest plantation area,
321 followed by AL, OR and MS, while OK and TN had the smallest area. The plantation



322 forest area accounted for 31.2%, 30.6%, 30.4%, 29.3%, and 28.4% of total forest land
323 area in GA, LA, AL, MS and FL, respectively. Although LA has lower total forest land
324 area (about 59% of GA) as compared to the other 4 states, it had the second largest
325 plantation proportion. Plantation area in these southern states was projected to continue
326 increasing from present to 2060 (Wear and Greis, 2012). Notably, the Pacific Northwest
327 states of OR and WA had relatively high proportions of plantation forests (20.1% and
328 19.9%, respectively), with OR ranked as the third largest state of forest land area in the
329 CONUS, and might have a greater potential for a continuing increase in plantation area in
330 the future.

331 During 1990-2012, AL had the largest increase (238.0%) in plantation area,
332 followed by MS (236.8%) and LA (191.2%; Fig. 10). These states had small increasing
333 rates of 13.2%, 5.49% and 5.77%, respectively during 1950-1990. In contrast, plantation
334 area in GA, FL and OR showed continuous and stable increasing trends during 1950-
335 2012. Among the top 20 states, the absolute plantation area was the smallest in OK;
336 however, this state showed a large increasing rate (137.9%) during this period. In
337 addition, the states of TX and AR also displayed a relatively high increasing rate. These
338 two states might become the major contributors to the increasing plantation area in the
339 CONUS in the future since their forest land area is relatively large and could sustain
340 more conversions of plantations from naturally-regenerated forest land. On the other
341 hand, several Northeast states (e.g., WI, MI, NY, and PA) and Southeast state FL showed
342 the smallest rates of increase.

343

344 **3.3 Plantation tree species**



345 Tree species is key information to estimate both endogenous growth rates as well as the
346 responses of exogenous growth to environmental changes and management practices. To
347 identify the tree species in the plantation forests during 1928-2012, the plantation maps
348 were overlaid with the tree species distribution map in 2012 (Fig. 11). In the CONUS,
349 almost all planted tree species are native species and planted for productive purpose
350 (Escalante Fernandez et al., 2002; FAO, 2005). In the South, over 69.2% of the planted
351 tree species were loblolly-shortleaf pine, followed by longleaf-slash pine (15.6%), oak-
352 pine (7.5%) and oak-hickory (Oswalt et al., 2014). The slash pine forests have less
353 productivity than loblolly pine, but generally produce higher quality wood (Escalante
354 Fernandez et al., 2002). Therefore, this species was widely planted in the southern AL,
355 GA and the northern FL. In the North, about 48.8% of the planted tree species were
356 white-red-jack pine, followed by spruce-fir (11.3%). The white-red-jack pine types are
357 scattered across the North Central states, while spruce-fir occurs mainly in ME and MN.
358 In the West (primarily Pacific Northwest), Douglas-fir accounted for 60.3% of the
359 planted tree species, followed by the Oak-hickory-gum-cypress (11.9%) and Ponderosa
360 pine (9.4%). Douglas fir is primarily located along the coastline in WA and OR. At
361 national scale, loblolly-shortleaf pine accounted for most (49.45%) of the plantation
362 forest area, followed by longleaf-slash pine (11.04%) and Douglas fir (11.17%).

363

364 **3.4 Plantation management practices and their impacts**

365 The plantation forests in the CONUS are mostly privately owned and about two thirds of
366 the plantations are timberland (Escalante Fernandez et al., 2002). Therefore, intensive
367 management practices were widely applied to promote productivity, especially after 1990



368 (Fox et al., 2004, 2007; Stanturf et al., 2003). Plantation management intensity is
369 primarily determined by ownership, region, and tree species. Generally, management
370 intensity among regions is greatest in the South and lowest in the Northeast (Escalante
371 Fernandez et al., 2002). Commercial forest industry manages the most intensively; other
372 corporations and large non-industrial private owners manage less intensively; while the
373 small non-industrial private owners manage the least intensively for traditional wood
374 products. The major plantation management practices include site preparation (e.g., soil
375 disking, bedding, litter raking, and herbicide use), genetic improvement (e.g., breeding
376 and seed tree selection), fertilization, thinning, prescribed fire, and harvesting. Vance et
377 al. (2010) and Fox et al. (2004) summarized the major management practices and their
378 impacts on productivity and yields in the CONUS. The late 1950s was thought to be the
379 beginning of extensive pine plantations in the CONUS (Frederick and Sedjo, 1991;
380 Vance et al., 2010). During the recent two decades (1990-2009), pine plantations were
381 harvested (including partial and clearcut harvest) about 3.15 thousand km² per year in the
382 CONUS (Smith et al., 2009). Thinning, site preparation, and slash burning area per year
383 were 1.25, 2.87, and 2.70 thousand km², respectively. About 6.47 thousand km² of pine
384 plantations were fertilized in 1999 alone, while about 40.47 thousand km² in total have
385 been fertilized in the South since 1969 (Fox et al. 2007).

386 Vance et al. (2010) synthesized the extent and benefits of multiple intensive
387 management practices and the factors influencing productivity in the different subregions
388 of CONUS. The different management practices were reported to significantly increase
389 tree productivity, carbon stocks and mean/periodic annual increment (MAI/PAI). Fox et
390 al. (2004) even indicated that multiple management practices would increase pine volume



391 at harvest by over four times in the South. Besides carbon dynamics, the intensive
392 management practices were reported to significantly change the ecosystem hydrological
393 and nitrogen cycles based on numerous field experiments and observations from various
394 observational networks (e.g., FPC, FIA, FMRC, PMRC, FBRC, PINEMAP, AmeriFlux,
395 and LTER networks). These studies have addressed the ecological impacts of plantation
396 forestry in terms of tree species and environmental conditions, as well as management
397 regime, intensity and frequency. Continued observational and experimental evidence of
398 plantation forest function is critical to assess or predict the relationships between
399 environmental changes, plantation management practices and managed forest carbon,
400 nitrogen and water cycles. At present, it is highly likely for researchers to scale up the
401 field or local experiments/observations to regional or national scales through remote
402 sensing, modeling or statistical extrapolation methods.

403

404 **4 Data Availability**

405 The gridded (8 km × 8 km) plantation distribution and tree species maps, and state-level
406 tree planting area and plantation forest area during 1928-2012 are available from
407 <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.873558>. There are two data formats for
408 gridded data: text/ASCII and ArcGIS GRID formats; excel format table is used to contain
409 the annual tree planting area and total plantation area data for the 48 states in the
410 conterminous US during 1928-2012. A supplemental file is added to show the plantation
411 distribution maps in 1952, 1962, 1970, 1982, 1989, 1999, 2007, and 2012.

412

413 **5 Conclusions and Outlooks**



414 This study developed an annual and spatially-explicit dataset for plantation forests in the
415 CONUS during 1928-2012. The dataset showed that the plantation forests increased
416 rapidly since the 1960s. While these increasing rates have stabilized during recent
417 decade, there was still great potential to increase plantation area in terms of the small
418 fraction of plantation forests (8.65%) currently existing in the CONUS. With suitable
419 climate and geophysical environmental conditions, the southern US is the major
420 plantation forest base, with plantation forests accounting for 19.34% of total forest land.

421 Many short- and long-term field experiments in the CONUS, especially in the
422 South, are ongoing to monitor intensive management practices effects on plantation
423 forests. The large amount of available observational data has greatly improved our
424 understanding of the impacts of forest planting and management practices on ecological
425 and socioeconomic services. Scaling-up these studies from local-scale observations to
426 regional understanding requires a series of spatially-explicit and long-term
427 regional/national datasets that include information on various management practices,
428 plantation distribution, environmental conditions, and vegetation maps. The first and
429 critical step is to generate the long-term plantation distribution maps. Recognizing this,
430 we synthesized various inventory data to generate the gridded plantation distribution and
431 species maps during 1928-2012. There are some aspects of uncertainty in our methods
432 where the datasets might be unable to track the exact plantation locations; however, our
433 datasets had a relatively high spatial resolution (8 km) as required for terrestrial
434 ecosystem modeling or statistical extrapolations at regional or national scales. The
435 detailed spatio-temporal data for plantation tree species enables future research in
436 simulating and extrapolating the regional/national-scale carbon, nitrogen, and water



437 dynamics in plantation forests based on species-specific parameters, which could further
438 improve the mechanisms and estimation accuracy of regional Earth system models.

439 The future plantation area and distribution will be determined by many factors,
440 including wood product markets, bioenergy technology and biofuel prices, food supply
441 and demand, environmental policies, and other socioeconomic factors (Wear and Greis,
442 2012). The plantation forest area in the South is projected to increase to 26% (high
443 scenario; Wear and Greis, 2012) of total forest land. From socioeconomic perspective,
444 present plantation forests in the CONUS are generating positive economic profits along
445 with providing good environmental services. From a carbon credit perspective, the
446 plantation forests in the South are regarded as a major contributor to carbon sink in the
447 CONUS and North America (Hayes et al., 2012; King et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2012,
448 2014); however, recent studies (Achat et al. 2015a,b; Nave et al., 2010) suggested that the
449 shorter rotation age and some intensive management practices (e.g., site preparation for
450 soil bedding, slash burning and harvest residue raking) might reduce soil carbon stocks in
451 plantation forests, implying plantation forests could be a carbon source. From the
452 hydrological perspective, plantation forests may increase water use and alter the water
453 cycle due to higher productivity and management practices (e.g., short rotation, mechanic
454 site preparation and drainage), especially in the regions with strong precipitation
455 limitation (Vose et al., 2012). From the perspective of nutrient cycling, plantation
456 management practices could change soil available/total nitrogen, soil nitrous oxide
457 emission, vegetation nitrogen, and nitrogen contents in nearby water bodies. Many past
458 assessments have been conducted at the scale of the individual perspective; however,
459 there is still lack of a comprehensive assessment of plantation forests' function in



460 mitigating future climate change by considering carbon, nitrogen and water fluxes across
461 broader regions. Such a comprehensive assessment is critical for determining whether the
462 policy-makers or land managers are going to plant more trees and how to best manage the
463 forests in the CONUS (Sun and Vose, 2016).

464

465 **6 Author Contribution**

466 GSC involved in collecting and compiling the inventory data, developing spatialization
467 methods and leading the writing. SFP, DJH, and HQT participated in developing methods
468 and manuscript writing.

469

470 **7 Acknowledgements**

471 This research was supported by the NASA Carbon System Monitoring Program
472 (NX14AO73G and NNX12AP84G), NASA Interdisciplinary Science Program
473 (NNX11AD47G and NNX14AF93G) and Auburn University IGP program.

474 **8 Competing interests.** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

475

476 **References**

477 Achat, D. L., Fortin, M., Landmann, G., Ringeval, B. and Augusto, L.: Forest soil carbon
478 is threatened by intensive biomass harvesting. Scientific Report 5, 15991, doi:
479 10.1038/srep15991, 2015a.

480 Achat, D. L., Deleuze, C., Landmann, G., Pousse, N., Ranger, J. and Augusto, L.:
481 Quantifying consequences of removing harvesting residues on forest soils and tree



- 482 growth—A meta-analysis, *Forest Ecology and Management*, 348, 124–141, doi:
483 10.1016/j.foreco.2015.03.042, 2005b.
- 484 Albaugh, T. J., Vance, E. D., Gaudreault, C., Fox, T. R., Allen, H. L., Stape, J. L. and
485 Rubilar, R. A.: Carbon emissions and sequestration from fertilization of pine in the
486 southeastern United States, *Forest Science*, 58(5), 419-429, doi: 10.5849/forsci.11-
487 050, 2012.
- 488 Albaugh, T., Alvarez, J., Rubilar, R., Fox, T., Allen, H., Stape, J. and Mardones, O.:
489 Long-term *Pinus radiata* productivity gains from tillage, vegetation control, and
490 fertilization, *Forest Science*, 61, 800–808, doi: 10.5849/forsci.14-207, 2015.
- 491 Allen, H. L., Fox, T. R. and Campbell, R. G.: What is ahead for intensive pine plantation
492 silviculture in the South? *Southern Journal of Applied Forestry*, 29, 62–69, 2005.
- 493 Chen, G., Tian, H., Zhang, C., Liu, M., Ren, W., Zhu, W., Chappelka, A., Prior, S. A. and
494 Lockaby, G.: Drought in the southern United States over the last century: Variability
495 and its impacts on terrestrial ecosystem productivity and carbon storage, *Climatic
496 Change*, 114, 379–397, doi:10.1007/s10584-012-0410-z, 2012.
- 497 Escalante Fernandez, R., Monreal Rangel, S., Stanturf, J., Arseneau, C. and Nantel, P.:
498 Forest plantations in North America. Report to the North American Forestry
499 Commission, 26p, 2002.
- 500 FAO: Global Forest Resources Assessment 2005, UN Food and Agriculture
501 Organization, Rome, Italy, www.fao.org/forestry/fra, 2005.
- 502 FAO: Global Forest Resources Assessment 2015, UN Food and Agriculture
503 Organization, Rome, Italy, www.fao.org/forestry/fra, 2015.



- 504 Fox, T., Allen, H., Albaugh, T., Rubilar, R. and Carlson, C.: Tree nutrition and forest
505 fertilization of pine plantations in the southern United States, *Southern Journal of*
506 *Applied Forestry*, 31, 5–11, 2007.
- 507 Fox, T. R., Jokela, E. J. and Allen, H. L.: The evolution of pine plantation silviculture in
508 the Southern United States. In: Gen. Tech. Rep. SRS–75. Asheville, NC: U.S.
509 Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Southern Research Station. Chapter 8. p.
510 63-82, 2004.
- 511 Frederick, K. K. and Sedjo, R. A.: America’s renewable resources: historical trends and
512 current challenges, Washington, DC: Resources for the Future, 296p, 1991.
- 513 Gyawali, N. and Burkhart, H. E.: General response functions to silvicultural treatments in
514 loblolly pine plantations, *Canadian Journal of Forestry Research*, 45, 252-265, doi:
515 10.1139/cjfr-2014-0172, 2015.
- 516 Hayes, D. J., Turner, D. P., Stinson, G., McGuire, A. D., Wei, Y., West, T. O., Heath, L.
517 S., Dejong, B., McConkey, B. G., Birdsey, R. A., Kurz, A. W., Jacobson, A. R.,
518 Huntzinger, D. N., Pan, Y., Post, W. M., and Cook, R. B.: Reconciling estimates of
519 the contemporary North American carbon balance among terrestrial biosphere
520 models, atmospheric inversions, and a new approach for estimating net ecosystem
521 exchange from inventory-based data, *Global Change Biology*, 18, 1282–1299, doi:
522 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2011.02627.x, 2012.
- 523 Hoover, C., Birdsey, R., Goines, B., Lahm, P., Marland, G., Nowak, D., Prisley, S.,
524 Reinhardt, E., Skog, K., Skole, D., Smith, J., Trettin, C. and Woodall, C.: Chapter 6:
525 quantifying greenhouse gas sources and sinks in managed forest systems. In: Eve, M.,
526 Pape, D., Flugge, M., Steele, R., Man, D., Riley-Gilbert, M. and Biggar, S.



- 527 Quantifying greenhouse gas fluxes in agriculture and forestry: Methods for entity-
528 scale inventory. Tech. Bull. 1939. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture,
529 Office of the Chief Economist, 6-1-6.114, 2014.
- 530 Jokela, E. J., Martin, T. A. and Vogel, J. G.: Twenty-five years of intensive forest
531 management with southern pines: important lessons learned, *Journal of Forestry*, 107,
532 338-347, 2010.
- 533 Jokela, E. J., Dougherty, P. M. and Martin, T. A.: Production dynamics of intensively
534 managed loblolly pine stands in the southern United States: a synthesis of seven long-
535 term experiments, *Forest Ecology and Management*, 192, 117-130, doi:
536 10.1016/j.foreco.2004.01.007, 2004.
- 537 King, A. W., Hayes, D. J., Huntzinger, D. N., West, T. O. and Post, W. M.: North
538 America carbon dioxide sources and sinks: magnitude, attribution, and
539 uncertainty, *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 10, 512–519, doi:
540 10.1890/120066, 2012.
- 541 Nave, L. E., Vance, E. D., Swanston, C. W. and Curtis, P. S.: Harvest impacts on soil
542 carbon storage in temperate forests, *Forest Ecology and Management*, 259, 857-866,
543 doi: 10.1016/j.foreco.2009.12.009, 2010.
- 544 Oliver, C. D.: The future of the forest management industry: Highly mechanized
545 plantations and reserves or a knowledge-intensive integrated approach? *Forestry*
546 *Chronicle* 75(2), 229–245, doi: 10.5558/tfc75229-2, 1999.
- 547 Oswalt, S. N., Smith, W. B., Miles, P. D. and Pugh, S. A.: Forest Resources of the United
548 States, 2012: a technical document supporting the Forest Service 2015 update of the
549 RPA Assessment. Gen. Tech. Rep. WO-91. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of



- 550 Agriculture, Forest Service, Washington Office, 218 p,
551 https://www.srs.fs.usda.gov/pubs/gtr/gtr_wo091.pdf, 2014.
- 552 Pan, S., Tian, H., Dangal, S. R.S., Yang, Q., Yang, J., Lu, C., Tao, B., Ren, W. and
553 Ouyang, Z.: Responses of global terrestrial evapotranspiration to climate change and
554 increasing atmospheric CO₂ in the 21st century, *Earth's Future*, 3, 15–35, doi:
555 10.1002/2014EF000263, 2015.
- 556 Sedjo, R. A.: From foraging to cropping: the transition to plantation forestry, and
557 implications for wood supply and demand. *Unasylva* 52 (2001/1) No. 204,
558 URL:http://www.fao.org/DOCREP/003/X8820E/x8820e06.htm#P0_0, 2001.
- 559 Smith, W. B., Miles, P. D., Perry, C. H. and Pugh, S. A.: Forest Resources of the United
560 States, 2007, Gen. Tech. Rep. WO-78, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of
561 Agriculture, Forest Service, Washington Office, 336p,
562 https://www.fs.fed.us/nrs/pubs/gtr/gtr_wo78.pdf, 2009.
- 563 Smith, W. B., Miles, P. D., Vissage, J. S. and Pugh, S. A.: Forest Resources of the United
564 States, 2002. General Technical Report NC-241. St. Paul, MN: U.S. Dept. of
565 Agriculture, Forest Service, North Central Research Station,
566 https://www.nrs.fs.fed.us/pubs/gtr/gtr_nc241.pdf, 2004.
- 567 Stanturf, J. A. and Zhang, D.: Plantations forests in the United States of America: past,
568 present and future. XII World Forestry Congress, Quebec City, Canada.
569 <http://www.fao.org/docrep/article/wfc/xii/0325-b1.htm>, 2003.
- 570 Sun, G., Zhou, G., Zhang, Z., Wei, X., McNulty, S., Vose, J. M.: Potential water yield
571 reduction due to forestation across China, *Journal of Hydrology*, 328, 548-558, doi:
572 10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.12.013, 2006.



- 573 Sun, G. and Vose, J. M.: Forest management challenges for sustaining water resources
574 in the Anthropocene, *Forests*, 68-80, doi:10.3390/f7030068, 2016.
- 575 Tian, H., Chen, G., Zhang, C., Liu, M., Sun, G., Chappelka, A., Ren, W., Xu, X., Lu, C.,
576 Pan, S., Chen, H., Hui, D., McNulty, S., Lockaby, G. and Vance, E.: Century-scale
577 response of ecosystem carbon storage and flux to multifactorial global change in the
578 Southern United States, *Ecosystems*, 15, 674–694, DOI: 10.1007/s10021-012-9539-x,
579 2012.
- 580 Tian, H., Chen, G., Lu, C., Xu, X., Hayes, D., Ren, W., Pan, S., Huntzinger, D. and
581 Wofsy, S.: North American terrestrial CO₂ uptake largely offset by CH₄ and N₂O
582 emissions: toward a full accounting of the greenhouse gas budget, *Climatic Change*,
583 129, 413–426, doi:10.1007/s10584-014-1072-9, 2014.
- 584 USDA Forest Service: National Report on Sustainable Forests - 2010. FS-979. USDA
585 Forest Service, Washington, DC, 2011.
- 586 Vance, E. D., Maguire, D. A. and Zalesny, R. S.: Research strategies for increasing
587 productivity of intensively managed forest plantations, *Journal of Forestry*, 108, 183-
588 192, https://www.srs.fs.fed.us/pubs/ja/2010/ja_2010_vance_002.pdf, 2010.
- 589 Vose, J. M., Ford, C. R., Laseter, S., Dymond, S., Sun, G., Adams, M. B., Sebestyen, S.,
590 Campbell, J., Luce, C., Amatya, D., Elder, K. H. and Scalley, T.: Can forest
591 watershed management mitigate climate change effects on water resources. In: Webb,
592 A.A., M. Bonell, L. Bren, P.N.J. Lane, et. al., eds. *Revisiting Experimental*
593 *Catchment Studies in Forest Hydrology*, Proceedings of a Workshop held during the
594 XXV IUGG General Assembly in Melbourne, June–July 2011. IAHS Publ. 353:
595 Oxfordshire, UK. 12-25, 2012.



596 Wear, D. N. and Greis J. G.: Southern Forest Resource Assessment - Technical Report.
597 Gen. Tech. Rep. SRS-53. Asheville, NC: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest
598 Service, Southern Research Station, 635p,
599 https://www.srs.fs.usda.gov/pubs/gtr/gtr_srs053.pdf, 2002.
600 Wear, D. N. and Greis, J. G.: The Southern Forest Futures Project: summary report. Gen.
601 Tech. Rep. SRS-GTR-168, Asheville, NC: USDA-Forest Service, Southern Research
602 Station, 54 p, https://www.srs.fs.fed.us/pubs/gtr/gtr_srs168.pdf, 2012.
603

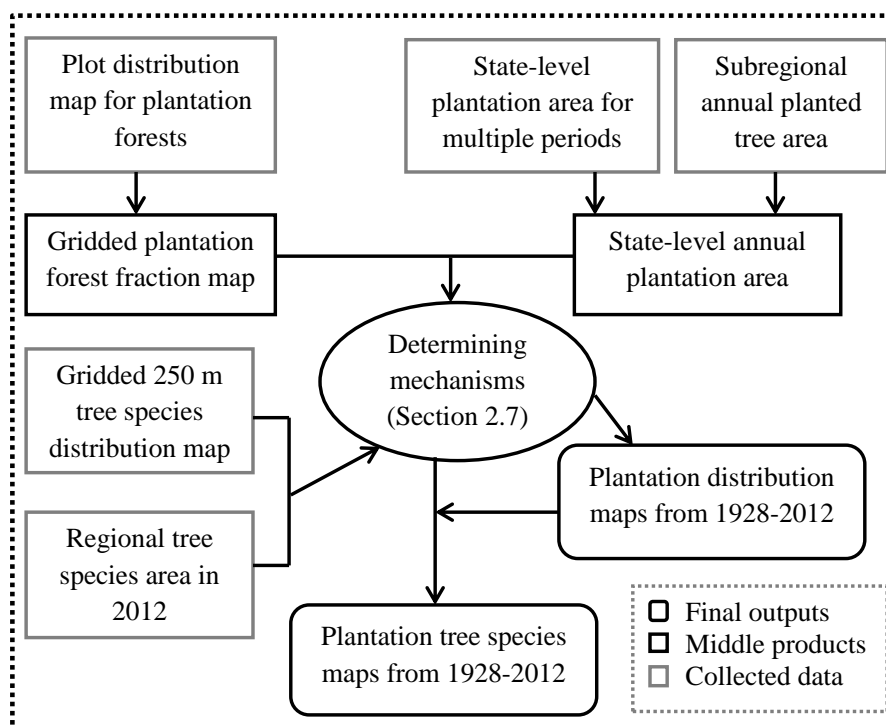


Figure 1. The workflow of overall processes in the generation of gridded (8 km × 8 km) plantation distribution and tree species maps from 1928-2012.

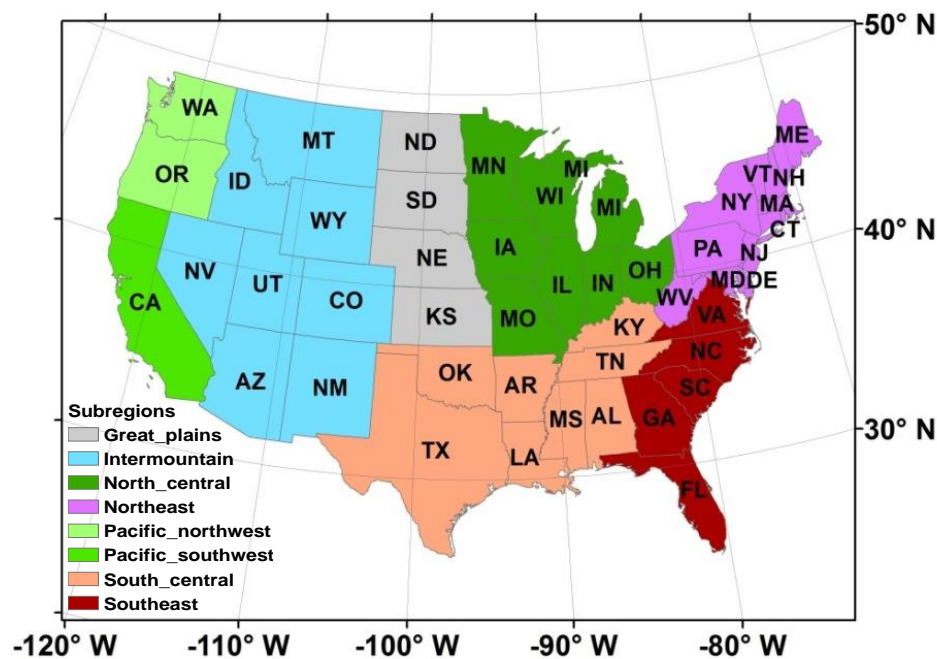


Figure 2. The division of the CONUS into 8 subregions for data synthesis and analysis in this study. Note: 3 regions are further grouped in some reports, i.e., South (South Central and Southeast), North (Northeast and North Central), and West (Great Plains, Intermountain, Pacific Northwest and Pacific Southwest). Data source: Smith et al., 2009.

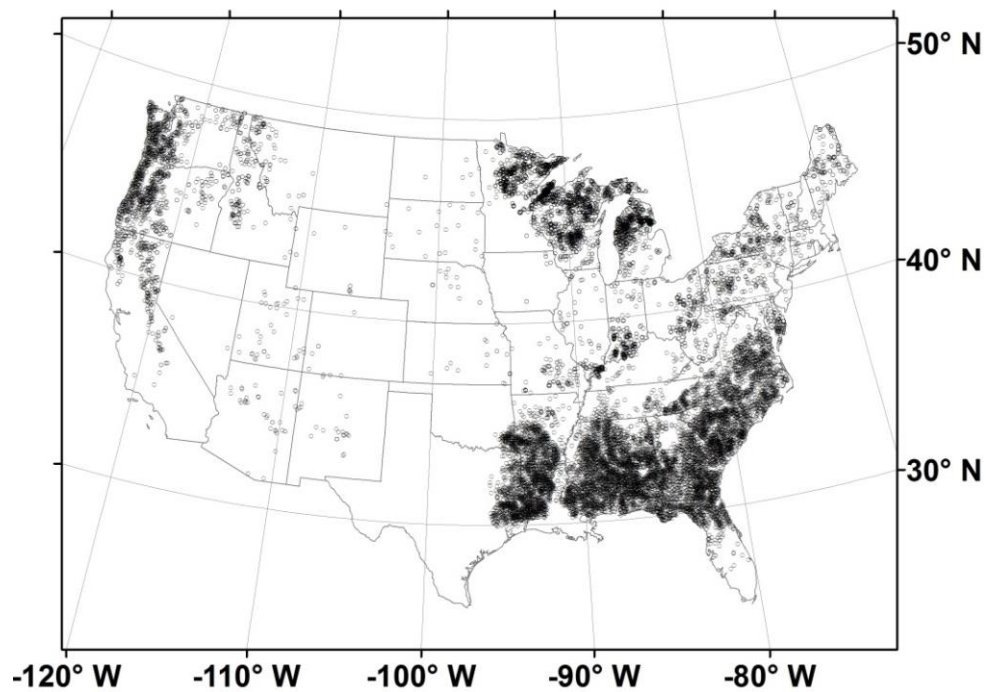


Figure 3. FIA plot distributions (16,677 plots in total) with plantation forest in the conterminous US during 2000-2004.

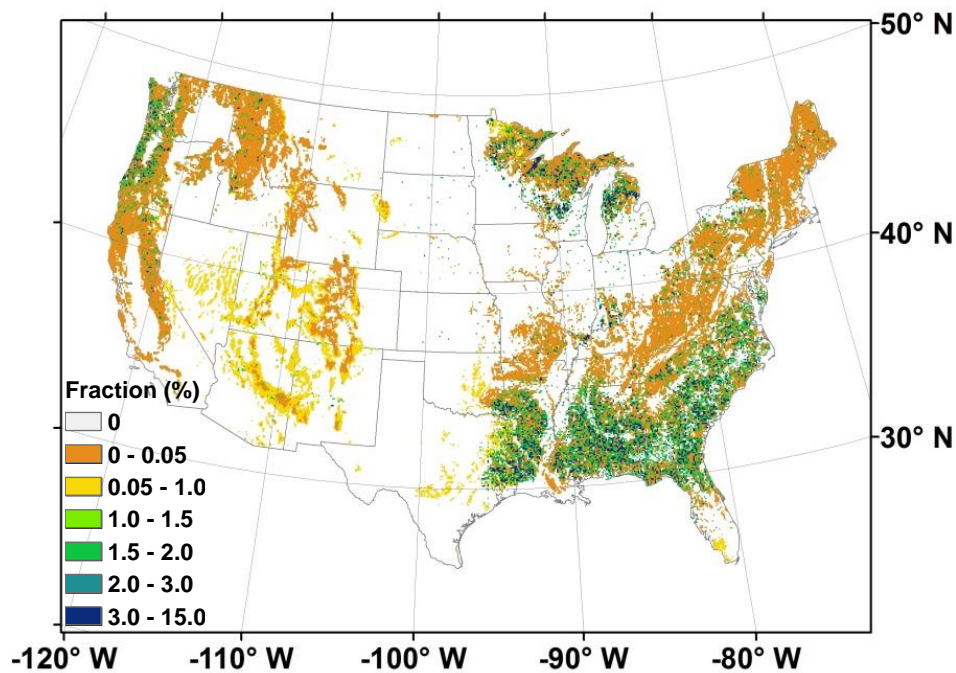


Figure 4. Fraction of the plots with plantation forests in each 8 km × 8 km grid cell.

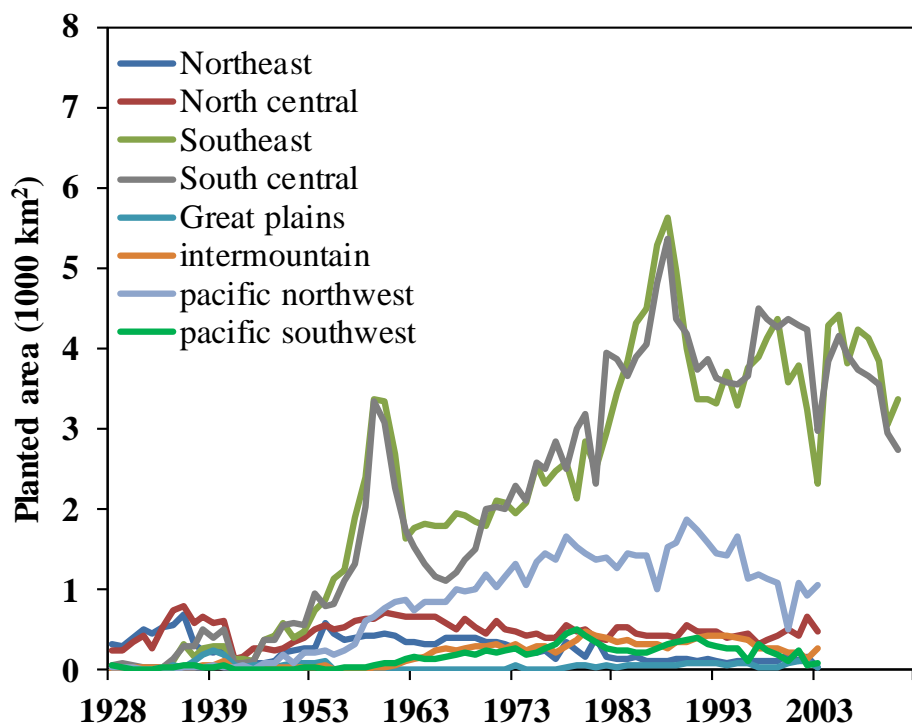


Figure 5. Annual planted forest area ($1000 \text{ km}^2/\text{yr}$) for 8 subregions in the CONUS during 1928-2011 (data source: Oswalt et al., 2014). Note: the data for the Southeast and South Central are extended to 2011, while the continuous inventory data end at 2003 and resume at 2011 for other subregions.

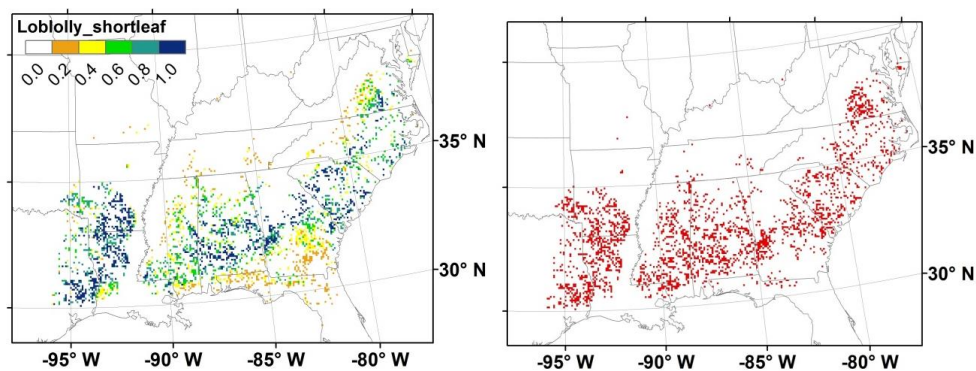


Figure 6. Illustration of the generation of spatial distribution maps for tree species groups in terms of fractional data and regional inventory area data using loblolly-shortleaf pine as an example. Left panel: fraction of loblolly-shortleaf pine species group in each grid cell; Right: identified final grid cells with loblolly-shortleaf pine.

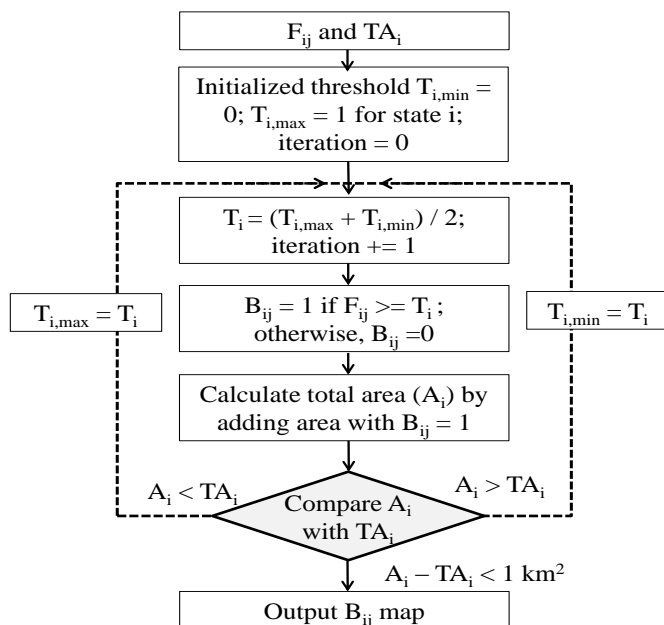


Figure 7. The procedure to identify the spatial distribution maps of plantation forests for each state based on grid-cell fractional data and state-level inventory data. Where, i : state; j : grid cell ID; F_{ij} : fraction of plantation forest for grid cell j in state i ; T_i : calculated threshold fraction for state i ; $T_{i,max}$: identified maximum fraction threshold; $T_{i,min}$: identified minimum threshold; B_{ij} : plantation distribution represented by Boolean values (0, 1) for grid cell j in state i ; A_i : calculated plantation area in state i ; TA_i : targeted plantation area in state i .

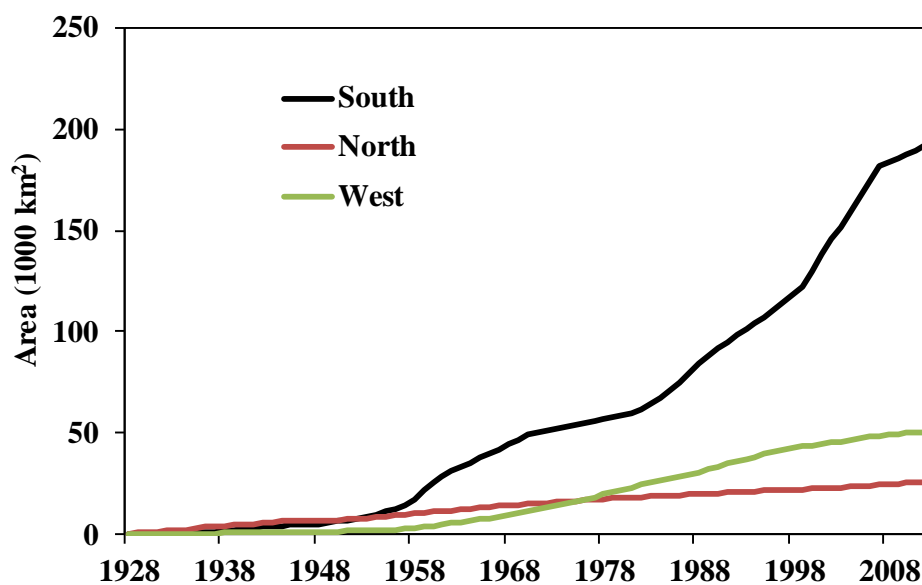


Figure 8. Area (1000 km²) of the annual planted forests for different regions in the CONUS during 1928-2012.

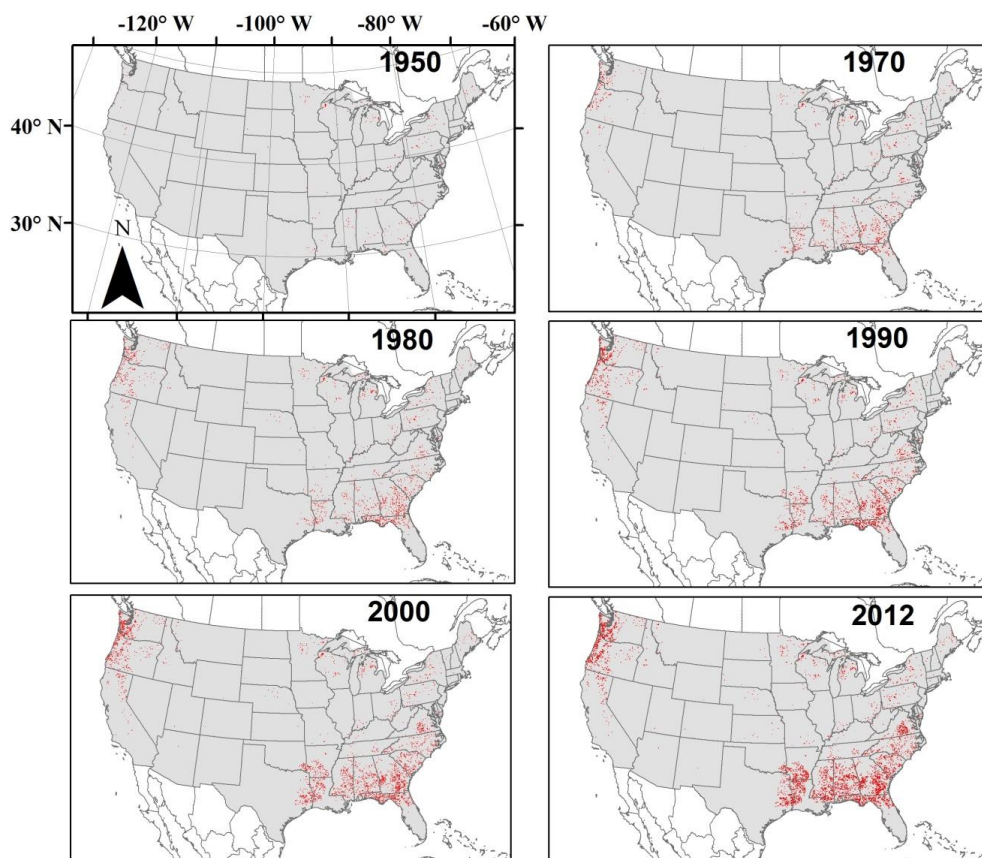


Figure 9. Spatial distributions for plantation forests during 1950, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2012 at a spatial resolution of 8 km for the CONUS.

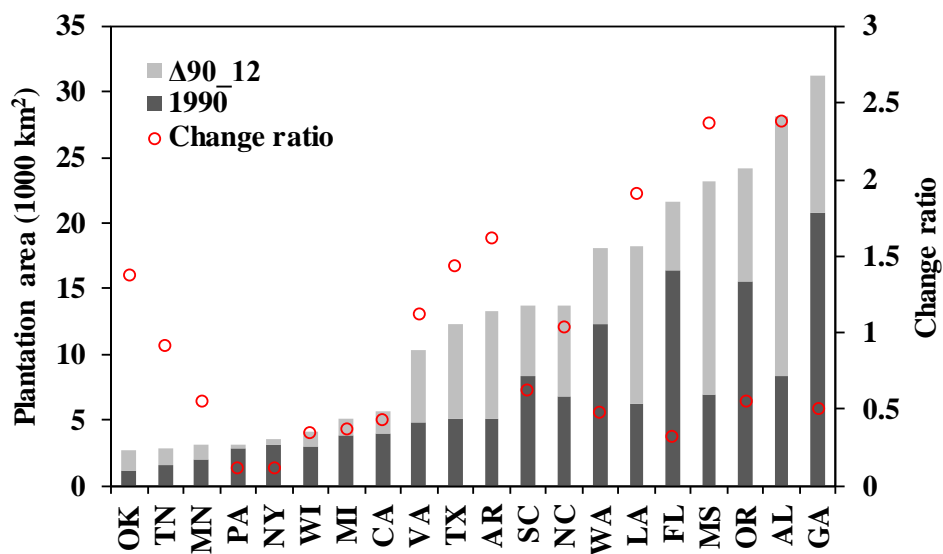


Figure 10. Plantation area in 1990 (dark gray), area change from 1990 to 2012 (light gray), and change ratio ($\Delta 90_{12} / 1990$; red circle) for the selected top 20 states with the largest plantation area in the CONUS.

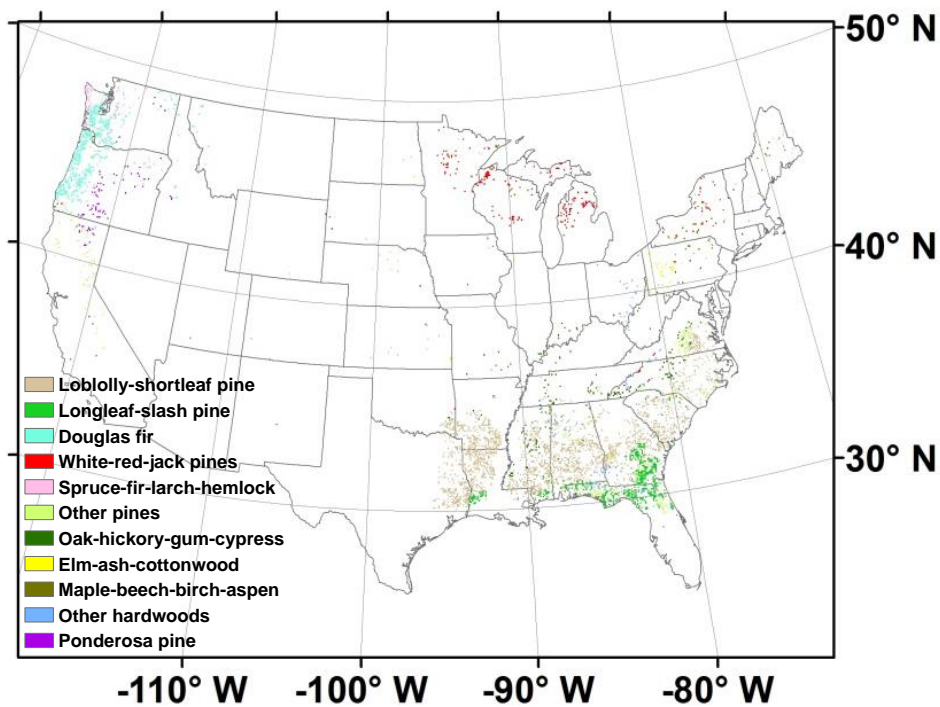


Figure 11. Spatial distribution of plantation tree species in the CONUS in 2012.