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## **Spatiotemporal Variations in the Fire Regimes of Whitebark Pine (*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.) Forests, Western Montana, USA, and Their Management Implications**

Evan Reed Larson  
*University of Tennessee, Knoxville*

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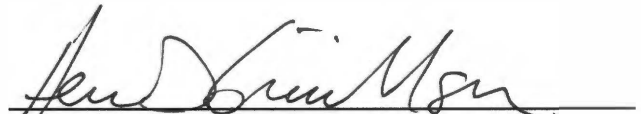
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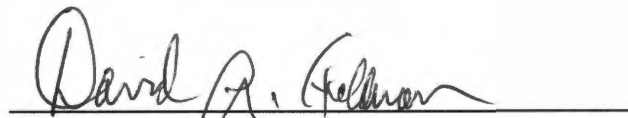
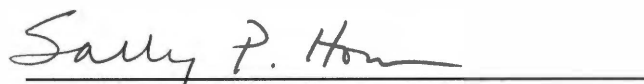
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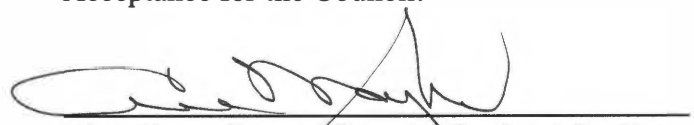
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Kenneth H. Orvis

Acceptance for the Council:

  
Vice Chancellor and Dean of Graduate Studies

Thesis

2005

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**Spatiotemporal Variations in the Fire Regimes of Whitebark Pine  
(*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.) Forests, Western Montana, USA,  
and Their Management Implications**

A Thesis Presented for the Master of Science Degree  
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

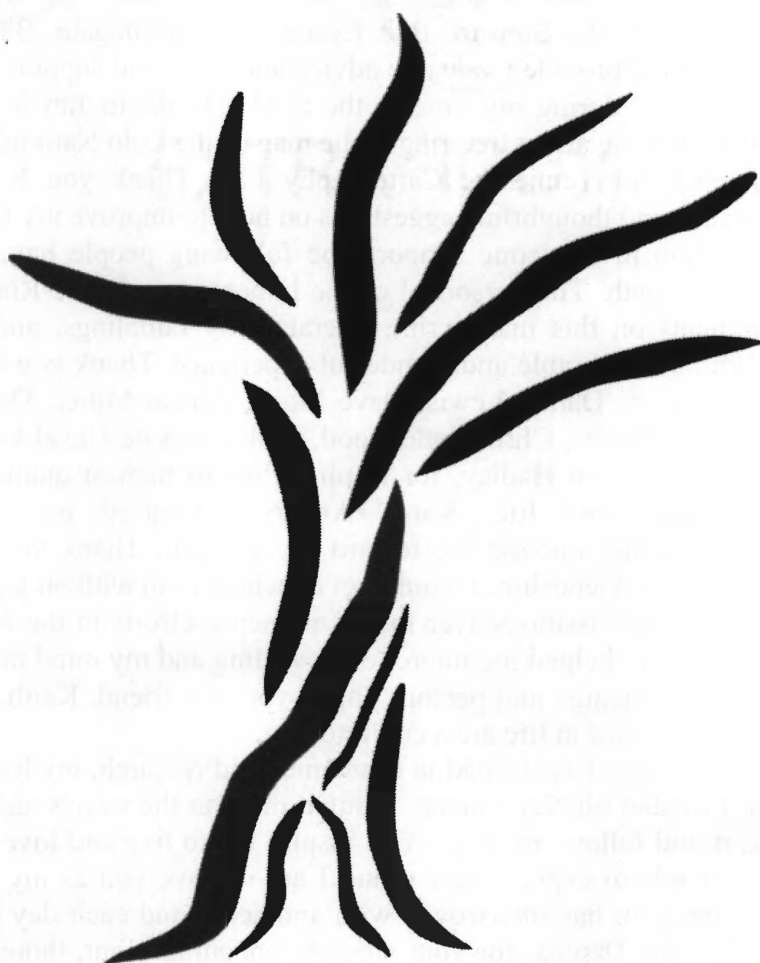
Evan Reed Larson  
December 2005

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## Dedication

For their strength, beauty, resilience, and grace...

I dedicate this thesis to the Whitebark Pine.



## Acknowledgments

This research could not have been conducted without the help and support of numerous people and organizations. Thank you Saskia van de Gevel-Edidin and David Mann for your assistance and company during the summer of 2004. That year will go down as one of the great field seasons of my career...MFF. I would like to thank my committee members Dave Feldman, Ken Orvis, and Sally Horn for their guidance and suggestions during the development of this thesis, as well as the knowledge and inspiration they passed on to me in and out of the classroom. This study was inspired from research that began during the 2004 North American Dendroecological Fieldweek (NADEF), and I am grateful for the opportunity to work on such an important topic in such a beautiful setting. Lori Daniels shared samples and data that she and others gathered during the 2004 NADEF that strengthened my age-structure analyses for Morrell Mountain. Cathy Stewart, Bob Keane, Vick Applegate, Bill Oelig, and Elaine Kennedy-Sutherland provided valuable advice and logistical support during the planning of this research and during my time in the field. Thanks to Jim for his shop time and patience while learning about tree-rings. The map of the Lolo National Forest was created by the University of Tennessee Cartography Lab. Thank you Kurt Kipfmuehler for sharing your data and thoughtful suggestions on how to improve my thesis.

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## Abstract

Whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis*) is a long-lived tree species that exists throughout high elevation forest communities of western North America. It is the foundation of a diminishing ecosystem that supports Clark's nutcrackers, red squirrels, grizzly bears, and black bears. The decline of this species is directly related to mortality from widespread mountain pine beetle outbreaks and infestation by the invasive white pine blister rust, and may be exacerbated by fire suppression. Prescribed fire will be a primary management tool in efforts to preserve whitebark pine on the landscape. My research used dendrochronology to investigate the fire history of whitebark pine stands on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, via fire-scar and age structure analyses. I then used these data to assess the USDA Fire Regime Condition Classification (FRCC) fire regime types for my sites. Additionally, I utilized traditional superposed epoch analysis techniques in a novel manner to develop a multi-decadal superposed epoch analysis for fire-climate and fire-tree establishment analyses. I sampled between 40 and 50 fire-scarred trees, snags, and remnants, and collected age structure data in two 0.5 ha plots at each site. Samples at all sites recorded a frost event in AD 1601 related to southern hemisphere volcanic activity. The fire-history and stand-structure data indicate all three sites were characterized by mixed-severity fire regimes and generally agreed with the FRCC classifications. However, fires occurred with greater frequency than previously found in whitebark pine forests and distinct differences existed between the fire regimes of each of the three sites that are likely related to topography, forest cover, and climate conditions. A period of widespread fire activity at all three sites occurred from the mid-1700s to the early 1800s and may be the expression of interactions between

several climate variables. Fire suppression led to a decline in fire activity in the 1900s, but subalpine fir trees began establishing between 300 and 140 years ago at all three sites. This suggests fire suppression may not be responsible for the advanced succession found in these whitebark pine forests and management decisions based on that assumption are inappropriate for these sites. In addition, the spatial and temporal variability in fire activity between these sites requires a refinement in the Fire Regime Condition Classification methods if they are to be used for managing whitebark pine forests.

**Keywords:** Whitebark pine, *Pinus albicaulis*, fire history, dendrochronology, age structure, subalpine, MDSEA, mixed-severity, fire regime, FRCC, 1601, climate, Lolo National Forest, Montana, Northern Rocky Mountains.

# Table of Contents

Chapter One .....	1
1. Fire, Ecosystems, and Land Management in the Western United States. ....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Objectives of the Thesis.....	3
1.3 Organization of the Thesis .....	4
1.4 Forest Types and Fire Ecology of the Northern Rocky Mountains .....	5
1.5 Fire Management in the Northern Rocky Mountains and Western United States..	7
1.5.1 Early History and the Fires of 1910 .....	7
1.5.2 The Era of Total Fire Suppression .....	8
1.5.3 Wildland Fire Management Guidelines and Ecosystem Management .....	9
1.5.4 The National Fire Plan: A Federal Fire Policy .....	10
1.5.5 Proactive Fire Management .....	14
1.6 Fire Regime Classification and the Historical Range of Variability .....	14
1.6.1 Fire Regime Types.....	15
1.6.2 Fire Regime Condition Class .....	16
1.7 Whitebark pine ( <i>Pinus albicaulis</i> Engelm.).....	18
1.7.1 Biogeography .....	18
1.7.2 Fire Ecology.....	21
1.7.3 Significance of the Species .....	21
1.7.4 Status of the Species .....	23
1.7.5 Management of Whitebark Pine .....	25
1.7.6 Research Needs.....	26
1.8 The Science of Dendrochronology .....	27
Chapter Two.....	29
2. Literature Review of Whitebark Pine .....	29
2.1 Fire and Whitebark Pine .....	29
2.1.1 Fire and Whitebark Pine in the Northern Rockies .....	29
2.1.2 Fire and Whitebark Pine in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem.....	33
2.1.3 Crossdated Fire History Research.....	35
2.2 Dendrochronology of Whitebark Pine .....	36
2.2.1 Dendroglaciology.....	36
2.2.2 Dendroecology .....	37
2.2.3 Dendroclimatology .....	40
Chapter Three.....	42
3. Study Site Descriptions.....	42
3.1 General Setting of the Lolo National Forest, Western Montana .....	42
3.1.1 Climate .....	42
3.1.2 Geology.....	46
3.1.3 Soils.....	46

3.1.4	Plant Communities .....	47
3.1.5	Land Use History .....	49
3.1.5.1	Pre-Euro-American Settlement.....	49
3.1.5.2	Mining History.....	50
3.1.5.3	Logging History .....	50
3.1.5.4	Agriculture .....	51
3.1.6	Forest Management.....	51
3.1.6.1	Timber Management.....	52
3.1.6.2	Pest Management .....	53
3.1.6.3	Fire Management .....	53
3.1.6.4	Whitebark Pine Management.....	54
3.2	Morrell Mountain.....	54
3.2.1	Environmental Setting .....	54
3.2.2	Land Use and Disturbance History .....	58
3.3	Mineral Peak .....	58
3.3.1	Environmental Setting .....	58
3.3.2	Land Use and Disturbance History .....	62
3.4	Point Six.....	62
3.4.1	Environmental Setting .....	62
3.4.2	Land Use and Disturbance History .....	66
Chapter Four .....		67
4.	Methods .....	67
4.1	Field Methods .....	67
4.1.1	Fire History .....	67
4.1.2	Age Structure .....	68
4.2	Laboratory Methods .....	69
4.2.1	Sample Preparation .....	69
4.2.2	Crossdating and Chronology Construction.....	69
4.2.3	Fire History .....	72
4.2.4	Age Structure .....	75
4.3	Graphical Analyses.....	76
4.3.1	Fire History Charts.....	76
4.3.2	Age Structure Charts.....	76
4.4	Statistical Analyses .....	77
4.4.1	Fire History Descriptive Statistics .....	77
4.4.1.1	Measures of Central Tendency .....	77
4.4.1.2	Measures of Range.....	79
4.4.1.3	Measures of Dispersion.....	79
4.4.1.4	Measures of Shape .....	80
4.4.2	Temporal Analyses .....	80
4.4.3	Spatial Analyses.....	81
4.4.4	Fire Seasonality Analyses.....	81
4.4.5	Fire-Tree Establishment Relationships .....	81
4.4.6	Fire-Tree Growth Relationships .....	83



4.5	Fire-Climate Relationships .....	84
4.6	Fire Regime Type Classification .....	85
Chapter Five.....		87
5.	Results .....	87
5.1	Crossdating and Chronology Construction.....	87
5.2	Fire History .....	90
5.2.1	Morrell Mountain.....	90
5.2.2	Mineral Peak .....	93
5.2.3	Point Six.....	93
5.2.4	All Sites.....	96
5.3	Age Structure .....	97
5.3.1	Morrell Mountain.....	97
5.3.2	Mineral Peak .....	100
5.3.3	Point Six.....	100
5.3.4	All Sites.....	100
5.4	Statistical Analyses .....	101
5.4.1	Descriptive Statistics.....	101
5.4.2	Temporal Analyses .....	104
5.4.3	Spatial Analyses.....	104
5.4.4	Fire Seasonality Analyses.....	109
5.4.5	Fire-Tree Establishment Relationships .....	109
5.4.6	Fire-Tree Growth Relationships .....	114
5.5	Fire-Climate Relationships .....	116
5.6	Fire Regime Type Classification .....	122
Chapter Six.....		125
6.	Discussion.....	125
6.1	Fire History and Age Structure of Whitebark Pine Forests .....	125
6.2	Spatiotemporal Variations in Fire Activity.....	135
6.3	Relationships Between Fire Activity, Tree Establishment, and Tree Growth .....	141
6.4	Fire-Climate Relationships .....	145
6.5	Management of Whitebark Pine .....	148
Chapter Seven .....		153
7.	Conclusions and Future Research.....	153
7.1	Conclusions.....	153
7.2	Future Research .....	159
References.....		162
Appendices.....		194
Appendix A. Statistical descriptions for the 214 measurement series from fire-scarred cross-sections collected on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest. ....		195

Appendix B. Fire-scar data from 111 fire-scarred cross sections collected from three mountains in the Lolo National Forest. ....	201
Appendix C1. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA output for annual tree establishment...	219
Appendix C2. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA bootstrapped confidence intervals for annual tree establishment.....	221
Appendix D1. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA for 5-yr mean tree establishment. ....	223
Appendix D2. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA bootstrapped confidence intervals for 5-yr mean tree establishment. ....	225
Vitae.....	227

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1.1</b> Fire Regime Condition Class Guidebook fire regime type definitions.....	16
<b>Table 1.2</b> Fire Regime Condition Class categories. ....	17
<b>Table 2.1</b> Fire intervals reported for whitebark pine forests and the methods used for the reconstruction. ....	30
<b>Table 3.1</b> General setting of the study sites in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.....	56
<b>Table 4.1</b> Abbreviations and definitions of the descriptive statistics used to characterize the fire regimes and their historical range of variability on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.....	78
<b>Table 5.1</b> Statistics for tree-ring chronologies developed from fire-scarred whitebark pines on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and for all sites combined. ....	89
<b>Table 5.2</b> Descriptive statistics for fire history chronologies developed from whitebark pines on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.....	91
<b>Table 5.3</b> Age-structure data from three stands in the Lolo National Forest, Montana... ..	98
<b>Table 5.4</b> Results of the temporal analyses between the pre-settlement (POR–1850) and settlement (1851–1920) periods. ....	105
<b>Table 5.5</b> Results of the temporal analyses between the pre-settlement (POR–1850) and fire suppression (1921–POR) periods. ....	106
<b>Table 5.6</b> Results of the temporal analyses between the settlement (1851–1920) and fire suppression (1921–POR) periods. ....	107
<b>Table 5.7</b> Results of the spatial analyses of fire chronologies developed from whitebark pine on three mountains in western Montana. ....	108
<b>Table 5.8</b> Fire seasonality in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and all sites combined.....	110
<b>Table 5.9</b> Fire regime classifications for study sites on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest.....	124

## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1.1</b> Wildland fire statistics for the United States. ....	11
<b>Figure 1.2</b> Distribution of whitebark pine ( <i>Pinus albicaulis</i> Engelm.).....	20
<b>Figure 3.1</b> Locations of the three study sites in the Lolo National Forest, Western Montana. ....	43
<b>Figure 3.2</b> Forest types and forestland cover of the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	48
<b>Figure 3.3</b> The study site on Morrell Mountain. ....	55
<b>Figure 3.4</b> A south-facing alpine meadow in the transition between the lower and upper subalpine forest types on Morrell Mountain.....	57
<b>Figure 3.5</b> The study site on Mineral Peak. ....	59
<b>Figure 3.6</b> An example of the forest structure on the talus slopes of the upper subalpine forest zone on Mineral Peak. ....	61
<b>Figure 3.7</b> The results of the 10,000-hectare Mineral-Primm fire complex that burned throughout the Gold Creek drainage in 2003, as seen from the trail to the summit of Mineral Peak. ....	63
<b>Figure 3.8</b> The study site on Point Six. ....	64
<b>Figure 4.1</b> Illustration of recorder and non-recorder rings on a fire-scarred cross-section. ....	74
<b>Figure 4.2</b> Graphical representation of the years included in the multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and tree establishment. ....	83
<b>Figure 5.1</b> A frost event in 1601 damaged 17 of 22 samples from Morrell Mountain, 15 of 25 samples on Mineral Peak, and the only sample on Point Six alive that year. ...	88
<b>Figure 5.2</b> A weathered stump near the summit of Morrell Mountain. ....	88
<b>Figure 5.3</b> The fire history chart for Morrell Mountain in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	92
<b>Figure 5.4</b> The fire history chart for Mineral Peak, in the Rattlesnake National Recreation Area and Wilderness, Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	94
<b>Figure 5.5</b> The fire history chart for Point Six, in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ..	95

<b>Figure 5.6</b> The master fire charts of (A) all fires and (B) fires that scarred multiple trees on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	96
<b>Figure 5.7</b> Age structure of trees on (A) Morrell Mountain, (B) Mineral Peak, (C) Point Six, and (D) all three sites combined.....	99
<b>Figure 5.8</b> Fire-free interval distributions for (A) Morrell Mountain, (B) Mineral Peak, (C) Point Six, and (D) all sites combined.....	103
<b>Figure 5.9</b> Fire seasonality in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and all sites combined.....	110
<b>Figure 5.10</b> Results from four multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and annual tree establishment. ....	111
<b>Figure 5.11</b> Results from four multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and the 5-yr moving average of tree establishments.....	112
<b>Figure 5.12</b> Fire-tree establishment relationships over the 98 years following fire events in study sites on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	113
<b>Figure 5.13</b> Results from multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses of the relationship between all fires and tree growth at (A) local and (B) regional scales.....	115
<b>Figure 5.14</b> Results from superposed epoch analyses (SEA) of the relationship between widespread fires and tree growth at (A) local and (B) regional scales.....	117
<b>Figure 5.15</b> Visual representation of the relationships between: (A) temperature (annual and 5-yr moving average; Briffa <i>et al.</i> 1992); (B) Precipitation (annual and 5-yr moving average; Fritts 1991); (C) Palmer Drought Severity Index (annual and 5-yr moving average; Cook <i>et al.</i> 1999); and (D) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites.....	118
<b>Figure 5.16</b> Visual representation of the relationship between: (A) Nino3 (D'Arrigo <i>et al.</i> in press) and (B) Southern Oscillation Index (inverse z-scores; Stahle <i>et al.</i> 1998), with (C) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites. ....	120
<b>Figure 5.17</b> Visual representation of the relationship between (A) Pacific Decadal Oscillation (annual and 20-yr moving average; D'Arrigo <i>et al.</i> 2001), and (B) the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (Gray <i>et al.</i> 2004), with (C) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites.....	121
<b>Figure 5.18</b> Fire regime types for three study sites in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. ....	123



# Chapter One

## 1. Fire, Ecosystems, and Land Management in the Western United States

### 1.1 Introduction

Fire plays a major role in shaping nearly every forest ecosystem in North America. This includes the vast tracts of yellow pine that stretch from the American Southwest (Dieterich 1983, Baisan and Swetnam 1990, Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004) up through the Columbia Plateau (DeBano *et al.* 1998, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2002), the coastal rainforests of California and the Pacific Northwest (Morrison and Swanson 1990, Agee 1993, Brown and Swetnam 1994), the pine and oak forests of the East and Midwest (Clark and Royal 1996, Shumway *et al.* 2001, Welch and Waldrop 2001), the boreal forests of Alaska and Canada (Dansereau and Bergeron 1993, Lesieur *et al.* 2002), and the diverse forest systems of the Rocky Mountain cordillera (Arno 1980, Wright and Bailey 1982, Goldblum and Veblen 1992, Sherriff *et al.* 2001). The historical fire regimes of these ecosystems varied widely across the landscape, from frequent surface fires in the American Southwest that recurred on 2- to 15-yr intervals (Dieterich 1983, Grissino-Mayer 1995, Swetnam and Baisan 1996), to the infrequent, stand-replacing fires that burned across thousands of hectares in the northern boreal forests at intervals of 150 years or more (Viereck 1973, Johnson 1992).

Over the past century, many of these ecosystems that historically experienced a frequent fire regime have undergone extraordinary changes in species composition and forest structure. The current paradigm, born out of the American Southwest, is that 100 years of fire suppression have allowed forests to become increasingly dense while advancing successionally toward shade-tolerant, fire-intolerant species, decreasing forest

health while increasing susceptibility to high-severity, stand-destroying fires (Cooper 1960, Gruell 1983, Covington and Moore 1994, Steele 1994). These ecological changes are documented in ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa* Douglas ex. C. Lawson) forests of the Four Corners region (Cooper 1960, Covington and Moore 1994), the Colorado Front Range (Mast *et al.* 1998), and eastern Oregon and Washington (Weaver 1961, West 1969, McNeil and Zobel 1980, Bork 1984), and many believe that the severe fire seasons of the 1990s and 2000s were a result of these changes (Arno 1996, Keane *et al.* 2002).

As with many environmental processes, some uncertainty surrounds the relationship between anthropogenic activity (*i.e.* fire suppression) and fire regimes. Research in some forest systems suggests that the effects of fire suppression are not pervasive on the landscape and that some modern fire regimes are still operating within their historical range of variability (Baker and Ehle 2001, Johnson *et al.* 2001, Sherriff *et al.* 2001, Veblen 2003). Additionally, research is increasingly implicating regional- and hemispheric-scale climate variability as a significant driver that affects the timing and extent of fires throughout the West (Swetnam and Betancourt 1990, 1998, Grissino-Mayer and Swetnam 2000, Kitzberger *et al.* 2001, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2002, Veblen and Kitzberger 2002), including in modern fire regimes (Westerling and Swetnam 2004). The situation is further complicated by the relatively unknown impacts of extensive landscape level changes, such as forest fragmentation and the expansion of the urban-wildland interface (Reed *et al.* 1996, Tinker *et al.* 1998, Knight *et al.* 2000).

In this climate of uncertainty, land management agencies are being spurred by both public and private interests to implement management practices that restore the ecological health of these systems while protecting human life and property (Teensma



1996, Brown 2000). The response to these pressures has been a shift toward ecosystem management throughout the federal system (Brown 1994, Arno 1996, Brown 2001). The difficulties now faced by land managers stem from incomplete understandings of the ecosystems being managed, while a growing sense of urgency surrounds many forest communities at risk of severe and rapid decline.

## **1.2 Objectives of the Thesis**

My thesis research investigates the role of fire in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, western Montana. My objectives are to:

- Reconstruct the fire history and age structure of whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, western Montana.
- Describe the historical fire regimes of these forests in terms of the frequency, severity, and seasonality of past fires.
- Determine whether distinct spatial and/or temporal patterns exist in the fire regimes of these forests locally, at the individual site level, and regionally, by comparing and contrasting the sites with each other.
- Describe the fire-tree establishment and fire-tree growth relationships that exist in these forests.
- Describe the fire-climate relationships for my sites.
- Use my results as a framework to examine the current management of whitebark pine in the Lolo National Forest.

### 1.3 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters written in response to a pressing need to understand the fire ecology of the whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.) ecosystem. In Chapter One, I introduce my thesis research with an overview of the ecology and management of fire in forest systems of western North America, focusing specifically on the Northern Rocky Mountains. I then describe the biogeography, fire ecology, and significance of whitebark pine and the community it supports, addressing the current management provisions for the species and the research needed to better understand this at-risk ecosystem. I introduce my primary method of investigation for my thesis research, dendrochronology, and then conclude Chapter One with a list of my research objectives.

Chapter Two provides a comprehensive review of the literature on the fire ecology of whitebark pine and the dendroecological research focused on this species. Chapter Three describes the general setting of my research in the Lolo National Forest, including the flora, climate, geology, and land-use history of the region. I briefly review the current Lolo National Forest Plan in terms of managing both fire and whitebark pine, and then describe my three study sites within the Lolo National Forest.

Chapter Four outlines the field and laboratory methods I used to collect and process my data, and the statistical methods I employed in my analyses. Chapter Five presents the results of my research. In Chapter Six, I discuss the significance of my research and its implications for the current paradigm of the role of fire in whitebark pine communities. I also use my results as a framework to analyze current management strategies relevant to whitebark pine forests. Chapter Seven contains my concluding remarks and suggestions for future research in the whitebark pine ecosystem.

#### 1.4 Forest Types and Fire Ecology of the Northern Rocky Mountains

Fire is the dominant disturbance throughout the Northern Rocky Mountains (Arno 1980, Gruell 1983, Alexander 1988, Arno and Allison-Bunnell 2002), and while the role of fire among different forest types varies, its effects are evident across the landscape (Fischer and Bradley 1987). The historical fire regimes of this region were products of climate, topography, forest type, and disturbance history (Arno 1980, Ryan 2002, Bassman *et al.* 2003, Schoennagel *et al.* 2004), with Native American activity augmenting fire regimes and affecting vegetation patterns on a local to landscape scale (Barrett and Arno 1982, Arno 1985). Lightning storms are quite common during the mid- and late- summer months and provide the main ignition source for wildfires in the Northern Rockies (Barrows 1977, USFS 1986). The fire season in the Northern Rockies typically begins in July as precipitation decreases and convective thunderstorms become more common, and continues until precipitation increases in late September and early October (Brown *et al.* 1994).

Historically, surface fires occurred throughout the lower elevations of the region at intervals of 15–30 years (Habeck and Mutch 1973, Tande 1979). These fires maintained grass meadows and open stands of ponderosa pine in the valley bottoms and on the driest sites, shifting to mixed ponderosa pine-Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco) forests on the surrounding slopes (Pfister *et al.* 1977, Arno 1980, Habeck 1987). Douglas-fir and western larch (*Larix occidentalis* Nutt.) make up a large component of stands on moister sites (Alexander 1988, Peet 1988) where mean fire-free intervals (MFI) ranged from 20–50 years (Arno 1980, Arno *et al.* 1997).

The forest communities of the middle elevations are dominated by nearly pure stands of Rocky Mountain lodgepole pine (*P. contorta* Douglas ex Loudon var. *latifolia* Engelm. in Watson) that blend with the ponderosa pine-Douglas-fir series at their lower limit and subalpine series at their upper limit (Alexander 1988, Peet 1988). These communities experienced a wide range of fire regimes, including relatively frequent (MFI of 25–50 years), mixed-severity fires on drier sites (Tande 1979), less frequent (MFI of approximately 150 years), higher-severity fire regimes on more moist sites (Barrett *et al.* 1991), and high-severity, stand-replacing fires at intervals of 250+ years on harsh, high-elevation sites (Romme 1982). Evidence of large-scale stand-replacing fire events exists throughout all of the lodgepole-pine-dominated forest types in the region (Arno 1980).

High-elevation forests that extend from the upper limits of the lodgepole pine zone to the treeline constitute the widest ranging forest types in much of the Northern Rockies (Pfister *et al.* 1977). These communities are composed of subalpine fir (*Abies lasiocarpa* (Hook.) Nutt.), Engelmann spruce (*Picea engelmannii* Parry ex Engelm.), and whitebark pine, with occasional seral communities of lodgepole pine, Douglas-fir, western larch, and alpine larch (*Larix lyallii* Parl.; Peet 1988). The fire regimes of these forest types are generally thought to be composed of high-severity, stand-replacing fires at MFI of 100–400+ years (Agee 1993). These fires are often spotty and erratic in behavior due to the role of weather in fire activity in this region (Bessie and Johnson 1995), and create mosaics of single-age stands on the landscape (Tande 1979, Bebi *et al.* 2003). One subalpine forest type that may be an exception to this dominant fire regime is the whitebark pine community. The fire regime of whitebark pine forests has recently been characterized as mixed-severity (Arno *et al.* 2000), and research shows fire may

occur much more frequently in these forests than in other subalpine communities (Morgan and Bunting 1990).

## **1.5 Fire Management in the Northern Rocky Mountains and Western United States**

### **1.5.1 Early History and the Fires of 1910**

Fire management in the Northern Rocky Mountains began in the 1800s. Early Euro-American pioneers used fire extensively to clear and maintain pastures for cattle , and as mineral exploration spread across the region, fires were used to clear the land in preparation for mining activity (Smith 1992). As the pioneer era closed, large-scale logging operations spread across the region. In the economy of timber, fire was viewed as a destructive force, and by the late 1800s fire suppression was the dominant management strategy throughout the region (Kotok 1930). Initial fire suppression efforts were largely ineffective in the Northern Rocky Mountains. The complex terrain made vast tracts of land nearly inaccessible except by foot or by horse, and the number of ignitions during summer thunderstorms often overwhelmed the available fire fighting resources. Yet by the early 1900s, fire suppression techniques had matured to the point where a general sense of confidence was felt throughout the fledgling USDA Forest Service (Pyne 1982).

The defining moment for fire management in the Northern Rocky Mountains and the nation as a whole came during the fire season of 1910. The year 1910 was one of severe droughts across North America, and steady winds parched millions of hectares creating a virtual tinderbox throughout the West (Arno and Allison-Bunnell 2002). The fire season began in late summer, with lightning storms igniting hundreds of fires in

California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, and Wyoming, overwhelming suppression efforts by the USDA Forest Service (Pyne 2002). The most severe of these fire complexes was labeled “The Big Blowup,” which, fanned by gale winds, burned nearly 1.2 million hectares across western Montana and Idaho over the course of two days, incinerating several communities and killing 85 people (Davis 1959). As the fall rains brought the fire season to a close, national reactions to the catastrophe initiated a massive restructuring of fire management in the United States (Pyne 2002).

### **1.5.2 The Era of Total Fire Suppression**

In the post-1910 setting, the approach to fire suppression took on the air of warfare, with almost exclusive control given to the USDA Forest Service (Pyne 1982). An attitude of total fire suppression, coupled with the development of the automobile, improved the effectiveness of fire suppression efforts following World War I, but forest access was still limited, and significant improvements in the efficacy of fire suppression did not arise until the New Deal and Civilian Conservation Corps era of the 1930s (van Wagtendonk 1991). During this period, extensive road and trail projects increased access throughout the nation’s forests, allowing Forest Service personnel to rapidly attack and suppress wildfires. Following World War II, the use of aircraft for spotting and suppressing fires led to additional improvements in suppression effectiveness (van Wagtendonk 1991). The establishment of the Smoke Jumper program in 1940 in the Northern Rocky Mountain region (USFS 1968) facilitated the rapid attack of fires even in remote wilderness areas. The increasing success with which wildfires were controlled and extinguished led to a nearly annual decrease in the number of hectares burned and human

lives lost, yet with this success a century of dramatic ecological change was set in motion.

### **1.5.3 Wildland Fire Management Guidelines and Ecosystem Management**

Widespread fires in 1967 burned 36,000 hectares in the Northern Rocky Mountains and brought fire management under renewed scrutiny. Research was beginning to illustrate the ecological impacts of fire suppression (Weaver 1959, Cooper 1960), and with the social backdrop of the environmental movement, a growing number of land managers began to explore the use of fire in the management of ecosystems that seemed to be growing increasingly out of balance (van Wagtendonk 1991). In 1970, the Society of American Foresters created a task force to examine the role of fire in the Northern Rocky Mountains. The committee reported that fire could not be excluded from this region and suggested that fire could be used to advance and maintain productive and healthy forest conditions (Wellner 1970). Following this report, the use of prescribed fire gained increasing support across the nation, and especially in the Northern Rockies (Pyne 1982).

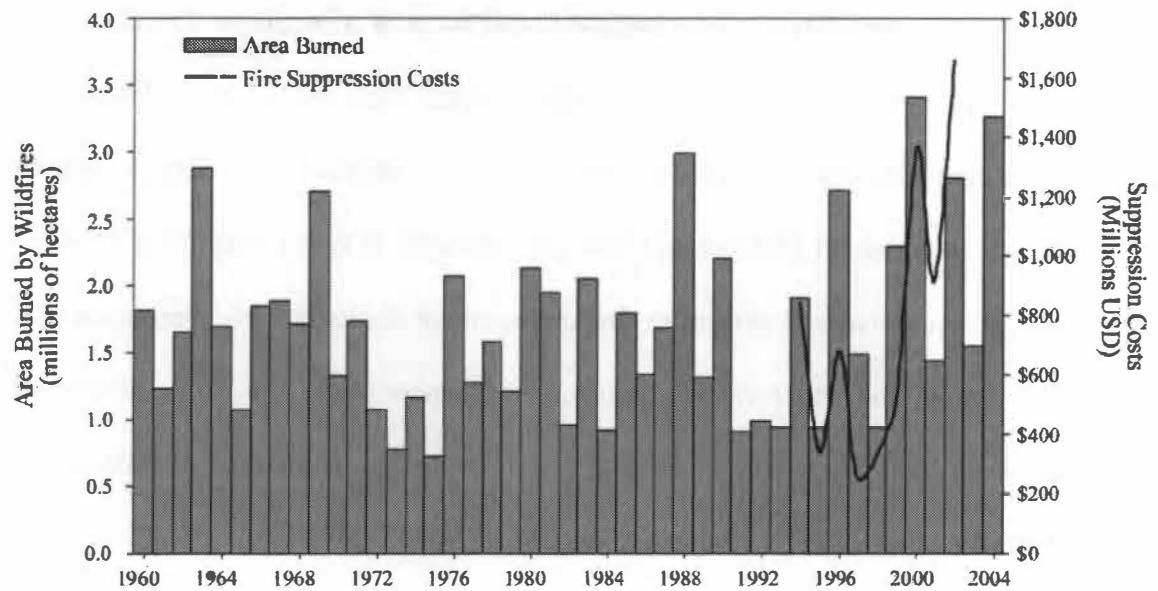
In 1986, the national government issued the Wildland Fire Management Guidelines, which explicitly outlined the importance of fires in forest ecology and management, and described the procedures and standards to follow when attempting to manage both prescribed and naturally occurring fires on public lands (NPS 1986). The changes outlined by this policy increased the ecological considerations of forest management plans, but changes in the field were slow to materialize and the inertia of past fire suppression would prove difficult to rein in. A lull in severe fire activity during

the 1970s and 1980s was broken and the increasingly volatile condition of forests throughout western North America finally gained widespread public attention in the late 1980s. The conflagration that erupted in Yellowstone National Park in 1988 captured the nation's interest (Lauber 1991), and even though these fires likely functioned within what most researchers consider normal for this fire regime (Romme and Despain 1989), the event focused media attention on the state of the environment and gave leverage to proponents of a more proactive fire management plan for public lands. The Wildland Fire Management Guidelines were opened to scrutiny and rewritten, renewing pressure on the USDA Forest Service to expand the use of prescribed fire and mechanical thinning to mimic historical disturbances in the absence of wildfires (Attiwill 1994). Yet even as land managers attempted to address the ecological concerns of the nation's forests, it quickly became evident that the Yellowstone Fire of 1988 was simply a harbinger of what was to come.

#### **1.5.4 The National Fire Plan: A Federal Fire Policy**

The 1990s and early 2000s saw a dramatic increase in the scale and intensity of wildfire activity in the Northern Rockies and across the western states of North America. Large wildfires continued to grow more common and widespread over this period as six of the 10 most severe fire seasons in the nation's history occurred over a 10-year span (Figure 1.1; NIFC 2005). Economic losses skyrocketed over this time as suppression and firefighting costs reached record levels among federal agencies. Extensive media coverage brought attention to the situation, raising public concern and increasing pressure on politicians to act. As in 1988, the catalyst for action came in the flames of 1994,





**Figure 1.1** Wildland fire statistics for the United States. Data for the total area burned across the nation include the years 1960–2004, and total fire suppression costs (in constant dollars) are available for the years 1994–2002 (NIFC 2005).

during which over 1.9 million hectares burned, nearly \$850 million were spent on fire fighting activities, and 36 wildland fire fighters lost their lives (NWCD 1995). The following year, the 1986 Wildland Fire Management Guidelines were replaced by the 1995 Federal Wildland Fire Management Policy (NWCD 1995).

The new wildfire policy was a comprehensive plan founded on greater ecological understanding of the role of fire in forest systems and produced by a collaborative effort between the Department of the Interior and the Department of Agriculture. The document stressed the need for a cohesive “umbrella” federal fire policy to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the numerous agencies affected by wildfires, and to encourage the involvement of tribal and state governments in fire management (NWCD 1995). The plan emphasized proactive fire management through fuels treatments and prescribed burning, and under the new policy, management plans were to be developed using the “best available science” for “all areas subject to wildland fire,” with risk assessments preceding all fire management decisions (NWCD 1995).

The 1995 Federal Wildland Fire Management Policy was implemented in February of that year, and was followed by a relatively short and calm fire season. The following year, however, again brought wildfires to the forefront of the public eye as explosive fires burned 2.7 million hectares across the United States. While fewer total hectares burned in 1997 and 1998, wildland fires continued to become more severe and dangerous to fight (NWCD 2001). The decade of the 1990s ended with fires consuming over 2.3 million hectares in 1999, with over half a billion dollars spent on fire fighting. The year 2000 followed with the most severe fire season in over 50 years, burning more than 3.4 million hectares, costing billions of dollars in economic losses and insurance

claims, a record \$1.6 billion dollars spent on fire fighting, and over 30 lives lost (NIFC 2005).

The severe fire seasons of 1999 and 2000 kept the issue of wildland fire in the news, and dramatic stories and images flooded the media. One event in particular drew heavy public criticism. In May 2000, an escaped prescribed burn in New Mexico grew into the 19,500 hectare Cerro Grande Fire, destroying 405 homes and creating a potential breach in national security at the Los Alamos National Laboratory (GAO 2000). The event spurred a great amount of concern over the planning and implementation of fire management and fuels treatment under the 1995 Federal Wildland Fire Management Policy, and was a significant factor in prompting additional fire policy reforms (Brown 2001).

The first initiative on fire policy taken in the new millennium occurred at the tail end of the record fire year of 2000, when President Clinton called for a review of the 1995 fire plan to bring it up to date with the most recent science and technology. The review, conducted by the Department of the Interior and the Department of Agriculture, added language of ecosystem sustainability, restoration, and program evaluation to the 1995 document, but found that “the policy is generally sound and continues to provide a solid foundation for wildland fire and natural resources management activities of the federal government” (NWCD 2001). The updated fire policy was submitted to Congress as the National Fire Plan. After mandating the development of a 10-year Comprehensive Strategy to supplement the plan (WLFC 2002), Congress signed the new policy and supported it in the Fiscal Year 2001 Appropriations Act (United States Congress 2000).

### **1.5.5 Proactive Fire Management**

The new era of fire management ushered in by the National Fire Plan integrated massive proactive fuels treatment efforts with existing prescribed fire and suppression policies (NWCD 2001). Over the course of 2001 and 2002, nearly 1.7 million hectares of fuels reduction projects were completed on federal lands, with another 1.1 million hectares treated in 2003 following the announcement of the Healthy Forests Initiative (United States Congress 2003). The Healthy Forests Initiative aimed to streamline the process of developing and implementing fuels treatment projects in high-risk areas, and several sites in the Northern Rocky Mountains qualified as suitable pilot projects (Healthy Forests 2005).

### **1.6 Fire Regime Classification and the Historical Range of Variability**

Understanding the modern roles of fire on the landscape depends on our ability to understand the historic roles of fire on the landscape (Swetnam *et al.* 1999). In response to this need, great amounts of time and money have been invested in research on the fire history of forested landscapes throughout North America (Wright and Bailey 1982, Agee 1993, DeBano *et al.* 1998). The knowledge gained from this research led to the creation of several fire regime classification systems that facilitate the description, comprehension, and management of fire-dependent ecosystems (Fischer and Bradley 1987, Williams and Rothermel 1992, Brown 1994). The first classification system for fire regimes was based on fire intensity, fire size, and fire frequency, and described seven distinct fire regimes (Heinselman 1978, 1981). Fire regime classification has since included fire severity in place of fire intensity, and during the 1990s shifted toward using

three general fire regime descriptions: low severity, frequent fires; mixed-severity, mixed-frequency fires; and high-severity, infrequent fires (Brown 1994, Agee 1996).

The classification of fire regimes has continued to evolve in response to recent increases in the sophistication of fire management and the growing importance of inter-agency communication spurred by the severe fire seasons of the late 1990s (Hann and Bunnell 2001). The current classification system used by federal agencies (Hann *et al.* 2004) includes five fire regime types coupled with a Fire Regime Condition Class (FRCC) rating that describes the departure of a forest system from its historic fire regime (Hardy *et al.* 2001, Schmidt *et al.* 2002). Incorporated in the FRCC methodology is the vital concept of the “historical range of variability” inherent to disturbance regimes (Morgan *et al.* 1994a). This concept emphasizes the dynamic nature of ecosystems and provides a framework to better understand ecosystem processes and ecological change over time. When used judiciously, it can guide management to achieve a range of desirable future conditions within the natural bounds of an ecosystem (Landres *et al.* 1999).

#### **1.6.1 Fire Regime Types**

The FRCC guidebook describes five historical fire regime types based on fire frequency and fire severity (Table 1.1). Fire regime types are assigned to specific sites according to the “natural” role of fire on a landscape in the absence of modern human intervention, and are meant to guide management practices within the historical context of the ecosystem (Hann *et al.* 2004).

**Table 1.1** Fire Regime Condition Class Guidebook fire regime type definitions. Fire regime type is based on the frequency and severity of fire on a landscape in the absence of modern human intervention (Hann *et al.* 2004).

Fire Regime	Mean Fire-Free Interval	Description
Type I	0–35 yrs	Low to mixed severity fires replacing less than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation
Type II	0–35 yrs	High severity fires replacing at least 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation
Type III	35–100+ yrs	Mixed severity fires replacing less than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation
Type IV	35–100+ yrs	High severity fires replacing at least 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation
Type V	200+	High severity, stand replacing fires

### 1.6.2 Fire Regime Condition Class

The FRCC categories are defined by Schmidt *et al.* (2002) as:

“...the degree of departure from historical fire regimes, possibly resulting in alterations of key ecosystem components such as species composition, structural stage, stand age, canopy closure, and fuel loadings. One or more of the following activities may have caused this departure: fire suppression, timber harvesting, livestock grazing, introduction and establishment of exotic plant species, introduced insects and disease, or other management activities.”

All ecosystems can be classified into one of three FRCC (Table 1.2), based on the relative degree of departure from the central tendency of its historical fire regime, given the historical range of variability for that regime (Hann and Strohman 2003).

**Table 1.2** Fire Regime Condition Class categories. Used to describe the relative degree of departure of an ecosystem from the central tendency of its historical fire regime (Hann and Strohm 2003).

<b>Fire Regime</b>		
<b>Condition Class</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Potential Risks</b>
Condition Class 1	Within the natural (historical) range of variability for vegetation characteristics, fuel composition, fire frequency, severity and pattern, and other associated disturbances	<p>Fire behavior, effects, and other associated disturbances are similar to those that occurred prior to fire exclusion and other types of management that do not mimic the natural fire regime and associated vegetation and fuel characteristics.</p> <p>Composition and structure of vegetation and fuels are similar to the natural (historical) regime.</p> <p>Risk of losing key ecosystem components (e.g. native species, large trees, and soil) is low.</p>
Condition Class 2	Moderate departure from the natural (historical) regime of vegetation characteristics, fuel composition, fire frequency, severity and pattern, and other associated disturbances	<p>Fire behavior, effects, and other associated disturbances are moderately departed (more severe or less severe).</p> <p>Composition and structure of vegetation and fuel are moderately altered.</p> <p>Risk of losing key ecosystem components is moderate.</p>
Condition Class 3	High departure from the natural (historical) regime of vegetation characteristics, fuel composition, fire frequency, severity and pattern, and other associated disturbances	<p>Fire behavior, effects, and other associated disturbances are highly departed (more severe or less severe).</p> <p>Composition and structure of vegetation and fuel are highly altered.</p> <p>Risk of losing key ecosystem components is high.</p>

## **1.7 Whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.)**

### **1.7.1 Biogeography**

Whitebark pine is a five-needle conifer found in many high-elevation forests of western North America (Arno and Hoff 1990). The species is one of five stone pines (section *Strobus*, subsection *Cembrae*) found among the mountainous regions of the northern hemisphere, and the only stone pine found in the western hemisphere (Jorgensen and Hamrick 1997). Genetic research shows that whitebark pine likely diverged from the Eurasian stone pines between 0.6 and 1.3 million years ago (Krutovskii *et al.* 1990). The origin of the species and the timing of its arrival on the North American continent are still debated (Lanner 1996, McCaughey and Schmidt 2001).

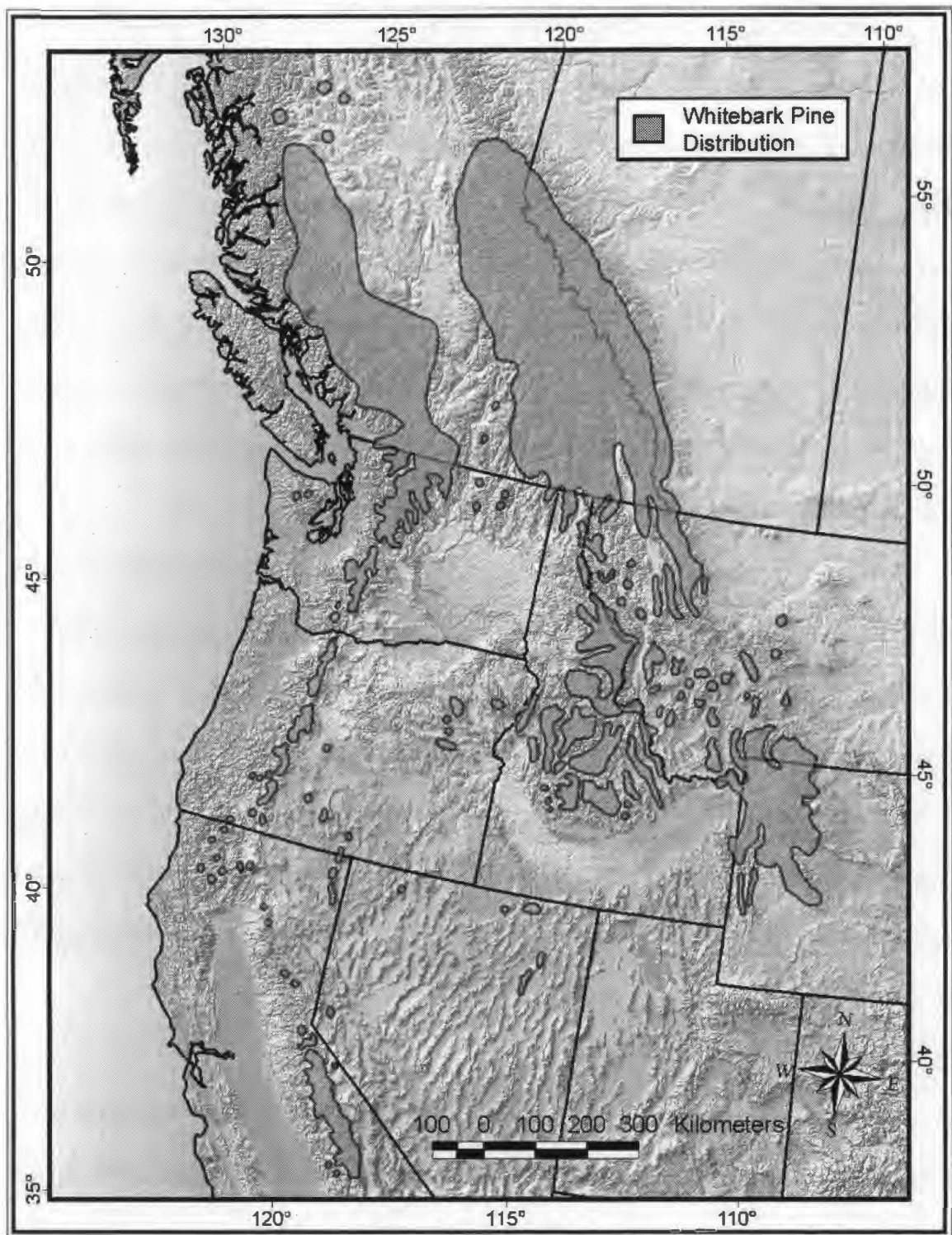
As is characteristic of other stone pines, whitebark pine seeds are large and wingless (Lanner 1990), and the species depends on a mutualistic relationship with the Clark's nutcracker (*Nucifraga columbiana* Wilson) for regeneration and dispersal (Tomback 1982). This relationship enabled relatively rapid adjustments in the range of whitebark pine during the periods of glacial advance and retreat throughout the Pleistocene (Tomback 2001), with macro- and micro-fossil evidence indicating the continuous presence of whitebark pine in the Yellowstone region for the past 100,000 years (Baker 1990). Following the retreat of the Pleistocene glaciers, whitebark pine expanded northward rapidly until *ca.* 10,000 to 8,000 years ago when warming conditions restricted it to high-elevation sites (MacDonald *et al.* 1989). Whitebark pine distribution stabilized *ca.* 4,000 years ago during a relatively cool period, and has changed little since (McCaughey and Schmidt 2001).



The modern range of whitebark pine extends from the northern Canadian Rockies (55° N) to the southern Sierra Nevada (37° N) and from the Coast Range of the Pacific Northwest (128° W) to the eastern Rocky Mountains of Montana and Wyoming (107° W) (Figure 1.2; Little 1971). Several disjunct populations exist in eastern Montana and northeastern Nevada (Weaver and Dale 1974). The elevational distribution of whitebark pine relates to latitude, with upper bounds ranging from 900 meters at the northern limits of the species in British Columbia to over 3,600 meters in the Sierra Nevada (Arno and Hoff 1990). The lower elevational limit of whitebark pine varies throughout its range and is determined by competition with other tree species (Weaver 2001).

Whitebark pine is associated with several community types determined by site conditions. On high-elevation sites that experience extreme temperatures, wind scouring, and drought, whitebark pine is commonly the only tree species able to withstand the environment and is considered a climax species (Pfister *et al.* 1977). These stands often develop into open forestland at the treeline and krummholz forests above treeline (Weaver and Dale 1974). On sites capable of supporting competing species in a limited number, whitebark pine can be found as a co-climax species growing alongside subalpine fir, Engelmann spruce, and lodgepole pine (Weaver and Dale 1974).

As a seral species in the upper and lower subalpine habitat types (Pfister and Arno 1980), the partially shade-tolerant whitebark pine (Arno and Hoff 1990) depends on disturbances such as fire and windthrow to create forest openings suitable for regeneration. Clark's nutcrackers act as the main dispersal agent of whitebark pine by preferentially caching seeds in forest openings (Tomback 1982), giving whitebark pine seedlings a distinct advantage in these harsh environments over less hardy, wind-



**Figure 1.2** Distribution of whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.). Distribution data are from Little (1971).

dispersed tree species (Tomback *et al.* 1990, Tomback 1994b). The 1,000+ yr lifespan of whitebark pine (Perkins and Swetnam 1996, Luckman and Youngblut 1999) often maintains whitebark pine as a major seral species in the upper subalpine zone or a minor seral species in the lower subalpine zone long after a disturbance (Arno and Hoff 1990).

### **1.7.2 Fire Ecology**

Whitebark pine is a fire-dependent species (Morgan *et al.* 1994b). On sites where whitebark pine is a seral species, fire plays a major role in creating the forest openings that are required for whitebark pine regeneration (Morgan and Bunting 1990). On drier sites, surface fires can slow succession by removing competing species and undergrowth, creating open stands dominated by whitebark pine (Morgan and Bunting 1990, Arno 2001). In the absence of fire, whitebark pine forests shift to later successional, shade tolerant species (Keane *et al.* 1990a), with whitebark pine losing canopy dominance after 150–400 years without disturbance, depending on site factors (Keane 2001b). Fire suppression may have altered the natural fire regime of forests dominated by whitebark pine, and is associated with the encroachment of fire-intolerant species throughout the range of whitebark pine (Arno 2001, Keane 2001a).

### **1.7.3 Significance of the Species**

Whitebark pine was historically regarded as a species of negligible value in terms of lumber due to its slow growth, often twisted and stunted form, and the general inaccessibility of whitebark pine forests (Losensky 1990). More recently, it has become highly regarded for its aesthetic value on the landscape and its role as shelter and a

resource base for wildlife (Tomback *et al.* 2001a). Ecologically, whitebark pine plays important roles in watershed dynamics and is regarded as a keystone species critical to the stability of subalpine ecosystems. The ability of whitebark pine to act as a pioneer on recently disturbed sites greatly reduces erosion, and by facilitating the recovery of other plant communities, maintains the integrity of the headwaters of many important watersheds (Arno and Hoff 1990) while increasing the biodiversity of subalpine communities (Weaver 2001). Whitebark pine-dominated forests at treeline and the krummholz forests above catch and retain snow (Arno and Hammerly 1984), and provide a major source of moisture for lower-elevation ecosystems in the form of melt-off during the late spring and summer months (Farnes 1990).

Whitebark pine is the foundation of an ecosystem involving Clark's nutcrackers, red squirrels (*Tamiasciurus hudsonicus* Trouessart), grizzly bears (*Ursus arctos* L.), and black bears (*Ursus americanus* Pallas) (Mattson and Jonkel 1990, Tomback 1994a, Mattson and Reinhart 1997). Whitebark pine seeds are significantly larger than the seeds of other high-mountain conifers of North America (Lanner 1996), and contain high levels of fats and nutrients, making them a valuable food source for wildlife (Arno 1986). The cones of whitebark pine that hold these seeds do not open on their own, and remain on the tree until the seeds are picked out by Clark's nutcrackers or when squirrels cut the entire cone from the tree (Lanner 1996).

Red squirrels store the cones in middens that are up to several square meters in area and are scattered throughout stands of whitebark pine (Mattson *et al.* 2001). The nutritious whitebark pine seeds that fill these middens provide a readily available food source and are frequently excavated by grizzly bears and black bears as they prepare for

hibernation (Mattson *et al.* 1991, Mattson and Reinhart 1997). Nutcrackers, after picking anywhere from 15 to > 90 seeds, travel up to several kilometers before selecting a site to create a cache (Tomback 1982, 1994b). Nutcrackers preferentially cache seeds in forest openings, between 1–3 cm under the surface of the soil (Tomback 2001). These site conditions are ideal for the successful establishment of whitebark pine, and the seeds not recovered by birds or eaten by rodents are in turn the main source of regeneration for whitebark pine throughout its range (Lanner 1982, Tomback *et al.* 1990).

#### **1.7.4 Status of the Species**

The whitebark pine ecosystem has undergone extraordinary declines over the last 80 years. Mountain pine beetle (*Dendroctonus ponderosae* Hopkins) outbreaks in the 1930s and 1980s caused extensive mortality of whitebark pine in the central and northern Rocky Mountains (Bartos and Gibson 1990, Kipfmüller *et al.* 2002). The outbreaks commonly began in mature lodgepole pine forests (Stuart 1984), and as beetle population increased, spread upslope into neighboring stands of whitebark pine (Bartos and Gibson 1990). Mortality is caused by girdling from the construction of egg galleries and the feeding of larvae on the inner phloem of infected trees (Cole and Amman 1980). The beetle also introduces the secondary pathogen blue stain fungus (*Ophiostoma* spp.) that reduces the transport of water and nutrients within a tree, which places additional stress on infected individuals (Solheim 1995). The beetles tend to selectively attack larger trees that have thicker phloem to sustain beetle and larvae populations (Amman 1972). This leads to smaller trees often surviving outbreaks and acting as seed sources for the recovery of the forest (Cole and Amman 1980). Bark beetles have been a disturbance

agent in whitebark pine forests well into the past, as indicated by the J-shaped galleries engraved on sun-bleached snags of whitebark pine throughout the subalpine regions of western North America (Arno and Hammerly 1984). Research suggests, however, that the impacts of beetle outbreaks may be changing in response to shifts in forest structure and climate change, allowing beetles to affect larger areas, extend to higher elevations, and to potentially produce multiple generations per year (Logan *et al.* 1995, Logan and Powell 2001).

The introduction of the exotic white pine blister rust (*Cronartium ribicola* (A. Dietr.) J.C. Fisch.) in Vancouver, British Columbia, in the early 1900s brought an additional disturbance agent into whitebark pine forests (Hoff and Hagle 1990). Blister rust is a heteroecious fungus that alternates between five-needle pines and *Ribes* species (van der Plank 1963). The rust infects a tree through the needles, initially forming cankers on the outer branches, but eventually moving to the main trunk where it can girdle and kill the tree (Hoff and Hagle 1990). Over the past 90 years, blister rust has spread throughout the range of five needle pines along the west coast and Rocky Mountains (McDonald and Hoff 2001).

Blister rust first appeared on whitebark pine in the coastal range of British Columbia in 1926 and spread to northern Idaho by 1938 (Childs *et al.* 1938). Since then, the range of whitebark pine affected by white pine blister rust has expanded and infection levels have intensified (McDonald and Hoff 2001). Whitebark pine is highly susceptible to the rust, with fewer than 1 in 10,000 trees showing resistance (Kendall 1994), and rust-caused mortality is extensive throughout the northern portions of its range (Hoff 1992). In the Pacific Northwest, 40–100% of the whitebark pine are dead in most forest stands,

with 50–100% of the live trees showing signs of infection (Campbell and Antos 2000, Goheen 2002). In the Columbia River Basin, 98% of the whitebark pine communities have disappeared since the turn of the century (Keane 1995). A project to reconstruct landscape patterns of whitebark pine in western Montana found that 14% of the stands were dominated by whitebark pine around 1900, but not one of these stands was dominated by whitebark pine in the 1990s (Keane and Arno 1993). Of the remaining live whitebark pine trees in these stands, 80% were infected with white pine blister rust, and the cone-bearing crowns of over one-third of them were dead. Whitebark pine populations have coexisted with mountain pine beetle for millennia, and if affected by blister rust alone would likely develop resistance over a relatively short evolutionary period. Faced with the synergistic impacts of both disturbances simultaneously, with potential complications from fire suppression (Arno 2001), whitebark pine is at serious risk of local and regional extinctions within the next 25 years (Tomback *et al.* 2001a).

### **1.7.5 Management of Whitebark Pine**

The plight of whitebark pine and its significance on the landscape have inspired several management initiatives focused on preserving the species and the community it supports (Tomback *et al.* 2001b). Ongoing projects include the breeding of rust-resistant whitebark pine (Burr *et al.* 2001), the development of silvicultural techniques to slow blister rust infection (Hoff *et al.* 2001), and the development of mountain pine beetle protection programs (Vandygriff *et al.* 2000). Efforts have also focused on developing a broad prescribed fire program to enable land managers to apply fire as a tool to achieve management objectives at the local and landscape scale (Keane 2001a).

### **1.7.6 Research Needs**

The status of our knowledge on whitebark pine is improving, but several important knowledge gaps remain. Two important patterns emerge from the existing fire history data for whitebark pine. First, while fire suppression is widely cited as a major factor in advancing succession throughout whitebark pine forests, the evidence of such an effect is ambiguous at best in several fire history studies. Second, fire history studies that used crossdating, the main principle behind the science of dendrochronology (Fritts 1976), reported more frequent fire activity than those studies that did not implement crossdating. Although the studies varied widely in area, both Morgan and Bunting (1990) and Kipfmueeller (2003) reported fire-free intervals ranging well below the values reported in other studies. These two patterns indicate that, in some stands of whitebark pine, fire occurred more frequently than the current paradigm suggests, and at the same time fire suppression may not be solely responsible for the structural and compositional changes now occurring in whitebark pine forests.

The uncertainties surrounding the role and occurrence of fire in whitebark pine forests may prove to be significant as prescribed fire programs advance with incomplete knowledge of the fire regimes of the species. The broad geographic and environmental distribution of whitebark pine must create regional variations in historical fire regimes, and a need exists for precise and accurate descriptions of whitebark pine fire regimes to develop ecologically sound management practices. Additional uncertainty is introduced by the relatively unknown relationships between fire activity in the mixed-severity fire regimes of whitebark pine forests and inter-annual to multi-decadal shifts in climate (but see Kipfmueeller 2003). Research is needed to describe the fire regimes and fire-climate



relationships in whitebark pine forests throughout the range of the species to enable land managers to develop prescriptions for the use of fire in managing whitebark pine forests within the historical context of the species.

## **1.8 The Science of Dendrochronology**

Dendrochronology is a science based on the annual formation of rings in woody plant species and the analysis of information they hold (Douglass 1920). Seven principles provide the scientific foundation for dendrochronology (Fritts 1976), and while all of these principles are crucial to dendrochronological research, one is of particular importance to my research, the principle of crossdating. Crossdating is accomplished by matching patterns of wide and narrow rings among the radii of one tree, and from that tree to other trees in the same stand, forest, or region (Fritts 1976). The variability in tree-ring widths required to crossdate is caused by climate-related annual fluctuations in the factors limiting to plant growth, such as moisture availability in the Southwest (Fritts 1974) or temperature in high-elevation ecosystems (LaMarche and Stockton 1974). First applied in archeological research in the American Southwest (Douglass 1921), crossdating is now used in tree-ring studies around the world to ensure the precise and accurate dating of individual growth rings within a tree. Crossdating between living and dead material also enables dendrochronologists to construct tree-ring chronologies beyond the lifespan of individual trees, with some chronologies extending up to several thousand years in length (Ferguson 1969, Pilcher *et al.* 1984, Feng and Epstein 1994).

The accuracy, resolution, and temporal scale attainable by crossdating are essential for environmental research that examines processes that vary at inter-annual to

seasonal scales, such as fire-climate relationships (Brown and Swetnam 1994, Grau and Veblen 2000, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2002), and those that vary on decadal to millennial scales, such as extended periods of fire activity and global climate (Briffa *et al.* 1990, Campbell and McAndrews 1993, Grissino-Mayer 1995, Grissino-Mayer and Swetnam 2000, Westerling and Swetnam 2004). Additionally, crossdating allows the investigation of processes that lead to the demise of trees, such as fire (Ehle and Baker 2003), beetle outbreaks (Veblen *et al.* 1991), and pathogens (*e.g.* blister rust) (Daniels *et al.* in press). The need to accurately describe the historical disturbance regimes and the fire-climate relationships of whitebark pine forests can only be addressed through crossdated, dendrochronological research.

## Chapter Two

### 2. Literature Review of Whitebark Pine

#### 2.1 Fire and Whitebark Pine

Several studies have examined the fire history of whitebark pine forests, and although a wide range in the frequency and severity of fire events has been reported for sites across the central and northern Rocky Mountains, the majority of these can be classified as Fire Regime Type III or Type IV (Table 2.1).

##### 2.1.1 Fire and Whitebark Pine in the Northern Rockies

Arno (1976) developed tree ring-based fire histories for three study areas in the Bitterroot National Forest in west central Montana. The study areas covered a wide range of elevations and forest types, and Arno used non-crossdated fire-scarred samples collected from living trees and age-structure data to describe the frequency and severity of fires in the Bitterroot Mountains before the era of fire suppression. Data were collected from five upper-subalpine stands that included the *Abies lasiocarpa/Luzula hitchcockii* habitat type, the *Abies lasiocarpa-Pinus albicaulis/Vaccinium scoparium* habitat type, and the *Pinus albicaulis-Abies lasiocarpa* habitat type from Pfister *et al.* (1977); however, the numbers of each habitat type sampled were not reported. Fire scarred samples were collected from thirty-one trees in the five upper-subalpine stands, and MFI from AD 1600–1910 of 41 years, 30 years, and 33 years were reported for the three habitat types, respectively. Arno mentioned that numerous whitebark pine trees in the study area contained multiple fire scars. Age structure data were relatively mixed-age, but still indicated several likely post-fire cohorts. Arno emphasized the spatial variability in

**Table 2.1** Fire intervals reported for whitebark pine forests and the methods used for the reconstruction. Fire regime type is based on the Fire Regime Condition Class guidebook (Hann *et al.* 2004). Adapted from Arno 2001. See Table 1.1 for definitions of fire regime types.

Fire-free interval (yrs)	Fire regime type	Methods	Geographic area	Source
13–46	Type I	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Russell Peak, Wyoming	Morgan and Bunting 1990
20–173	Type III	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness, Montana/Idaho	Kipfmueeller 2003
57–94	Type III	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Bitterroot Valley, West Montana	Arno and Petersen 1983*
51–119	Type III	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Big Hole Basin, SW Montana	Murray <i>et al.</i> 1998*
55–304	Type IV	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Bob Marshall Wilderness, NW Montana	Keane <i>et al.</i> 1994*
80–300	Type IV	Age-structure analysis	Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming	Mattson and Reinhardt 1990*
66–>350	Type IV	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming	Barrett 1994*
300–400	Type V	Fire-scar and age-structure analyses	Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming	Romme 1982*

\* indicates crossdating was not used and fire intervals are estimates.

the fire regimes of the study areas, and suggested mixed-severity fires played a more important role in the Northern Rockies than was recognized at the time. The effects of fire suppression were evident in the fire histories of lower elevation forests. Visual comparisons between fire activity and instrumental meteorological data showed a correlation between drought conditions and years of widespread fires. The potential impact of Native Americans on these fire regimes was tentatively broached. Arno concluded that fire has and will continue to be a major ecological component of forests in the Bitterroot National Forest and suggested several management techniques for reducing fuel loads and maintaining forest health.

Arno and Petersen (1983) reexamined the fire history data collected by Arno (1976) to illustrate the effects of different spatial scales on the reported fire frequencies. The original data that described MFI of 30–41 years were reanalyzed by Arno and Petersen and resulted in MFI of 106 years for single trees, 94 years for tree clusters of about 0.4 hectares, 61 years for small stands of 20–40 hectares, and 57 years for large stands of 80–320 hectares. Arno and Petersen used these results to emphasize the importance of using the appropriate scale when reporting results of fire history research.

Keane *et al.* (1994) conducted a landscape assessment of the effects of blister rust and fire suppression on whitebark pine forests in the Bob Marshall Wilderness Complex, Montana. The study combined satellite imagery with field reconnaissance and plot data to evaluate the disturbance history and recent shifts in whitebark pine populations. The fire history was determined using non-crossdated, fire-scarred samples and age-structure data. A MFI of 144 years was found for the entire study area, with individual site MFIs ranging from 55–304 years. Blister rust infections were identified on 83% of the

inventoried whitebark pine, and high mortality rates due to blister rust were reported for 22% of the landscape containing whitebark pine. The study documented little to no whitebark pine regeneration. Subalpine fir dominated 14% of the total subalpine landscape, approximately 7% more than its historical composition. Regeneration throughout the study area was almost exclusively fir. Due to fire suppression and the blister rust-induced mortality of cone-producing whitebark pine, succession was accelerating from whitebark pine to subalpine fir throughout the Bob Marshall Wilderness Complex.

Murray *et al.* (1998) reconstructed the fire history of subalpine forests of the relatively small, biogeographically isolated West Big Hole mountain range to test the hypothesis that their study area would be more affected by fire suppression than larger mountain ranges. The study area straddles the Continental Divide along the southwestern border of Montana and Idaho and includes six watersheds, three to the east and three to the west of the divide. Fire-scar and age-structure data were collected in plots centered on a transect from the base to the head of each watershed. Crossdating was not used, and fire dates were estimated to be accurate within 10 years. Maps for large fires were delimited from stand structure, but the indistinct boundaries of small surface fires restricted the effectiveness of mapping all fires. Fire history data extended back to AD 1754 for all sites. West side historical fire regimes were classified as mixed-severity and smaller relative to the more widespread, non-stand-replacing fires that characterized east side fire regimes. A dramatic shift toward smaller fires occurred on both sides of the divide in 1874, with west side fires shifting toward non-stand replacing and east side fires becoming more variable and of mixed-severity. The authors suggested that fire

suppression was not likely the cause of these landscape level changes, but that the widespread introduction of cattle and sheep may have reduced fuels sufficiently to affect the fire regimes of the area. Compared to larger mountain ranges, fires in the West Big Hole area were generally smaller and more frequent, perhaps due to a concentration of lightning strikes and the proximity of the range to steppe communities.

### **2.1.2 Fire and Whitebark Pine in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem**

Romme (1982) examined the diversity and evenness of species throughout a 7,300-ha subalpine watershed in Yellowstone National Park in relation to its fire history. Whitebark pine made up a small component of the forest, but commonly displayed scars as evidence of past surface fires. Stand boundaries within the watershed were delimited using aerial photographs, and age-structure and fire-scar data were gathered for each stand. Fifteen fires were recorded in the watershed since AD 1600, seven of which burned over four hectares and were considered ecologically significant. The MFI of individual stands within the study area ranged from 300–400 years; however, if fires that only burned over small areas were included, the MFI would be 32–183 years. Romme suggested that the landscape is a non-steady-state system characterized by long-term, cyclic changes in diversity and composition that are driven by the development of a landscape scale fuel complex, and experiences a different fire regime than that of the Northern Rockies. It is unlikely that fire suppression affected the landscape processes of this area.

Mattson and Reinhardt (1990) also examined the fire history of subalpine forests in the Greater Yellowstone Ecosystem. To evaluate the status of whitebark pine on the

Mount Washburn Massif, stands were first delineated from aerial photographs, then the age-structure, stand composition, and site characteristics were documented in 5–26 variable radius forest inventory plots spaced evenly throughout each stand. The fire history was derived from stand age-structure and indicated a MFI of 80–300 years. The distribution of whitebark pine was closely related to a site warmth index, as opposed to subalpine fir and Engelmann spruce that were more sensitive to wind exposure. Whitebark pine and lodgepole pine were highly competitive where they coexisted, gained early dominance of most stands, and eventually lost stand dominance to shade tolerant fir and spruce. Extremely cold and exposed sites were dominated by whitebark pine.

Barrett (1994a) investigated the fire history of three forest types on the Absaroka Mountains in the northeast corner of Yellowstone National Park. Fire-scar and age-structure data were gathered in low-elevation Douglas-fir forests, mid-elevation lodgepole pine forests, and high-elevation whitebark pine forests, and composite fire chronologies were constructed for all sites. The MFI reported for the Douglas-fir forest type was approximately 30 years, increased with elevation to about 200 years in lodgepole pine forests, and was > 350 years in most whitebark pine forests. Barrett noted, however, that several whitebark pines contained multiple fire scars, and that tree age was highly variable in whitebark pine stands, indicating a mixed-severity fire regime. Four stands of whitebark pine at treeline experienced MFIs of 66–204 years, and indicated a very patchy fire regime. Barrett concluded that fire suppression, while affecting low-elevation fire regimes, has not influenced high-elevation ecosystems.



### **2.1.3 Crossdated Fire History Research**

While these studies provided valuable information on the fire ecology of whitebark pine, a distinct pattern emerged between the reported MFI and the methods applied for each study. While non-crossdated fire histories conducted in stands of whitebark pine described relatively longer MFIs, two studies that developed crossdated fire histories for whitebark pine found lower MFIs. This suggests that fire was either more common at the sites of the crossdated studies, indicating spatial variability in the fire regimes of whitebark pine, or that non-crossdated fire history methods are not precise enough to accurately describe mixed-severity fire regimes.

Morgan and Bunting (1990) found MFIs of 13–46 years for whitebark pine forests on Russell Peak, Wyoming, based on 14 crossdated, fire-scarred samples. Coupled with age-structure data, the fire history illustrated a period of frequent fire activity from AD 1700–1850 that aligned with the establishment of a large cohort of whitebark pine. Fire activity began to decrease after 1850, and the last fire occurred in 1894, after which the abundance of subalpine fir continually increased until the time of the study. Morgan and Bunting hypothesized that whitebark pine forests burn often when young with abundant fine fuels under an open canopy, go through a period of relatively infrequent fires as the canopy closes, and then burn in old age as fuel loads develop due to senescence, encroachment of fire intolerant species, and insect-caused mortality.

Kipfmüller (2003) conducted the only other crossdated fire history of subalpine forests that contained whitebark pine, and examined the fire-climate relationships in four watersheds in the Selway Bitterroot Wilderness Area, on the border between Montana and Idaho. Fire dates were obtained from 96 crossdated fire-scarred samples collected

from lodgepole pine, whitebark pine, and Douglas fir, and fire extent was estimated using stand boundaries coupled with stand age-structure data. The fire history data illustrated mixed-severity fire regimes in all four watersheds, with numerous small fires and seventeen widespread fire years identified over the past 800 years. MFI values ranged from 20–170 years at the watershed scale to 139–341 years for individual stands. A reduction in fire activity occurred across all four sites *ca.* AD 1935, and was likely the result of fire suppression. Superposed epoch analyses (SEA) were used to assess the influence of climate prior to the fire events, and revealed a significant relationship between two consecutive dry years and widespread fire events. The relationship between El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and fire activity was less distinct, and may have been masked by the occurrence of widespread fires related to non-ENSO conditions. Kipfmüller compared the fire history data to spatial patterns of drought across the United States, and suggested the existence of a relationship between ENSO and widespread fires, as well as the potential presence of other synoptic regimes related to fire activity.

## **2.2 Dendrochronology of Whitebark Pine**

### **2.2.1 Dendroglaciology**

The longevity and environmental tolerance of whitebark pine make it a strong candidate for several lines of dendrochronological research, but relatively little work has taken advantage of this. The dendrochronological potential of whitebark pine gained recognition when Luckman *et al.* (1984) documented several whitebark pines with ages in excess of 700 years in the Canadian Rockies. Luckman followed his preliminary

assessment with several projects that used evidence obtained from subalpine tree species to describe periods of glacial advance in the Canadian Rockies (Luckman 1994, 1995, 2000). Two dendrochronological methods were employed in these studies. First, the establishment dates of tree stands on moraines were used to estimate the age of the surface, from which the date of glacial advance and retreat could be inferred. Second, remnant and sub-fossil trees and stumps in glacier fore-fields were crossdated to construct death-date charts, thereby giving an estimate of both the timing and rate of glacial advance. These data were synthesized, compared to reconstructions of temperature and precipitation, and provided evidence of region-wide glacial advances during AD 1200–1300 and 1400–1600, and abundant evidence of regionally synchronous advances in the early 1700s and early 1800s (Luckman and Villalba 2001). Summer temperature was the primary driver of these fluctuations, but precipitation also played a strong role in some areas. Luckman also directed research on extending chronologies throughout the Canadian Rockies, and eventually found two whitebark pine trees that were at least 1,013 and 1,049 years of age (Luckman and Youngblut 1999).

### **2.2.2 Dendroecology**

Dunwiddie (1977) investigated tree invasion of a subalpine meadow in the Wind River Mountains of western Montana, and was the first dendroecologist to study whitebark pine. The study was conducted by cutting 347 trees and saplings of whitebark pine, lodgepole pine, and Engelmann spruce in a 13×8 m plot that extended along a clear edge of mature forest, and determining the age and growth trends within these samples. Tree invasion was slow and relatively steady from AD 1889 to 1940, after which a

significant acceleration in tree establishment rates occurred until a sudden cessation of establishment after 1962. Growth rates of trees within the meadow were higher than growth rates of trees in the forests, indicating that factors other than climate may restrict tree regeneration within the meadow. When compared to the grazing records, meadow invasion increased slightly when the area was heavily grazed, and the shift to rapid invasion occurred when grazing pressure was reduced, but still present on the landscape. Cattle were removed from the landscape in the early 1960s. Dunwiddie hypothesized that heavy grazing during the early 1900s decreased competition from meadow vegetation, but also led to increased seedling mortality. Fewer cattle in the area during the 1940s–1950s reduced competition from meadow vegetation but did not lead to high seedling mortality and instead facilitated the establishment of young trees and subsequent encroachment into the meadow. With the complete removal of cattle from the area, seedlings could no longer out-compete the meadow grasses and shrubs, and the meadow invasion ceased.

Peterson *et al.* (1990) conducted a dendroecological assessment of long-term growth trends in the subalpine forests of the central Sierra Nevada. They focused on high-elevation lodgepole pine and whitebark pine because these trees, growing at their ecological limit, were likely sensitive to small changes in the environmental factors that dictate their growth. The study examined changes in basal area of each species, calculated from ring widths, for the late AD 1700s up to the 1980s. Principle components analyses found climate explained between 22–40% of the variance in basal area for whitebark pine, depending on age class. Climate-response analyses found tree growth was significantly affected by spring temperature and annual precipitation. A trend of

increasing basal area at an increasing rate and unrelated to climate was found in the chronologies of whitebark pine, similar to patterns of increased growth found in Great Basin bristlecone pine (*Pinus longaeva* D.K. Bailey) in the nearby White Mountains (Graybill and Idso 1993), suggesting the possible effects of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization on growth in upper-elevation trees.

Garfin (1998) used whitebark pine tree-ring data to examine the relationship of anomalous weather conditions and tree growth in the Sierra Nevada of California. He found winters that preceded years of high growth in whitebark pine were warm and wet, caused by anomalously low pressure in the northern Pacific Ocean, anomalously high pressure over northwestern Canada, and anomalously low pressure across the southern United States, all of which leads to a southwesterly flow of warm maritime air into California. Extreme low growth in whitebark pines was associated with a shift in the Westerlies north of their mean position and enhanced ridging in the northeast Pacific, which advects cool dry air into the Sierra Nevada. Garfin concluded that synoptic dendroclimatological studies such as his may provide insight about atmospheric circulation that will increase understanding of past climate variability derived from tree-ring studies.

Murray *et al.* (2000) examined the historical trends and successional status of whitebark pine over 240 years in six subalpine forests of the West Big Hole mountain range, where the fire history had previously been examined (Murray *et al.* 1998). Size-class and species composition data were collected along a transect from the base to the head of each watershed, and species dominance was calculated at 20-yr intervals using ring-width-derived basal areas for distinct size classes. Mid-seral forests dominated all

six watersheds until 1950, when late seral stands became more dominant on the landscape. Overall, an 85% increase in basal area was found among all species since the 1870s, while whitebark pine dominance had decreased steadily over the same period. The authors suggested fire suppression and grazing may be the cause of advancing succession, and proposed active management may be required to maintain the historical structure and composition of this landscape.

### **2.2.3 Dendroclimatology**

Perkins and Swetnam (1996) evaluated the potential of whitebark pine in central Idaho for reconstructing long-term climate and ecological processes. They constructed tree-ring chronologies from four sites in central Idaho that all extended at least 700 years, and included the oldest known living whitebark pine at the time ( $> 1270$  years old). Crossdating with other tree-ring chronologies from the region was problematic due to relatively low inter-annual ring-width variability (chronology mean sensitivity ranged from 0.12–0.17), but the investigators succeeded by using several distinct marker rings. Correlation coefficients within and between sites ranged from 0.5–0.6, indicating strong statistical crossdating for high-elevation trees. Sites with similar aspects crossdated more strongly than sites in closer proximity. The peak mortality caused by a mountain pine beetle outbreak was determined by the outer ring of sampled snags to be 1930, and was synchronous at all four sites. Climate-response analyses revealed a similar signal among the four sites, with a positive correlation between ring-width and winter/spring precipitation, and a negative correlation between ring-width and May and July temperatures, indicating tree growth at these sites is both moisture and temperature

limited. The study concluded that whitebark pine has excellent potential for dendroclimatological and dendroecological research.

KipfmueLLer (2003) used whitebark pine to reconstruct climate and examine the fire-climate relationships of the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area on the border between Idaho and Montana. He first examined the climate-tree growth relationships of whitebark pine and alpine larch within the study area, and then used these findings to reconstruct summer temperatures over the past 748 years. These analyses were conducted on six tree-ring chronologies, with individual chronologies of whitebark pine extending as far back as AD 721. Whitebark pine growth was significantly related to warm July temperatures, but a potential climate threshold was identified in the mid 1900s, when the response of whitebark pine to warmer summer temperatures diminished and was superseded by a negative relationship to spring temperatures. KipfmueLLer hypothesized that this shift may be related to changing snow pack conditions and resulting moisture stress, and is potentially an expression of shifting ocean-atmospheric linkages. Despite the shifting climate-tree growth relationship, the climate reconstruction based on two alpine larch chronologies and one whitebark pine chronology explained 36% of the variance in summer temperature over the calibration period. Several distinct warm and cool periods were evident over the reconstruction, but no evidence of the Medieval Warm Period and limited evidence of cooling during the Little Ice Age were found.

## **Chapter Three**

### **3. Study Site Descriptions**

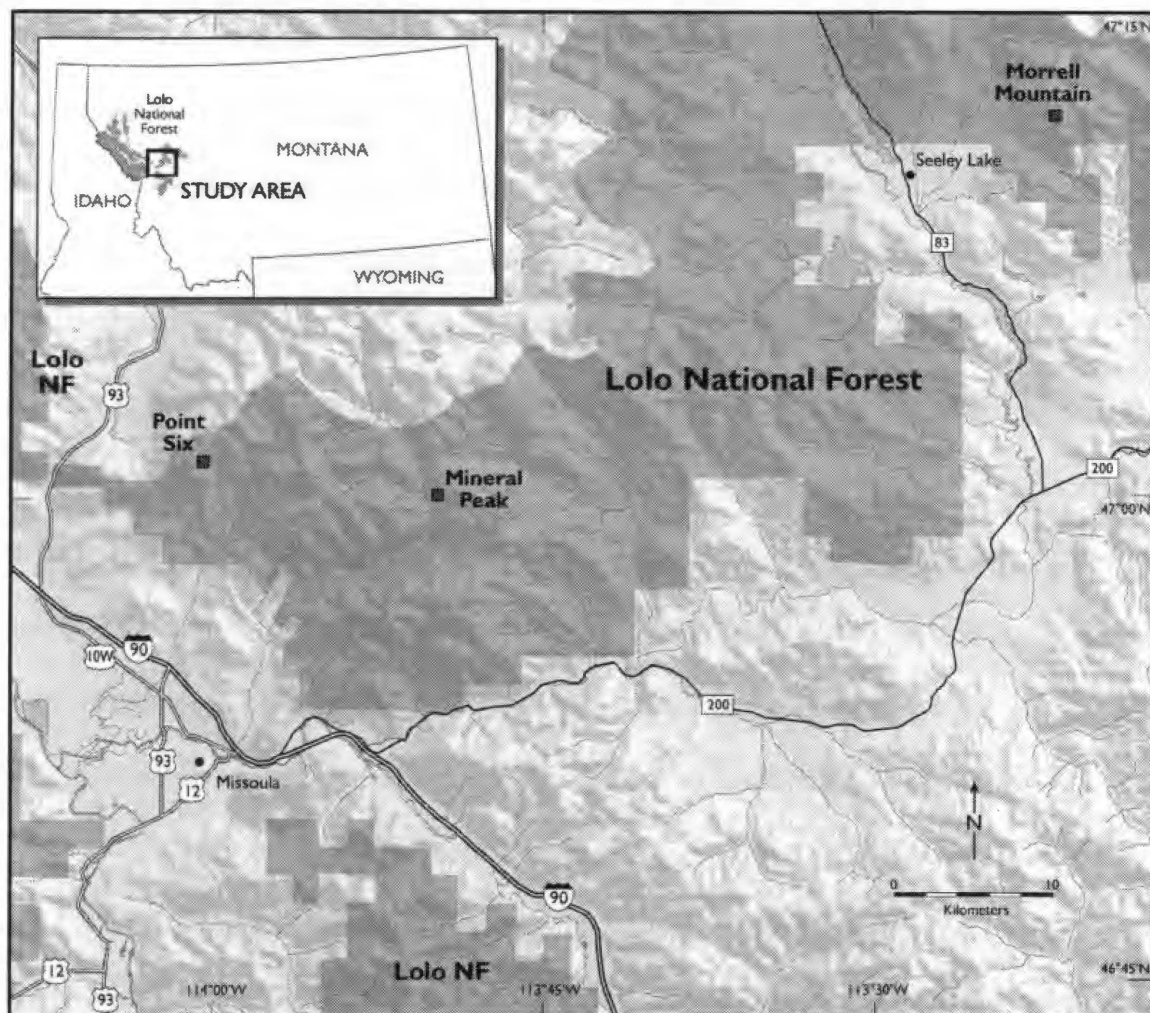
#### **3.1 General Setting of the Lolo National Forest, Western Montana**

The Lolo National Forest was established as the Lolo Forest Reserve in 1906, and has since grown to over 810,000 hectares of mountainous forestland in western Montana (Figure 3.1; USFS 1998). The forest is divided into five ranger districts: the central Missoula and Ninemile Ranger Districts, the Plains/Thompson Falls Ranger District in the Northwest area of the forest, the Seeley Lake Ranger District in the eastern portion of the forest, and the Superior Ranger District just to the west of Ninemile. The forest headquarters are based in Missoula, and over 300 personnel are employed full time for day-to-day operations. The entire forest is on the western slope of the Continental Divide, which runs along the eastern edge of the forest.

##### **3.1.1 Climate**

The Lolo National Forest is affected by both North Pacific maritime and continental air masses, creating a diverse climate over the region (Arno and Hammerly 1984). The forest lies within the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's Montana Climate Division 1 (Western). Average annual temperature is 6° C, with summer and winter temperatures averaging 13° C and -2° C, respectively. Annual precipitation averages 480 mm, with the majority falling over the winter and late spring months (NCDC 2005). A rain shadow from the Bitterroot Range creates a gradient of decreasing moisture from west to east, with some peaks on the Idaho-Montana border receiving





**Figure 3.1** Locations of the three study sites in the Lolo National Forest, Western Montana.

nearly 760 mm of precipitation a year, compared to 250–430 mm for much of the eastern portion of the national forest (Owenby *et al.* 1991).

Ocean-atmospheric teleconnections that source from the Pacific Ocean affect the region in several ways. The ENSO phenomenon occurs about every 3–7 years, and is caused by a shift in the pressure systems of the tropical Pacific. This shift weakens the Peru high, diminishing the east-west pressure gradient that drives the tradewinds, and in turn reduces the Peru current and coldwater upwelling along the western coast of South America (Allan 2000). The development of El Niño conditions, the intrusion of a large body of warm water into the ocean along the equator adjacent to South America, modifies seasonal weather across western North America (Swetnam and Betancourt 1990, D'Arrigo and Jacoby 1991, Haston and Michaelsen 1994, Dettinger *et al.* 2001, Kitzberger *et al.* 2001, Pohl *et al.* 2003). In the Northern Rockies, El Niño events bring relatively drier summers and warmer winters (Allan 2000). Widespread fire years may be linked to ENSO activity (Kipfmueeller 2003), but this relationship is somewhat ambiguous as several factors affect fire behavior in the region (Bessie and Johnson 1995).

ENSO activity is directly related to the Pacific/North American pattern (PNA), which is defined by the degree to which circulation patterns over North America are zonal or meridional (Keables 1992, Bell and Janowiak 1995). The PNA shifts on inter-seasonal, inter-annual, and inter-decadal scales. The positive phase is indicated by a deepening of the Aleutian low that forms ridges over Canada, leading to strong meridional flow and enhanced anticyclonic circulation over western North America (Leathers *et al.* 1991). Periods of positive phase PNA lead to the deflection of Pacific

storms to the north of the Northern Rockies, causing drier winters throughout the region (Cayan 1996).

The Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) is an ENSO-like phenomenon that involves the movement of warm and cold ocean water in the North Pacific on a multi-decadal scale (20–30-yr cycles), and creates regional to hemispheric influences on climate (Mantua and Hare 2002). The PDO affects the intensity of the Aleutian low. The positive (warm) phase indicates a strengthened low, which creates a blocking mechanism for the movement of Pacific storms into the interior of North America, much like the effects associated with a positive phase PNA (Bond and Harrison 2000). This results in relatively warmer, drier winters in the Lolo National Forest region of the Northern Rockies (Mantua *et al.* 1997). The persistence of the PDO creates a modulating effect on the climate variability induced by ENSO and the PNA, accentuating or muting the expression of these phenomena when in or out of phase, respectively (Kipfmüller 2003).

The recently described Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) is based on temperature variations in the Atlantic Basin on a scale of 60–100 years, and is linked to fluctuations in the intensity of the thermohaline circulation (Gray *et al.* 2003). Although the mechanisms are not fully understood, the AMO may have a modulating effect on ENSO activity and precipitation in the Rocky Mountains (Gray *et al.* 2004), and has been linked with increased fire activity in the Colorado Front Range during the positive phase of the AMO and decreased fire activity during the negative phase (Sibold and Veblen 2005).

### **3.1.2 Geology**

The modern landscape of the Northern Rocky Mountains and the Lolo National Forest was sculpted by the weathering, erosion, and glaciations that have occurred since the original formation of the region approximately 40–70 mya during the Laramide orogeny (Peterson 1986). The bedrock of the region is composed of Proterozoic igneous rock, overlain in places with Devonian and Cambrian sedimentary rock (Alt and Hyndman 1972) and Quaternary sediments from glacial activity and glacial Lake Missoula (Alt 2001). Elevations of the Lolo National Forest range from 730 m below Thompson Falls on the Clark Fork River, up to 2,805 m on the summit of Scapegoat Mountain. The majority of the mountain ranges within the forest are between 2,000–2,500 m in elevation.

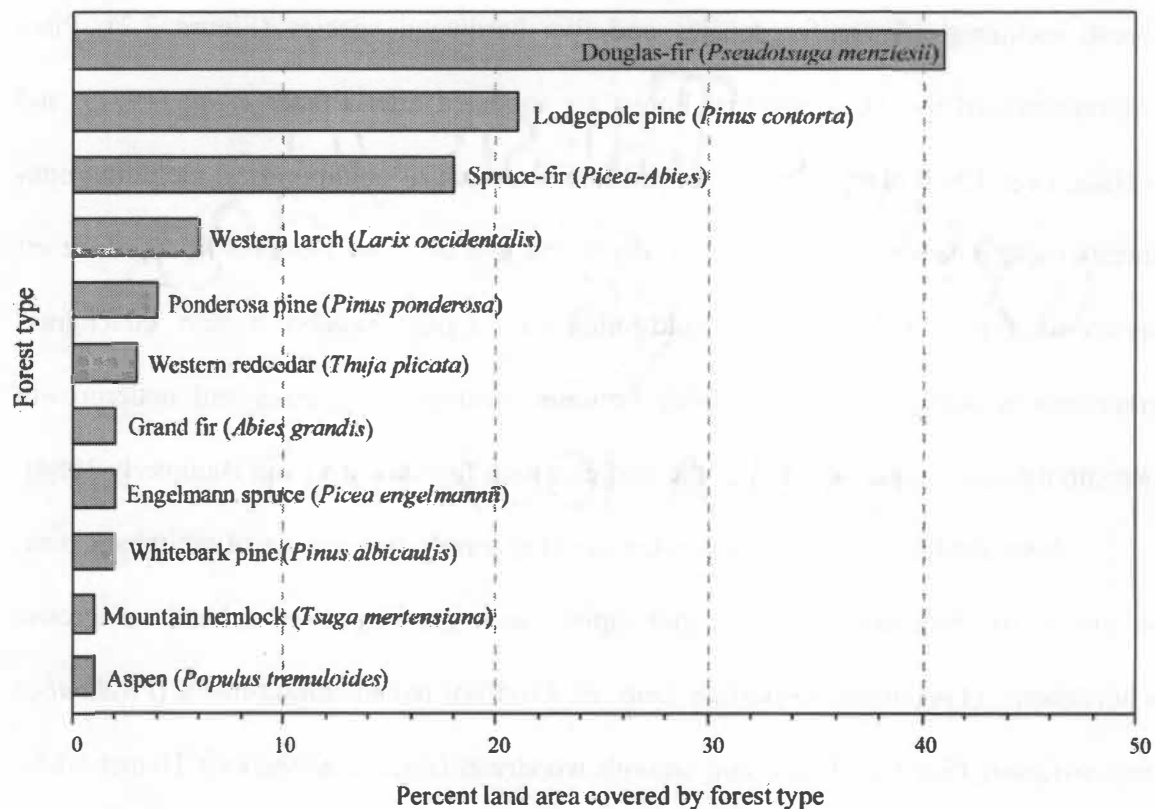
### **3.1.3 Soils**

The soils of the Lolo National Forest are relatively young and rocky, reflecting their mountainous setting (Pfister *et al.* 1977). Soil mantles are better developed on the windward slopes due to wind-deposited loess and volcanic ash from the west (Daubenmire and Daubenmire 1968). The USDA soil taxonomy divides the soils of Montana into five subgroups, including Cryoborolls on the lower elevation slopes, Cryoboralfs on mid-elevation slopes, Cryandepts on mid-elevation slopes with volcanic ash deposits, Cryochrepts on higher elevation and steep slopes, and Torriorthents on the steepest slopes (USDA Soil Conservation Service 1975).

### 3.1.4 Plant Communities

Forestland covers over 95% of the total area of the Lolo National Forest (DeBlander 2000). The complex geologic structure of the region creates a diverse array of site conditions, and fourteen coniferous forest types are identified throughout the forest, including 17 conifer species and five hardwood species (Figure 3.2). Plant communities of the Lolo National Forest are modeled after Pfister *et al.* (1977), and include over 1,500 plant species grouped into a mosaic of communities, including non-forest (rock, meadow, and grassland), dry-warm and dry-cool Douglas-fir types, moist spruce-fir types, and cool and cold alpine fir types. Sagebrush and bunchgrass communities occupy the driest valley bottoms, with sparse grasses and undergrowth beneath the continuous canopies of the mid-elevation forests (Arno and Hammerly 1984).

Near treeline, the forests open up, creating a park-like setting of whitebark pine, subalpine fir, Engelmann spruce, and alpine larch growing over a heath of grouse whortleberry (*Vaccinium scoparium* Leib. ex Coville), red mountain-heath (*Phyllodoce empetrifomis* (Sm.) D. Don), and smooth woodrush (*Luzula hitchcockii* Hamet-Ahti), interspersed with meadows of bear grass (*Xerophyllum tenax* (Pursh) Nutt.). Numerous shrubs and herbs compose the upper subalpine plant communities of the Lolo National Forest, including elk sedge (*Carex geyeri* Boott), pinegrass (*Calamagrostis rubescens* Buckl.), twin flower (*Linnaea borealis* spp. *borealis* L.), shooting star (*Dodecatheon pulchellum* (Raf.) Merr.), mountain blue-eyed grass (*Sisyrinchium montanum* var. *montanum* Greene), alpine fireweed (*Epilobium latifolium* L.), yellow avalanche-lily (*Erythronium grandiflorum* Pursh), mountain arnica (*Arnica montana* L.), arrowleaf ragwort (*Senecio triangularis* Hook.), and several other less common species.



**Figure 3.2** Forest types and forestland cover of the Lolo National Forest, Montana. Adapted from DeBlander 2000.

### **3.1.5 Land Use History**

#### **3.1.5.1 Pre-Euro-American Settlement**

Several Native American groups used the region of the Northern Rockies currently included in the Lolo National Forest, including the Blackfoot, the Kootenai, the Nez Perce, and the Salish tribes (Hughes 1983, Sutton 2000). Native American impacts on the land included several permanent settlements, hunting, gathering, and maintaining an extensive trail system (Sutton 2000). One famous Native American trail network in the Lolo National Forest is the Lolo Trail mentioned throughout the oral histories of the Nez Perce and Salish. In 1805, Lewis and Clark were guided along 250 km of this trail as they traveled across the Rocky Mountains, through what is now the Lolo National Forest (Space 2001). Seventy years later the trail again served history as the Nez Perce followed it when fleeing from General Oliver Otis Howard's army during the Nez Perce War of 1877 (McWhorter 1984). This trail was often maintained with intentionally set fires (Lewis and Ferguson 1999, Barrett 2000), and is one example of the impacts on the landscape due to the use of fire by the indigenous people. Native Americans throughout the region used intentionally-set fires for a variety of reasons, including the clearing of land and forests surrounding settlements (Barrett and Arno 1982), travel corridors (Lewis and Ferguson 1999), driving wild game, preparing pastures, facilitation of food gathering (Lewis 1985), and for warfare (Hughes 1983). While the landscape-level effects of these actions are still debated (Vale 2002, Pyne 2003), significant impacts to local vegetation structure and communities around occupied sites have been documented throughout the region (Arno *et al.* 1997, Barrett and Arno 1999).

### **3.1.5.2 Mining History**

The Lolo National Forest is relatively rich in mineral resources, and mining operations have existed in the region nearly continuously following a gold and silver rush in the mid-1860s (Safford 2004). Prospecting occurred throughout the region, and several abandoned mines are now scattered across the landscape. Following the initial rush for precious metals, mining interests broadened to include numerous mineral resources including antimony, barite, copper, sapphire, gold, and silver. By the late 1980s, mining activity covered 107 hectares of the National Forest. Sand and gravel extraction also occurs at several sites, and while oil and gas have not yet been exploited within the forest, large-scale exploration began in the mid 1980s, with over 360,000 hectares under lease (USFS 1986).

### **3.1.5.3 Logging History**

While the area has been settled since the late 1800s, large-scale logging was restricted due to the rugged terrain and did not begin until the region was opened to rail at the turn of the century (Pyne 1982, DeBlander 2000). Since then, extensive harvesting has continued throughout the more productive low- and mid-elevation forests of ponderosa pine, Douglas-fir, western larch, and lodgepole pine, and the structural legacy of clear-cutting is still widely evident on the landscape (USFS 1986). Due to inaccessibility, many high elevation forests in the Lolo have never been logged (DeBlander 2000).



#### **3.1.5.4 Agriculture**

Agriculture has had a relatively minimal impact on the Lolo National Forest as natural resource utilization has focused primarily on timber (DeBlander 2000). The largest agricultural land use is for pasture, with cattle grazing permitted on just under 90,000 hectares of bottomland range and forestland. The impacts of grazing on the fire regimes of this region have not been studied, but are likely similar to those found in the American Southwest, where research shows a reduction in fire occurrence due to the removal of fine fuels (Savage and Swetnam 1990, Grissino-Mayer and Swetnam 1995, Touchan *et al.* 1995). These impacts would predominantly occur in lower elevation forests where grazing was concentrated, but sheep and cattle pasturage at high elevations may have altered those regimes as well (Belsky and Blumenthal 1997).

#### **3.1.6 Forest Management**

The current forest plan for the Lolo National Forest was published in 1986 and an updated management plan is currently undergoing review. The 1986 Forest Plan delineated 28 management areas across the forest according to different management goals, resource potentials, and limitations (USFS 1986). Of the total area, 147,000 hectares are designated as wilderness, and receive minimal management intervention. The management objectives of the remaining areas vary, but the following broad objectives apply to management decisions throughout the forest (USFS 1986):

- Provide a sustained yield of timber and other outputs at a level that will help support the economic structure of local communities and provide for regional and national needs.

- Provide habitat for viable populations of all indigenous wildlife species and for increasing populations of big-game animals.
- Provide for a broad spectrum of dispersed recreation involving sufficient acreage to maintain a low user density compatible with public expectations.
- Provide a pleasing and healthy environment, including clear air, clean water, and diverse ecosystems.
- Emphasize conservation of energy resources.
- Encourage a “Good Host” concept when dealing with the public.
- For threatened and endangered species occurring on the Forest, including the grizzly bear, gray wolf, peregrine falcon, and bald eagle, manage to contribute to the recovery of each species to non-threatened status.
- Meet or exceed state water quality standards.

#### **3.1.6.1 Timber Management**

Over 410,000 hectares of the Lolo National Forest have been deemed suitable for timber production (USFS 1986). The estimated volume of saw timber on these lands, based on the annual average volume change from 1976–1985, is 8.8 billion board feet (USFS 1986), with Douglas-fir, western larch, and lodgepole pine accounting for 75% of this number (DeBlander 2000). The projected annual output of timber from 1996 through 2035 is 131 million board feet, with reforestation and stand improvement projects on over 1,000 acres per year (USFS 1986).

### **3.1.6.2 Pest Management**

The major pest concern for the Lolo National Forest is the mountain pine beetle, and outbreaks in the early 1900s and the 1980s led to widespread mortality in lodgepole and whitebark pine forests throughout several regions of the Forest (Logan and Powell 2001). Management of mountain pine beetle includes a risk-rating system, with treatment priorities applied accordingly (USFS 1986). Integrated pest management techniques include the removal of highly susceptible, heavily infected or infested individual trees and small-scale (< 200 acres) clear cutting (USFS 1986).

### **3.1.6.3 Fire Management**

The 1986 Forest Plan recognizes the ecological importance of fire on the landscape, and encourages the use of prescribed fire within the guidelines of the annually revised Fire Management Action Plan and federal fire policy (USFS 1986). The primary objectives of fire management in the Lolo National Forest are fire suppression to protect resources and property, habitat improvement for elk and grizzly bears, maintenance and restoration of the composition and structure of plant communities, and hazard reduction in high-risk areas. The goal for average annual acreage burned across the forest is 1,200 hectares for wildfires and 3,800 hectares for prescribed fires and prescribed natural fires (USFS 1986), although this will likely change in the revised Forest Plan in response to recent extreme fire years.

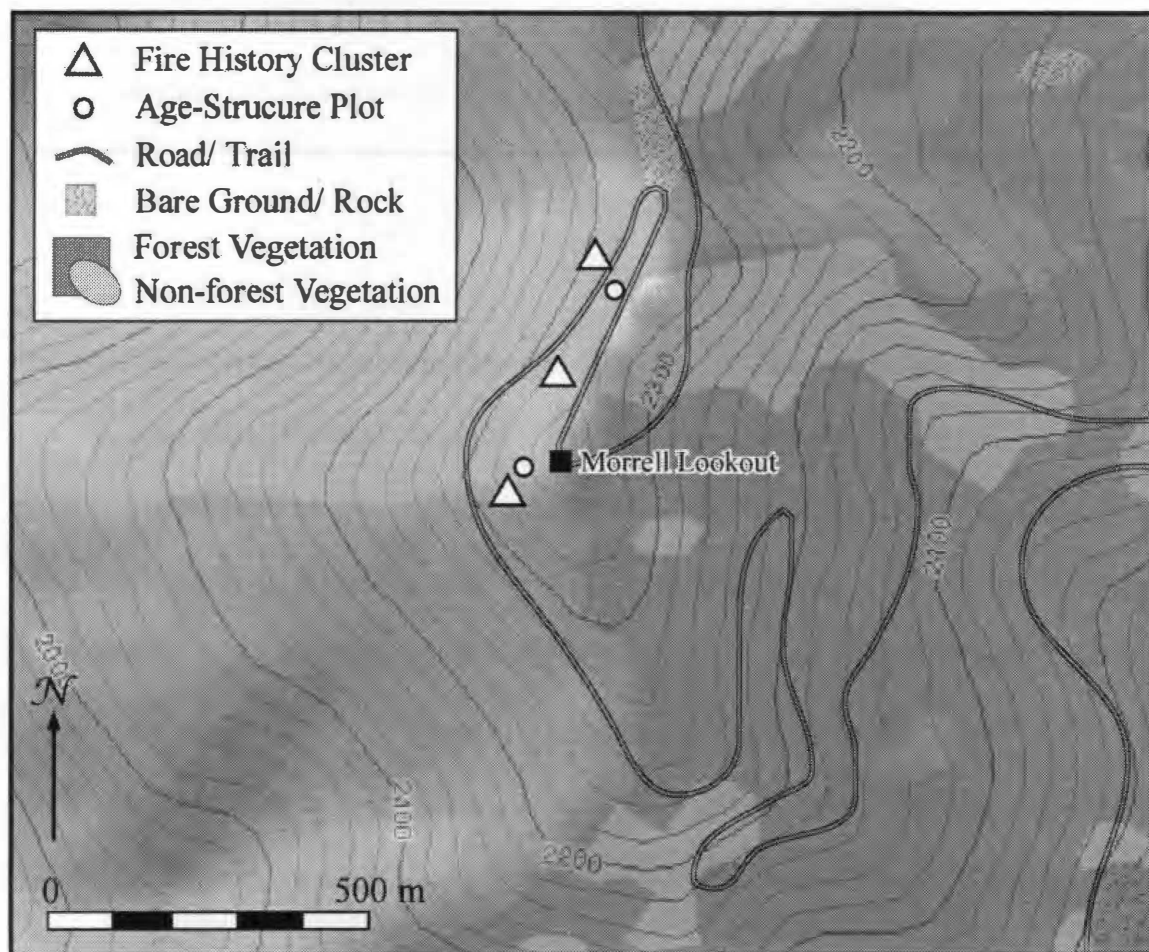
#### **3.1.6.4 Whitebark Pine Management**

The 1986 Lolo Forest Plan makes no mention of whitebark pine as a resource or an at-risk species. Management Area 27 is composed of scattered parcels of steep, rocky forestland, and includes much of the whitebark pine in the forest (USFS 1986), but these sites are deemed not economically or environmentally suitable for timber extraction with current technologies, and the most recent forest resources survey found no whitebark pine in suitable timber production areas (DeBlander 2000). The revisions to the 1986 Forest Plan will include whitebark pine as an “at-risk” species, with special conservation considerations (Vick Applegate, Lolo National Forest Silviculturalist, personal communication).

### **3.2 Morrell Mountain**

#### **3.2.1 Environmental Setting**

Morrell Mountain (47° 11' N, 113° 21' W) is a 2,380 m peak at the southern edge of the Swan Range, within the Seeley Lake Ranger District of the Lolo National Forest (Figure 3.3). The mountain is composed of Precambrian argillite and quartzite, overlain by the Piegan group of limestone and shale and unconsolidated Quaternary glacial deposits of silt, sand, gravel, and hot spring tufa (Ross *et al.* 1955, Raines and Johnson 1996). Slopes near the peak of the mountain (2,350–2,370 m) generally ranged from 30–40% (Table 3.1).



**Figure 3.3** The study site on Morrell Mountain.

**Table 3.1** General setting of the study sites in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.

Site	Lat./Lon.	Elevation (m)	Slope (%)	Community type <sup>†</sup>
Morrell Mountain	47°11' N, 113°21' W	2,350–2,370	30–40	<i>Abies lasiocarpa</i> - <i>Pinus albicaulis</i> / <i>Vaccinium scoparium</i>
Mineral Peak	47°00' N, 113°49' W	2,200–2,250	30–40	<i>Pinus albicaulis</i> - <i>Abies lasiocarpa</i>
Point Six	47°02' N, 114°00' W	2,250–2,350	25–45	<i>Abies lasiocarpa</i> / <i>Luzula hitchcockii</i>

<sup>†</sup> from Pfister *et al.* 1977

Western larch dominates the valley bottoms of this area, with ponderosa pine and Douglas-fir occupying the xeric and mesic lower slopes, respectively. Douglas-fir and lodgepole pine mix at the lower elevations, eventually moving to pure lodgepole pine stands from *ca.* 1,800 m to 2,100 m. The subalpine zone extends from 2,100 m to 2,380 m. The lower subalpine zone is characterized on the south side of the peak by a continuous canopy of mature whitebark pine and subalpine fir that opens up in the upper alpine zone into clusters of subalpine fir and whitebark pine, interspersed with alpine meadows (Figure 3.4). The northern slopes of the subalpine zone are covered with dense subalpine fir forests. A belt of the *Abies lasiocarpa*-*Pinus albicaulis*/*Vaccinium scoparium* habitat type covers the highest elevations of Morrell Mountain (Pfister *et al.* 1977). Evidence of past disturbances exists throughout the subalpine zone, including fire scars, lightning scars, and injuries from tree and rock falls. Numerous beetle-killed whitebark pine snags are scattered across the forest, and the effects of blister rust are evident throughout, with dead crowns and red-needles on the majority of the living whitebark pine.



**Figure 3.4** A south-facing alpine meadow in the transition between the lower and upper subalpine forest types on Morrell Mountain. The dead whitebark pine trees in the background were killed by a mountain pine beetle (*Dendroctonus ponderosae* Hopkins) outbreak in the 1980s and recent white pine blister rust (*Cronartium ribicola* (A. Dietr.) J.C. Fisch.) infections.

### **3.2.2 Land Use and Disturbance History**

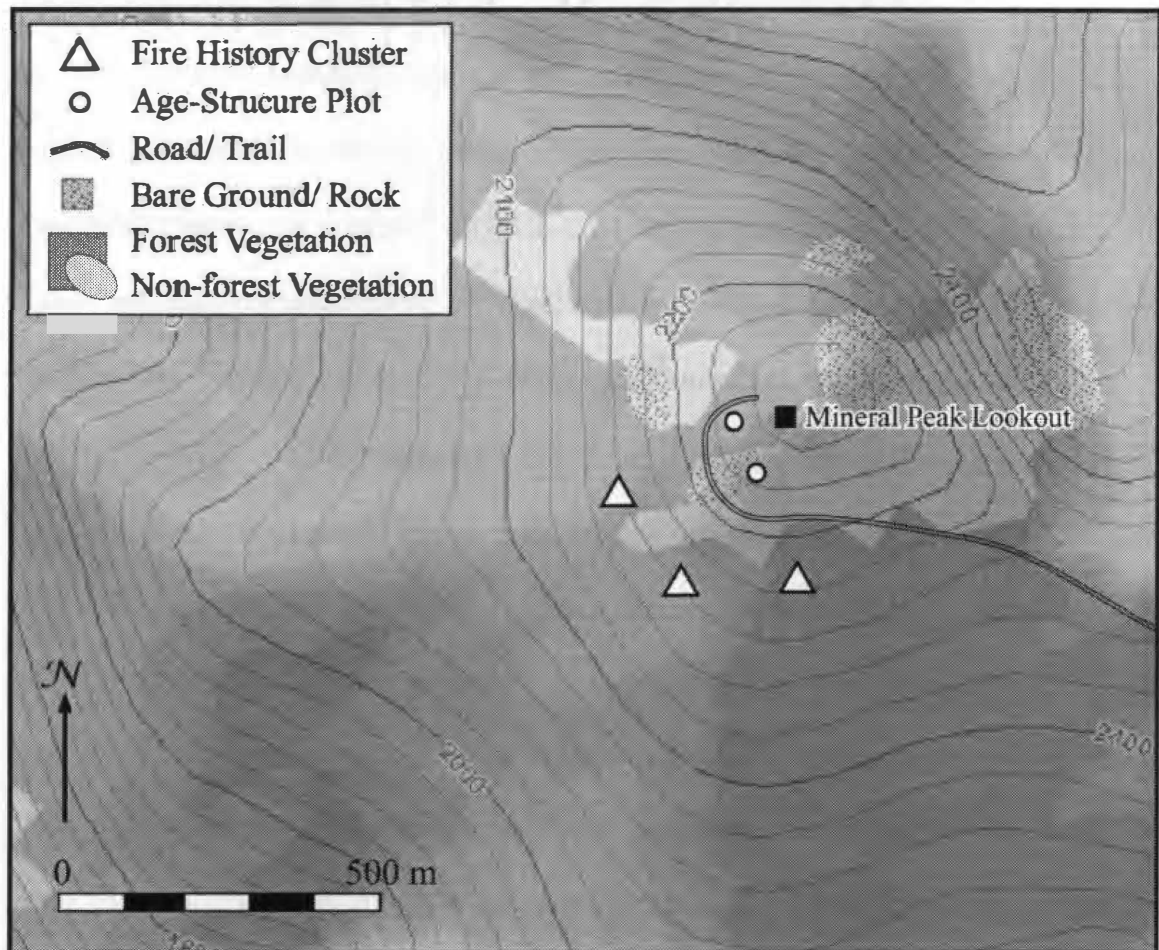
Morrell Mountain has been a site of near continuous anthropogenic activity in recent history. Native American activity is evident in the middle elevation lodgepole pine stands on Morrell Mountain in the form of bark peel scars (Grissino-Mayer, personal communication), and research also suggests the fire regime of the lowlands near Seeley Lake was altered by anthropogenic activity (Arno *et al.* 1997). Timber has been extracted from the surrounding area since the early 1900s, and the Morrell Mountain fire lookout was established in 1921 (USFS 1986). Several stands in the area surrounding Morrell Mountain were harvested in the 1960s, including a clear cut of diseased lodgepole pine on the southwest flank of the mountain (Bill Oelig, Seeley Lake Ranger District, personal communication). The Bureau of Land Management issued resource exploration leases for the area from 1980 to 1985, but no mining or extraction has occurred (BLM 2001).

## **3.3 Mineral Peak**

### **3.3.1 Environmental Setting**

Mineral Peak (47° 00' N, 113° 49' W) rises to 2,270 m in the southeast corner of the 26,300 hectare Rattlesnake National Recreation Area and Wilderness (RNRAW), in the Missoula Ranger District of the Lolo National Forest (Figure 3.5). The peak is at the head of the Gold Creek valley, a primary watershed for the city of Missoula (USFS 1986). The geology of Mineral Peak is composed of the Missoula Group of Precambrian argillite, quartzite, sandy or quartzitic argillite, impure quartzite, and impure limestone, with some Precambrian shale and siltstone deposits (Ross *et al.* 1955, Raines and





**Figure 3.5** The study site on Mineral Peak.

Johnson 1996). Slopes generally range from 30–40% throughout the upper elevations (2,200–2,250 m) of the peak (Table 3.1).

The mesic valley and lower slopes are covered with nearly pure western larch forests, with Douglas-fir and ponderosa pine occupying the more xeric aspects and ridges. The mid-elevation forests (1,500–1,800 m) are composed predominantly of Douglas-fir and lodgepole pine, and surround the 31 hectare Shoofly Meadows wetland, one of two locations in the contiguous United States where a rare moss, *Sphagnum riparium* Ångstr., has been documented (USFS 1986). Above the wetlands, the forest shifts through a belt of pure lodgepole pine (1,800–1,950 m) into subalpine forest types composed of subalpine fir, whitebark pine, and Engelmann spruce (2,000–2,270 m). Whitebark pine, fir, and spruce create a continuous canopy in the lower subalpine zone, thinning out in the upper subalpine zone to scattered clumps of living and dead whitebark pine, often surrounded by fir and spruce saplings and trees, with extensive layering in the lower branches (Figure 3.6). Mature *Pinus albicaulis*-*Abies lasiocarpa* community type (Pfister *et al.* 1977) covers the uppermost elevations and extends downslope on the west, west-southwest, and southwest aspects from the peak in narrow bands separated by open talus. Evidence of past fires on Mineral Peak is common, with numerous whitebark pine trees displaying one or multiple fire scars. Lightning scars extending from the crown of a tree to the base are also common. The talus is generally stable, but some trees displayed injuries that were potentially caused by physical abrasion or impact. Whitebark pine snags are scattered throughout the forest and across the talus slopes, with beetle galleries evident on most. Blister rust is ubiquitous.



**Figure 3.6** An example of the forest structure on the talus slopes of the upper subalpine forest zone on Mineral Peak. This area experienced high levels of mortality among whitebark pine due to mountain pine beetle activity and blister rust infections. The layering exhibited by the subalpine fir in this photograph is common throughout the study site.

### **3.3.2 Land Use and Disturbance History**

A fire lookout was constructed on Mineral Peak in 1920, and staffed continuously until the 1970s (NHLR 2005). The area was logged in the early 1900s (USFS 1986), and gold prospecting took place on the lower slopes of the mountain in the 1950s (USBM 1992), but Mineral Peak has since experienced relatively little human disturbance. Due to the area's value as a municipal watershed for Missoula, the RNRAW was established in 1980. Mineral Peak was incorporated into the non-wilderness portion of the reserve to function as a buffer between the wilderness area and the land directly to the east of Mineral Peak, which is owned and has been actively managed by the Plum Creek Timber Company for the past 50 years (USFS 1986). In 2003, the Mineral-Primm Fire Complex burned over 10,000 hectares in the Gold Creek Valley, over half of which was on Plum Creek land and the rest in the Lolo National Forest, including several hundred hectares of the RNRAW (NIFC 2005). While Mineral Peak did not burn, the effects of the fire are clearly visible from the mountain (Figure 3.7). Suppression costs for the fire exceeded \$22 million, and in 2004, the burn site was designated as a Healthy Forests fire salvage project.

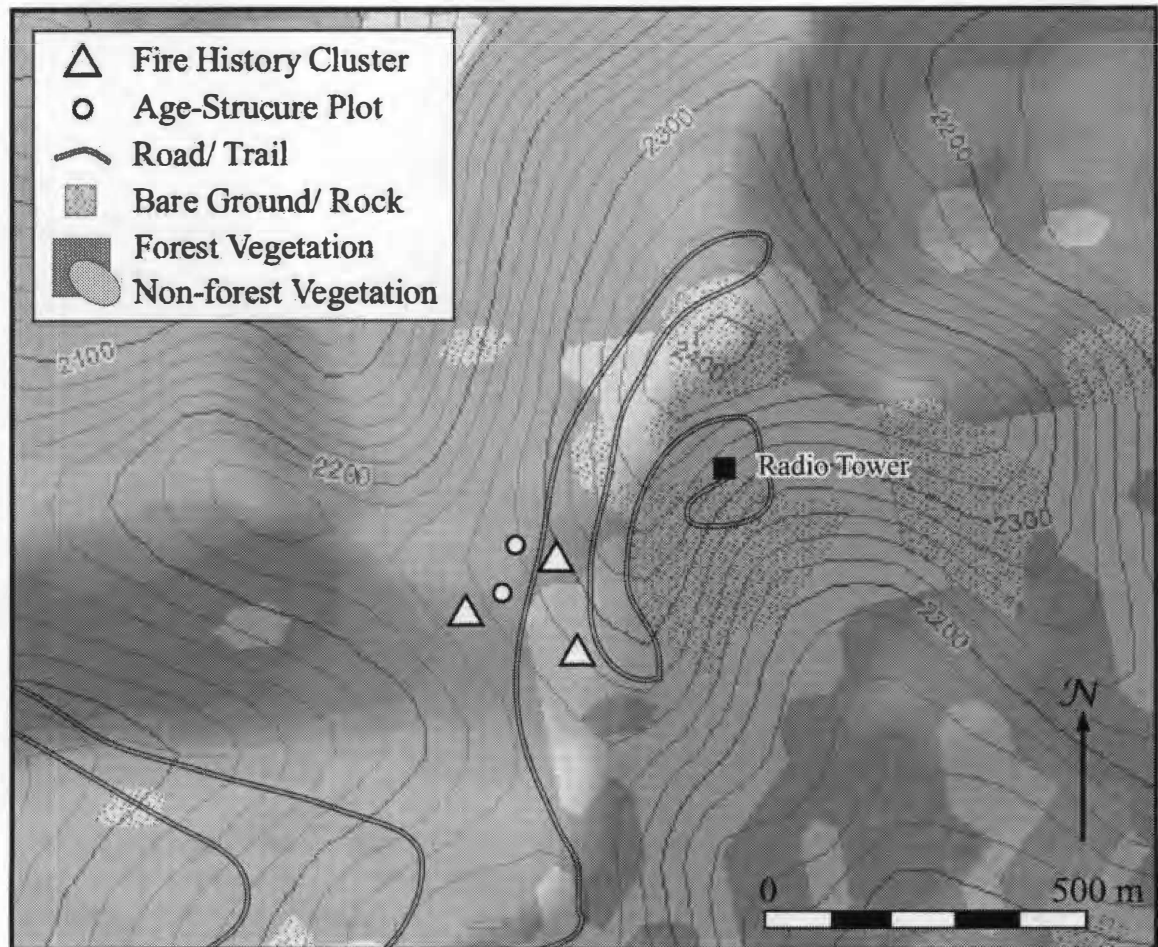
## **3.4 Point Six**

### **3.4.1 Environmental Setting**

The peak of Point Six (47° 02' N, 114° 00' W) sits on the border between the Lolo National Forest and the Flathead Indian Reservation (Figure 3.8), and at 2,417 m is readily visible from downtown Missoula, Montana. The study site is within the Missoula Ranger District, and is classified as Lolo National Forest Management Unit 2 due to the



**Figure 3.7** The results of the 10,000-hectare Mineral-Primm fire complex that burned throughout the Gold Creek drainage in 2003, as seen from the trail to the summit of Mineral Peak. The slopes directly across the Gold Creek Valley were nearly denuded, except for a few patches of unburned forest seen mid-slope on the right of the photograph.



**Figure 3.8** The study site on Point Six.



presence of the Montana Snowbowl ski area on the southern and eastern slopes of the mountain (USFS 1986). The headwaters of the Grant Creek Basin originate on the east slope of Point Six and the south slope of neighboring Murphy Peak, with Grant Creek joining the Clark Fork River in Missoula. Point Six is composed geologically of the Missoula group, but also includes part of a Precambrian pluton composed of diorite, alkali feldspar, metagabbro, and unconsolidated Cenozoic glacial till (Ross *et al.* 1955, Raines and Johnson 1996). Upper-elevation slopes ranged from 25–30% at 2,250 m to 40–45% at 2,350 m (Table 3.1).

The lower forest zone is predominantly Rocky Mountain ponderosa pine and Douglas-fir, with some western larch along waterways and on the more mesic slopes. The forest shifts to a continuous canopy of mixed Douglas-fir/ponderosa pine stands at the mid-elevations (1,500–1,850 m), with lodgepole pine becoming increasingly common near the upper boundary. Lodgepole pine dominates a relatively narrow band (1,850–2,000 m), and shares dominance with Douglas-fir at the lower elevations, and whitebark pine on the upper elevations of this zone. The lower subalpine zone (2,000–2,250 m) is a mix of species and structures, including mature whitebark pine and subalpine fir, numerous saplings of both species, and a few mature lodgepole pine near the bottom of the zone. The canopy thins with elevation, and by the upper subalpine zone (2,250–2,350 m) the forest is predominantly of the *Abies lasiocarpa/Luzula hitchcockii* habitat type (Pfister *et al.* 1977), with mature whitebark pine and scattered subalpine fir of all ages. A remnant stand of weathered whitebark pine exists on the southwest-facing talus slope just below the peak and above the current treeline. Nearly every whitebark pine in the study site displayed single or multiple fire scars, but I did not observe any

scarred subalpine fir. Beetle-killed whitebark pine snags were scattered throughout the forest, but mortality levels appeared to be lower than at either Morrell Mountain or Mineral Peak. Blister rust infections were also less extensive, but several whitebark pines exhibited flagging (*i.e.* red needles due to the recent mortality of a branch or stem) in their upper canopies.

### **3.4.2 Land Use and Disturbance History**

The subalpine zone is fragmented by several ski runs and a utility road to the radio facility on the peak of the mountain. Part of the Snowbowl ski area burned in 1988, but the fire did not spread to the slopes of Point Six (Guth 1991). Several communities extend from Missoula onto the foothills of Point Six, reaching up to the border of the national forest. The Snowbowl ski area was established in 1961, and includes over 385 hectares of ski runs and facilities. Access to the area is provided by a public road that runs up the southeast flank of the mountain. Tree removal activities are limited to eliminating safety hazards or for permitted construction or expansion of facilities. The Management Area that includes Point Six is currently classified as unsuitable for timber production, but the mid-elevation forests and lower subalpine zone contain numerous stumps as evidence of past management. Leases exist for gold, copper, and silicon exploration in the area, but not on Point Six (USBM 1992).



## Chapter Four

### 4. Methods

#### 4.1 Field Methods

##### 4.1.1 Fire History

Fire history data were collected from fire-scarred whitebark pines on each of the three mountains. I used a chainsaw to collect 10–15 partial cross-sections from living trees (Arno and Sneek 1977) and full cross-sections from snags, stumps, or logs in three clusters on each mountain. Clusters were placed evenly through the whitebark pine stands on each site to provide fire history data for the complete stand. The area of each cluster depended on the density of the forest at the site, and varied from 0.5–1.5 hectares. I sampled all fire-scarred material within each cluster and did not specifically target trees that displayed multiple fire scars.

A variety of disturbances can injure trees in the subalpine environment (Burrows and Burrows 1976, Stuart *et al.* 1983, Butler *et al.* 1986, Morgan and Bunting 1990). I therefore sampled only trees that displayed classic characteristics of fire injury (Gutsell and Johnson 1996), including:

- the presence of charcoal on the scar face or on the bark of the tree
- an inverted V-shaped scarred surface that extended to ground level
- injuries located on the upslope side of the bole
- smooth surface beneath the healing lobe of the scar

Descriptions of the condition of each sampled tree (living, declining, or dead) were recorded to aid the crossdating process by providing a general estimate of the outer ring

date. Sketches were drawn of each cross section to facilitate reassembly of broken samples back in the laboratory. I recorded the presence or absence of beetle galleries and blue stain fungus on each sample as this information may be of interest to other researchers working in whitebark pine forests. All samples were labeled and then wrapped with plastic wrap for transport back to the laboratory.

#### **4.1.2 Age Structure**

Stand age-structure data were collected in two 0.05 ha fixed-radius ( $r = 12.66$  m) plots within the areal distribution of fire history clusters on each mountain. The center of the first plot at each site was located by walking 50 m in a random direction, selected by the seconds hand on a watch, from a random point within the fire history clusters. The center of the second plot was located 100 m along the contour from the first plot center. I recorded the species and diameter at breast height (dbh; height = 1.47 m) of all trees  $\geq 5.0$  cm dbh within each plot. I then collected increment cores from two radii of each tree by either coring the tree twice or by coring straight through the tree. All cores were taken at or below 30 cm above the root collar and along the contour of the slope to minimize the effects of reaction wood on the growth patterns in each sample (Fritts 1976). Saplings less than 5.0 cm dbh but greater than 1.3 cm diameter at ground level (dgl) were tallied by species in a nested 0.01 ha plot ( $r = 5.66$  m). I cut 4–8 subalpine fir saplings in each plot to obtain general age estimates for the saplings at each site.

## **4.2 Laboratory Methods**

### **4.2.1 Sample Preparation**

All samples were frozen at -40° C for 48 hours to kill any pathogens and/or insects that may have been transported along with the samples. After allowing all samples to dry, fragile cross-sections were mounted on plywood. Cores were glued to wooden core mounts, ensuring the cells were vertically aligned by examining the end and sides of the core for the “shiny sides” indicative of vertical wood cells (Stokes and Smiley 1996). Cross-sections were given an initial flat surface using a band saw to remove deep chain saw cuts prior to sanding, then each fire-scarred and core sample was sanded using a 4”×24” belt sander, beginning with ANSI 80-grit (177–210 µm) and using progressively finer-grit belts until ANSI 400-grit (20.6–23.6 µm) (Orvis and Grissino-Mayer 2002). A final polish was applied to each sample by buffing the surface with superfine steel wool. This resulted in clear, cellular resolution under standard 7–10x magnification to aid the identification of possible narrow and missing rings.

### **4.2.2 Crossdating and Chronology Construction**

I used visual, graphical, and statistical crossdating to assign precise calendar years to the growth-rings of my samples. Visual crossdating relied on patterns of wide and narrow rings common to all three sites that were likely related to regional climate (Fritts 1976), graphical crossdating was accomplished using the skeleton-plot method (Stokes and Smiley 1996), and statistical crossdating was accomplished using ring-width measurements and the computer program COFECHA (Holmes 1983, Grissino-Mayer

2001a). Samples that did not conclusively crossdate with these methods were excluded from all additional analyses.

I collected several fire-scarred samples from living trees, but extreme growth suppression in the outer 100+ years of most samples created uncertainty in the date of the outer rings of these samples. I therefore considered all of the fire-scarred cross-sections as floating, undated samples. To crossdate these samples, I first conducted ring-counts from the innermost ring to the outermost ring along two to four radii of each cross-section, and as far away from the fire scars as possible to minimize the effects of erratic growth that often occurs around an injury to a tree. I used a variable-power binocular microscope to facilitate ring identification, and marked every tenth ring along each radius. The number of radii per sample depended on the shape and condition of the sample, with more radii used when visible breaks in the tree-ring series were evident or when the scar tip was not visible and the healing lobe required individual dating. I visually crossdated the radii within each sample, then measured the rings along each radii to the nearest 0.001 mm using a Velmex measuring system interfaced with Measure J2X software.

I began statistical crossdating by first crossdating the radii within each cross-section. To accomplish this, I used COFECHA to conduct correlation analyses on 50-yr ring-width segments, overlapped 25 years, between two radii at a time. Potential problems identified by COFECHA within the sample were visually checked and corrections were marked on the cross-section and made to the measurement series. After the radii of each sample were statistically crossdated, I conducted similar correlation analyses of 50-yr segments between the measurement series of two different samples to

date each relative to the other. Significant correlations for the majority of 50-yr segments indicated the most likely relative date for each sample, and I visually and graphically checked the suggested position before using the program EDRM (Holmes 1999) to shift the series to the new date. I combined the measurement series of the relatively-dated cross-sections into a single file, and dated additional undated samples relative to these dated samples. Once each sample was dated relative to the others, it was added to the file to create a floating tree-ring chronology for each site, eventually creating a master chronology that included the measurement series from all of the fire-scarred cross-sections.

To anchor my floating chronologies, I crossdated them with a whitebark pine tree-ring chronology developed on Carlton Ridge in the northeast corner of the nearby Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area (Kipfmueller 2003). To facilitate the statistical crossdating of the chronologies, I maximized the climate-related growth patterns common among my samples by transforming each floating chronology into a standardized ring-width chronology with the computer program ARSTAN (Cook 1985). The standardization process included the removal of the age-related growth trend of each sample by fitting a negative exponential trend line to the growth of the sample using the least squares technique, then obtaining a ring-width index (RWI) by dividing the actual ring-width by the value predicted by the regression (Fritts 1976). The RWI were then averaged for each year of the chronologies to create a single RWI series for each chronology. Crossdating between the chronologies was conducted using overlapping 50-yr segments, and the absolute dates suggested by the results were visually crossdated and

checked for realistic outer dates on the samples taken from living trees. All individual measurement series were adjusted to their absolute dates using EDRM.

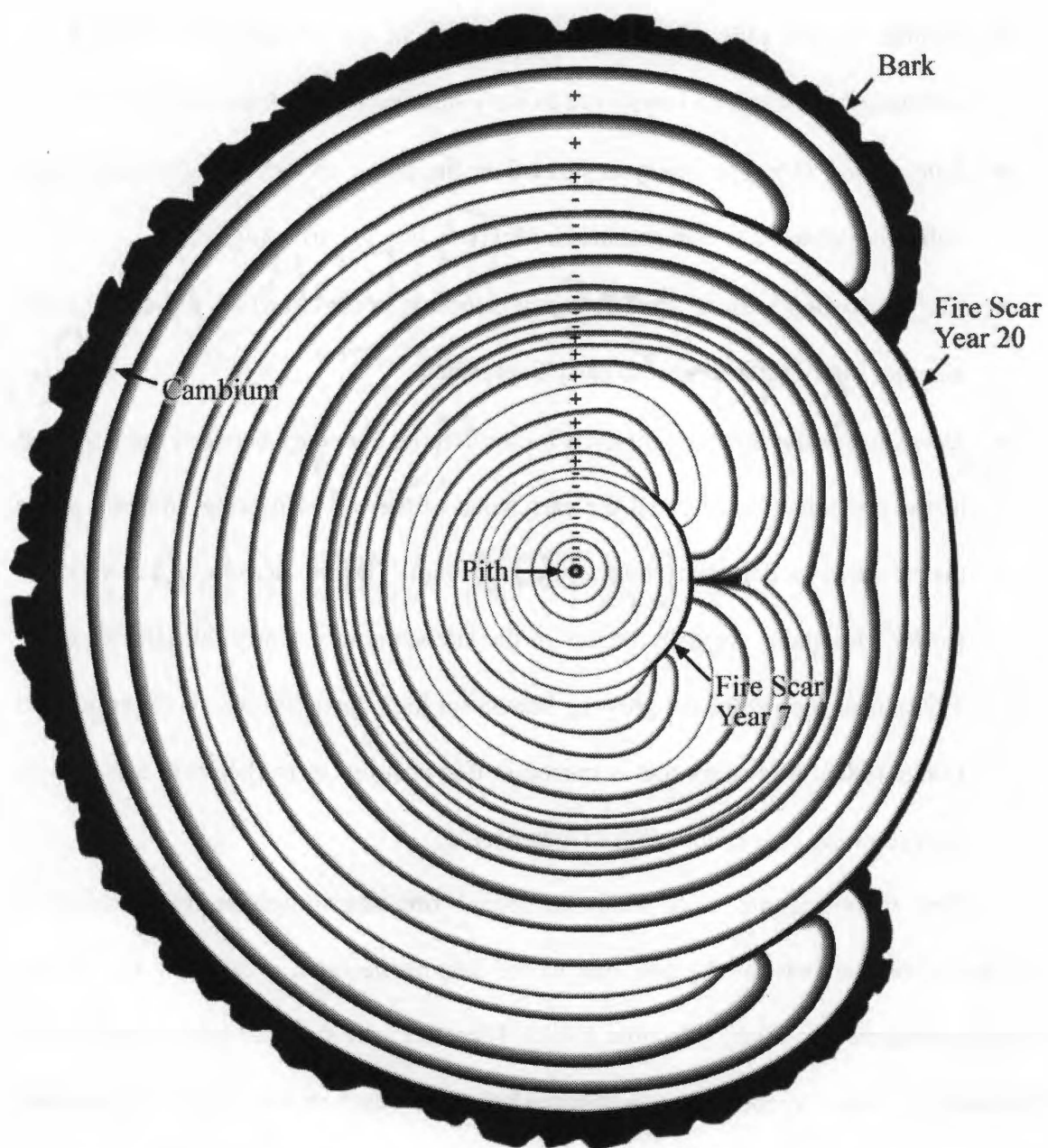
The cores collected from living trees in the age structure plots were first ring-counted using a variable-power binocular microscope, marked by decade from the outermost complete growth-ring toward the center of the core, and visually crossdated. As my field work was conducted in the early part of the 2004 growing season, the outermost complete ring was formed during the 2003 growing season. The cores collected from dead trees were ring-counted from the innermost ring out and marked every tenth ring. I then measured the rings of each sample to the nearest 0.001 mm and statistically crossdated them to the ring-width chronology developed from fire-scarred samples at each site with COFECHA. I visually checked the suggested dates, and only assigned calendar years to the rings of samples that were conclusively dated.

#### **4.2.3 Fire History**

I used fire scars and trauma rings to identify disturbance events recorded in the rings of all absolutely dated samples (Grissino-Mayer 1995). An injury was only considered a fire scar if it followed a smooth path through a ring or along a ring boundary, while the remaining injuries were classified as “other injuries.” The intra-ring position of each fire scar and injury was identified where possible and assigned a date and season (Baisan and Swetnam 1990) relative to the growing season of whitebark pine. Whitebark pine cambial activity in the Northern Rocky Mountains extends from *ca.* 24 May to *ca.* 12 September in a typical year (Weaver 2001), and I used the following definitions to assign seasonality:

- *Early season (E)*: The injury is located in the first one-third of the earlywood, indicating the injury occurred in the early spring (May).
- *Middle season (M)*: The injury is located in the middle one-third of the earlywood, indicating a late spring to early summer injury (June to early July).
- *Late season (L)*: The injury is located in the latter one-third of the earlywood, indicating an early to mid summer injury (late July to early August).
- *End of growing season (A)*: The injury is located in the latewood, indicating a late summer injury (late August to early September).
- *Dormant season (D)*: The injury is located on the boundary between the latewood of the previous tree ring and the earlywood of the following ring, indicating that the tree was in dormancy during the fire event. The fire season in the Northern Rocky Mountains typically begins in the late summer or early fall (Brown *et al.* 1994), near the end of the growing season for high elevation forests (Schmidt and Lotan 1980). Fire scars that occurred at this position were therefore assigned to the preceding year (September to October).

Pine trees become more likely to record fire scars after an open wound is established on the bole of the tree due to the flammable resin created by the tree to compartmentalize the injury (Romme 1980). Therefore, the rings of each sample were designated as either “recorder” or “non-recorder” years based on the presence or absence of an open wound on the sample at that position in the rings (Figure 4.1). This method ensures the validity of subsequent statistical analyses (Grissino-Mayer 1995, Grissino Mayer 1999). I delineated the range of years considered suitable for statistical analyses, or the period of reliability (POR; Grissino-Mayer 1999), for each site as the first year



**Figure 4.1** Illustration of recorder and non-recorder rings on a fire-scarred cross-section. Recorder years are indicated with a '+' and non-recorder years are indicated with a '-'.



with two or more recorder trees until the end of the chronology. Positively identified disturbance events and recorder/non-recorder status were entered into the fire history software FHX2 to construct fire charts, calculate descriptive statistics of the fire regimes, and conduct temporal and spatial analyses (Grissino-Mayer 2001b). I constructed four fire chronologies for my research, one for each of the three separate mountains, and a master fire chronology based on the combined data from all three sites to represent regional fire occurrence.

#### **4.2.4 Age Structure**

The age structure for each stand was determined by obtaining or estimating the establishment dates for the living and dead trees within each age-structure plot. I used the pith date to identify the establishment date of cores that included pith. Establishment dates were estimated for cores that did not contain pith by adding a correction to the innermost ring based on the curvature of the innermost rings and a pith estimator made of concentric circles that represented different growth rates (Appelquist 1958). For solid cores that contained neither pith nor the curvature necessary to use pith estimators, the innermost ring was used to represent the minimum age of the tree (Soulé and Knapp 2000). If the inner date of any samples could not be determined due to rot, extremely tight growth rings, erratic ring structure, or lack of ring curvature, the sample was excluded from the age-structure data. Due to the variability in growth rates for seedlings and sapling at these sites (Daniels *et al.* in press), I did not apply a correction for the age at coring height and these data should be considered the minimum age of the stand rather than the absolute establishment date for the stand.

### **4.3 Graphical Analyses**

#### **4.3.1 Fire History Charts**

I constructed fire charts for each fire chronology using the graphics module in FHX2 (Grissino-Mayer 2001b). Individual-site fire charts displayed the fire history information contained in each sample, while the master fire chart displayed the composite fire charts from the individual sites to illustrate the variability between sites. I visually examined each chart to identify changes in the temporal pattern of fires (*i.e.* changes in fire frequency) and the spatial patterns of fire activity (both intra-site and inter-site).

#### **4.3.2 Age Structure Charts**

I constructed age-structure charts to visually examine patterns in tree establishment at each individual site, as well as for the study area as a whole. To accommodate the uncertainty prevalent in tree establishment dates (Villalba and Veblen 1997), the data were grouped into 20-yr age classes for construction of age-structure charts. I created a graphical representation of the relationship between periods of increased fire activity and tree establishment by overlaying the 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars in the fire history data for each site over the respective age-structure data. I used a 20-yr moving average to emphasize prolonged periods of increased fire activity while still maintaining sufficient resolution to observe peak fire years.

## **4.4 Statistical Analyses**

My statistical analyses of the four fire chronologies included calculating descriptive statistics, assessing possible temporal and spatial changes in fire regimes, conducting seasonality analyses, and examining the relationship between fire and tree growth at individual-site and regional scales (Grissino-Mayer 2001b). All statistical analyses were conducted using the composite fire chronologies (Dieterich 1980) of each site over the POR.

### **4.4.1 Fire History Descriptive Statistics**

I used eleven statistical descriptors for the central tendency, dispersion, range, and shape of the fire interval distributions (Table 4.1) to characterize the historical range of variability of each fire chronology.

#### **4.4.1.1 Measures of Central Tendency**

I used four statistics to describe the central tendency within the fire interval distribution of each site: 1) Mean Fire-free Interval (MFI); 2) Median Fire-free Interval (MDI); 3) Weibull Median Interval (MEI); and 4) Weibull Modal Interval (MOI). The MFI is a simple mean calculated by dividing the total number of recorder years by the number of fire events in a chronology. The MDI is the mid-point of a distribution of fire-free intervals, and is more resistant to outliers than the MFI. The MEI and MOI are derived by modeling the fire-free interval data with the Weibull distribution (Weibull 1951), which is more flexible than the normal distribution and has been shown to provide a superior fit for the often positively-skewed distributions of fire-free intervals (Grissino-

**Table 4.1** Abbreviations and definitions of the descriptive statistics used to characterize the fire regimes and their historical range of variability on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.

Statistic Name	Abbreviation	Description
Mean Fire-free Interval	MFI	The average number of years between fire events.
Median Fire-free Interval	MDI	The middle value of the distribution of fire-free intervals, more resistant to outliers than the mean.
Weibull Median Interval	MEI	The fire interval associated with the 50 <sup>th</sup> percentile of the Weibull distribution.
Weibull Modal Interval	MOI	The theoretical mode of the Weibull distribution that represents the greatest area under the probability distribution function.
Minimum Fire-free Interval	MIN	The shortest fire-free interval at a site.
Maximum Fire-free Interval	MAX	The longest fire-free interval at a site.
Lower Exceedence Interval	LEI	The interval that delimits a significantly short fire-free interval, derived from the Weibull distribution.
Upper Exceedence Interval	UEI	The interval that delimits a significantly long fire-free interval, derived from the Weibull distribution.
Maximum Hazard Interval	MHI	The maximum theoretical fire-free interval that an ecosystem can experience before the event of a fire becomes highly probable; derived from the Weibull hazard function.
Standard Deviation	SD	The dispersion of fire intervals around the mean.
Coefficient of Variation	CV	A standardized measure of dispersion within a data set; enables comparisons between distributions with different means and/or variances.
Skewness	SKW	Describes the symmetry of a distribution.
Kurtosis	KUR	Describes the peakedness of a distribution.

Mayer 1999). The MEI is the fire interval associated with the 50<sup>th</sup> percentile of the fitted distribution, providing a measure of central tendency that is highly resistant to outliers (Grissino Mayer 1999). The MOI represents the theoretical mode in the frequency distribution that represents the greatest area under the probability distribution function (Grissino-Mayer 2001b).

#### **4.4.1.2 Measures of Range**

I described the range in fire interval data using five statistics: 1) minimum fire-free interval; 2) maximum fire-free interval; 3) Lower Exceedence Interval (LEI); 4) Upper Exceedence Interval (UEI); and 5) Maximum Hazard Interval (MHI). The minimum and maximum fire-free intervals are the shortest and longest fire-free intervals at a particular site, as described by the actual data. The LEI and UEI correspond to the 12.5 and 87.5 percentiles of the Weibull distribution, respectively, and delimit significantly short and long fire-free intervals (Grissino-Mayer 1999). The MHI represents the maximum theoretical fire-free interval that an ecosystem can experience before a fire becomes highly probable based on the preceding fire-free intervals, and is derived from the Weibull hazard function (Grissino-Mayer 1999).

#### **4.4.1.3 Measures of Dispersion**

The variability about the mean of the fire interval distributions for each site was described using the standard deviation (SD) and the coefficient of variation (CV). The SD, calculated by taking the square root of the variance, describes the dispersion of fire intervals around the mean, with plus or minus one SD bracketing 68% of the fire-free

intervals, and plus or minus two SD bracket 95% of the fire intervals. The CV, calculated by dividing the mean by the standard deviation, provides a standardized value and enables comparisons between fire-free interval distributions with different means or variances (Grissino-Mayer 2001b).

#### **4.4.1.4 Measures of Shape**

I calculated the skewness and kurtosis to describe the shape of the fire-free interval distributions for each site. Skewness describes the symmetry of a distribution. Due to the lower bound of fire-free intervals (a fire-free interval can be no less than 1 yr) distributions of fire-free interval data are often positively skewed (skewness  $> 0$ ). Kurtosis describes the peakedness of a distribution relative to the normal distribution (kurtosis = 0). Clustered data with few outliers are highly peaked, or leptokurtic (kurtosis  $> 0$ ), and diffuse data, or data with numerous outliers are flat, or platykurtic (kurtosis  $< 0$ ). I also graphed each distribution and the Weibull probability density function (pdf) for each fire chronology to provide a visual display of the shape of each fire interval distribution (Grissino Mayer 1999).

#### **4.4.2 Temporal Analyses**

Each fire chronology was examined for changes in fire frequency over the following periods based on historical records and settlement patterns (USFS 1986, Smith 1992): 1) Pre-settlement period, POR–1850; 2) Settlement period, 1851–1920; and 3) Fire suppression period, 1921–POR. To determine if fire activity during any of these periods was statistically unique, I conducted three statistical tests on the normalized fire

interval data (Grissino-Mayer 1995): 1) Student's t-tests to test whether differences exist in MFI of periods; 2) folded F-tests to test whether differences exist in the variability about the MFI from one period to the next; and 3) two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests to test for differences in the distributions of fire-free intervals between periods.

#### **4.4.3 Spatial Analyses**

My spatial analyses included the same tests as my temporal analyses to compare the fire chronologies of each site to one another. The analyses were conducted over the common set of years for which both chronologies contained data.

#### **4.4.4 Fire Seasonality Analyses**

I analyzed the seasonality of fire activity for each chronology by grouping fires as either early-season (seasons E, M, and L) or late-season (seasons A and D). I then determined the historically dominant season of fire activity at each site and for the master composite chronology by calculating the percent of fire events that were included in each seasonality group.

#### **4.4.5 Fire-Tree Establishment Relationships**

I quantitatively analyzed the fire-tree establishment relationships in my study area by using a variation on the traditional superposed epoch analysis (SEA). SEA are conducted by stacking events, in this case fire events, then examining the average conditions of a particular variable (such as tree growth or climate) before, during, and after each event (Baisan and Swetnam 1990, Grissino-Mayer 1995). The window of

analysis, as traditionally used in fire history research, commonly includes the 5 years leading up to the event, the event year, and up to two years after the event. Bootstrapped confidence intervals are calculated for the window of analysis from 1000 randomly selected events from the population of observations. To examine trends that occur on longer time scales, I extended the window of analysis to include 40 years; the 19 years leading up to the event, the event year, and the 20 years following the event. While individual statistically significant values become less meaningful as more years are included in the analysis, this multi-decadal superposed epoch analysis (MDSEA) can identify meaningful trends in data.

To conduct my analyses of fire-tree establishment relationships, I created an event chronology from the composite fire history of the master chronology, filtered to include only those fires that scarred  $\geq 10\%$  and  $\geq 2$  sampled trees during any given year. I used two tree-establishment chronologies as input variables for my analyses. The first chronology was the total number of tree establishments for all samples in the study area for each year from AD 1300–2000. The second chronology was the five-year moving average of the first chronology. Because I wished to conduct these analyses on the study area as a whole, I included the establishment dates from the fire-scarred samples with the age structure data to increase the sample depth.

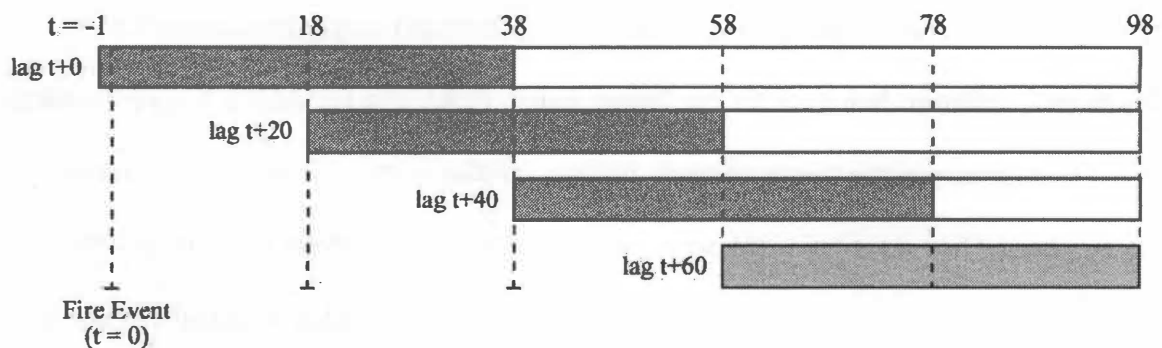
I conducted my MDSEA using the event analysis module in FHX2 (Grissino-Mayer 2001b). The maximum extent for the window of analysis in this program is 40 years, including at least 1 year before the event, and the year of the event itself. To expand this window, I first conducted my MDSEA from one year before each fire event ( $t-1$ ) to 38 years after the event ( $t+38$ ). I then adjusted the tree-establishment chronologies



to lags of 20 years, 40 years, and 60 years (Figure 4.2) and used the same window (t-1 to t+38) on each of the lagged chronologies. This resulted in four separate MDSEA output files that spanned 100 years, with 20-yr overlaps between each analysis. After ensuring the overlaps were identical, I compiled the results into one output file, in effect creating a continuous MDSEA window, with bootstrapped confidence intervals, of 100 years (t-1 to t+98).

#### 4.4.6 Fire-Tree Growth Relationships

I examined trends in tree growth at the local and regional scales with respect to fire events to determine if local tree growth would decrease directly after a fire event due to damage to the roots, bole, and branches of the tree, but then shift to above average growth due to decreased competition and the release of nutrients associated with wildfires. In contrast, I expected regional growth trends to show no relationship to the fire event. I used MDSEA to test this relationship.



**Figure 4.2** Graphical representation of the years included in the multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and tree establishment. Shaded regions indicate the years included in each successive analysis.

I used two event chronologies in my MDSEA. First, I conducted the analyses using the composite master fire chronology that included all fires recorded in my study area. I then focused my analyses on more widespread fire events by using a filtered composite master fire chronology that included only those fires that scarred  $\geq 10\%$  and  $\geq 2$  recorder trees in the master fire chronology during a particular year (Swetnam 1990). My condition variable for the local fire-tree growth analyses was the standardized master ring-width chronology developed from the fire-scarred samples collected in my study area. The condition variable I used to explore the relationship between regional trends in tree growth and the occurrence of fire events was a tree-ring chronology developed from non-fire-scarred whitebark pine in the nearby Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area (Kipfmüller 2003). All of my MDSEA examined a 40-year window around the respective fire events: the 19 years leading up to the fire ( $t-19$ ), the fire year ( $t=0$ ), and the 20 years following the fire ( $t+20$ ).

#### **4.5 Fire-Climate Relationships**

I assessed possible relationships between fire activity and specific climate variables (temperature, precipitation, the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI), the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), the Nino3 index, PDO, and the AMO) by constructing charts that displayed the trends of each climate variable with a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded across all three sites. I also plotted the fire events that scarred multiple trees in my study area to examine the relationship between climate and specific years when fire was likely more widespread. The climate data used in my analyses were tree-ring based reconstructions available from the National Climatic Data

Center World Data Center for Paleoclimatology (<http://www.ngdc.noaa.gov/paleo/>) and included:

- Temperature for station 14 (45° N, 110° W; Briffa *et al.* 1992);
- Precipitation for Kalispell, Montana (48° N, 114° W; Fritts 1991);
- PDSI for grid point 83 (47.5° N 112.5° W; Cook *et al.* 1999);
- Southern Oscillation Index (Stahle *et al.* 1998);
- Nino3 index (D'Arrigo *et al.* in press);
- PDO (D'Arrigo *et al.* 2001);
- AMO (Gray *et al.* 2004).

I first plotted all data by annual values, and then used a moving average of 5 years for the climate variables with short-term (< 10 years) variability (temperature, precipitation, and PDSI) and 20 years for the climate variables with longer-term ( $\geq 10$  years) variability (PDO and AMO) to smooth the series and highlight trends in the data. To facilitate my interpretations of ENSO activity, I transformed the reconstructed SOI values into z-scores, and then multiplied the z-scores by  $-1$  to compensate for the inverse relationship between the SOI and the Nino3 index. This resulted in positive SOI and Nino3 values being associated with El Niño events, and negative values being associated with La Niña events. I conducted my analyses from 1650 to 2000 because few of the climate reconstructions extended beyond AD 1650.

#### **4.6 Fire Regime Type Classification**

I used the results of my analyses to assess the accuracy of the FRCC fire regime types (Schmidt *et al.* 2002) assigned to my study sites. I examined the fire regime type of

each site with respect to the actual frequency and severity of fires recorded in the fire chronologies and age structure of each stand. For the sites that did not match their classification, I placed the stands in the appropriate fire regime type as defined by Hann and Schmidt (2003). I then used the results of my statistical analyses as a framework to examine these classifications within the natural range of variability of my study sites.

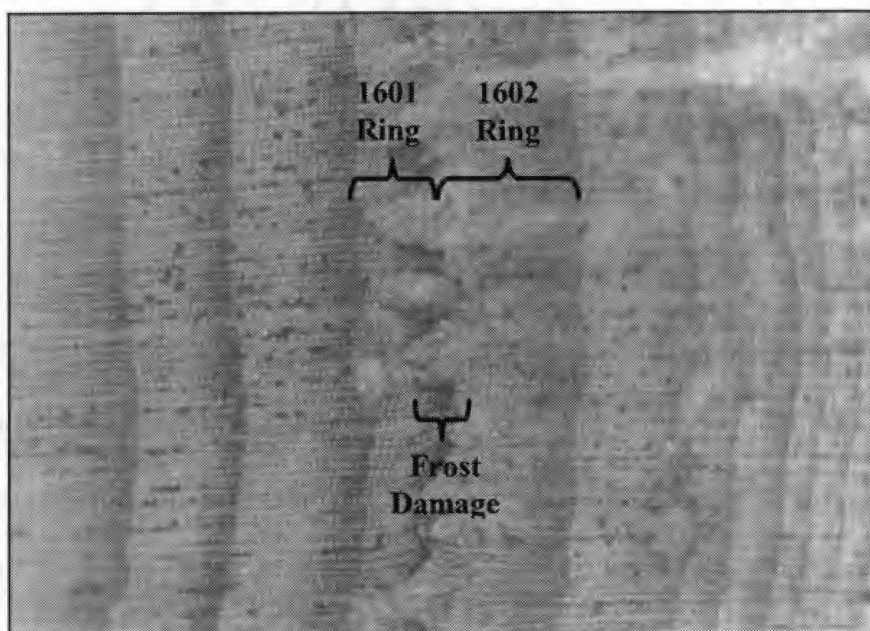
## Chapter Five

### 5. Results

#### 5.1 Crossdating and Chronology Construction

I collected 110 fire-scarred samples and 411 age-structure samples from the three sites. Visual and graphical crossdating were aided by especially narrow growth rings formed in AD 1641, 1688, 1782, 1799, 1817, 1838, 1899, and 1906, and a light ring (*i.e.* extremely narrow latewood) in 1801. A pattern of consecutive narrow rings in 1753, 1754, and 1755, followed by a wide ring in 1756, also provided a strong ring signature at all three sites. Visual crossdating was further facilitated by a frost injury in AD 1601 that provided an excellent marker ring in 33 of the 47 fire-scarred samples that extended beyond the year 1600 (Figure 5.1). The cellular damage caused by this event led to a separation in the ring structure of stumps and logs throughout the study sites (Figure 5.2), and enabled rough estimations of tree age in the field for many samples.

The ring-width chronologies were constructed from 233 measurement series from the 110 fire-scarred samples (Table 5.1). The site chronologies varied in length, with the shortest record from Point Six and the longest from Mineral Peak. Individual series ranged from 60–726 years in length. The mean inter-series correlations and mean sensitivity of the three individual site chronologies and the master ring-width chronology were relatively similar, and correlations between all four chronologies and the Carlton Ridge chronology were highly significant at the anchored dates (Morrell Mountain:  $r = 0.319$ ,  $n = 521$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Mineral Peak:  $r = 0.483$ ,  $n = 911$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Point Six:  $r = 0.286$ ,  $n = 417$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; combined chronology:  $r = 0.46$ ,  $n = 911$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).



**Figure 5.1** A frost event in 1601 damaged 17 of 22 samples from Morrell Mountain, 15 of 25 samples on Mineral Peak, and the only sample on Point Six alive that year. The image was taken under 40x magnification.



**Figure 5.2** A weathered stump near the summit of Morrell Mountain. The ring separation indicated by the arrow is the result of a weak layer in the structure of the tree due to frost damage in AD 1601.

**Table 5.1** Statistics for tree-ring chronologies developed from fire-scarred whitebark pines on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and for all sites combined.

	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
No. Trees/Series	30/60	38/82	42/91	110/233
Time Span	1467–1999	1087–2000	1581–2003	1087–2003
M.S.L. <sup>1</sup>	283	307	202	259
I.S.C. <sup>2</sup>	0.484	0.426	0.431	0.404
M.S. <sup>3</sup>	0.24	0.22	0.23	0.23

<sup>1</sup> Mean series length (yrs)

<sup>2</sup> Mean inter-series correlation

<sup>3</sup> Mean sensitivity

## **5.2 Fire History**

I identified 152 fire scars recorded in the fire-scarred samples, representing 68 unique fire events between the three sites (Table 5.2). I assigned seasonality to 89% ( $n = 116$ ) of the fire scars, with the majority of those in the dormant season (89%,  $n = 103$ ). Several fire events only scarred 1–3 trees, but each fire chronology included at least one fire that scarred trees throughout the site. Indications of mortality related to mountain pine beetle were present on 86% ( $n = 95$ ) of the samples.

### **5.2.1 Morrell Mountain**

The fire history data from Morrell Mountain suggest a fire regime dominated by relatively frequent, patchy fires (Figure 5.3). Few fires were recorded during the first 150 years of the fire history, but fires became increasingly frequent during the late 1600s and early 1700s until a widespread fire in 1754 that scarred most trees throughout the stand. This fire was followed by a period of less frequent but moderately widespread fires from 1796 to 1898. Only two fires were recorded in the study site in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, in 1919 ( $n = 2$ ) and 1974 ( $n = 1$ ). Multiple trees were scarred in 1711 ( $n = 2$ ), 1751 ( $n = 2$ ), 1754 ( $n = 7$ ), 1796 ( $n = 3$ ), 1830 ( $n = 3$ ), 1836 ( $n = 3$ ), 1843 ( $n = 4$ ), 1898 ( $n = 3$ ), and 1919 ( $n = 2$ ). Beetle-caused mortality peaked in the 1970s and 1980s, but a cluster of mortality dates in the early 1900s suggests the stand may have been affected by previous outbreaks.

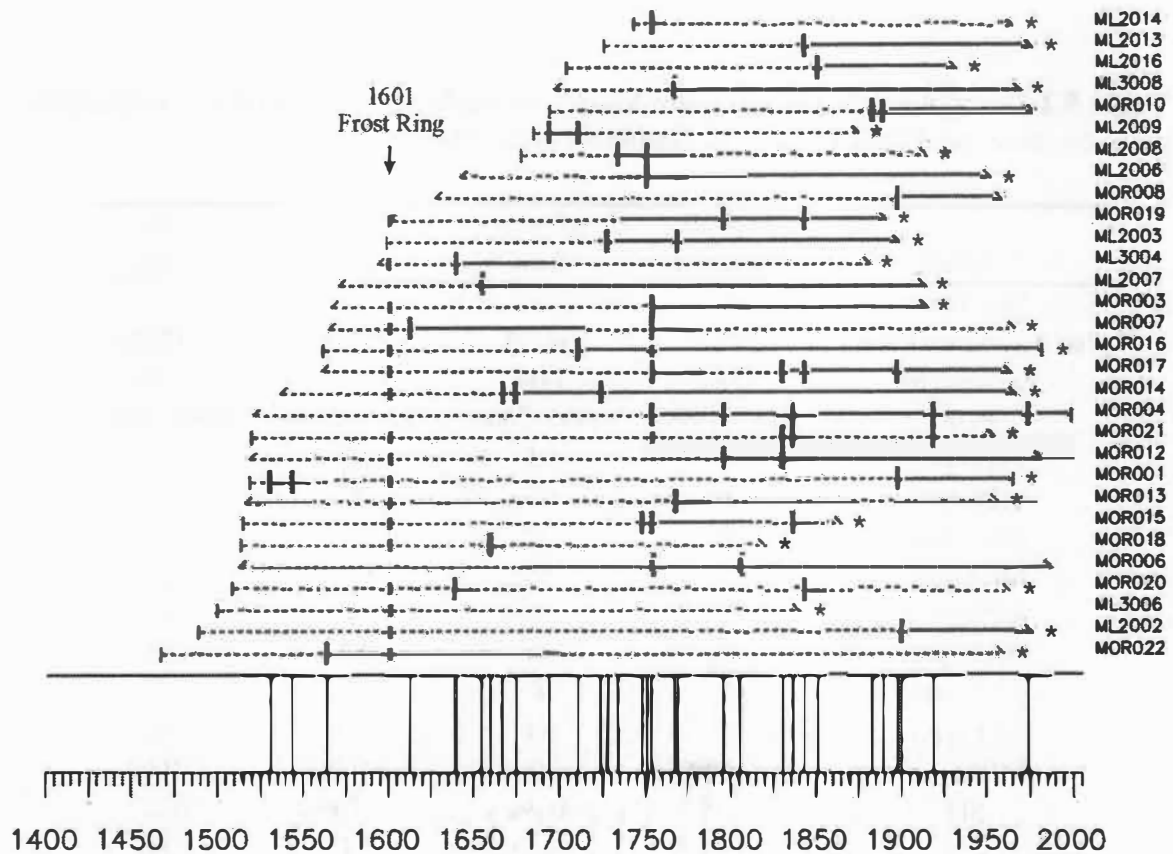


**Table 5.2** Descriptive statistics for fire history chronologies developed from whitebark pines on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.

Statistic <sup>1,2</sup>	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
No. Trees .	30	38	42	110
No. Fire Scars/Events	54/33	40/20	59/15	153/68
Earliest Fire	1531	1488	1661	1488
POR	1613–1999	1497–2000	1719–2003	1497–2003
MFI (yrs)	14	25	15	7
MDI (yrs)	10	20	11	6
MEI (yrs)	10	22	11	6
MOI (yrs)	2	15	2	2
MIN (yrs)	1	5	2	1
MAX (yrs)	55	64	67	35
LEI (yrs)	2	8	3	1
UEI (yrs)	27	44	30	14
MHI (yrs)	>1000	>1000	>1000	>1000
SD	12.97	16.96	16.67	6.27
CV	0.94	0.69	1.11	0.86
SKW	1.62	0.89	2.27	1.82
KUR	2.39	-0.32	4.37	4.56

<sup>1</sup> Descriptive statistics calculated over the POR

<sup>2</sup> See table 4.1 for definitions



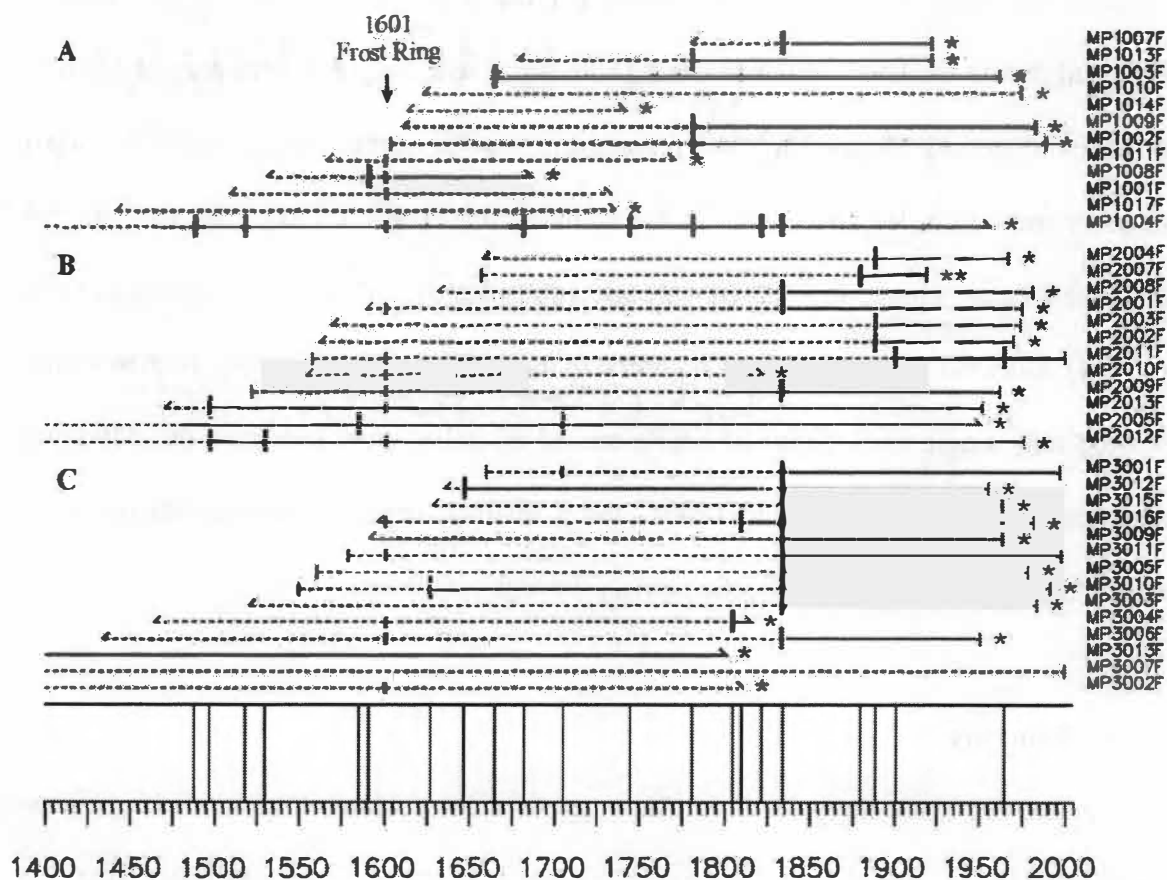
**Figure 5.3** The fire history chart for Morrell Mountain in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. Each horizontal line represents a tree. Dashed portions of the line indicate non-recorder years and solid lines indicate recorder years. Long tic-marks indicate a year when that sample recorded a fire, and short tic-marks indicate other injuries. A star at the end of a sample indicates evidence of beetle-caused mortality. The composite fire chronology at the bottom of the chart uses vertical lines to represent years during which at least one tree within the study site recorded a fire event.

### 5.2.2 Mineral Peak

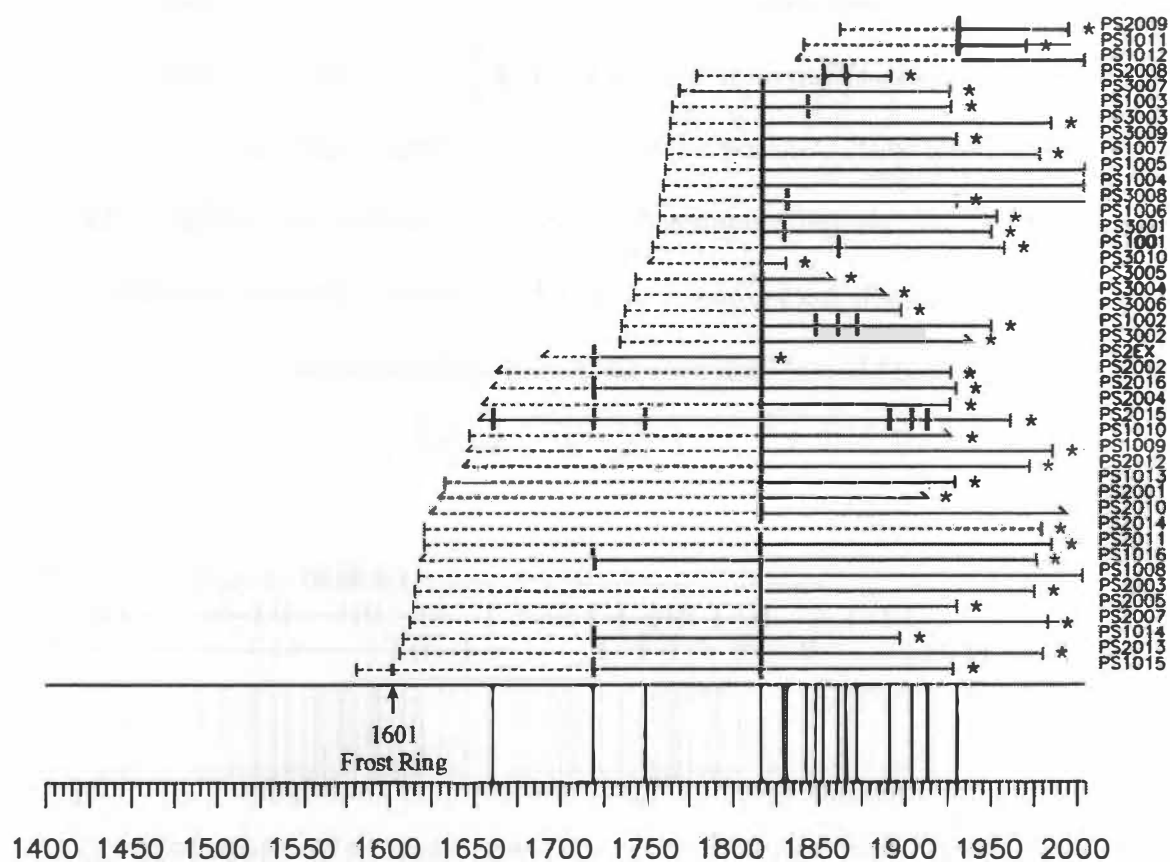
Although the fire chronology for Mineral Peak is the longest of the three sites, it includes the fewest number of fire events (Figure 5.4). The majority of fire activity occurred during the late 1700s and early 1800s, with relatively few fires recorded before or after this period. Most of the fires recorded in the site scarred only a single tree. Two or more trees recorded fire events in the south-facing cluster in AD 1781 ( $n = 4$ ), the southwest-facing cluster in 1497 ( $n = 2$ ) and 1889 ( $n = 3$ ), and all three clusters in 1834 ( $n = 14$ ). Only two fire events were recorded in the 1900s (1901 and 1965), both of which scarred only single trees. Signs of beetle-caused mortality were identified on individual samples dated to the 1700s and 1800s, and a distinct period of widespread mortality during the late 1900s suggests beetle activity throughout the site.

### 5.2.3 Point Six

The fire chronology for Point Six suggests a fire regime characterized by higher severity and more widespread fires than the other two sites (Figure 5.5). Two large fire events scarred trees throughout the site in 1719 ( $n = 6$ ) and 1816 ( $n = 37$ ). Potential post-fire cohorts are evident in the age-structure of the fire-scarred samples *ca.* 1600 to 1650 and again after the 1719 fire. A shift toward patchier fires occurred after the 1816 fire. Additional years when multiple trees were scarred include 1861 ( $n = 2$ ) and 1930 ( $n = 2$ ). The 1930 fire was the last recorded within the study site. The majority of dead trees displayed evidence of mortality related to mountain pine beetle activity in the 1920s and 1970s.



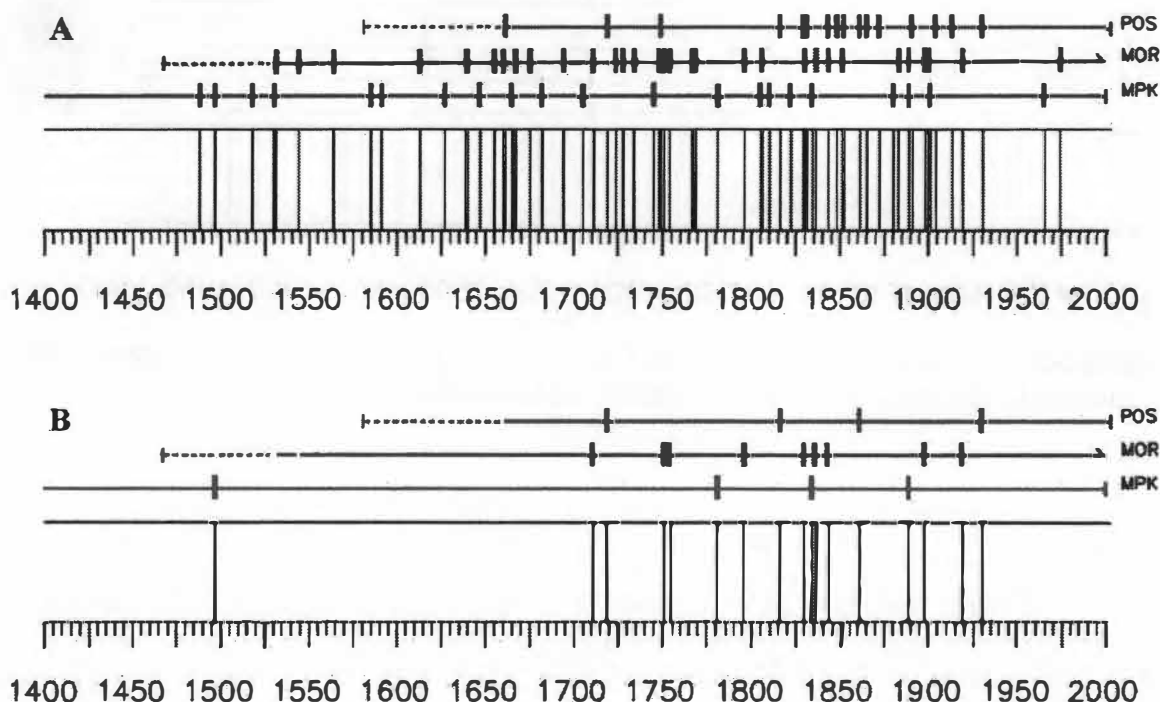
**Figure 5.4** The fire history chart for Mineral Peak, in the Rattlesnake National Recreation Area and Wilderness, Lolo National Forest, Montana. See Figure 5.2 for an explanation of symbols used in the chart. The (A) south-facing cluster, (B) southwest-facing cluster, and (C) west-facing cluster are plotted separately to emphasize spatial variability in fire activity.



**Figure 5.5** The fire history chart for Point Six, in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. See Figure 5.2 for an explanation of the symbols used in the chart.

#### 5.2.4 All Sites

The composite master fire chronology provides evidence of relatively continuous fire activity throughout the study area from *ca.* AD 1500 to *ca.* 1920 (Figure 5.6A), but the majority of fires that scarred multiple trees in the study area occurred from *ca.* 1700 to *ca.* 1850 (Figure 5.6B). A near-complete cessation of fire activity occurred at all three sites after 1930. The Morrell Mountain fire chronology included the greatest number of fires that scarred multiple trees grouped in the tightest clusters. Fires that scarred multiple trees on Point Six and Mineral Peak were temporally more dispersed.



**Figure 5.6** The master fire charts of (A) all fires and (B) fires that scarred multiple trees on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. The horizontal lines represent the individual site composite fire chronologies, and the composite master fire chart at the bottom of both figures includes all of the fire years for the three sites at each respective level of analysis. POS = Point Six, MOR = Morrell Mountain, and MPK = Mineral Peak.

### 5.3 Age Structure

The age-structure data are based on an inventory of 862 trees and saplings, with 372 trees  $\geq 0.05$  cm dbh (Table 5.3). Subalpine fir was the most common species at all three sites. For trees  $\geq 0.05$  cm dbh, whitebark pines were more numerous than subalpine firs at Mineral Peak and Point Six. Subalpine fir saplings outnumbered whitebark pine saplings at all sites. I was able to crossdate 263 of the cores collected for age-structure analyses. The average correction for cores that did not contain pith was 6–7 years, with a maximum correction of 12 years on one sample. Inner-ring dates varied by site and species, but the oldest trees at all three sites were whitebark pines, with a general shift toward increasing subalpine fir establishments in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries.

#### 5.3.1 Morrell Mountain

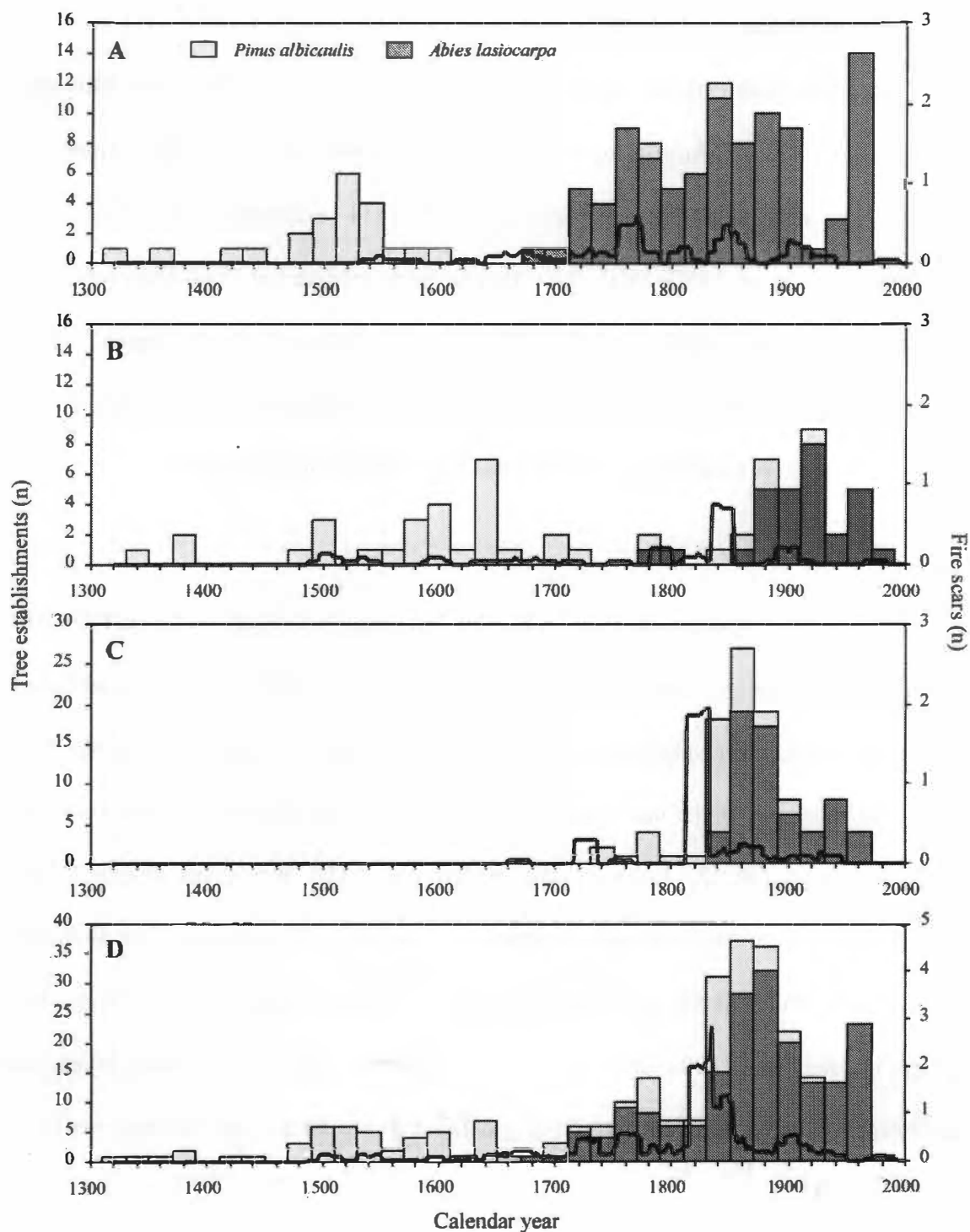
The majority (61%,  $n = 14$ ) of whitebark pine establishment occurred on Morrell Mountain from AD 1480–1559, while I identified only two whitebark pine trees that established in the plots more recently than 1640 (Figure 5.7A). Establishment levels were consistently low from 1560–1679, although the inner rings of several of the fire-scarred samples dated to this period (Figure 5.3). The oldest subalpine fir trees in the plots established *ca.* 1700, after which the presence of subalpine fir increased through the 18<sup>th</sup>, 19<sup>th</sup>, and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries despite several periods of increased fire activity in the 1700s and 1800s. The subalpine fir saplings on Morrell Mountain contained inner dates as early as 1769. Because these small trees are highly susceptible to fire, this suggests that a widespread fire has not burned throughout the stand since the 1754 fire event.

**Table 5.3** Age-structure data from three stands in the Lolo National Forest, Montana.

	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
<b>Whitebark Pine</b>				
Saplings Inventoried	45	18	24	87
No. Crossdated	*	*	*	*
Inner Dates	*	*	*	*
Trees Inventoried	39	58	80	177
No. Crossdated	24	34	35	93
Inner Dates	1333–1843	1392–1937	1753–1879	1333–1937
<b>Subalpine Fir</b>				
Saplings Inventoried	121	50	232	403
No. Crossdated	15	7	17	39
Inner Dates	1769–1975	1880–1976	1871–1966	1769–1976
Trees Inventoried	79	48	68	195
No. Crossdated	79	29	62	170
Inner Dates	1703–1978	1784–1984	1847–1953	1703–1984

\* no whitebark pine saplings were cut





**Figure 5.7** Age structure of trees on (A) Morrell Mountain, (B) Mineral Peak, (C) Point Six, and (D) all three sites combined. The dark line represents the 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded in the tree-ring based fire history of each site.

### 5.3.2 Mineral Peak

Whitebark pine establishment peaked on Mineral Peak *ca.* AD 1580–1640, with occasional minor establishments up to the early 1900s (Figure 5.7B). The majority of subalpine firs established in the plots after the 1834 widespread fire, with peak establishment from *ca.* 1880–1920. Only two fir trees predate the 1834 fire event. The plots on Mineral Peak contained the lowest number of saplings for both species, which reflects the relatively open, harsh environment at the site. Similar to Morrell Mountain, the oldest fir saplings established soon after the most recent widespread fire.

### 5.3.3 Point Six

The majority of inner dates for both whitebark pine and subalpine fir on Point Six are clustered from *ca.* AD 1840–1880 (Figure 5.7C). Several whitebark pines established before this period, while subalpine fir dominated the age structure after this period. The earliest whitebark pine inner dates followed the 1719 fire, and the peaks in whitebark and fir establishment directly followed the widespread 1816 fire event (Figure 5.5). Whitebark pine dominated the age-structure for the first 20 years after the fire, and subalpine fir dominated the age-structure from 40–80 years after the fire. Patchy fire activity in the late 1800s and early 1900s coincided with decreasing levels of establishment, although the abundance of subalpine fir saplings at the site suggests fir is still regenerating.

### 5.3.4 All Sites

The age structure for all sites combined was dominated by whitebark pine from AD 1300–1700, after which subalpine fir dominated these stands (Figure 5.7D). The

period of increased whitebark pine establishment between 1840 and 1880 is associated with the post-fire cohort on Point Six, and provides evidence of the pioneering nature of whitebark pine. Fire scars are rare before 1500, with small peaks in fire activity before or concurrent with the earliest tree establishments at all three sites. Fire activity in the study area peaked in the early to middle 1800s. This period coincided with relatively low levels of tree establishment and was immediately followed by the peak in tree establishment for the study area. The absence of subalpine fir in these data prior to AD 1700 may occur simply because evidence of earlier cohorts no longer exists due to subsequent fires and decay, and is not direct evidence of past forest composition.

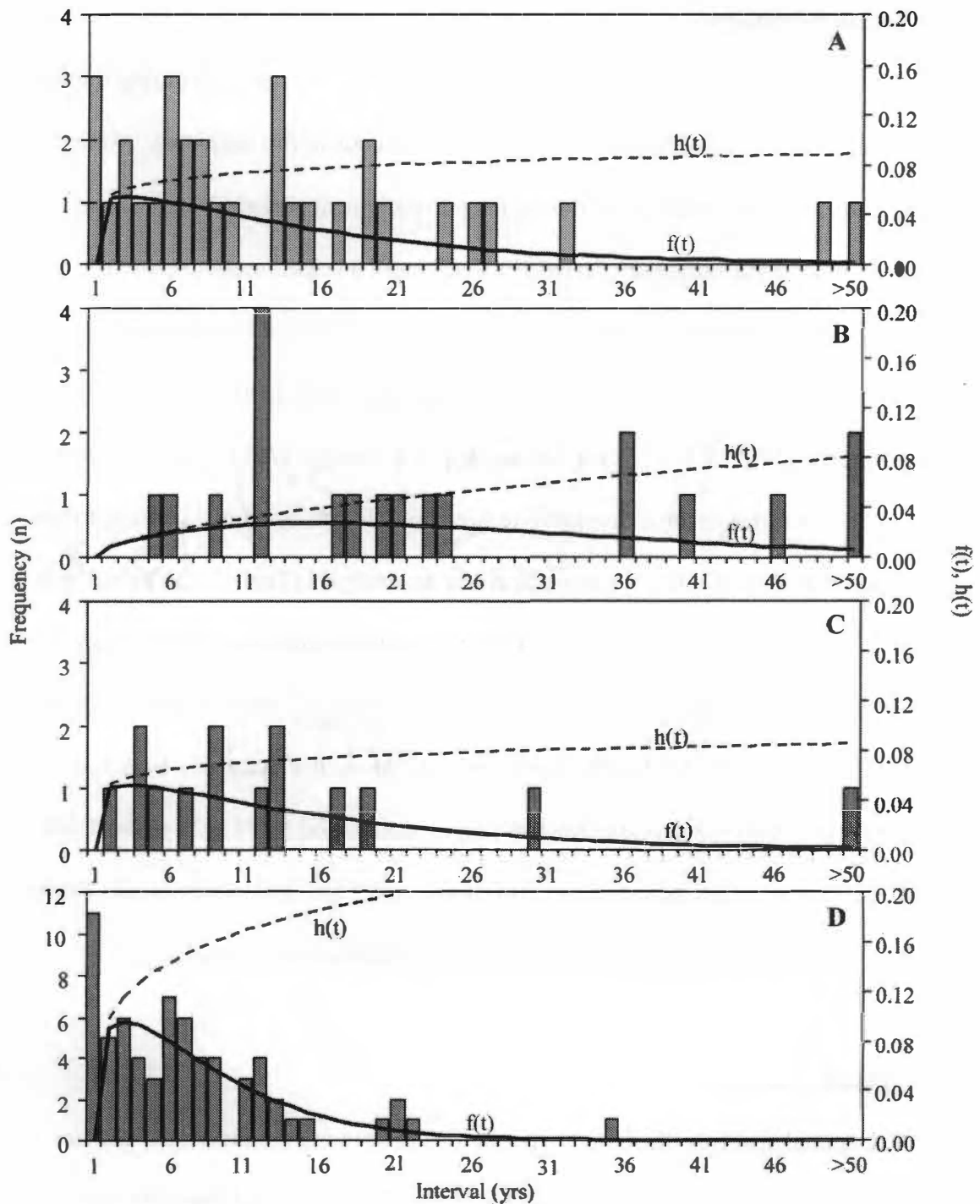
## **5.4 Statistical Analyses**

### **5.4.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Fire was a common disturbance across the study area, with 68 fire events that occurred within the study area during the last 506 years (Table 5.2). The characteristics of fire activity among the three sites varied, however. Fire events were most frequent on Morrell Mountain and Point Six according to all measures of central tendency, while Mineral Peak showed fire-free intervals that were approximately twice as long. The measures of central tendency on Morrell Mountain and Point Six followed patterns similar to those found in other fire history studies (Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004), where the  $MFI \geq MDI \geq MEI \geq MOI$ . The measures of central tendency of the Mineral Peak fire chronology were an exception to this pattern, however, with a MDI (20 years) lower than the MEI (22 years). This difference is related to the relatively long fire-free intervals recorded on Mineral Peak.

The minimum fire-free intervals of the three fire chronologies ranged from 1 to 5 years, while the maximum fire-free intervals ranged from 55 to 67 years. The LEIs of the Morrell Mountain and Point Six fire chronologies were 2 and 3 years, respectively, while the LEI of the Mineral Peak fire chronology was 8 years. The UEIs followed a similar pattern, with Morrell Mountain and Point Six fire chronologies recording lower values than the Mineral Peak fire chronology. The MHIs for all of the fire chronologies were >1000 years. These high values are related to the skewed, amodal distributions of the fire-free intervals of the fire chronologies (Figure 5.8), suggesting that a better measure for the upper limit in fire-free intervals at these sites is the UEI (Grissino-Mayer 1999).

The SD of the fire-free intervals was lowest on Morrell Mountain, while Mineral Peak and Point Six showed nearly identical standard deviations. The SD of a distribution, however, is highly affected by skewed data (Grissino-Mayer 1995), and the CV often provides a better measure to compare the variability of fire-free intervals between sites. The CV indicated that the variability of fire-free intervals was greatest on Point Six and least on Mineral Peak, with the variability of fire-free intervals on Morrell Mountain between the two. The distributions of all three sites were positively skewed (Figure 5.8). Kurtosis varied considerably between sites, with the distribution of fire-free intervals on Mineral Peak being platykurtic while distributions for Morrell Mountain and Point Six were more peaked (leptokurtic).



**Figure 5.8** Fire-free interval distributions for (A) Morrell Mountain, (B) Mineral Peak, (C) Point Six, and (D) all sites combined. The probability density functions of the distributions are represented by  $f(t)$ , and the hazard rates by  $h(t)$ .

### **5.4.2 Temporal Analyses**

The temporal analyses were limited by a lack of fire-free intervals during the fire suppression era (Table 5.4A), but still identified some trends in fire frequency. Mineral Peak and Point Six had similar MFIs during the pre-settlement period (22 years) and shorter MFIs during the settlement period (11 years and 10 years, respectively). In contrast, Morrell Mountain increased from a pre-settlement MFI of 10 years to a settlement period MFI of 14 years (Table 5.4B). The MFI based on all sites combined shows a decrease in MFI from 7 years during the pre-settlement era to 5 years during the settlement period. None of the individual site fire chronologies contained sufficient fire-free intervals to include the fire suppression era in the analyses (Table 5.5A, Table 5.6A), but analysis of the combined data for all three sites showed an increase in MFI from the pre-settlement period (7 years) to the fire suppression period (22 years; Table 5.5B), and a significant shift ( $p < 0.01$ ) to less frequent fires throughout the study area from the settlement period (MFI = 5 years) to the fire suppression period (MFI = 22 years; Table 5.6B). The analyses of variances (Tables 5.4C, 5.5C, and 5.6C) and distributions (Tables 5.4D, 5.5D, and 5.6D) found no statistical differences between any periods.

### **5.4.3 Spatial Analyses**

The spatial analyses illustrated two relationships among the individual site fire chronologies (Table 5.7). The fire histories for Morrell Mountain and Point Six were similar in terms of MFI, variance, and the distribution of fire-free intervals. The MFIs of Mineral Peak and Morrell Mountain were significantly different ( $p < 0.01$ ), as were their distributions ( $p < 0.05$ ). No differences were found between Mineral Peak and Point Six.

**Table 5.4** Results of the temporal analyses between the pre-settlement (POR–1850) and settlement (1851–1920) periods. (A) number of fire-free intervals in period; (B) difference in means; (C) differences in variance; (D) difference in distributions.

	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
<b>A</b>				
POR–1850	22	15	6	48
1851–1920	5	2	6	14
<b>B</b>				
POR–1850	10	22	22	7
1851–1920	14	11	10	5
$ t $ -value	0.52	1.18	0.75	0.90
$p > t$	0.61	0.25	0.48	0.37
<b>C</b>				
POR–1850	66	193	592	34
1851–1920	145	5	27	8
F-value	1.13	11.16	6.82	1.64
$p > F$	0.65	0.46	0.06	0.34
<b>D</b>				
K-S $d$ -statistic	0.22	0.80	0.33	0.29
$p > d$	0.99	0.21	0.89	0.32

**Table 5.5** Results of the temporal analyses between the pre-settlement (POR–1850) and fire suppression (1921–POR) periods. (A) number of fire-free intervals in period; (B) difference in means; (C) differences in variance; (D) difference in distributions.

	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
<b>A</b>				
POR–1850	22	15	6	48
1921–POR	*	*	*	2
<b>B</b>				
POR–1850	10	22	22	7
1921–POR	*	*	*	22
<i>t</i>  -value	*	*	*	1.73
$p > t$	*	*	*	0.32
<b>C</b>				
POR–1850	66	193	592	34
1921–POR	*	*	*	338
F-value	*	*	*	1.21
$p > F$	*	*	*	0.54
<b>D</b>				
K-S <i>d</i> -statistic	*	*	*	0.69
$p > d$	*	*	*	0.32

\* too few intervals to test between periods



**Table 5.6** Results of the temporal analyses between the settlement (1851–1920) and fire suppression (1921–POR) periods. (A) number of fire-free intervals in period; (B) difference in means; (C) differences in variance; (D) difference in distributions. Bold indicates significantly different ( $p \leq 0.01$ ).

	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
<b>A</b>				
1851–1920 (n)	5	2	6	14
1921–POR (n)	0	0	0	2
<b>B</b>				
1851–1920 mean (yrs)	14	11	10	5
1921–POR mean (yrs)	*	*	*	22
$ t $ -value	*	*	*	<b>3.22</b>
$p > t$	*	*	*	0.01
<b>C</b>				
1851–1920 var (yrs)	145	5	27	8
1921–POR var (yrs)	*	*	*	338
F-value	*	*	*	4.63
$p > F$	*	*	*	0.10
<b>D</b>				
K-S $d$ -statistic	*	*	*	0.86
$p > d$	*	*	*	0.15

\* too few intervals to test between periods

**Table 5.7** Results of the spatial analyses of fire chronologies developed from whitebark pine on three mountains in western Montana. The analyses tested for differences between sites in (A) MFI ( $|t|$ -value); (B) variance (F-value); and (C) distributions (K-S  $d$ -statistic).

	Mineral Peak	Point Six
<b>A</b>		
Morrell Mountain	<b>2.90**</b>	0.79
Mineral Peak	--	1.52
<b>B</b>		
Morrell Mountain	1.99	1.31
Mineral Peak	--	1.07
<b>C</b>		
Morrell Mountain	<b>0.45*</b>	0.19
Mineral Peak	--	0.30

\*  $p \leq 0.05$

\*\*  $p \leq 0.01$

#### 5.4.4 Fire Seasonality Analyses

The majority of fire events recorded in the fire chronologies of all three sites occurred during the late portions of the growing season, *i.e.* late August to October (Table 5.8; Figure 5.9), which agrees with the modern late-summer fire season of the Northern Rocky Mountains (Brown *et al.* 1994). The fire chronologies of Point Six and Mineral Peak showed little variability within the dominant fire seasonality for the sites, with only one (2%) and two (8%) early season fire events, respectively. Seasonality of fire events in the Morrell Mountain fire chronology was more variable, however, with 10 early season fire events (28%).

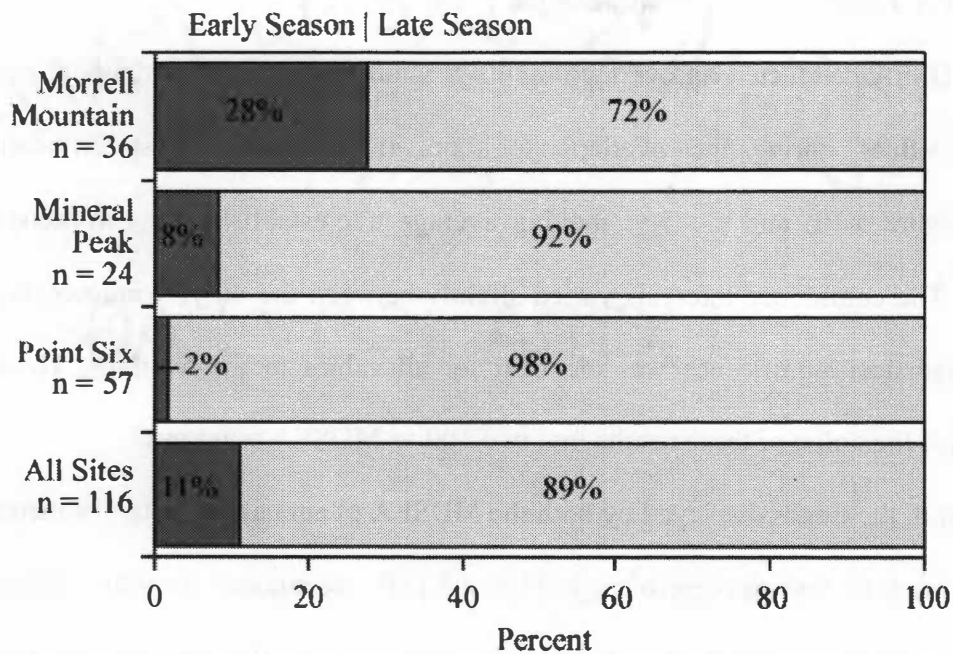
#### 5.4.5 Fire-Tree Establishment Relationships

The MDSEA conducted on overlapping 40-yr windows resulted in identical tree establishment values during the overlaps for both the annual tree-establishment chronology (Figure 5.10) and the 5-yr moving average tree-establishment chronology (Figure 5.11). The confidence intervals varied slightly between the 40-yr windows, but the level of statistical significance was identical for all values in the overlaps. These findings justified the union of these results into two 100-yr MDSEA windows.

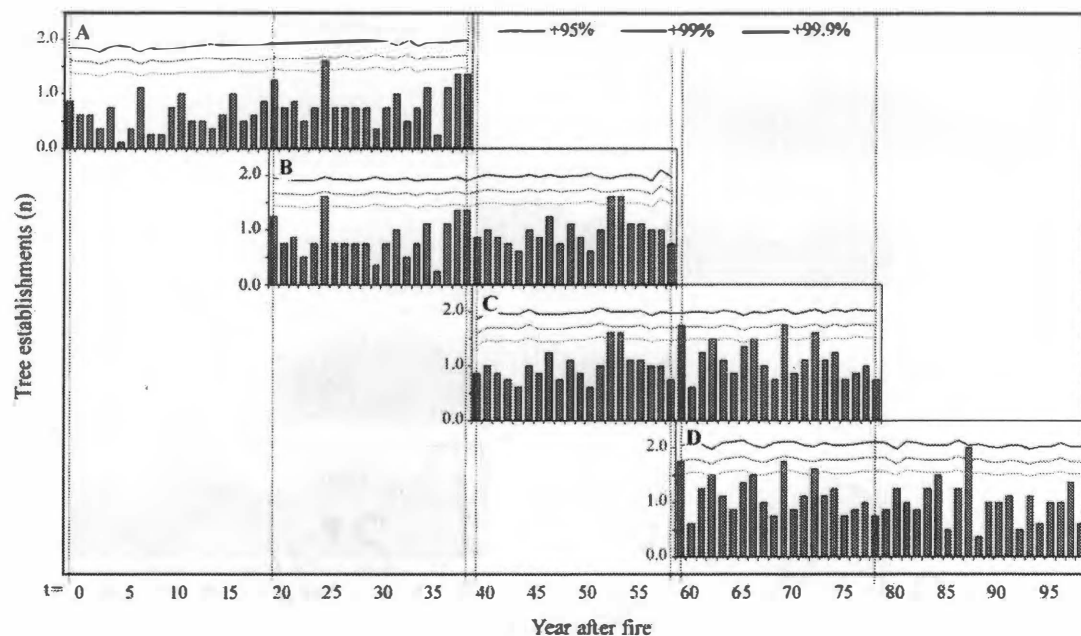
In general, the trends displayed by both the MDSEA of annual tree establishments (Figure 5.12A) and the 5-yr moving average (Figure 5.12B) are similar. An initial period of low establishment followed the fire event, after which the number of tree establishments increased steadily and peaked *ca.* 50–75 years after the fire event. Tree establishment frequencies decline after the peak period, but are still above the level of establishments that immediately followed the fire event. The relatively erratic values in

**Table 5.8** Fire seasonality in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and all sites combined.

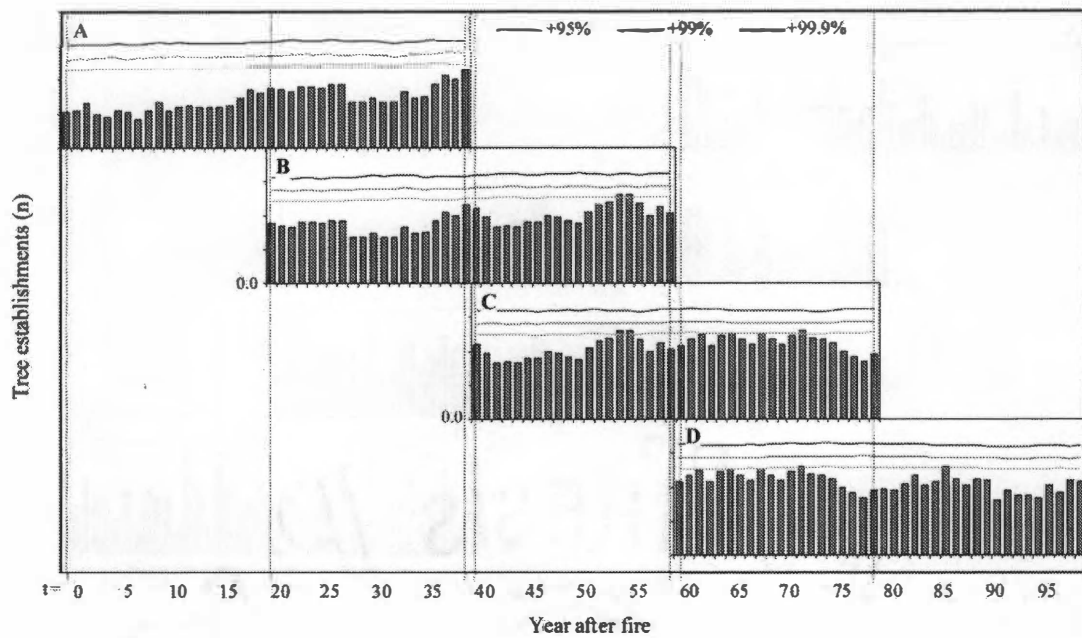
Fire season	No. fire scars (% of total)			
	Morrell Mountain	Mineral Peak	Point Six	All Sites
E: May	9 (25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	9 (8)
M: June to early July	1 (3)	1 (4)	0 (0)	2 (2)
L: late July to early August	0 (0)	1 (4)	1 (2)	2 (2)
A: late August	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
D: September to October	26 (72)	22 (92)	55 (98)	103 (88)



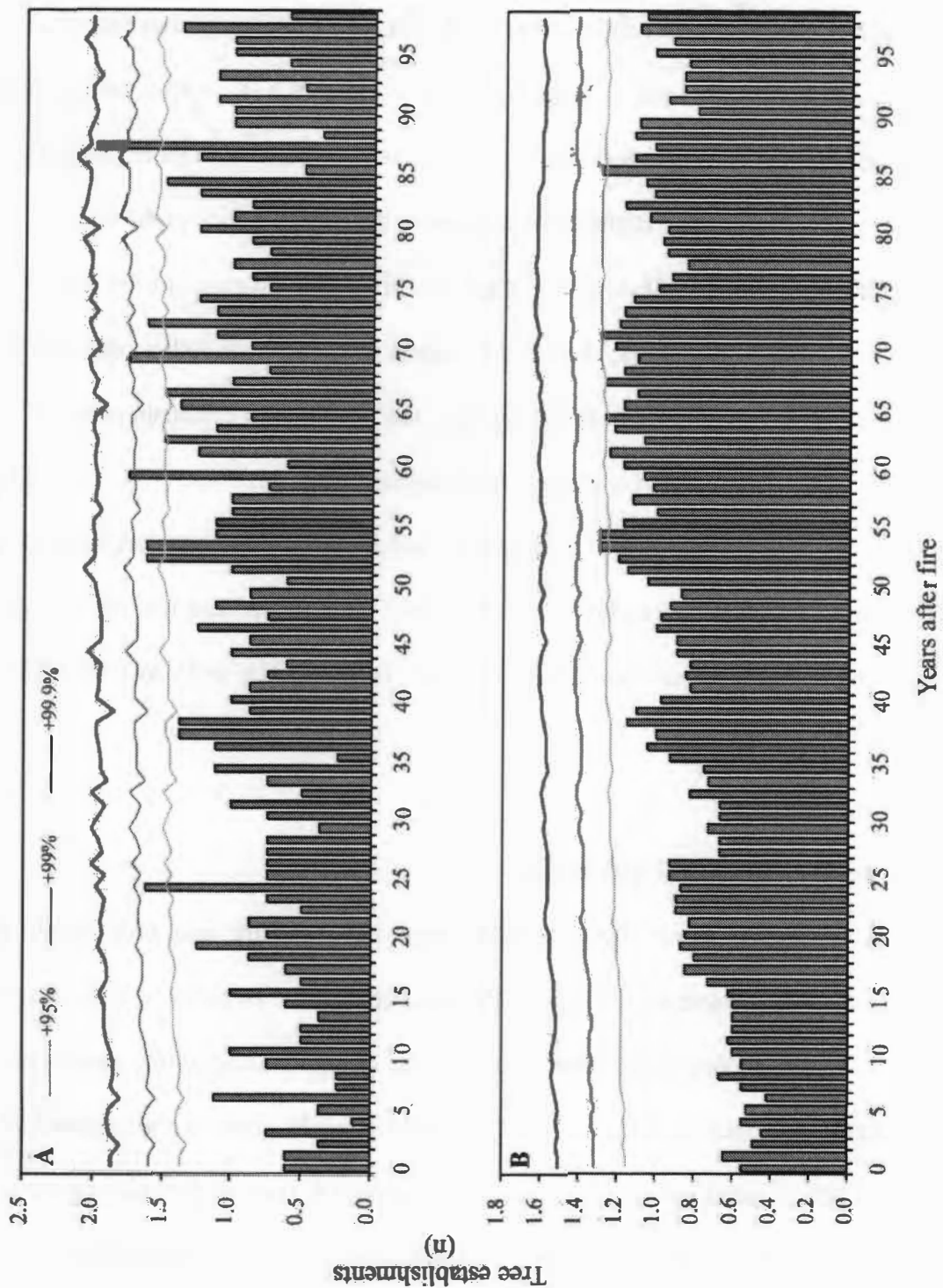
**Figure 5.9** Fire seasonality in whitebark pine forests on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana, and all sites combined.



**Figure 5.10** Results from four multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and annual tree establishment. The analyses included tree establishment dates lagged (A) 0 years, (B) 20 years, (C) 40 years, and (D) 60 years. Dotted lines connect the first and last year of each overlapping segment. See Figure 4.2 for the methods used to create the lagged chronologies.



**Figure 5.11** Results from four multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses examining the relationship between fire and the 5-yr moving average of tree establishments. See Figure 5.12 for explanations of the methods used.



**Figure 5.12** Fire-tree establishment relationships over the 98 years following fire events in study sites on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. Results are from multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses using (A) annual tree establishments and (B) 5-yr moving average of tree establishments.

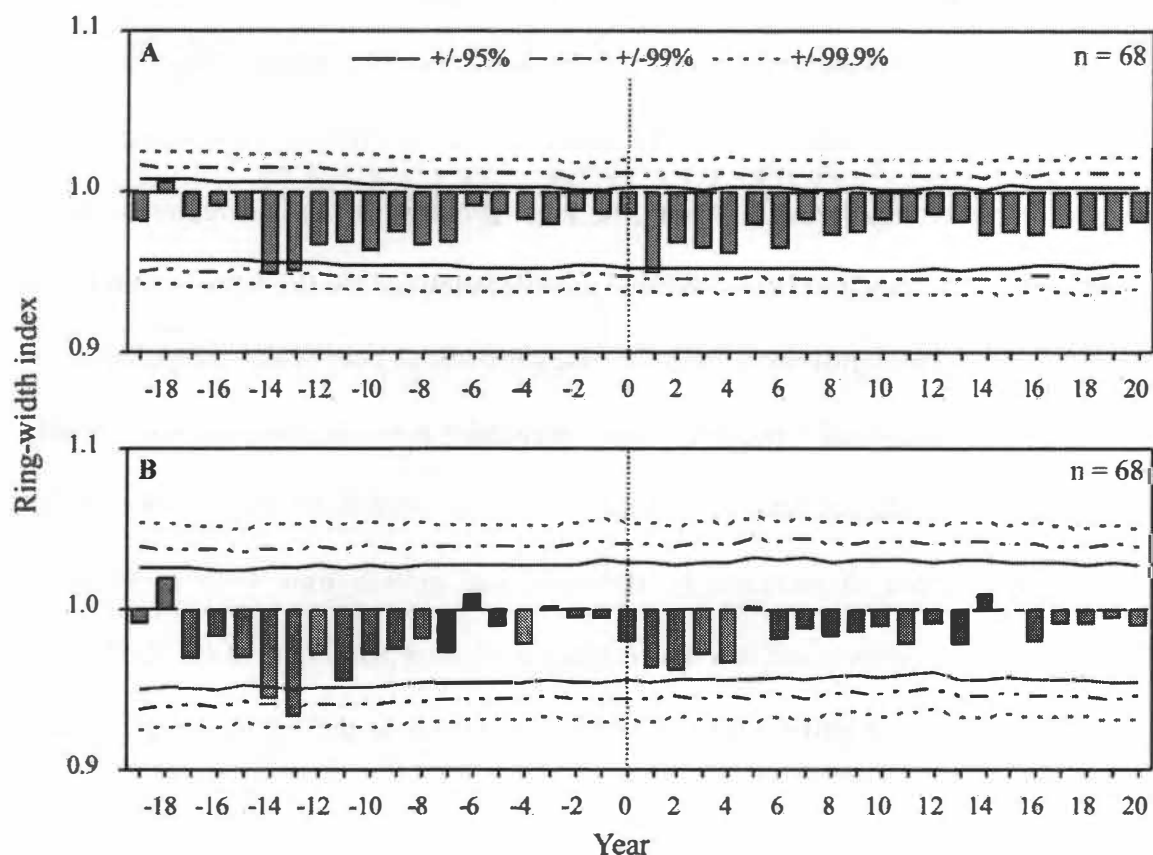
the annual tree establishment resulted in several years of significantly above-average tree establishments that range from t+24 to t+87, with a cluster of significant values during the peak period of establishment (t+52, t+53, t+59, t+62, t+66, t+69, and t+72), but these individual years mean little statistically compared to the overall trends of the data.

Although the MDSEA using the 5-yr moving average introduced some autocorrelation into the analysis, the overall pattern provided a smoother representation of the trends in tree establishment following fire. The peak in tree establishment, centered on years of significantly above-average tree establishments at t+53, t+54, t+64, t+67, t+71, includes several independent 5-yr periods and indicates the results are likely not a result of autocorrelation. Variations from the overall trend of the data include periods of relatively more frequent tree establishments from t+16 to t+26, t+35 to t+40, t+50 to t+55, and t+81 to t+89.

#### **5.4.6 Fire-Tree Growth Relationships**

The MDSEA found several relationships between fire and both local- and regional-scale tree growth, as well as similarities between the two scales. Results of the MDSEA based on all fire events identified a pattern of below-average tree growth for 39 of 40 years at the local scale (Figure 5.13A) and 35 of 40 years at the regional scale (Figure 5.13B). A trend of strongly below-average growth from t-15 to t-7 is present in both local and regional tree growth, with significantly below average growth in both analyses at t-14 ( $p < 0.05$ ) and t-13 (local =  $p < 0.05$ ; regional =  $p < 0.01$ ). Local tree growth was significantly below average ( $p < 0.05$ ) one year after the fire (t+1), but this relationship was not identified at the regional scale. While the dominant pattern of tree





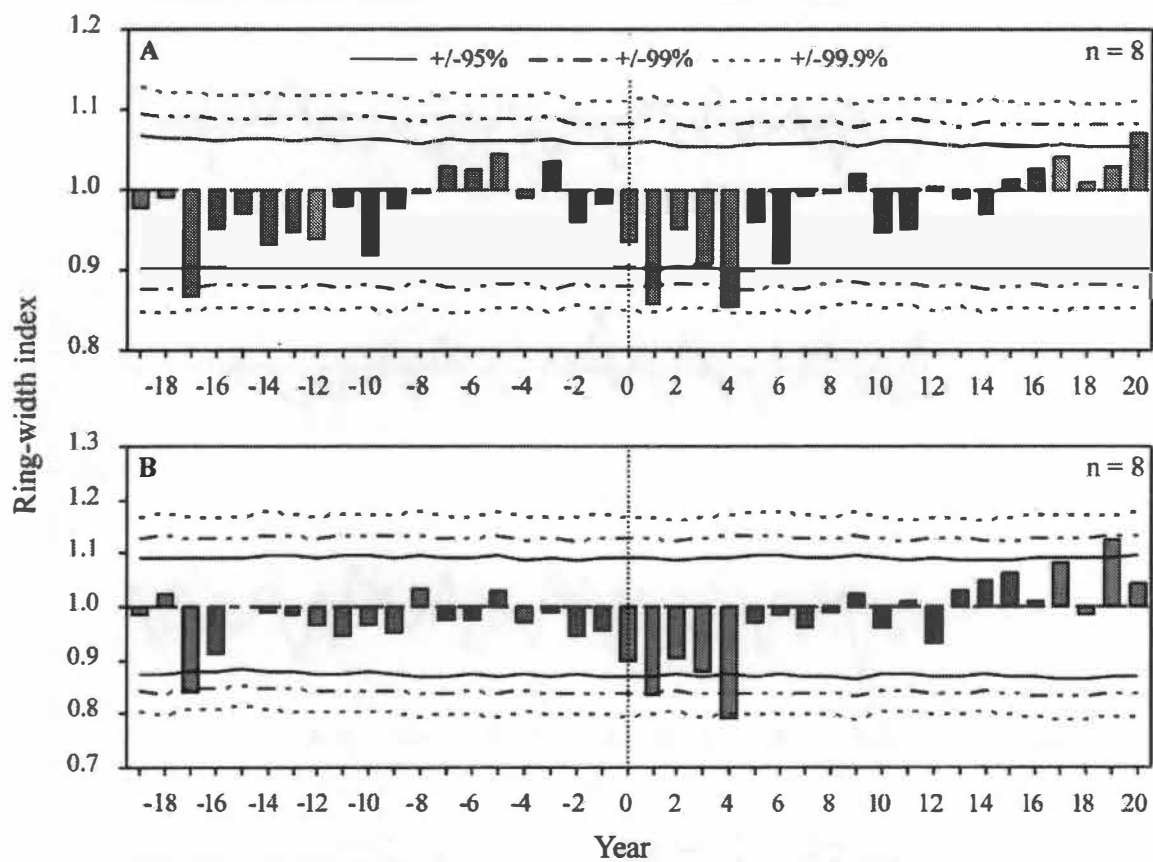
**Figure 5.13** Results from multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses of the relationship between all fires and tree growth at (A) local and (B) regional scales. The local analysis used the standardized master ring-width chronology developed from the fire-scarred samples collected in the Lolo National Forest, while the regional analysis used a standardized ring-width chronology developed from whitebark pine on Carlton Ridge in the neighboring Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area (Kipfmüller 2003). Bars represent the departure of the average actual ring-width indices (RWI) from the chronology mean RWI of 1.00. The dashed vertical lines indicate the year of the fire event ( $t = 0$ ).

growth was below average, the magnitude of this trend increased and decreased on *ca.* 4–10-yr intervals, with the year of the fire occurring at a transition from near-average growth rates to relatively lower growth rates at both scales.

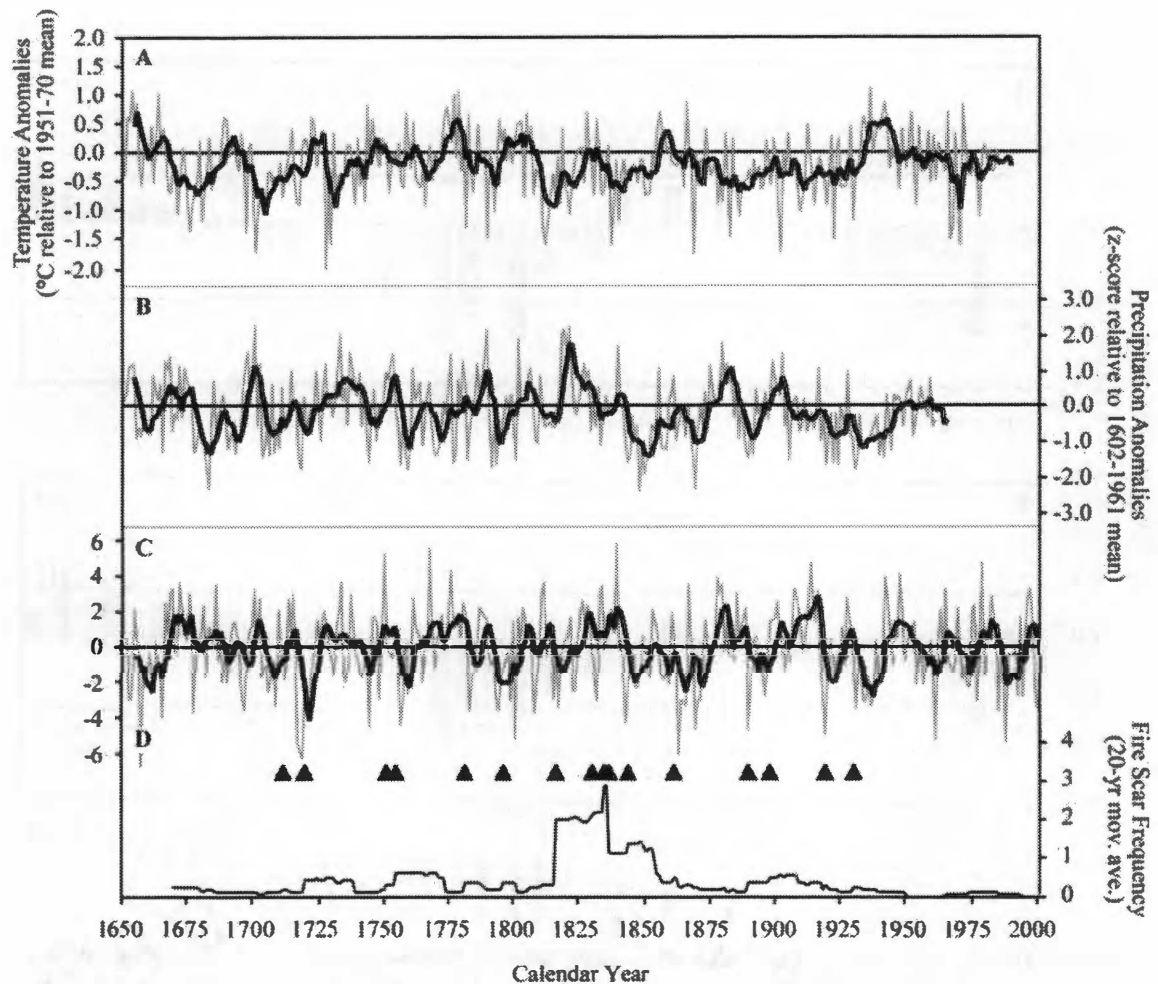
The MDSEA conducted with the filtered composite master fire chronology indicated widespread fire events occurred during a transition from near-average growth to strongly below-average growth at both the local (Figure 5.14A) and regional (Figure 5.14B) scales. The trends of below-average growth following the fire lasted several years at both scales, with significantly below-average growth at both scales identified at  $t+1$  (local =  $p < 0.05$ ; regional =  $p < 0.01$ ) and  $t+4$  (local =  $p < 0.01$ ; regional =  $p < 0.001$ ). The years  $t+7$  to  $t+12$  are relatively nearer to average growth for both scales, and are followed by a trend of increasingly above-average growth from  $t+15$  to  $t+20$ . An oscillation between above- and below-average growth on a periodicity of *ca.* 20–25 years is evident at the local scale (Figure 5.14A), but less so at the regional scale (Figure 5.14B).

## 5.5 Fire-Climate Relationships

I identified several relationships between fire activity and climate at multiple scales in my study area over the past 350 years. The overall relationship between temperature and fire activity showed relatively little association (Figure 5.15A). Fires occurred during cool years (*e.g.* the fires of 1781 and 1816) and warm years (*e.g.* the fires of 1754 and 1889), but were not associated with years of either extreme. Generally cooler temperatures occurred during the period of peak fire activity in my sites. Precipitation showed a relatively weak association with fire activity (5.15B). A period of above-



**Figure 5.14** Results from multi-decadal superposed epoch analyses of the relationship between widespread fires and tree growth at (A) local and (B) regional scales. See Figure 5.10 for explanation.

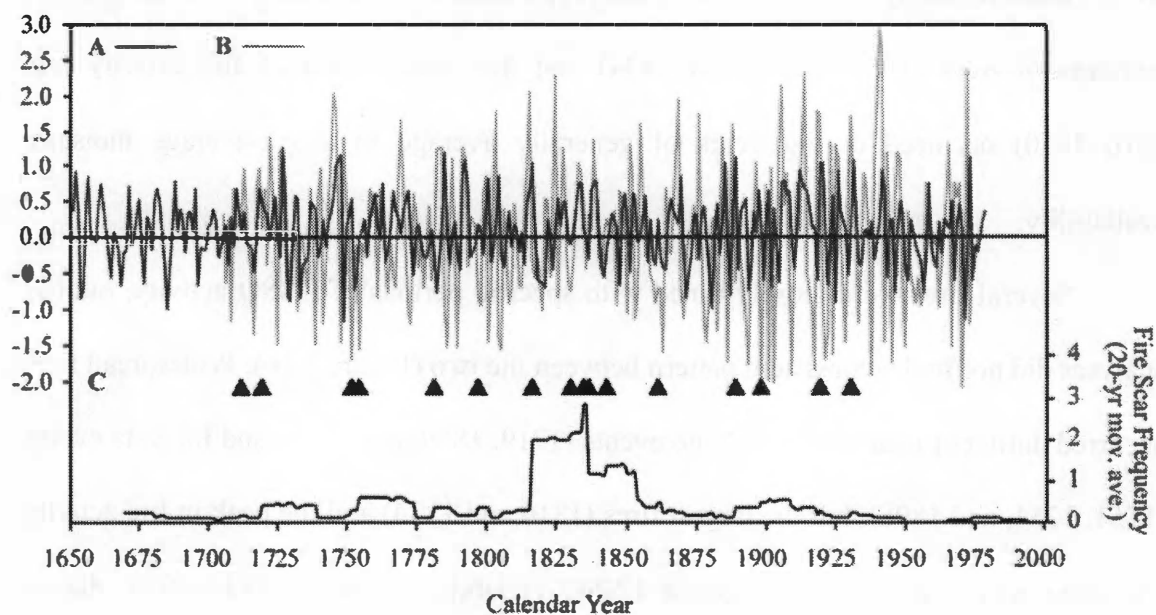


**Figure 5.15** Visual representation of the relationships between: (A) temperature (annual and 5-yr moving average; Briffa *et al.* 1992); (B) Precipitation (annual and 5-yr moving average; Fritts 1991); (C) Palmer Drought Severity Index (annual and 5-yr moving average; Cook *et al.* 1999); and (D) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites. Triangles represent years when multiple trees recorded fire events.

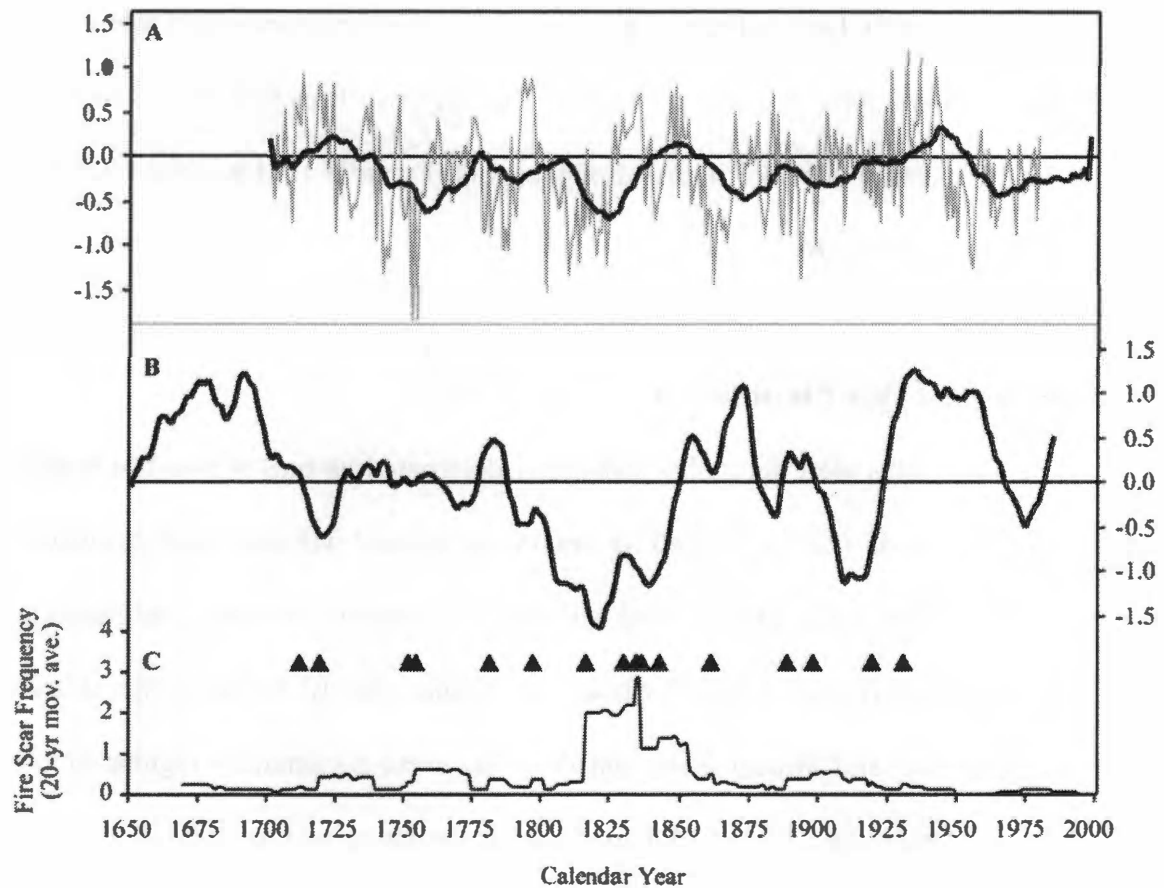
average precipitation coincided with a gap in fire activity from *ca.* 1725–1750, but the wettest period in the reconstruction directly overlapped with the period of peak fire activity in the study area. Comparisons with the reconstructed PDSI showed a somewhat stronger relationship, as several widespread fires (*e.g.* 1719, 1889, and 1919) were recorded during drought years (5.15C). However, both the fires that scarred the greatest numbers of trees (1754, 1816, and 1834) and the peak period of fire activity (*ca.* 1816–1850) occurred during years of generally average to above-average moisture availability.

Several fires were closely timed with specific periods of ENSO activity, but my analyses did not find a consistent pattern between the two (Figure 5.16). Widespread fires occurred during or near strong El Niño events (1719, 1889, and 1919) and La Niña events (1751, 1754, and 1898), but the largest fires (1816 and 1834) and the peak in fire activity coincided with a period of dampened ENSO variability from *ca.* 1810–1850, during which no El Niño events occurred (Cleaveland *et al.* 1992).

Fire activity in my study area appears to be strongly influenced more by multidecadal climate variability (Figure 5.17). No fire events were recorded during the warm phase of the AMO from *ca.* AD 1650–1700. The two widespread fires that burned in the early 1700s occurred during a short cool phase of the AMO, and the widespread fire in 1754 coincided with a transition to a period of extremely low PDO indices in both PDO reconstructions. A strong relationship exists between widespread fire events and the PDO, with 14 of 15 widespread fire events occurring during cool phases of the PDO, and 10 of these within one year of the lowest PDO index of the respective oscillations. The peak period of fire activity is nested within synchronous prolonged, deep-cool phases of



**Figure 5.16** Visual representation of the relationship between: (A) Nino3 (D'Arrigo *et al.* in press) and (B) Southern Oscillation Index (inverse z-scores; Stahle *et al.* 1998), with (C) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites. Triangles represent years when multiple trees recorded fire events.



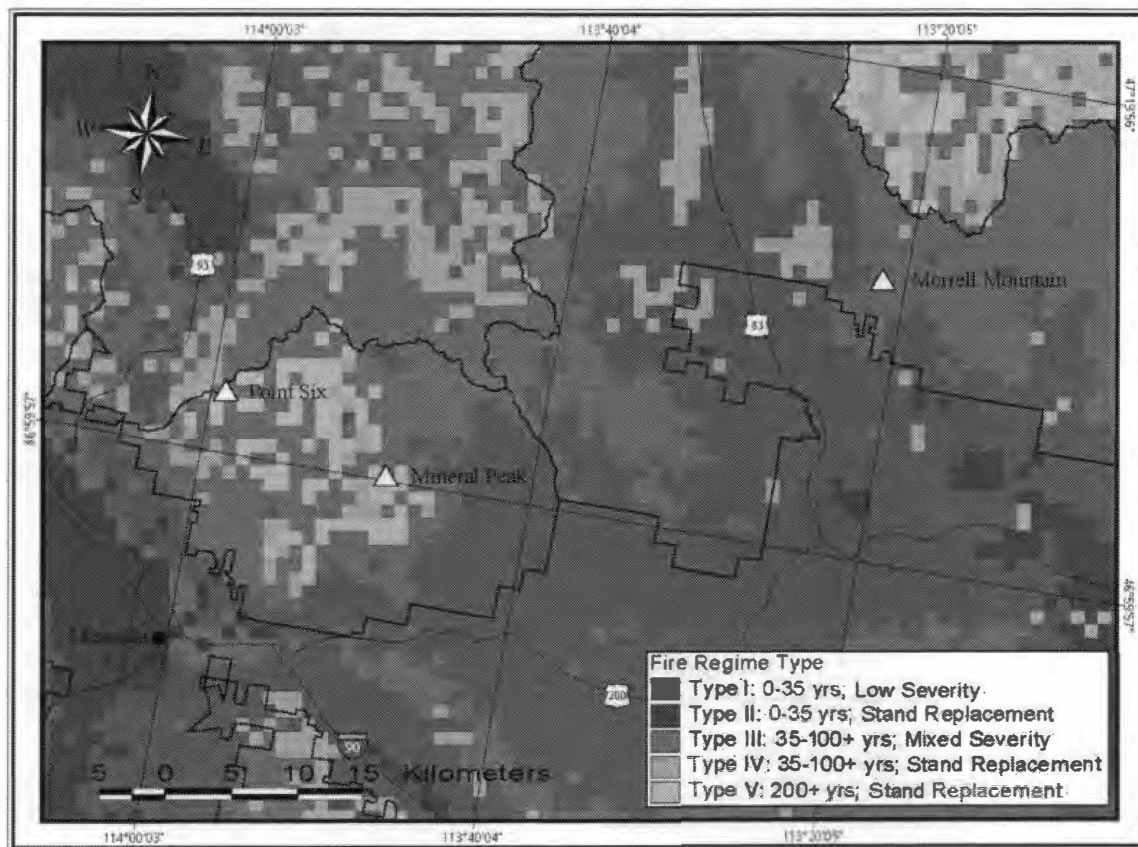
**Figure 5.17** Visual representation of the relationship between (A) Pacific Decadal Oscillation (annual and 20-yr moving average; D'Arrigo *et al.* 2001), and (B) the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (Gray *et al.* 2004), with (C) fire activity, including a 20-yr moving average of the number of fire scars recorded at all sites. Triangles represent years when multiple trees recorded fire events.

the AMO and the PDO. This period is followed by *ca.* 50 years during which only one fire scarred multiple trees and coincided with a strongly low PDO index and a downturn in the AMO. The fire activity recorded during the late 1800s occurred during generally cool phases of the PDO, but as all three multi-decadal oscillations moved to warm phases in the early- to mid-1900s, fire activity ceased. The only two fires that scarred multiple trees in the 20<sup>th</sup> century occurred during drought years (Figure 5.15) that were related to El Niño events (Figure 5.16).

## **5.6 Fire Regime Type Classification**

The study sites were located within areas designated as one of two fire regime types by Schmidt *et al.* (2002). Morrell Mountain was located within an area designated as a type I fire regime, while Mineral Peak and Point Six were within areas designated as type III fire regimes (Figure 5.18). Areas of fire regime type III bordered the Morrell Mountain study site, and Mineral Peak and Point Six were bordered by regions of fire regime type V. Using the LEI and UEI to delineate the range of fire intervals for each site, coupled with evidence of post-fire cohorts in the age-structure data to describe fire severity, the study site on Morrell Mountain would be classified as fire regime type I, while the study sites on Mineral Peak and Point Six could be classified as either fire regime type I or III due to the ranges in fire frequency (Table 5.9).





**Figure 5.18** Fire regime types for three study sites in the Lolo National Forest, Montana. Classified by Schmidt *et al.* (2002). The national forest is outlined in black, and triangles represent the individual study sites. See Table 1.1 for descriptions of the fire regime types.

**Table 5.9** Fire regime classifications for study sites on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest. See Table 1.1 for FRCC fire regime type definitions.

Site	Range <sup>1</sup>	Fire Severity <sup>2</sup>	Fire regime type	
			FRCC <sup>3</sup>	Site Specific <sup>4</sup>
Morrell Mountain	2–27 yrs	Low to mixed severity, replacing less than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation	Type I	Type I
Mineral Peak	8–44 yrs	Low to mixed severity, replacing less than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation	Type III	Type I/ Type III
Point Six	3–30 yrs	Mixed severity fires replacing less than 75% of the dominant overstory vegetation	Type III	Type I/ Type III

<sup>1</sup> As defined by the LEI and UEI

<sup>2</sup> As indicated by age-structure data

<sup>3</sup> As defined by Schmidt *et al.* 2002

<sup>4</sup> As derived from dendrochronological research

## Chapter Six

### 6. Discussion

#### 6.1 Fire History and Age Structure of Whitebark Pine Forests

The fire regimes of all three of my study sites were clearly mixed-severity. The stand structure, fire frequency, and fire severity descriptions that I derived from the fire-scar and age-structure data fit the descriptions of forests maintained by this fire regime type (Arno *et al.* 2000). These descriptors include a generally uneven age structure with limited evidence of one or more post-fire cohorts, and fire histories that include numerous small, patchy fires punctuated by less frequent, widespread fires. Fire-scar data alone are insufficient to characterize many subalpine fire regimes (Kipfmuehler and Baker 1998), but coupling crossdated fire-scar data with age-structure data proved effective in describing the forests in my study sites.

#### *Comparisons to Previous Fire History Research in Whitebark Pine Forests*

While previous research has described the fire regimes of whitebark pine forests as mixed-severity (Arno 2001), fire events recorded in my study sites are more frequent than reported by nearly all other fire history studies conducted in this ecosystem (however, see Morgan and Bunting 1990). When compared to the findings of previous research in whitebark pine forests, the LEI, each measure of central tendency, and the UEI were all lower for my sites than values reported in the studies that did not implement crossdating (Table 2.1). Additionally, the MFIs found by Kipfmuehler (2003) were for entire watersheds, and at the scale of individual stands, fire was more common in my study sites.

The disparity between fire frequency at my sites and previous research in whitebark pine forests may be related to several factors, including geographic location, elevation, topography, and the research methods used. The relatively broad geographic range represented by these different studies may create sufficiently different local climate regimes that contribute to different disturbance regimes. In general, the MFIs found in previous fire history studies shift from longer intervals in the southern areas in and around Yellowstone National Park to shorter intervals in the Northern Rockies (Table 2.1). However, latitudinal differences are unlikely to be the main cause of variation in MFIs between sites. Morgan and Bunting (1990) reported a very short MFI in Wyoming, while Keane *et al.* (1994) reported relatively long MFIs for their sites in the Northern Rockies, most of which were within *ca.* 50 km of Morrell Mountain. The lack of a consistent relationship between fire frequency and the geographic location of previously studied whitebark pine forests suggests that other factors likely cause differences in these fire regimes.

Elevation and topography both influence fire regimes in the Pacific Northwest (Heyerdahl *et al.* 2001), the American Southwest (Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004), and the Colorado Front Range (Hadley 1994). With respect to the fire regimes of whitebark pine in the Northern Rockies, elevation is unlikely to be the sole source of variation in fire frequency because whitebark pine forests are already limited to elevations above *ca.* 1850 m throughout the region (Arno and Hoff 1990). However, the elevational relief of a site relative to the surrounding area may play an important role in determining fire activity. Many of the previous studies on fire history in whitebark pine forests were conducted within watershed basins, but my sites were located on the upper slopes of peaks that were

the highest points in the immediate area. The concave topography of watersheds likely reduces lightning activity in the basin, while the convex topography of my sites creates “islands” of higher elevation that may act as focal points for lightning strikes and lead to more frequent fires, similar to the “Sky Islands” of southern Arizona (Grissino-Mayer and Fritts 1995, Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 1996) and the lake islands of Quebec (Bergeron 1991). Some of the previous studies included fire history data from ridge tops (*e.g.* Arno and Petersen 1983, Keane *et al.* 1994, and Barrett 1994), but only one study specifically collected fire-scarred samples on a peak (Morgan and Bunting 1990), and they in fact reported the shortest MFIs. Additional evidence for increased fire activity on ridges and peaks in whitebark pine forests comes from Barrett (1994a), who noted several whitebark pine trees with multiple fire scars on ridge tops near his study area. The high relief and convex topography of my study sites may therefore have led to the short MFIs recorded at my sites.

While the location, elevation, and topography may have played a role in creating the exceptionally short fire-free intervals recorded at the sites examined using crossdating methods, the fact that all three studies that used crossdating reported lower MFIs than any study that did not use crossdating (Table 2.1) suggests that this pattern is also likely related to the research methods applied. Extremely narrow and locally absent rings are common in high-elevation trees due to episodes of extreme climate and disturbance events (Fritts 1976, Romme 1982), and many of my samples included narrow or missing rings directly after a fire scar (Figures 5.13A and 5.14A). The combined effects of a harsh climate and the relatively high frequency of small, patchy fires in subalpine forests

(Barrett 2000), introduces a large amount of uncertainty in ring counts of fire-scarred samples collected from high-elevation trees such as whitebark pine.

Several studies explicitly stated that uncertainty existed in their fire-scar dates (e.g. Romme 1982 and Murray *et al.* 1998), and used age-structure data to corroborate fire dates. However, fire history reconstructions that rely on age-structure data often provide confident reconstructions of large fire events in ecosystems dominated by stand-replacing fire regimes (Kipfmüller and Baker 1998), but tend to underestimate the frequency of small fires that leave minimal or obscure evidence of their passage on the landscape (Murray *et al.* 1998). In addition, the methods for non-crossdated fire-scar-based fire history reconstructions were developed in forest systems where fires were commonly widespread, and some researchers suggested that fire scars in close succession be shifted to represent a single fire event rather than separate events (Arno and Sneek 1977). While this may be appropriate in some ecosystems, this technique would lead to underestimations of fire frequency and overestimations in fire size if applied to the mixed-severity fire regimes of the whitebark pine ecosystem. The combination of the uncertainty in fire-scar dates, the low resolution of age-structure data, and the adjustment of multiple fire dates to represent single fire events could be responsible for some of the differences in MFIs reported by studies that either used or did not use crossdating.

#### *Fire Seasonality and Anthropogenic Influences on the Fire Regime of Morrell Mountain*

The dominance of dormant season fires at all three sites agrees with the modern fire season of the Northern Rockies (Barrows 1977, Brown *et al.* 1994). However, the greater variability in the seasons of past fires on Morrell Mountain provides an interesting

contrast to the other two sites. Lightning appears to be the dominant ignition source in my study sites due to the seasonality and patchy nature of most fire events recorded in my study area (Barrows 1977). The proximity and overall similarity in geographic setting of Morrell Mountain, Mineral Peak, and Point Six suggest the sites are affected by similar weather patterns, such as the late-summer lightning storms common to the region. The similarity in settings and ignition sources among these three sites would seemingly lead to similarity in fire seasonality. However, the variability in fire seasonality on Morrell Mountain suggests that other factors affected the occurrence of fire events at this site, potentially including anthropogenic activity and land use history (Barrett and Arno 1982, Arno 1985).

Research in the American Southwest has investigated anthropogenic influences on local fire regimes by defining the dominant fire season of an ecosystem, then identifying areas of fire activity that are consistently outside the normal fire season (Seklecki *et al.* 1996, Kaye and Swetnam 1999, Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004). The greater variation from the dominant fire season on Morrell Mountain may therefore indicate a fire regime modified by human activity. Supporting evidence for this hypothesis is provided by the presence of bark-peeled lodgepole pines on the flanks of Morrell Mountain (Grissino-Mayer *et al.* in press). Culturally modified trees are associated with Native American activity throughout the West (Swetnam 1984), and have been identified along several major Native American trails in the northwestern U.S. (Bergland 1992, Merrell and Clark 2001). This suggests Morrell Mountain may have been along a travel corridor associated with the settlement near Seeley Lake identified by Arno *et al.* (1997).

Additional supporting evidence for anthropogenic influences on the fire regime of Morrell Mountain comes from the diary of Captain William Clark, of the Lewis and Clark expedition, when camping near Lolo Pass with a group of Flathead Indians (DeVoto 1997):

Wednesday June 25<sup>th</sup> 1806

last evening the indians entertained us with setting the fir trees on fire. they have a great number of dry limbs near their bodies which when Set on fire create a very sudden and emmence blaize from bottom to top of those tall trees. they are a boutifull object in this situation at night. this exhibition remi[n]de[d] me of a display of firewo[r]ks. the natives told us that their object in Setting those trees on fire was to bring fair weather for our journey.

The Morrell Mountain fire tower was built due to the broad view it commanded of the surrounding area, and trees set ablaze on the mountain top would be visible for miles in several directions, including the valley around Seeley Lake. The usefulness of this location for communication, the culturally modified trees, and the intentional use of fire by Native American tribes that inhabited this area all suggest that human activity may be responsible for the variability in fire seasonality on Morrell Mountain.

#### *Age Structure Trends in Whitebark Pine Forests and Periods of Increased Fire Activity*

The majority of whitebark pine trees in the study plots on Morrell Mountain and Mineral Peak established during a relatively synchronous period during the AD 1500s and early 1600s. Several lines of evidence suggest these trees represent climate and disturbance related cohorts. The relatively close timing of the establishment of numerous trees suggests that conditions were ideal for establishment during this period. The pioneering nature of whitebark pine (Tomback *et al.* 1993) suggests the occurrence of a widespread disturbance that created suitable openings for whitebark pine establishment.



The lag that occurs in tree establishment following a fire (Figure 5.12) has been identified in other high elevation forests (Little *et al.* 1994), and suggests that widespread disturbances likely affected my sites in the mid- to late-1400s. Disturbances that affect the landscape on a broad scale that could lead to increased establishment of whitebark pines include mountain pine beetle outbreaks, drought, and fire.

### *The Relationship Between Age-Structure and Mountain Pine Beetle Activity*

Epidemic-scale mountain pine beetle outbreaks occasionally lead to widespread mortality in the forests of the Northern Rockies (Bartos and Gibson 1990, Kipfmüller *et al.* 2002). Documented outbreaks in the early 1900s and 1980s affected hundreds of thousands of hectares of subalpine forests in this region (Bartos and Gibson 1990), with the ghost forests of whitebark pine that are scattered across the landscape serving as evidence of these outbreaks (Arno and Hammerly 1984). While the mortality caused by these outbreaks undoubtedly created forest openings suitable for regeneration of the disturbance-dependent whitebark pine (Arno 2001), mountain pine beetles preferentially attack larger, seed producing trees which leads to greatly diminished whitebark pine seed sources following beetle epidemics (Kendall and Keane 2001). Whitebark pine trees can produce cones at 20–30 years of age, but large cone crops typically do not occur until a tree is 60–80 years old (McCaughey and Tomback 2001). The potential delay in whitebark pine regeneration following beetle outbreaks likely provides an opportunity for competitive species that commonly coexist with whitebark pine and are unaffected by mountain pine beetle, such as subalpine fir and Engelmann spruce, to gain dominance in stands previously dominated by whitebark pine (Bartos and Gibson 1990).

Mountain pine beetle activity is also strongly affected by climate and weather (Amman 1972). Beetle larvae are susceptible to short term, extremely cold weather events (Bentz *et al.* 1991, Bentz and Mullins 1999), and extended periods of cooler temperatures can limit the potential for widespread outbreaks in subsequent years (Bartos and Gibson 1990, Safranyik and Linton 1998, KipfmueLLer *et al.* 2002). A tree-ring based reconstruction of summer temperature in the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area (KipfmueLLer 2003) shows below average temperatures for the region during the second half of the 15<sup>th</sup> century. While these relatively cooler temperatures suggest mountain pine beetle outbreaks likely were not responsible for the whitebark pine establishment in the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries, few studies have reconstructed long-term records of previous beetle outbreaks of this region (Perkins and Swetnam 1996, KipfmueLLer *et al.* 2002) and the relationship between mountain pine beetle outbreaks and the age structure of my sites is uncertain.

### *The Relationship Between Age Structure and Drought*

Drought conditions can affect forest structure both directly, by killing trees due to a moisture deficiency (Kitzberger *et al.* 1995), and indirectly, by weakening the resistance of trees to mountain pine beetle attacks (KipfmueLLer *et al.* 2002) and by curing fine and coarse fuels that facilitate the spread of fires (KipfmueLLer 2003). Regeneration pulses would be related to the end of drought conditions and the establishment of trees on the recently disturbed sites. The 1400s were a period of drought in the Northern Rocky Mountains (Cook *et al.* 1999), but relative to the history of the region, this was not a period of severe moisture deficiency. Although whitebark pine is commonly found on

dry, exposed sites (Arno and Hoff 1990), the species is extremely drought tolerant (Weaver 2001) and it is unlikely that a drought of this scale would lead to widespread mortality and the resulting pulse in regeneration. The dry conditions were also coupled with below average temperatures that would limit mountain pine beetle regeneration. The most likely relationship between drought and the regeneration pulse of the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries that remains is through drought-related fire activity.

### *The Relationship Between Age Structure and Fire Activity*

While relatively little fire history data in the Northern Rockies extend into the late 1400s and early 1500s (Barrett *et al.* 1997), Arno (1981) suggested that a large fire may have burned near Mineral Peak in the 1500s. Additionally, fire history studies conducted in the Lolo National Forest in lower-elevation forest types that are not susceptible to mountain pine beetle also showed cohorts that established in the early- to mid-1500s (Arno *et al.* 1995, Arno *et al.* 1997). This suggests that the late 15<sup>th</sup> century may have been a period of widespread fire activity, similar to the peak in fire activity in my study area *ca.* 1816–1850, followed by a period of widespread whitebark pine regeneration in the burned areas. Additional research utilizing the long life-span of whitebark pine may be able to provide information on the causes of this broadly-synchronous period of cohort establishment.

### *The 1601 Frost Ring and Volcanic Climate Forcing*

The presence of the AD 1601 frost ring in the majority of samples alive in that year coincides with a known period of increased global volcanic activity, culminated by

the eruption of Huaynapatina in the central Peruvian Andes in 1600 (Thouret and Dávila 1999, Thouret *et al.* 2002). This eruption affected global climate by ejecting enough material into the upper atmosphere to cause the summer of 1601 to be the coldest in the Northern Hemisphere over the past 600 years (Briffa *et al.* 1998a, de Silva and Zielinski 1998, Gervais and MacDonald 2001). The event is associated with widespread frost damage recorded by bristlecone pine trees on the White Mountains of California (LaMarche and Hirschboeck 1984) and extremely low latewood density in tree-ring chronologies for northern North America (Jones *et al.* 1995, D'Arrigo and Jacoby 1999, Luckman and Wilson 2005).

Ring-width based temperature reconstructions in central Idaho and along the Idaho-Montana border identified generally cooler temperatures during this period, and while 1601 was the coldest year of the surrounding decades, the event was not as extreme as recorded in other regions (Biondi *et al.* 1999, Kipfmueller 2003). Neither of these studies reported the presence of frost damage in 1601 to the extent that is evident in my samples. Several factors may be responsible for these differences in site sensitivity. Many of the whitebark pine trees on my sites were relatively young in 1601, and, if a widespread disturbance had affected my sites in the late 15<sup>th</sup> century, they were likely growing in relatively open and harsh environments. The increased occurrence of frost damage at my sites may therefore be related to the physiological characteristics of immature trees (*e.g.* relatively thinner bark) growing in an exposed environment (Schweingruber 1996).

Another factor that may have played a role in the distribution of frost rings in the region is the landscape itself. If the extreme cold associated with the 1601 growing

season followed the crest of the Rocky Mountains similarly to polar outbreaks common to this region (Dalavalle and Bosart 1975), the Bitterroot Range may have blocked the cold air to the east. The resulting temperature differences between my sites in the Lolo National Forest and the sites in the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area and central Idaho could explain the differences in the occurrence of frost damage. A gridded network of high-elevation chronologies between these sites could be used to map the occurrence of widespread frost damage and describe the varying effects of this event on the region.

## **6.2 Spatiotemporal Variations in Fire Activity**

### *Temporal Variations in Fire Regimes of Whitebark Pine Forests*

The shift from more frequent fires prior to the settlement era to almost no fire events following the onset of fire suppression documented in my study sites follows the general trends identified in other ecosystems characterized by short-interval fire regimes throughout western North America (Kilgore and Taylor 1979, Dieterich 1983, Swetnam 1983, Barrett 1994b, Grissino-Mayer 1995, Murray *et al.* 1998, Kipfmüller and Baker 2000, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2001, Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004). However, research in subalpine and boreal forests characterized by infrequent, severe fires found little evidence of changes in the fire regimes of these ecosystems due to anthropogenic activity (Romme and Despain 1989, Johnson *et al.* 2001, Sherriff *et al.* 2001). The whitebark pine forests in my study area provide an interesting contrast between these findings, as they are both subalpine forests and characterized by short-interval fire regimes.

Comparisons of the MFIs between the pre-settlement and settlement periods for individual sites were limited due to the small number of fire events recorded during the

settlement period, but little overall change in fire frequency was found between these periods. Although studies in both short-interval fire regimes (Goldblum and Veblen 1992, Hadley 1999) and long-interval fire regimes (Johnson *et al.* 1990) have identified increased fire activity during initial Euro-American settlement, the activities associated with these changes (*e.g.* mining, road construction) did not take place near my study sites until the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and therefore had no impact on the settlement-period fire regimes of my sites.

The near-cessation of fire activity after 1920 in my study sites coincides with several improvements in the effectiveness of fire suppression in the Northern Rocky Mountains. The fire towers on Morrell Mountain and Mineral Peak were constructed in the 1920s (NHLR 2005), and the ensuing continual human presence would make fire suppression highly effective in extinguishing the small fires that commonly occurred on these sites. This was also a period of extensive road and trail construction throughout the national forest system (Dilsaver 1994), and with its proximity to Missoula and improved access, fire suppression was also likely effective at minimizing the spread of spot fires on Point Six. Technological advances during this time increased the efficacy of fire suppression in lower-elevation ecosystems (Pyne 1982, van Wagtendonk 1991), which limited the upslope migration of fires into the subalpine zone (Tomback *et al.* 2001a). These factors likely combined to be highly effective at reducing the number of small fires that burned in my study sites.

Similar changes in fire occurrence have been identified in subalpine forests near my study area. Kipfmüller (2003) recorded no fire events that burned more recently than 1934 in three watersheds in the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area. A landscape-scale

analysis of the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area found the modern average annual area burned is nearly half of the area burned each year during pre-settlement times (Brown *et al.* 1994). Keane *et al.* (1994) suggested that 60 years of fire suppression significantly reduced fire activity throughout the Bob Marshall Wilderness Complex, just north of the Lolo National Forest. Although fire suppression offers a reasonable explanation for the reduced fire activity at my sites, other potentially influential factors require consideration as well, including stand structure, fuel availability, and climate.

Morgan and Bunting (1990) found fire activity to be greatest in the early and late portions of the life-history of individual stands, and proposed that trends in fire activity were related to successionaly determined stand structure and fuel availability. The cycle they describe includes frequent, low-severity fires in young, post-disturbance whitebark pine forests due to the abundant fine fuels provided by the herbaceous species that commonly establish under the relatively open conditions created by high-intensity fires. As the stand develops and canopy cover increases, the herbaceous species become less abundant, and the resulting reduction in fine fuels leads to fewer spreading ground fires. This in turn allows subalpine fir to begin establishing in the site. As subalpine fir becomes increasingly common in a stand, the canopy becomes denser and the amount of available light on the forest floor lessens, further decreasing the growth of grasses and other fine fuels. The reduced light levels also lead to less evaporation at the forest floor and increases total moisture availability. This results in minimal fire activity during the middle age of the stand. As the subalpine fir mature and grow into the canopies of the mature whitebark pine, they provide ladder fuels that, under extreme weather conditions, can lead to stand-replacing fires that begin the cycle over again.

While the age-structure data of my sites generally agree with this proposed cycle of stand development, the fire-scar data do not. In all of my sites, whitebark pine established first following severe fire events, after which subalpine fir began moving into the stand, as suggested by Morgan and Bunting (1990). Fire activity showed little temporal variation related to the age of the stands in my study sites. However, the largest fires recorded in my study area occurred within a period from *ca.* AD 1719–1850, which is nearly synchronous with the period of greatest fire activity from *ca.* AD 1700–1850 at Russell Peak (Morgan and Bunting 1990). While the timing of these fires may be related to many factors, this may be evidence of regional-scale climate forcing on the fire regimes of whitebark pine.

#### *The Effects of Fire Suppression on the Structure of Whitebark Pine Forests*

The dominant paradigm states that modern fire suppression has exacerbated structural changes and advancing succession in whitebark pine forests throughout its seral distribution (Keane *et al.* 1990b, Arno *et al.* 2000, Tomback *et al.* 2001a). The suppression of lightning ignitions in the subalpine zone has reduced the number of fires that grow and spread through upper-elevation forests, and fire suppression in low elevation forests has limited the upslope migration of fires that may have historically moved into the subalpine zone (Tomback *et al.* 2001a). While fire suppression may be partially responsible for the decreased fire frequency in my study area during the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Table 5.6), the structural and compositional effects of the shift to less frequent fires are unclear.



The age-structure data indicate that subalpine fir began establishing in my study sites well before fire suppression affected the landscape. Subalpine fir trees are highly susceptible to fire-related damage and mortality (Flint 1925). While the majority of the oldest fir trees on Mineral Peak and Point Six established following widespread and likely severe fires, the numerous small fires recorded at these sites, as well as the fires recorded on Morrell Mountain, showed little reflection in the age-structure data. While fire suppression may have contributed to the reduced occurrence of small fires over the past 70–80 years, the fire-scar and age-structure data indicate that widespread, severe fires were rare in these stands over the past several centuries. This suggests that despite the fact that all three stands are now advancing toward later successional stages, the time since the last widespread fire, and hence age structure, are within the historical range of variability for these sites.

#### *Spatial Variability in the Fire Regimes of Whitebark Pine*

Variations in land cover and topography strongly affect fire behavior at local scales (Hadley 1994, Grissino-Mayer 1995, Beaty and Taylor 2001, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2001, Arabas *et al.* in prep). The differences between the fire histories of my three study sites reflect the variability of these site characteristics. The lack of differences identified between the fire histories of Morrell Mountain and Point Six is related to the placement of both study sites within relatively continuous forests on west/southwest-facing slopes of both peaks. In contrast, the more dissimilar study site on Mineral Peak was located within a highly dissected forest that spread in fingers to the south, southwest, and west. The continuity of the land cover on Morrell Mountain and Point Six led to both a greater

number of fires and a greater number of fires that scarred multiple trees throughout the sites. The open structure of the forest on Mineral Peak provided limited fuels as ignition sources, and the talus acted as a fire barrier, limiting three of four fires that scarred multiple trees to individual clusters.

The smaller number of fires recorded on Mineral Peak may also be related to the southerly aspect of the clusters compared to the more west-facing sites on Morrell Mountain and Point Six. Aspect has commonly been correlated to fire activity via moisture gradients and forest types (Beaty and Taylor 2001, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2001), but I suggest that in my study sites aspect is more important with respect to ignitions. If weather moves into these sites from the west, storms would break more heavily upon the west-facing slopes, which would lead to higher rates of lightning strikes and ignitions on these aspects.

Additional differences in fire regimes exist among the sites related to topographic effects that warrant discussion. The fire-scar and age-structure data show that Point Six experienced two or three severe fires in the past 400 years (*ca.* AD 1600, 1719, and 1816) compared to Mineral Peak that showed two potential post-fire cohorts (*ca.* AD 1550 and 1880), and Morrell Mountain that showed evidence of one post-fire cohort (*ca.* AD 1500). This change in fire severity may be related to topography and moisture availability. Local relief affects both the severity and pattern of burns (Hadley 1994), and the relatively less steep portion of the study site on Point Six may have led to less patchy fires that burned with more intensity than fires on the other, steeper sites. Another factor that may have contributed to the differences in fire severity between sites is the rain shadow of the Bitterroot Range that extends over much of the Lolo National Forest

(Owenby *et al.* 1991). This rainshadow creates a gradient of moisture from the relatively drier conditions on Point Six, to slightly more moist conditions on Mineral Peak, to the wettest conditions on Morrell Mountain. This gradient is amplified by the orographic influences of the Continental Divide that lies just to the east of Morrell Mountain and further increases precipitation at that site. The drier conditions at Point Six may have facilitated the spread and increased the severity of fire events, while the moderately moist conditions on Mineral Peak may have limited the spread and severity of fires, and the moist conditions on Morrell Mountain inhibited the growth of fires.

To sum up these differences, the fire history of Point Six included the most widespread and severest fires due to the relatively drier conditions, less steep topography, and more continuous forest cover. The fire history of Mineral Peak indicated relatively low average fire severity due to the drier conditions, steep topography, and dissected forest cover. The fire history of Morrell Mountain indicated low to moderate fire severity due to the relatively wetter conditions, steep topography, and continuous forest cover.

### **6.3 Relationships Between Fire Activity, Tree Establishment, and Tree Growth**

#### *Fire-Tree Establishment Relationships in Whitebark Pine Forests*

The *ca.* 50–75-yr lag I identified in peak tree establishment that followed widespread fires is similar to rates of tree establishment following disturbances in other subalpine ecosystems (Agee and Smith 1984, Little *et al.* 1994). The harsh conditions of my sites would be exacerbated by the exposed site that likely existed after experiencing a widespread fire. The rate of tree regeneration is likely a function of several site conditions, including the depth of the winter snow pack and timing of the spring melt-off

(Douglas 1972), winter and summer desiccation (Hadley and Smith 1983, 1989, Cui and Smith 1991), and microsite conditions (Vale 1981). Individual species appear to respond differently to these conditions, and the age structure of Point Six shows whitebark pine is the first to regenerate following a fire and is soon followed by subalpine fir (Figure 5.7C). In my study, I outlined a use of MDSEA that may prove useful in future research that examines long-term ecosystem responses to disturbance events.

### *Fire-Tree Growth Relationships in Whitebark Pine Forests*

The original intent of my analyses of the relationship between fire events and tree growth was to quantitatively describe the effects of fire on the growth of whitebark pine trees. Instead, I found growth trends in the years that surround the fire events that could only be caused by regional climate. When considering all fires, the trend of nearly 40 years of below-average growth cannot be a response to damage from fire, as tree growth is strongly below average for nearly 20 years leading up to the fire event. Furthermore, the growth trends in the fire-scarred samples from my study sites are nearly identical to the growth trends of the whitebark pines used to develop the Carlton Ridge chronology from the Selway-Bitterroot, which were not scarred by fire (Kipfmüller 2003). The trend of significantly below-average growth during the years after widespread fires that then shifts to strongly above-average growth by the 20<sup>th</sup> year after the fire must also be a result of climate due to the synchrony and similarity of these trends between the local fire-scarred whitebark pine trees and the regional non-fire-scarred trees. While individual years of significantly above- or below-average growth mean relatively little statistically,

the overall trends in the data provide valid evidence of the role of climate in the timing of fire events.

While the actual climate events responsible for these patterns in tree growth are not identified by these analyses, conclusions can be drawn about their nature from the trends in the data with respect to the climate response of whitebark pine trees in the Northern Rocky Mountains. Perkins and Swetnam (1996) found whitebark pine growth to be positively correlated with winter and spring precipitation and inversely correlated with May temperatures in central Idaho. They suggested that, due to the arid environment of their sites, these correlations are likely a response to seasonal snow pack, with increased winter and spring precipitation increasing moisture availability throughout the growing season and higher May temperatures speeding the onset of summer droughts.

KipfmueLLer (2003) identified summer temperature as the primary limiting factor of whitebark pine growth in the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area, and in contrast to the findings of Perkins and Swetnam, found the strongest relationship to be a positive correlation between tree growth and average maximum July temperatures. Water stress is less likely in the relatively moist Northern Rocky Mountains, and therefore warmer summer temperatures led to increased levels of growth throughout the growing season. July precipitation was negatively correlated with tree growth, but KipfmueLLer suggested this could be due to the effects of cloud cover lowering temperatures rather than increased moisture reducing tree growth. KipfmueLLer also examined whitebark pine growth with respect to the PDO, and suggested tree growth may be enhanced during positive phases of the PDO, and climate sensitivity may be dampened during negative phases of the PDO due to greater snowfall.

A shift in the climate response of whitebark pine in the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area occurred in the latter half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, as an inverse relationship with spring temperatures became the dominant signal in tree growth (KipfmueLLer 2003). During this time, warmer spring temperatures would be accompanied by more early spring precipitation, likely in the form of snow. The insulating layer of snow would keep the ground and soil moisture frozen, while the warmer days would induce respiration and transpiration in the tree when photosynthesis is not occurring, causing a net loss in photosynthates (Fritts 1976). The mechanisms behind this shift in climate-response are complex, but KipfmueLLer suggests it may be related to a shorter growing season due to shifting snow pack conditions potentially related to PDO phase changes. While nearly all of the fire events recorded in my study area occurred prior to the identified shift in climate response of whitebark pine, interpretations of the growth trends identified in my MDSEA should be cautious because of the potentially shifting climate response of subalpine tree growth (Briffa *et al.* 1998b, Biondi 2000).

Due to the moist climate of the Lolo National Forest, the climate response of trees in my study area will likely be more aligned with that of the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area than with central Idaho. However, the signal may be somewhat different due to the drying effects of the Bitterroot rainshadow on my sites. I therefore propose that below-average growth identified in my analyses may be the result of: 1) above-average summer temperatures and the resulting moisture stress; 2) lower summer temperatures and the resulting lower growth rates; or 3) warmer spring temperatures, increased snow pack, and a net loss of photosynthates. Above-average growth identified in my analyses may be the result of: 1) cooler summers and more moisture availability; 2) higher

summer temperatures and higher growth rates; or 3) cooler spring temperatures, less precipitation, and a longer growing season.

The trend of nearly 40 years of below-average growth indicates that the majority of the fires recorded in my sites occurred during a phase of climate variability that consistently limited growth for multiple decades. The increasing and decreasing amplitude of the below average growth evident from the analyses suggests that another climate oscillation is operating on a shorter wave length within the context of the lower frequency variability. The growth trends that surround the widespread fires also provide evidence of a climate oscillation that operates on a shorter, 20–30 year wavelength. Widespread fires occurred during a transition of this oscillation from a phase that encouraged average to above-average growth to a phase that caused below-average growth.

## **6.4 Fire-Climate Relationships**

### *Effects of Climate on Whitebark Pine Fire Regimes*

Variability of fire regimes in nearly all ecosystems has been linked to climate (Clark 1989, Johnson and Larsen 1991, Swetnam 1996, Swetnam and Betancourt 1998, Grau and Veblen 2000, Grissino-Mayer and Swetnam 2000, Veblen *et al.* 2000, Kitzberger *et al.* 2001, Sherriff *et al.* 2001, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2002, Kipfmueeller 2003, Westerling and Swetnam 2004). Increasingly, ocean-atmospheric teleconnections that operate on different time scales and source from different regions of the world are shown to affect regional climate and fire activity in the high-elevation forests of North America (Gray *et al.* 2003, Schoennagel *et al.* 2005, Sibold and Veblen 2005). The fire regimes of

my sites were influenced by a multi-scale hierarchy of interacting climate conditions that affected fire occurrence.

At the annual scale, widespread fires in the Rocky Mountains are commonly associated with individual years of significant drought (Kipfmüller and Swetnam 2000, Sherriff *et al.* 2001). Precipitation also plays a significant role in the fire regimes of dry forests throughout western North and South America (Baisan and Swetnam 1990, Grau and Veblen 2000, Veblen and Kitzberger 2002, Norman and Taylor 2003), with years of above average precipitation increasing the growth of fine fuels, and subsequently increasing the likelihood of fires in the years that follow. The relatively limited relationships between temperature, precipitation, drought, and fire activity in my sites (Figure 5.15) may be related to the limited spatial scale of my study area. No clear relationship between precipitation and fire activity was found in my data. Some fire events were preceded by several years of below-average precipitation (*e.g.* 1889 and 1919), while other individual fire events occurred during years of above-average precipitation (*e.g.* 1754, 1781, and 1817). The association between extended periods of precipitation and fire activity also varied, with a gap in widespread fires aligning with a period of above-average growth from 1725–1750, and the peak in fire activity for the study area coinciding with the wettest period of the reconstruction (*ca.* 1815–1835).

Temperature and drought, on the other hand, both show stronger relationships with fire activity when considered on a broader temporal scale and in the context of additional climatic conditions. At the semi-annual scale, years of drought that coincided with El Niño events were more likely to result in regionally widespread fires (*e.g.* 1889 and 1919; Kipfmüller 2003) than when either of these conditions occurred alone. The



generally cooler than average temperatures that occurred during the peak period of fire activity in my sites did not likely increase fire activity, but were rather a local expression of a climate event that encouraged fire activity on a multi-decadal time scale.

My fire-tree growth analyses found that most fires were associated with prolonged periods of decreased growth, perhaps associated with cooler temperatures, which compares well with the phases of the PDO and AMO during the peak period of fire activity (Figure 5.13). Additionally, the 20–30 year oscillation in tree growth identified in my MDSEA match the synchronicity of widespread fire events with periods of cool phase PDO (D'Arrigo *et al.* 2001), and suggest that conditions immediately surrounding and following the minima of PDO cool phases reduce tree growth and are conducive to widespread fire events in my study sites.

The period of cool PDO and AMO centered on the early 1800s, coupled with decreased ENSO variability from *ca.* 1810–1850, appears to have acted synergistically to create the peak period of fire activity in my site. This directly contrasts the findings of nearly all other fire history research in western North and South America that identified a distinct gap in fire activity during this time (Swetnam 1990, Grissino-Mayer and Swetnam 2000, Veblen *et al.* 2000, Kitzberger *et al.* 2001, Heyerdahl *et al.* 2002, Grissino-Mayer *et al.* 2004, Sibold and Veblen 2005). Additionally, the relatively less frequent fires prior to this time in my study sites contrasts with a period of more frequent fires in several of these studies (*e.g.* Grissino-Mayer 1995). The location of my study site is at the convergence of contrasting regional climate boundaries and influences of some ocean-atmospheric teleconnections (Dettinger *et al.* 2001). While this may partially

explain the inverse pattern of fire activity at my sites in comparison with other research, the mechanisms behind these differences are unclear.

## **6.5 Management of Whitebark Pine**

### *Fire Regime Condition Classification Fire Regime Types for Whitebark Pine Forests*

The FRCC fire regime types assigned to my study sites were generally appropriate with respect to the fire regime types identified by my data, and portrayed some spatial differences between the sites. My data from the three sites portrays mixed-severity fire regimes similar to those assigned by the FRCC data. The FRCC data also delineated the difference in fire severity between the relatively more severe fires that burned on Point Six and Mineral Peak and the less severe fires that burned on Morrell Mountain. However, potentially important inadequacies included an underestimation of the fire frequency in the forests on Mineral Peak and Point Six and a failure to account for the temporal variability in past fire activity.

The FRCC fire regime type III assigned to Mineral Peak and Point Six described fire return intervals that ranged from 35–100+ years, but both sites recorded fire frequencies well below this range with lower bounds of 8 and 3 years, respectively (Table 5.9). The discrepancies between the FRCC fire frequency and the actual data for Mineral Peak and Point Six are due to the high number of small fires recorded at these sites. The ecological significance of such small fires in subalpine forests is thought to be relatively minor (Romme 1982), but this conclusion is drawn from research conducted in subalpine forests predominantly composed of lodgepole pine and spruce. Relatively little research has addressed the role of small fires in the whitebark pine ecosystem, and the research

that has examined whitebark pine fire regimes may have underestimated the frequency of fire occurrence in this ecosystem (Table 2.1). The use of these data for FRCC fire regime type assignments would explain the underestimation of fire frequency in these stands, but site-specific differences in the fire regimes of these sites relative to their surroundings are lost in the coarse scale of the FRCC data. The precarious situation and ecological importance of the whitebark pine ecosystem warrants a site-specific approach to management practices that may be beyond the scope of the FRCC guidelines.

The temporal variation in fire activity at these three sites highlights a critical aspect of fire management. Statistical measures of central tendency, such as MFI, are often integrated into management plans as static targets that do not account for the dynamic nature of fire regimes (Whitlock *et al.* 2003). While the concept of the natural range of variability in disturbance regimes (Morgan *et al.* 1994a) is increasingly being applied in ecosystem management, this perspective must be based on sound scientific data (Brown 2000). In the case of whitebark pine, these data are lacking for much of the range of the species. Additionally, the variability in the fire regimes of my sites was strongly related to changing climate conditions that operated on annual to multi-decadal time-scales that are difficult to integrate into management plans. While the suite of descriptive statistics provided by my research creates a frame for the historical range of variability of the fire regimes for these three sites, these data must be viewed within the context of a continually shifting climate. The role of a variable climate is substantial in subalpine forest fire regimes (Sherriff *et al.* 2001, Kipfmueeller 2003, Schoennagel *et al.* 2005, Sibold and Veblen 2005), and efforts to integrate fire-climate relationship data into the FRCC will be critical for its appropriate application to the landscape.

### *Implications for the Management of Whitebark Pine Forests*

The influence of fire suppression on the forest systems of western North America is a pervasive topic in modern forest management (Arno 1996, Zimmerman 2003), and is particularly salient to the management of whitebark pine. Changes in fire severity and forest structure induced by fire suppression are readily apparent in many fire-dependent ecosystems (*e.g.* Weaver 1959, Covington and Moore 1994, Grissino-Mayer 1995, Swetnam and Baisan 1996), but these changes are less evident in the mixed-severity fire regimes of the Northern Rockies. Due to extensive natural variations in fire activity within this broad and rather enigmatic classification (Arno *et al.* 2000), the sources of change in fire activity and advancing succession are difficult to ascertain. A cautious approach has been suggested for managing subalpine forests (Veblen 2003, Schoennagel *et al.* 2004), but due to the urgency of the situation facing whitebark pine (Kendall and Keane 2001) and based on past research (Arno 1980, Fischer and Bradley 1987), researchers generally accept that fire suppression has reduced the growth and spread of fires and encouraged advancing succession in stands historically dominated by whitebark pine (Tomback *et al.* 2001a).

My results offer contrasting information. While fire suppression did have an effect on fire frequency in my sites, subalpine fir had been established for at least 140–300 years on all three of my sites and did not require fire suppression to begin establishing in these stands. Instead, it appears the ongoing succession at these three sites is related to the time since the last large fire, which is likely climatically driven. Although the unknown effects of past fires that were suppressed introduces uncertainty to this debate (Brown *et al.* 1994), the overall trends of my data suggest fire suppression has not

significantly affected the structure or successional status of my sites. These findings complicate the design and implementation of management objectives for whitebark pine forests.

Fire suppression is cited as a major cause for advancing succession in whitebark pine stands throughout the Northern Rocky Mountains (Murray *et al.* 1995, Arno 2001, Keane 2001a). This belief is used to justify the call for active management intervention under the assumption that whitebark pine forests are outside their historical range of variability in terms of forest structure. While this may be true in some areas, my data show it does not apply to all sites. Management efforts focused on preserving whitebark pine forests by returning them to a static, predetermined historical structure are inappropriate for whitebark pine forests that may not have deviated from their “natural” structure. Keane and Arno (2001) suggest that management plans should focus on restoring ecosystem processes to whitebark pine forests rather than historical stand structure. This is a more appropriate approach for my sites, for while the stand structure may be within the historical range of variation, the current fire-free interval at each site is approaching or has surpassed the UEI delineated by the respective fire history data. However, vast tracts of the environment inhabited by whitebark pine have changed significantly with the invasion of white pine blister rust, and replicating the relatively limited size and severity of most fires at my sites may not achieve the conditions required for the preservation of whitebark pine on the landscape.

Management objectives for areas of rapidly diminishing whitebark pine populations must explicitly state the goal of creating conditions that are conducive to whitebark pine regeneration through methods that may not necessarily be in line with

historic disturbance patterns, but the sociopolitical ramifications of such an approach are formidable. Nearly all of the range of whitebark pine occurs in areas prized for recreational and aesthetic values (Cole 1990), and much of this range lies within the boundaries of national parks and wilderness areas (Tomback *et al.* 2001a). The philosophical debate over active management in such places is highly contentious (Stankey and McCool 1995, McCool and Freimund 2001). To meet the social, political, and ecological challenges associated with the plight of the whitebark pine, management efforts must couple collaboration among scientists, land managers, conservationists, and the public with transparency in decision making (Mills and Clark 2001, Salwasser and Huff 2001). This will create a solid foundation for the development of management techniques, while building trust among stakeholders that will be of utmost importance for the efficient and timely application of efforts to preserve whitebark pine on the western landscape.

## Chapter Seven

### 7. Conclusions and Future Research

#### 7.1 Conclusions

*The fire regimes of the whitebark pine forests in my study area are mixed-severity, but variations in fire activity existed both temporally and spatially.*

The fire-scar and age-structure data collected in the whitebark pine forests of my study area showed that the fire regimes of these sites were historically mixed-severity, with numerous small fires interspersed with less frequent and more severe widespread fires. Trees were of relatively mixed ages, but at least one post-fire cohort existed at each site. While the broad classification of mixed-severity could be applied to the fire regimes of these sites, variations existed both temporally and spatially that created unique fire histories for each stand.

*Fires burned more frequently in my study sites compared to nearly all other fire history projects conducted in whitebark pine forests.*

All measures of central tendency and the UEI were lower for my study sites than the MFI reported for all but two fire history studies conducted in the whitebark pine ecosystem. While the relief and topography of my sites may be the cause of these differences, another consideration is the resolution of the research methods used. The dendrochronological technique of crossdating was applied in only two other studies, both of which reported a range of MFI with lower bounds comparable to those found at my sites. This technique ensures fire events are accurately and precisely dated, and is critical

for research in ecosystems that experience numerous small, patchy fires such as the whitebark pine forests.

*Historical fires burned predominantly during the dormant portion of the growing season, and variability in fire seasonality may indicate anthropogenic influences on the fire regime of Morrell Mountain.*

The majority of fires recorded within all of my sites burned during the dormant portion of the growing season, which includes late summer and early fall. This agrees with the modern fire season for the Northern Rocky Mountains. Fire seasonality varied little on Mineral Peak and Point Six, but numerous early season fires were recorded by the trees sampled on Morrell Mountain. The relatively higher variability in fire seasonality may be a function of unique site characteristics, but evidence of Native American activity in the area suggests anthropogenic influences may also have played a role in forming the fire regime of Morrell Mountain.

*The age structure of whitebark pine forests showed similarly timed pulses of regeneration that may be related to periods of widespread disturbance.*

The age-structure data of my sites showed pulses of regeneration between *ca.* AD 1500–1600 and *ca.* 1840–1900. The *ca.* 1840–1900 pulse included post-fire cohorts that established following the period of increased fire activity in my sites in the early 1800s. The *ca.* 1500–1600 pulse may also have been related to a regional period of increased disturbance, similar to the mountain pine beetle activity that affected my sites during the 20<sup>th</sup> century or the fires of the early 1800s. This may be evidence of a pattern of periodic,



landscape-scale episodes of whitebark pine establishment following widespread disturbance activity, and if so, has significant implications for the management of this declining species. Additional research on the long-term stand dynamics of whitebark pine forests is required to further explore this issue.

*The 1601 frost ring recorded in samples from all three sites was related to volcanic activity in the southern hemisphere and indicates sensitivity to global-scale climatic events.*

The widespread occurrence of the AD 1601 frost ring in my samples indicates that these sites were relatively more sensitive to the extreme temperature events related to the eruption of Huaynapatina in the central Peruvian Andes than other nearby high-elevation trees analyzed in Idaho and western Montana. These sites may therefore provide potential locations to examine the spatial characteristics of the climatic influences of this and other global-scale cold events associated with volcanic activity.

*Fire activity varied temporally, with the peak in widespread fires occurring in the early 1800s followed by a near cessation of recorded fires after ca. 1920.*

The peak in widespread fire activity in my study sites ca. AD 1800–1850 contrasted with the gap in fire activity identified around this time in nearly all other fire history studies conducted in western North and South America. The timing of these widespread fire events may have been related to stand dynamics and the development of fuels, but regional- and hemispheric-scale climate patterns also likely influenced the character of fire events at my sites during this time. The decreased fire activity

documented during the 20<sup>th</sup> century at all of my sites has been documented in other high-elevation forests in the region, and is most likely the result of active fire suppression.

*Fire suppression may have reduced fire activity on my sites, but is unlikely to be related to ongoing changes in the succession of these forests.*

Fire suppression may have reduced the number of fires recorded in my study sites during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, but the age-structure data indicate that subalpine fir trees have been present in these stands for at least the past 130 years on Mineral Peak and Point Six, and over 300 years on Morrell Mountain. The age structures of these stands are more related to the time since the last major fire event than the onset of fire suppression. Widespread, severe fires are rare at these sites, suggesting that fire suppression is not accelerating or changing the successional patterns in these stands.

*The fire regimes of each site varied by fire frequency and severity and were most likely the result of differences in topography, forest cover, and local climate.*

Varying site characteristics led to different fire regimes for each of my study sites. Fire frequency was highest on Morrell Mountain, but average fire severity was the lowest with only one post-fire cohort *ca.* AD 1500 and numerous patchy fire events. Mineral Peak experienced the lowest fire frequency, but showed evidence of moderate fire severity, with post-fire cohorts developing *ca.* AD 1600 and 1880. Fire activity on Point Six was moderately frequent, but relatively severe with post-fire cohorts establishing *ca.* AD 1600, *ca.* 1750, *ca.* 1840. The distinct fire regimes of each site were created by the influences of moisture availability, topography, and forest cover on fire activity.

*The newly-developed Multi-Decadal Superposed Epoch Analysis provided a viable method to examine tree establishment following fire events, and indicated that the peak in tree establishment occurred between 50 and 75 years following widespread fire events.*

The combination of multiple 40-yr windows from separate MDSEA analyses proved feasible and created a continuous 100-yr MDSEA of tree establishment following widespread fire events. Tree establishment peaked *ca.* 50–75 years after fires, although fluctuations in this trend may be related to species-specific responses to the disturbance event. These analyses showed MDSEA provides a viable tool for quantitatively examining the long-term trends in tree establishment following forest disturbance events.

*The effects of fire on the growth of whitebark pine trees are not significant when compared to the effects of climate on tree growth.*

The effects of fire on the growth of fire-scarred whitebark pine could not be distinguished from the overall trends in growth present in non-fire-scarred whitebark pine trees from the Selway-Bitterroot Wilderness Area. The majority of fire events recorded in my study sites occurred during prolonged periods of below-average tree growth, while widespread fires occurred at a transition from near-average growth to significantly below-average tree growth. The environmental conditions that caused similar growth trends at both the local and regional scales could only be climatically driven. Changes in the amplitude of the growth trends show that fire activity is related to shifts in climate that occur on a multi-decadal time scale of 20–30 years and > 40–80 years.

*Climate played an important but complex role in the fire regimes of my study sites, and the strong visual relationship between fire activity and multidecadal-scale oscillations is quantitatively reinforced by the results of my MDSEA.*

My analyses of the fire-climate relationships highlighted the complexity in the fire regimes of whitebark pine forests in my sites. I identified multiple environmental factors that were potentially related to individual fire events at some point in the past, including drought, El Niño and La Niña conditions, and variations in the PDO. However, fire activity was more strongly related to interactions between these conditions, and the majority of widespread fire events were driven by cool phases of the PDO, set within the broader context of environmental conditions related to the AMO. The time-scales on which the PDO and AMO operate agree with the oscillations identified in the fire-tree growth MDSEA.

*The Fire Regime Condition Classification fire regime types assigned to my sites require refinement to capture the spatial and temporal variations in the fire regimes of these whitebark pine forests.*

The coarse-scale FRCC fire regime type classifications provide a strong starting point for land managers, and were generally successful in classifying the mixed-severity fire regimes that existed at my three study sites. However, potentially important spatial and temporal variations in fire frequency and fire severity were not included in the FRCC data due to the coarse-scale data and lack of consideration for the role of climate in fire regimes. While the FRCC fire regime type is appropriate for some forest systems, the critical ecological role and complex fire regimes of whitebark pine ecosystems

necessitates site-specific information for ecologically sound management decisions. The current FRCC data require refinement if they are to be used in developing management objectives for whitebark pine forests. Due to the economic limits faced by many land managers, the major challenge for managing whitebark pine ecosystems will be balancing the needs for rapid, efficient management practices with the continued acquisition of site-specific ecological data.

*Fire suppression has had a limited effect on the whitebark pine forests in my study area, and a blanket approach toward the restoration of fire to this ecosystem is inappropriate.*

My data indicate that the successional status of the whitebark pine forests in my study area is within the historical range of variation for these sites. If management objectives are to maintain these sites within their historical range of variation, active intervention on the assumption that fire suppression has led to unnatural stages of succession is inappropriate. Management objectives must focus on restoring ecosystem processes and encouraging whitebark pine regeneration. A collaborative effort that spans the public and private sectors will be required to successfully meet the challenges faced by managers of whitebark pine forests.

## **7.2 Future Research**

With fire scars dating as early as the AD 1400s, and several individual samples recording multiple fire events, whitebark pine shows a strong potential for providing long-term fire history data over a broad spatial extent in an ecosystem that has been the subject of relatively little research in the past. Additionally, the abundance of whitebark

pine snags and downed logs across the subalpine forests of western North America provides a source of dendroecological data obtainable with relatively little impact on this at-risk ecosystem. Urgency exists, however, to collect as much data as possible as rapidly as possible. As wildfires and prescribed fires continue to burn across the landscape, valuable dendroecological information is consumed in flames. These data may prove critical in the development of management prescriptions for whitebark pine across its distribution.

Crossdating will be critical for future fire history research in whitebark pine ecosystems. Crossdating will enable the inclusion of remnant wood in analyses and will ensure that accurate and precise dates are assigned to fire events. This will further facilitate analyses on the role of climate in fire regimes of whitebark pine forests. Extending the spatial scope of this study to include fire history data from previously unexamined areas of whitebark pine forests in central Idaho, eastern Oregon, and northern California will provide a broad spatial network to examine the long-term dynamic influences of regional climate on the fire regimes of whitebark pine forests.

The urgency that surrounds the status of whitebark pine creates an immediate need for additional fire history research in areas of the highest priority for management intervention. Because of this need, extensive collaboration with both federal and private land management agencies will be critical for the efficient transfer of data and application of site-specific ecological knowledge in management activities. Research over the central range of the species will provide data to managers in previously unstudied areas, and will facilitate the development of restoration and management plans.

Future research should also address the utility of the MDSEA for quantitatively describing long-term ecological trends in relation to climate and disturbance events. A major critique of using the traditional SEA over longer periods is the uncertainty inherent in the calculation of the confidence intervals. Statistical methods exist that can account for the shifting of actual confidence intervals as the analyzed period increases, and these methods should be integrated into the MDSEA before widespread application of the technique.

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## Appendices



**Appendix A. Statistical descriptions for the 214 measurement series from fire-scarred cross-sections collected on three mountains in the Lolo National Forest.**  
MOR, ML: Morrell Mountain; PS: Point Six; MP: Mineral Peak.

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
1	ml2002a	1488	1974	487	0.336	0.193	0.807	0.202	1
2	ml2002b	1488	1976	489	0.420	0.174	0.679	0.262	1
3	ml2003a	1599	1764	166	0.450	0.301	0.648	0.259	1
4	ml2003b	1599	1899	301	0.378	0.245	0.801	0.234	1
5	ML2006a	1643	1950	308	0.375	0.416	0.829	0.282	2
6	ML2006b	1652	1857	206	0.520	0.502	0.812	0.257	1
7	ML2007a	1625	1800	176	0.338	0.429	0.838	0.212	1
8	ML2007b	1584	1825	242	0.369	0.329	0.838	0.201	1
9	ML2007c	1659	1914	256	0.406	0.431	0.885	0.249	1
10	ML2008a	1678	1900	223	0.342	0.481	0.897	0.210	1
11	ML2008b	1678	1843	166	0.405	0.372	0.839	0.187	1
12	ML2009a	1685	1865	181	0.570	0.322	0.758	0.202	1
13	ML2009b	1705	1875	171	0.561	0.399	0.798	0.203	1
14	ml2013a	1726	1975	250	0.311	0.528	0.918	0.269	1
15	ml2013b	1780	1960	181	0.457	0.377	0.901	0.258	1
16	ml2014a	1743	1965	223	0.286	0.343	0.880	0.261	1
17	ml2014b	1743	1900	158	0.445	0.243	0.691	0.255	1
18	ml2016b	1770	1852	83	0.338	0.286	0.635	0.291	1
19	ml3004a	1725	1875	151	0.368	0.400	0.802	0.210	1
20	ml3004b	1701	1882	182	0.503	0.530	0.698	0.220	1
21	ml3006a	1624	1840	217	0.520	0.174	0.745	0.200	2
22	ml3008a	1732	1969	238	0.557	0.138	0.633	0.261	1
23	ml3008b	1697	1968	272	0.542	0.183	0.768	0.307	1
24	mor001a	1540	1947	408	0.389	0.157	0.862	0.246	1
25	mor001b	1518	1965	448	0.376	0.163	0.769	0.258	1
26	mor003a	1567	1885	319	0.443	0.202	0.773	0.210	1
27	mor003b	1591	1887	297	0.526	0.174	0.714	0.248	1
28	mor004a	1520	1880	361	0.456	0.192	0.856	0.224	1
29	mor004b	1600	1900	301	0.486	0.097	0.690	0.204	1
30	mor006	1526	1956	431	0.434	0.191	0.791	0.248	1
31	mor007	1564	1809	246	0.380	0.167	0.676	0.254	1
32	mor008a	1646	1820	175	0.574	0.128	0.598	0.325	1
33	mor008b	1628	1851	224	0.493	0.167	0.777	0.339	1

**Appendix A. continued.**

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl. w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
34	mor010a	1694	1977	284	0.315	0.216	0.784	0.293	1
35	mor011a	1801	1946	146	0.497	0.175	0.461	0.220	2
36	mor011b	1802	1946	145	0.498	0.234	0.592	0.211	3
37	mor012a	1518	1916	399	0.544	0.219	0.835	0.227	1
38	mor012b	1520	1697	178	0.496	0.308	0.910	0.191	1
39	mor012b	1790	1900	111	0.502	0.068	0.482	0.289	1
40	mor013a	1515	1930	416	0.471	0.246	0.898	0.272	1
41	mor013b	1519	1839	321	0.502	0.291	0.888	0.237	1
42	mor014a	1587	1917	331	0.527	0.246	0.858	0.290	2
43	mor014b	1549	1831	283	0.436	0.276	0.839	0.262	1
44	mor015a	1514	1865	352	0.491	0.325	0.850	0.255	1
45	mor015b	1520	1930	411	0.512	0.362	0.776	0.231	1
46	mor016a	1520	1982	463	0.499	0.188	0.786	0.234	1
47	mor016b	1600	1983	384	0.522	0.200	0.839	0.220	1
48	mor017a	1572	1958	387	0.495	0.270	0.854	0.224	1
49	mor017b	1562	1946	385	0.488	0.262	0.803	0.282	1
50	mor018a	1513	1713	201	0.458	0.560	0.878	0.237	1
51	mor018b	1514	1680	167	0.544	0.525	0.923	0.199	1
52	mor019a	1603	1879	277	0.464	0.206	0.797	0.175	1
53	mor019b	1556	1843	288	0.415	0.239	0.813	0.169	1
54	mor020a	1517	1976	460	0.567	0.220	0.884	0.194	1
55	mor020b	1508	1825	318	0.475	0.336	0.913	0.215	1
56	mor021a	1520	1760	241	0.504	0.252	0.817	0.234	1
57	mor021b	1567	1954	388	0.433	0.181	0.740	0.229	1
58	mor022a	1466	1960	495	0.368	0.291	0.910	0.211	1
59	mor022b	1480	1925	446	0.426	0.318	0.880	0.221	1
60	mp1001fa	1510	1696	187	0.351	0.363	0.896	0.148	1
61	mp1001fb	1521	1733	213	0.429	0.406	0.932	0.146	1
62	mp1002fa	1603	1776	174	0.366	0.140	0.648	0.203	1
63	mp1002fb	1603	1989	387	0.333	0.168	0.748	0.213	1
64	mp1003fa	1670	1962	293	0.386	0.255	0.869	0.188	1
65	mp1003fb	1670	1962	293	0.345	0.225	0.875	0.203	1
66	mp1004fa	1351	1867	517	0.445	0.223	0.879	0.188	1
67	mp1004fb	1344	1957	614	0.434	0.210	0.876	0.184	2
68	mp1004fc	1331	1590	260	0.297	0.250	0.854	0.236	1
69	mp1008fa	1541	1673	133	0.450	0.353	0.768	0.206	1
70	mp1008fb	1531	1686	156	0.415	0.338	0.825	0.164	2

Appendix A. *continued.*

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl. w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
71	mp1009fa	1610	1780	171	0.312	0.295	0.672	0.293	1
72	mp1009fb	1621	1778	158	0.298	0.293	0.696	0.238	1
73	mp1009fc	1791	1983	193	0.393	0.375	0.820	0.222	1
74	mp1010fa	1623	1971	349	0.512	0.354	0.744	0.230	1
75	mp1010fb	1622	1785	164	0.507	0.307	0.554	0.216	1
76	mp1010fc	1812	1974	163	0.493	0.355	0.808	0.209	1
77	mp1011fa	1566	1712	147	0.388	0.675	0.892	0.154	1
78	mp1011fb	1587	1771	185	0.430	0.494	0.799	0.189	2
79	mp1012fa	1171	1396	226	0.543	0.658	0.838	0.243	3
80	mp1012fb	1179	1383	205	0.476	0.505	0.825	0.232	1
81	mp1013fa	1687	1922	236	0.403	0.470	0.813	0.288	1
82	mp1013fb	1678	1922	245	0.423	0.424	0.763	0.258	1
83	mp1014fa	1613	1742	130	0.638	0.435	0.716	0.197	2
84	mp1014fb	1619	1738	120	0.630	0.467	0.740	0.157	1
85	mp1017fa	1467	1736	270	0.393	0.178	0.785	0.234	1
86	mp1017fb	1441	1690	250	0.373	0.259	0.702	0.235	1
87	mp2001fa	1589	1825	237	0.410	0.703	0.846	0.229	1
88	mp2002fa	1562	1786	225	0.468	0.577	0.901	0.213	1
89	mp2002fb	1562	1970	409	0.350	0.444	0.920	0.200	1
90	mp2004fa	1664	1892	229	0.420	0.189	0.828	0.227	1
91	mp2004fb	1658	1967	310	0.346	0.286	0.893	0.235	1
92	mp2005fa	1320	1910	591	0.309	0.494	0.928	0.244	1
93	mp2008fa	1631	1829	199	0.373	0.363	0.864	0.248	3
94	mp2008fb	1638	1981	344	0.344	0.350	0.835	0.288	1
95	mp2009fa	1522	1792	271	0.345	0.288	0.794	0.247	1
96	mp2009fb	1522	1834	313	0.321	0.259	0.844	0.272	1
97	mp2009fc	1785	1962	178	0.421	0.325	0.880	0.228	1
98	mp2010fa	1554	1823	270	0.437	0.441	0.851	0.208	1
99	mp2010fb	1555	1790	236	0.519	0.428	0.875	0.226	2
100	mp2011fa	1558	1964	407	0.339	0.126	0.733	0.233	1
101	mp2011fb	1558	2000	443	0.338	0.159	0.813	0.254	1
102	mp2012fa	1404	1497	94	0.532	0.241	0.576	0.237	1
103	mp2012fb	1419	1976	558	0.560	0.225	0.820	0.208	2
104	mp2012fc	1508	1976	469	0.621	0.303	0.860	0.194	1
105	mp2013fa	1537	1952	416	0.459	0.273	0.853	0.176	1
106	mp2013fb	1588	1952	365	0.469	0.242	0.898	0.170	1
107	mp3001fa	1660	1834	175	0.418	0.290	0.883	0.203	3

**Appendix A. *continued.***

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl. w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
108	mp3001fb	1841	1978	138	0.320	0.363	0.915	0.197	1
109	mp3001fc	1891	1997	107	0.508	0.542	0.889	0.221	1
110	mp3002fa	1087	1812	726	0.343	0.190	0.923	0.249	2
111	mp3002fb	1087	1725	639	0.376	0.163	0.828	0.212	2
112	mp3003fa	1522	1984	463	0.327	0.280	0.899	0.169	2
113	mp3003fb	1526	1816	291	0.302	0.305	0.887	0.169	1
114	mp3004fa	1506	1816	311	0.451	0.154	0.703	0.193	1
115	mp3004fb	1464	1679	216	0.453	0.198	0.816	0.233	1
116	mp3005fa	1561	1979	419	0.292	0.397	0.903	0.272	1
117	mp3005fb	1561	1834	274	0.379	0.125	0.514	0.310	1
118	mp3006fa	1434	1951	518	0.394	0.145	0.732	0.206	1
119	mp3006fb	1434	1853	420	0.410	0.190	0.826	0.200	1
120	mp3007fa	1265	1409	145	0.445	0.215	0.682	0.180	1
121	mp3007fb	1263	1805	543	0.372	0.213	0.836	0.179	1
122	mp3007fc	1421	1809	389	0.349	0.123	0.657	0.168	1
123	mp3009fa	1591	1832	242	0.449	0.267	0.869	0.186	1
124	mp3009fb	1597	1964	368	0.409	0.265	0.873	0.218	1
125	mp3010fa	1550	1992	443	0.341	0.172	0.783	0.243	1
126	mp3010fb	1550	1801	252	0.405	0.289	0.789	0.293	1
127	mp3011fa	1579	1828	250	0.451	0.304	0.740	0.246	1
128	mp3011fb	1579	1832	254	0.549	0.552	0.861	0.242	1
129	mp3011fc	1845	1998	154	0.435	0.412	0.821	0.255	1
130	mp3012fa	1635	1956	322	0.332	0.297	0.806	0.278	1
131	mp3012fb	1638	1828	191	0.399	0.190	0.672	0.250	1
132	mp3013fa	1268	1762	495	0.374	0.273	0.911	0.239	2
133	mp3013fb	1268	1801	534	0.394	0.285	0.892	0.224	2
134	mp3015fa	1630	1964	335	0.495	0.436	0.891	0.186	1
135	mp3015fb	1628	1830	203	0.432	0.463	0.892	0.183	1
136	mp3016fa	1601	1982	382	0.419	0.140	0.652	0.283	2
137	mp3016fb	1596	1981	386	0.473	0.157	0.720	0.276	1
138	psl001fa	1753	1950	198	0.456	0.605	0.836	0.218	1
139	psl001fc	1753	1957	205	0.417	0.670	0.879	0.201	1
140	psl002fa	1735	1898	164	0.485	0.341	0.604	0.194	1
141	psl002fb	1735	1949	215	0.380	0.503	0.843	0.231	1
142	psl003fa	1764	1878	115	0.399	0.317	0.575	0.173	1
143	psl003fb	1764	1926	163	0.531	0.507	0.778	0.204	1
144	psl003fc	1764	1923	160	0.487	0.444	0.787	0.189	2

**Appendix A. *continued.***

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl. w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
145	ps1004fa	1759	2003	245	0.394	0.689	0.909	0.202	1
146	ps1004fb	1818	1996	179	0.509	0.587	0.920	0.180	1
147	ps1005fa	1760	2002	243	0.439	0.759	0.851	0.207	1
148	ps1005fb	1830	2003	174	0.369	0.852	0.884	0.202	2
149	ps1006fa	1757	1952	196	0.427	0.526	0.835	0.216	1
150	ps1006fb	1757	1816	60	0.555	0.300	0.756	0.135	4
151	ps1007fa	1761	1977	217	0.348	0.712	0.910	0.236	1
152	ps1007fb	1761	1976	216	0.408	0.722	0.904	0.233	1
153	ps1008fa	1617	2003	387	0.447	0.575	0.900	0.290	2
154	ps1008fb	1617	1808	192	0.389	0.186	0.773	0.311	1
155	ps1008fc	1824	2003	180	0.484	0.526	0.802	0.246	1
156	ps1009fa	1645	1724	80	0.327	0.416	0.758	0.226	1
157	ps1009fb	1650	1812	163	0.432	0.253	0.734	0.240	1
158	ps1009fc	1828	1985	158	0.391	0.499	0.882	0.210	1
159	ps1009fd	1828	1985	158	0.398	0.534	0.849	0.222	1
160	ps1010fb	1647	1926	280	0.402	0.365	0.903	0.197	1
161	ps1011fb	1840	1969	130	0.415	0.272	0.653	0.174	1
162	ps1012fa	1835	2002	168	0.340	0.591	0.871	0.233	1
163	ps1013fa	1633	1811	179	0.385	0.190	0.838	0.237	1
164	ps1013fb	1633	1929	297	0.375	0.297	0.788	0.238	2
165	ps1014fa	1608	1897	290	0.312	0.369	0.665	0.213	3
166	ps1014fb	1608	1846	239	0.341	0.342	0.770	0.217	1
167	ps1015fa	1581	1928	348	0.380	0.260	0.701	0.229	1
168	ps1016fa	1618	1976	359	0.451	0.350	0.905	0.222	1
169	ps1016fb	1618	1816	199	0.440	0.412	0.870	0.236	1
170	ps2001fa	1629	1913	285	0.456	0.266	0.791	0.250	1
171	ps2001fb	1643	1906	264	0.420	0.294	0.799	0.221	1
172	ps2002fa	1662	1926	265	0.448	0.309	0.785	0.184	2
173	ps2002fb	1671	1814	144	0.446	0.351	0.802	0.185	1
174	ps2003fa	1615	1975	361	0.413	0.308	0.372	0.273	1
175	ps2003fb	1615	1866	252	0.382	0.186	0.818	0.266	1
176	ps2003fc	1882	1973	92	0.461	0.145	0.852	0.248	4
177	ps2004fa	1655	1926	272	0.440	0.297	0.845	0.294	1
178	ps2004fb	1654	1816	163	0.468	0.292	0.846	0.231	1
179	ps2005fa	1614	1930	317	0.401	0.279	0.838	0.245	1
180	ps2005fb	1614	1917	304	0.475	0.240	0.801	0.258	1
181	ps2007fa	1612	1983	372	0.344	0.372	0.860	0.222	1

**Appendix A. *continued.***

Seq	Series	Interval		No. Years	Correl. w/ Maste	Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	AR ( )
182	ps2007fb	1612	1980	369	0.392	0.406	0.861	0.218	1
183	ps2010fa	1626	1993	368	0.382	0.429	0.898	0.243	2
184	ps2010fb	1626	1815	190	0.399	0.483	0.857	0.232	1
185	ps2011fa	1621	1731	111	0.359	0.189	0.584	0.256	1
186	ps2011fc	1867	1985	119	0.361	0.196	0.541	0.272	2
187	ps2012fa	1762	1972	211	0.528	0.216	0.793	0.182	1
188	ps2012fb	1643	1813	171	0.388	0.310	0.805	0.231	1
189	ps2013a	1606	1816	211	0.373	0.278	0.782	0.228	1
190	ps2013b	1606	1980	375	0.451	0.273	0.855	0.226	1
191	ps2014a	1621	1979	359	0.549	0.377	0.850	0.205	1
192	ps2014b	1621	1979	359	0.509	0.350	0.830	0.190	1
193	ps2015a	1684	1961	278	0.354	0.297	0.843	0.234	1
194	ps2015b	1652	1960	309	0.312	0.292	0.843	0.232	1
195	ps2016a	1659	1776	118	0.422	0.427	0.823	0.177	2
196	ps2016b	1672	1929	258	0.484	0.353	0.770	0.186	1
197	ps2016c	1671	1897	227	0.568	0.413	0.799	0.195	1
198	ps2extra	1689	1814	126	0.316	0.260	0.747	0.252	1
199	ps3001fa	1821	1949	129	0.380	0.686	0.809	0.297	1
200	ps3001fb	1756	1938	183	0.370	0.717	0.905	0.255	1
201	ps3002fa	1734	1907	174	0.345	0.553	0.896	0.230	1
202	ps3002fb	1734	1852	119	0.402	0.444	0.849	0.195	1
203	ps3003fc	1763	1885	123	0.373	0.340	0.828	0.208	3
204	ps3004fa	1742	1877	136	0.380	0.597	0.876	0.218	2
205	ps3004fb	1742	1889	148	0.383	0.385	0.808	0.225	1
206	ps3006fb	1737	1837	101	0.395	0.573	0.838	0.181	1
207	ps3007fa	1768	1925	158	0.372	0.423	0.850	0.216	1
208	ps3007fb	1768	1924	157	0.393	0.481	0.852	0.184	1
209	ps3008fa	1757	1929	173	0.415	0.509	0.861	0.239	2
210	ps3008fb	1757	1929	173	0.430	0.493	0.804	0.291	1
211	ps3009fa	1762	1929	168	0.364	0.544	0.884	0.192	1
212	ps3009fb	1762	1901	140	0.360	0.523	0.859	0.158	2
213	ps3010fa	1750	1930	181	0.494	0.583	0.801	0.239	1
214	ps3010fb	1750	1929	180	0.483	0.721	0.775	0.241	1
Total or mean:				56652	0.423	0.318	0.814	0.227	

## Appendix B. Fire-scar data from 111 fire-scarred cross sections collected from three mountains in the Lolo National Forest.

MOR, ML: Morrell Mountain; PS: Point Six; MP: Mineral Peak.

Series 1 : ML2002

Pith Date : 1489

Outer Ring : 1976

Length of sample : 488

Number in final analysis : 78

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1900 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 78.0

Series 2 : ML2003

Pith Date : 1599

Outer Ring : 1899

Length of sample : 301

Number in final analysis : 172

Information on fire history :

1728 D fire scar

1769 U fire scar FI = 41

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 86.0

Sample mean fire interval : 41.0

Series 3 : ML2006

Inner Ring : 1643

Outer Ring : 1952

Length of sample : 310

Number in final analysis : 203

Information on fire history :

1655 U injury

1751 M fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 203.0

Series 4 : ML2007

Inner Ring : 1571

Outer Ring : 1914

Length of sample : 344

Number in final analysis : 260

Information on fire history :

1655 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 260.0

Series 5 : ML2008

Pith Date : 1678

Outer Ring : 1915

Length of sample : 238

Number in final analysis : 37

Information on fire history :

1734 D fire scar

1739 U injury

1751 D fire scar FI = 17

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 3

Average number years per fire : 18.5

Sample mean fire interval : 17.0

Series 6 : ML2009

Pith Date : 1685

Outer Ring : 1875

Length of sample : 191

Number in final analysis : 24

Information on fire history :

1694 D fire scar

1711 D fire scar FI = 17

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 12.0

Sample mean fire interval : 17.0

Series 7 : ML2013

Pith Date : 1726

Outer Ring : 1976

Length of sample : 251

Number in final analysis : 134

Information on fire history :

1843 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Average number years per fire : 134.0

**Appendix B. continued.**

Series 8 : ML2014

Pith Date : 1743

Outer Ring : 1965

Length of sample : 223

Number in final analysis : 6

Information on fire history :

1754 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Average number years per fire : 6.0

Series 9 : ML2016

Pith Date : 1704

Outer Ring : 1932

Length of sample : 229

Number in final analysis : 82

Information on fire history :

1851 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 82.0

Series 10 : ML3004

Inner Ring : 1593

Outer Ring : 1882

Length of sample : 290

Number in final analysis : 55

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1640 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 55.0

Series 11 : ML3006

Pith Date : 1500

Outer Ring : 1840

Length of sample : 341

Number in final analysis : 1

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

Total number all indicators : 1

Series 12 : ML3008

Inner Ring : 1697

Outer Ring : 1969

Length of sample : 273

Number in final analysis : 203

Information on fire history :

1767 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 203.0

Series 13 : MOR001

Pith Date : 1519

Bark Date : 1965

Length of sample : 447

Number in final analysis : 89

Information on fire history :

1531 D fire scar

1544 D fire scar FI = 9

1588 E injury

1601 M injury

1868 U injury

1898 D fire scar FI = 7

Total number of fire scars : 3

Total number all indicators : 6

Average number years per fire : 29.7

Sample mean fire interval : 8.0

Series 14 : MOR003

Inner Ring : 1567

Outer Ring : 1915

Length of sample : 349

Number in final analysis : 164

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1642 L injury

1754 E fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 3

Average number years per fire : 164.0

Series 15 : MOR004

Inner Ring : 1521

Bark Date : 1999

Length of sample : 479

Number in final analysis : 248



## Appendix B. *continued.*

### Information on fire history :

1562 E injury

1701 U injury

1754 U fire scar

1796 E fire scar FI = 42

1836 D fire scar FI = 40

1919 U fire scar FI = 83

1974 E fire scar FI = 55

Total number of fire scars : 5

Total number all indicators : 7

Average number years per fire : 49.6

Sample mean fire interval : 55.0

Series 16 : MOR006

Inner Ring : 1513

Outer Ring : 1987

Length of sample : 475

Number in final analysis : 315

### Information on fire history :

1560 E injury

1585 E injury

1675 E injury

1706 D injury

1754 U fire scar

1762 D injury

1806 D fire scar FI = 52

1829 U injury

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 8

Average number years per fire : 157.5

Sample mean fire interval : 52.0

Series 17 : MOR007

Inner Ring : 1565

Outer Ring : 1966

Length of sample : 402

Number in final analysis : 128

### Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1613 E fire scar

1624 D injury

1644 E injury

1681 D injury

1754 D fire scar FI = 97

1804 E injury

1963 U injury

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 8

Average number years per fire : 64.0

Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 18 : MOR008

Inner Ring : 1628

Outer Ring : 1959

Length of sample : 332

Number in final analysis : 65

### Information on fire history :

1684 D injury

1692 D injury

1787 D injury

1898 U fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 4

Average number years per fire : 65.0

Series 19 : MOR010

Pith Date : 1694

Outer Ring : 1977

Length of sample : 284

Number in final analysis : 95

### Information on fire history :

1883 D fire scar

1889 U fire scar FI = 6

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 47.5

Sample mean fire interval : 6.0

Series 20 : MOR012

Inner Ring : 1519

Outer Ring : 1981

Length of sample : 463

Number in final analysis : 188

### Information on fire history :

1537 U injury

1601 D injury

1796 E fire scar

1830 E fire scar FI = 34

1848 E injury

## **Appendix B. *continued.***

Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 5  
Average number years per fire : 94.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 34.0

### **Series 21 : MOR013**

Inner Ring : 1516  
Outer Ring : 1956  
Length of sample : 441  
Number in final analysis : 20  
Information on fire history :  
1531 E injury  
1601 M injury  
1768 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 20.0

### **Series 22 : MOR014**

Inner Ring : 1537  
Outer Ring : 1967  
Length of sample : 431  
Number in final analysis : 304  
Information on fire history :  
1555 D injury  
1573 E injury  
1601 D injury  
1667 D fire scar  
1675 E fire scar FI = 8  
1694 U injury  
1698 U injury  
1724 U fire scar FI = 49

Total number of fire scars : 3  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 101.3  
Sample mean fire interval : 28.5

### **Series 23 : MOR015**

Pith Date : 1515  
Outer Ring : 1865  
Length of sample : 351  
Number in final analysis : 77  
Information on fire history :  
1562 E injury  
1601 D injury

1643 L injury  
1700 U injury  
1748 U fire scar  
1754 U fire scar FI = 6  
1782 U injury  
1788 U injury  
1836 E fire scar FI = 54

Total number of fire scars : 3  
Total number all indicators : 9  
Average number years per fire : 25.7  
Sample mean fire interval : 30.0

### **Series 24 : MOR016**

Pith Date : 1562  
Bark Date : 1982  
Length of sample : 421  
Number in final analysis : 273  
Information on fire history :  
1601 E injury  
1711 U fire scar  
1754 D injury  
1796 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 273.0

### **Series 25 : MOR017**

Inner Ring : 1561  
Outer Ring : 1964  
Length of sample : 404  
Number in final analysis : 168  
Information on fire history :  
1562 U injury  
1601 D injury  
1754 U fire scar  
1789 U injury  
1830 U fire scar FI = 28  
1843 U fire scar FI = 13  
1867 U injury  
1898 U fire scar FI = 55  
Total number of fire scars : 4  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 42.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 32.0

## Appendix B. *continued.*

Series 26 : MOR018

Pith Date : 1514

Outer Ring : 1820

Length of sample : 307

Number in final analysis : 10

Information on fire history :

1531 E injury

1566 D injury

1601 M injury

1642 L injury

1660 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 5

Average number years per fire : 10.0

Series 27 : MOR019

Inner Ring : 1600

Outer Ring : 1891

Length of sample : 292

Number in final analysis : 160

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1658 D injury

1698 D injury

1736 U injury

1796 U fire scar

1811 U injury

1843 U fire scar FI = 47

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 7

Average number years per fire : 80.0

Sample mean fire interval : 47.0

Series 28 : MOR020

Pith Date : 1509

Outer Ring : 1963

Length of sample : 455

Number in final analysis : 26

Information on fire history :

1601 M injury

1632 D injury

1639 D fire scar

1669 D injury

1733 E injury

1843 E fire scar FI = 11

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 6

Average number years per fire : 13.0

Sample mean fire interval : 11.0

Series 29 : MOR021

Pith Date : 1520

Outer Ring : 1954

Length of sample : 435

Number in final analysis : 24

Information on fire history :

1562 E injury

1573 L injury

1601 D injury

1699 U injury

1754 U injury

1830 D fire scar

1836 D fire scar FI = 6

1849 U injury

1903 U injury

1919 U fire scar FI = 9

Total number of fire scars : 3

Total number all indicators : 10

Average number years per fire : 8.0

Sample mean fire interval : 7.5

Series 30 : MOR022

Pith Date : 1467

Outer Ring : 1960

Length of sample : 494

Number in final analysis : 132

Information on fire history :

1564 D fire scar

1601 M injury

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 132.0

Series 31 : LP3009

Inner Ring : 1591

Bark Date : 1964

Length of sample : 374

Number in final analysis : 131

## Appendix B. *continued.*

### Information on fire history :

1834 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 131.0

Series 32 : MP1001

Inner Ring : 1508

Outer Ring : 1733

Length of sample : 226

Number in final analysis : 4

### Information on fire history :

1509 L injury

1520 E injury

1601 U injury

No information in this range.

Total number all indicators : 3

Series 33 : MP1002

Pith Date : 1603

Bark Date : 1989

Length of sample : 387

Number in final analysis : 210

### Information on fire history :

1712 M injury

1781 U fire scar

1802 U injury

1804 U injury

1837 D injury

1841 D injury

1866 U injury

1897 U injury

1907 U injury

1935 L injury

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 10

Average number years per fire : 210.0

Series 34 : MP1003

Inner Ring : 1664

Bark Date : 1962

Length of sample : 299

Number in final analysis : 299

### Information on fire history :

1665 U fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 299.0

Series 35 : MP1004

Inner Ring : 1331

Outer Ring : 1957

Length of sample : 627

Number in final analysis : 471

### Information on fire history :

1406 U injury

1488 U fire scar

1497 U injury

1502 U injury

1518 U fire scar FI = 30

1529 U injury

1542 U injury

1547 U injury

1601 U injury

1661 U injury

1675 L injury

1679 L injury

1682 D fire scar FI = 164

1745 D fire scar FI = 63

1756 U injury

1781 U fire scar FI = 36

1822 U fire scar FI = 41

1834 U fire scar FI = 12

Total number of fire scars : 7

Total number all indicators : 18

Average number years per fire : 67.3

Sample mean fire interval : 57.7

Series 36 : MP1007

Inner Ring : 1780

Bark Date : 1922

Length of sample : 143

Number in final analysis : 89

### Information on fire history :

1834 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 89.0

**Appendix B. *continued.***

Series 37 : MP1008  
Inner Ring : 1531  
Outer Ring : 1686  
Length of sample : 156  
Number in final analysis : 96  
Information on fire history :  
    1591 M fire scar  
    1601 M injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 96.0

Series 38 : MP1009  
Inner Ring : 1610  
Bark Date : 1983  
Length of sample : 374  
Number in final analysis : 203  
Information on fire history :  
    1781 U fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 203.0

Series 39 : MP1010  
Inner Ring : 1622  
Bark Date : 1974  
Length of sample : 353  
Number in final analysis : 2  
Information on fire history :  
    1791 U injury  
    1803 U injury  
No information in this range.  
Total number all indicators : 2

Series 40 : MP1011  
Inner Ring : 1566  
Outer Ring : 1771  
Length of sample : 206  
Number in final analysis : 2  
Information on fire history :  
    1601 L injury  
    1669 L injury  
No information in this range.  
Total number all indicators : 2

Series 41 : MP1012  
Inner Ring : 1171  
Outer Ring : 1396  
Length of sample : 226  
Number in final analysis : 1  
Information on fire history :  
    1347 U injury  
No information in this range.  
Total number all indicators : 1

Series 42 : MP1013  
Inner Ring : 1678  
Bark Date : 1922  
Length of sample : 245  
Number in final analysis : 142  
Information on fire history :  
    1781 U fire scar  
    1839 L injury  
    1882 D injury  
    1885 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 142.0

Series 43 : MP1014  
Inner Ring : 1613  
Outer Ring : 1742  
Length of sample : 130  
Number in final analysis : 1  
Information on fire history :  
    1637 D injury  
Total number all indicators : 1

Series 44 : MP1017  
Inner Ring : 1441  
Outer Ring : 1736  
Length of sample : 296  
Number in final analysis : 0  
Information on fire history :  
No information in this range.

Series 45 : MP2001  
Inner Ring : 1589  
Bark Date : 1975

**Appendix B. *continued.***

Length of sample : 387

Number in final analysis : 143

Information on fire history :

1601 U injury

1834 U injury

1845 U injury

1938 U injury

No information in this range.

Total number all indicators : 4

Series 46 : MP2002

Inner Ring : 1562

Bark Date : 1970

Length of sample : 409

Number in final analysis : 83

Information on fire history :

1576 U injury

1889 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 83.0

Series 47 : MP2003

Inner Ring : 1569

Bark Date : 1974

Length of sample : 406

Number in final analysis : 90

Information on fire history :

1591 E injury

1593 E injury

1596 E injury

1795 U injury

1889 L fire scar

1934 D injury

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 6

Average number years per fire : 90.0

Series 48 : MP2004

Inner Ring : 1658

Bark Date : 1967

Length of sample : 310

Number in final analysis : 79

Information on fire history :

1889 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 79.0

Series 49 : MP2005

Pith Date : 1320

Outer Ring : 1951

Length of sample : 632

Number in final analysis : 475

Information on fire history :

1323 U injury

1344 U injury

1351 U injury

1369 U injury

1481 D injury

1489 D injury

1585 D fire scar

1705 U fire scar FI = 120

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 8

Average number years per fire : 237.5

Sample mean fire interval : 120.0

Series 50 : MP2007

Pith Date : 1657

Bark Date : 1919

Length of sample : 263

Number in final analysis : 43

Information on fire history :

1668 E injury

1670 U injury

1738 E injury

1880 U fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 4

Average number years per fire : 43.0

Series 51 : MP2008

Inner Ring : 1631

Bark Date : 1981

Length of sample : 351

Number in final analysis : 148

## Appendix B. *continued.*

### Information on fire history :

1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 148.0

Series 52 : MP2009

Pith Date : 1522

Bark Date : 1962

Length of sample : 441

Number in final analysis : 133

### Information on fire history :

1529 U injury

1534 U injury

1601 U injury

1812 U injury

1834 U fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 5

Average number years per fire : 133.0

Series 53 : MP2010

Inner Ring : 1554

Outer Ring : 1823

Length of sample : 270

Number in final analysis : 1

### Information on fire history :

1601 U injury

No information in this range.

Total number all indicators : 1

Series 54 : MP2011

Pith Date : 1558

Bark Date : 2000

Length of sample : 443

Number in final analysis : 105

### Information on fire history :

1561 U injury

1591 U injury

1601 U injury

1625 U injury

1836 U injury

1901 U fire scar

1907 U injury

1965 U fire scar FI = 64

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 8

Average number years per fire : 52.5

Sample mean fire interval : 64.0

Series 55 : MP2012

Inner Ring : 1404

Bark Date : 1976

Length of sample : 573

Number in final analysis : 480

### Information on fire history :

No information in this range.

Series 56 : MP2013

Inner Ring : 1470

Bark Date : 1952

Length of sample : 483

Number in final analysis : 456

### Information on fire history :

1497 U fire scar

1555 L injury

1568 U injury

1601 U injury

1668 U injury

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 5

Average number years per fire : 456.0

Series 57 : MP3001

Pith Date : 1660

Bark Date : 1997

Length of sample : 338

Number in final analysis : 166

### Information on fire history :

1705 E injury

1757 D injury

1834 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 3

Average number years per fire : 166.0

Series 58 : MP3002

Inner Ring : 1087

**Appendix B. *continued.***

Outer Ring : 1812  
Length of sample : 726  
Number in final analysis : 1  
Information on fire history :  
    1601 U injury  
Total number all indicators : 1

Series 59 : MP3003  
Inner Ring : 1520  
Bark Date : 1984  
Length of sample : 465  
Number in final analysis : 152  
Information on fire history :  
    1522 U injury  
    1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 152.0

Series 60 : MP3004  
Inner Ring : 1464  
Outer Ring : 1816  
Length of sample : 353  
Number in final analysis : 14  
Information on fire history :  
    1497 D injury  
    1601 U injury  
    1805 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 14.0

Series 61 : MP3005  
Pith Date : 1561  
Bark Date : 1979  
Length of sample : 419  
Number in final analysis : 148  
Information on fire history :  
    1582 U injury  
    1731 U injury  
    1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 148.0

Series 62 : MP3006  
Inner Ring : 1434  
Bark Date : 1951  
Length of sample : 518  
Number in final analysis : 119  
Information on fire history :  
    1601 U injury  
    1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 119.0

Series 63 : MP3007  
Inner Ring : 1263  
Outer Ring : 1805  
Length of sample : 543  
Number in final analysis : 0

Series 64 : MP3010  
Pith Date : 1550  
Bark Date : 1992  
Length of sample : 443  
Number in final analysis : 286  
Information on fire history :  
    1562 M injury  
    1580 D injury  
    1609 D injury  
    1627 D fire scar  
    1642 D injury  
    1645 D injury  
    1647 D injury  
    1648 D injury  
    1658 D injury  
    1834 D fire scar FI = 123  
    1893 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 11  
Average number years per fire : 143.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 123.0

Series 65 : MP3011  
Pith Date : 1579  
Bark Date : 1998  
Length of sample : 420



## **Appendix B. *continued.***

Number in final analysis : 166  
Information on fire history :  
    1601 U injury  
    1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 166.0

Series 66 : MP3012  
Inner Ring : 1635  
Bark Date : 1956  
Length of sample : 322  
Number in final analysis : 296  
Information on fire history :  
    1647 D fire scar  
    1834 D fire scar FI = 172  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 148.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 172.0

Series 67 : MP3013  
Pith Date : 1268  
Outer Ring : 1801  
Length of sample : 534  
Number in final analysis : 472  
Information on fire history :  
    1330 D injury  
    1410 D injury  
    1498 D injury  
    1518 E injury  
    1520 E injury  
    1571 D injury  
No information in this range.  
Total number all indicators : 6

Series 68 : MP3015  
Inner Ring : 1628  
Bark Date : 1964  
Length of sample : 337  
Number in final analysis : 131  
Information on fire history :  
    1834 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 131.0

Series 69 : MP3016  
Inner Ring : 1596  
Bark Date : 1982  
Length of sample : 387  
Number in final analysis : 175  
Information on fire history :  
    1601 U injury  
    1774 D injury  
    1810 D fire scar  
    1834 D fire scar FI = 24  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 87.5  
Sample mean fire interval : 24.0

Series 70 : PS1001  
Pith Date : 1753  
Bark Date : 1957  
Length of sample : 205  
Number in final analysis : 142  
Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1861 D fire scar FI = 45  
    1934 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 71.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 45.0

Series 71 : PS1002  
Pith Date : 1735  
Bark Date : 1949  
Length of sample : 215  
Number in final analysis : 135  
Information on fire history :  
    1751 E injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1835 D injury  
    1848 L fire scar FI = 32  
    1861 D fire scar FI = 13  
    1872 D fire scar FI = 11

**Appendix B. continued.**

1874 D injury  
1879 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 4  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 33.8  
Sample mean fire interval : 18.7

Series 72 : PS1003  
Pith Date : 1764  
Bark Date : 1926  
Length of sample : 163  
Number in final analysis : 114  
Information on fire history :

1772 M injury  
1778 E injury  
1783 E injury  
1816 D fire scar  
1843 D fire scar FI = 27  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 5  
Average number years per fire : 57.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 27.0

Series 73 : PS1004  
Pith Date : 1759  
Bark Date : 2003  
Length of sample : 245  
Number in final analysis : 188  
Information on fire history :  
1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Average number years per fire : 188.0

Series 74 : PS1005  
Pith Date : 1760  
Bark Date : 2003  
Length of sample : 244  
Number in final analysis : 189  
Information on fire history :  
1772 E injury  
1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 189.0

Series 75 : PS1006  
Pith Date : 1757  
Bark Date : 1952  
Length of sample : 196  
Number in final analysis : 137  
Information on fire history :  
1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 137.0

Series 76 : PS1007  
Pith Date : 1761  
Bark Date : 1977  
Length of sample : 217  
Number in final analysis : 162  
Information on fire history :  
1816 D fire scar  
1967 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 162.0

Series 77 : PS1008  
Pith Date : 1617  
Bark Date : 2003  
Length of sample : 387  
Number in final analysis : 189  
Information on fire history :  
1794 U injury  
1816 D fire scar  
1969 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 189.0

Series 78 : PS1009  
Inner Ring : 1645  
Bark Date : 1985  
Length of sample : 341  
Number in final analysis : 170  
Information on fire history :  
1816 U fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1

## Appendix B. *continued.*

Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 170.0

Series 79 : PS1010  
Pith Date : 1647  
Outer Ring : 1926  
Length of sample : 280  
Number in final analysis : 114  
Information on fire history :

1649 E injury  
1665 U injury  
1684 D injury  
1816 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 114.0

Series 80 : PS1011  
Pith Date : 1840  
Bark Date : 1969  
Length of sample : 130  
Number in final analysis : 41  
Information on fire history :

1858 E injury  
1930 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 41.0

Series 81 : PS1012  
Inner Ring : 1835  
Bark Date : 2003  
Length of sample : 169  
Number in final analysis : 73  
Information on fire history :

1931 D injury  
1963 D injury

No information in this range.  
Total number all indicators : 2

Series 82 : PS1013  
Pith Date : 1633  
Bark Date : 1929  
Length of sample : 297

Number in final analysis : 116  
Information on fire history :  
1642 E injury  
1671 U injury  
1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 116.0

Series 83 : PS1014  
Pith Date : 1608  
Bark Date : 1897  
Length of sample : 290  
Number in final analysis : 180  
Information on fire history :  
1625 E injury  
1719 D fire scar  
1816 D fire scar FI = 97  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 90.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 84 : PS1015  
Pith Date : 1581  
Bark Date : 1928  
Length of sample : 348  
Number in final analysis : 215  
Information on fire history :  
1583 E injury  
1584 E injury  
1601 U injury  
1625 E injury  
1679 D injury  
1719 D fire scar  
1750 U injury  
1816 D fire scar FI = 97  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 107.5  
Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 85 : PS1016  
Inner Ring : 1618

## Appendix B. *continued.*

Bark Date : 1976  
Length of sample : 359  
Number in final analysis : 260  
Information on fire history :  
    1640 U injury  
    1691 U injury  
    1719 D fire scar  
    1723 D injury  
    1751 U injury  
    1816 D fire scar FI = 97  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 6  
Average number years per fire : 130.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 86 : PS2001  
Inner Ring : 1629  
Outer Ring : 1913  
Length of sample : 285  
Number in final analysis : 101  
Information on fire history :  
    1745 U injury  
    1774 U injury  
    1781 D injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1880 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 5  
Average number years per fire : 101.0

Series 87 : PS2002  
Inner Ring : 1662  
Bark Date : 1926  
Length of sample : 265  
Number in final analysis : 111  
Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 111.0  
Series 88 : PS2003  
Pith Date : 1615  
Bark Date : 1975  
Length of sample : 361

Number in final analysis : 162  
Information on fire history :  
    1653 M injury  
    1752 D injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1931 D injury  
    1932 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 5  
Average number years per fire : 162.0

Series 89 : PS2004  
Inner Ring : 1654  
Bark Date : 1926  
Length of sample : 273  
Number in final analysis : 112  
Information on fire history :  
    1752 D injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 112.0

Series 90 : PS2005  
Pith Date : 1614  
Bark Date : 1930  
Length of sample : 317  
Number in final analysis : 117  
Information on fire history :  
    1625 E injury  
    1752 U injury  
    1816 U fire scar  
    1882 D injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 117.0

Series 91 : PS2007  
Pith Date : 1612  
Bark Date : 1983  
Length of sample : 372  
Number in final analysis : 170  
Information on fire history :  
    1625 E injury

## Appendix B. *continued.*

1637 E injury  
1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 170.0

Series 92 : PS2008  
Pith Date : 1778  
Bark Date : 1891  
Length of sample : 114  
Number in final analysis : 42  
Information on fire history :  
1789 E injury  
1816 U injury  
1852 D fire scar  
1865 U fire scar FI = 13  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 21.0  
Sample mean fire interval : 13.0

Series 93 : PS2009  
Pith Date : 1861  
Bark Date : 1994  
Length of sample : 134  
Number in final analysis : 66  
Information on fire history :  
1866 E injury  
1930 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 66.0

Series 94 : PS2010  
Inner Ring : 1624  
Outer Ring : 1993  
Length of sample : 370  
Number in final analysis : 183  
Information on fire history :  
1625 U injury  
1633 D injury  
1651 E injury  
1758 D injury  
1816 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 5  
Average number years per fire : 183.0

Series 95 : PS2011  
Pith Date : 1621  
Bark Date : 1985  
Length of sample : 365  
Number in final analysis : 176  
Information on fire history :

1625 E injury  
1629 L injury  
1637 E injury  
1640 E injury  
1671 M injury  
1752 U injury  
1816 D fire scar  
1967 D injury

Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 176.0

Series 96 : PS2012  
Inner Ring : 1643  
Bark Date : 1972  
Length of sample : 330  
Number in final analysis : 163  
Information on fire history :

1651 E injury  
1671 E injury  
1708 D injury  
1710 M injury  
1752 U injury  
1801 D injury  
1816 D fire scar  
1841 U injury

Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 8  
Average number years per fire : 163.0

Series 97 : PS2013  
Pith Date : 1606  
Bark Date : 1980  
Length of sample : 375

**Appendix B. continued.**

Number in final analysis : 169

Information on fire history :

1612 E injury

1613 E injury

1625 E injury

1637 M injury

1816 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 5

Average number years per fire : 169.0

Series 98 : PS2014

Pith Date : 1621

Bark Date : 1979

Length of sample : 359

Number in final analysis : 6

Information on fire history :

1625 E injury

1632 E injury

1640 D injury

1649 E injury

1653 E injury

1771 D injury

No information in this range.

Total number all indicators : 6

Series 99 : PS2015

Inner Ring : 1652

Bark Date : 1961

Length of sample : 310

Number in final analysis : 301

Information on fire history :

1661 D fire scar

1719 D fire scar FI = 58

1749 D fire scar FI = 30

1816 D fire scar FI = 67

1827 U injury

1855 D injury

1879 U injury

1891 D fire scar FI = 75

1901 U injury

1904 D fire scar FI = 13

1913 D fire scar FI = 9

1921 D injury

Total number of fire scars : 7

Total number all indicators : 12

Average number years per fire : 43.0

Sample mean fire interval : 42.0

Series 100 : PS2016

Inner Ring : 1659

Bark Date : 1929

Length of sample : 271

Number in final analysis : 211

Information on fire history :

1719 D fire scar

1776 U injury

1816 D fire scar FI = 97

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 3

Average number years per fire : 105.5

Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 101 : PS2EX

Inner Ring : 1689

Outer Ring : 1816

Length of sample : 128

Number in final analysis : 98

Information on fire history :

1719 D fire scar

1752 U injury

1774 U injury

1816 D fire scar FI = 97

Total number of fire scars : 2

Total number all indicators : 4

Average number years per fire : 49.0

Sample mean fire interval : 97.0

Series 102 : PS3001

Pith Date : 1756

Bark Date : 1949

Length of sample : 194

Number in final analysis : 135

Information on fire history :

1768 E injury

1816 D fire scar

1829 D fire scar FI = 13

1904 U injury

Total number of fire scars : 2

## Appendix B. *continued.*

Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 67.5  
Sample mean fire interval : 13.0

Series 103 : PS3002  
Pith Date : 1734  
Outer Ring : 1938  
Length of sample : 205  
Number in final analysis : 123  
Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 123.0

Series 104 : PS3003  
Pith Date : 1763  
Bark Date : 1984  
Length of sample : 222  
Number in final analysis : 169  
Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1940 U injury  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 169.0

Series 105 : PS3004  
Pith Date : 1742  
Outer Ring : 1889  
Length of sample : 148  
Number in final analysis : 75  
Information on fire history :  
    1794 E injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 75.0

Series 106 : PS3005  
Pith Date : 1743  
Outer Ring : 1858  
Length of sample : 116  
Number in final analysis : 43

Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 1  
Average number years per fire : 43.0

Series 107 : PS3006  
Pith Date : 1737  
Bark Date : 1897  
Length of sample : 161  
Number in final analysis : 85  
Information on fire history :  
    1739 D injury  
    1741 D injury  
    1750 D injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 4  
Average number years per fire : 85.0

Series 108 : PS3007  
Pith Date : 1768  
Bark Date : 1925  
Length of sample : 158  
Number in final analysis : 112  
Information on fire history :  
    1772 E injury  
    1780 E injury  
    1816 D fire scar  
Total number of fire scars : 1  
Total number all indicators : 3  
Average number years per fire : 112.0

Series 109 : PS3008  
Pith Date : 1757  
Bark Date : 1929  
Length of sample : 173  
Number in final analysis : 114  
Information on fire history :  
    1816 D fire scar  
    1831 D fire scar FI = 15  
Total number of fire scars : 2  
Total number all indicators : 2  
Average number years per fire : 57.0

**Appendix B. *continued.***

Sample mean fire interval : 15.0

Series 110 : PS3009

Pith Date : 1762

Bark Date : 1929

Length of sample : 168

Number in final analysis : 115

Information on fire history :

1772 E injury

1816 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 2

Average number years per fire : 115.0

Series 111 : PS3010

Inner Ring : 1750

Bark Date : 1830

Length of sample : 81

Number in final analysis : 15

Information on fire history :

1816 D fire scar

Total number of fire scars : 1

Total number all indicators : 1

Average number years per fire : 15.0

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**Summary Information:**

Beginning year : 1092

Last year : 2003

Length of fire chronology : 1004

Total number of samples : 111

Total number of recorder years : 15353

Total number of fire scars : 150

Total number of all indicators : 409

Avg number of years per fire : 102.4

Avg number of years per all injuries : 37.5

Avg all sample mean fire intervals : 15.3

Total number of years with fire : 68

Percentage of years with fire : 6.8

Percentage of years without fire : 93.2

Percentage of years MFI : 14.8

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**Appendix C1. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA output for annual tree establishment.**

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits		Limits		Limits		Min	Max
					+/-1.96	SD	+/-2.575	SD	+/-3.294	SD		
0	0	0.625	8	0.9161	-1.1706	2.4206	-1.734	2.984	-2.3927	3.6427	0	2
1	1	0.625	8	0.744	-0.8333	2.0833	-1.2909	2.5409	-1.8258	3.0758	0	2
2	2	0.375	8	0.5175	-0.6394	1.3894	-0.9577	1.7077	-1.3298	2.0798	0	1
3	3	0.75	8	1.165	-1.5333	3.0333	-2.2498	3.7498	-3.0874	4.5874	0	3
4	4	0.125	8	0.3536	-0.568	0.818	-0.7854	1.0354	-1.0396	1.2896	0	1
5	5	0.375	8	0.744	-1.0833	1.8333	-1.5409	2.2909	-2.0758	2.8258	0	2
6	6	1.125	8	0.991	-0.8174	3.0674	-1.4269	3.6769	-2.1395	4.3895	0	3
7	7	0.25	8	0.4629	-0.6573	1.1573	-0.942	1.442	-1.2748	1.7748	0	1
8	8	0.25	8	0.4629	-0.6573	1.1573	-0.942	1.442	-1.2748	1.7748	0	1
9	9	0.75	8	0.7071	-0.6359	2.1359	-1.0708	2.5708	-1.5792	3.0792	0	2
10	10	1	8	0.7559	-0.4816	2.4816	-0.9465	2.9465	-1.49	3.49	0	2
11	11	0.5	8	0.5345	-0.5477	1.5477	-0.8764	1.8764	-1.2607	2.2607	0	1
12	12	0.5	8	0.5345	-0.5477	1.5477	-0.8764	1.8764	-1.2607	2.2607	0	1
13	13	0.375	8	0.744	-1.0833	1.8333	-1.5409	2.2909	-2.0758	2.8258	0	2
14	14	0.625	8	0.744	-0.8333	2.0833	-1.2909	2.5409	-1.8258	3.0758	0	2
15	15	1	8	0.9258	-0.8146	2.8146	-1.384	3.384	-2.0497	4.0497	0	3
16	16	0.5	8	0.7559	-0.9816	1.9816	-1.4465	2.4465	-1.99	2.99	0	2
17	17	0.625	8	0.9161	-1.1706	2.4206	-1.734	2.984	-2.3927	3.6427	0	2
18	18	0.875	8	0.8345	-0.7607	2.5107	-1.2739	3.0239	-1.8739	3.6239	0	2
19	19	1.25	8	1.7525	-2.185	4.685	-3.2628	5.7628	-4.5229	7.0229	0	5
20	20	0.75	8	0.7071	-0.6359	2.1359	-1.0708	2.5708	-1.5792	3.0792	0	2
21	21	0.875	8	1.3562	-1.7832	3.5332	-2.6172	4.3672	-3.5923	5.3423	0	4
22	22	0.5	8	1.069	-1.5953	2.5953	-2.2528	3.2528	-3.0214	4.0214	0	3
23	23	0.75	8	0.7071	-0.6359	2.1359	-1.0708	2.5708	-1.5792	3.0792	0	2
24	24	1.625	8	1.685	-1.6776	4.9276	-2.7139	5.9639	-3.9254	7.1754	0	5
25	25	0.75	8	1.3887	-1.9719	3.4719	-2.826	4.326	-3.8245	5.3245	0	4
26	26	0.75	8	0.7071	-0.6359	2.1359	-1.0708	2.5708	-1.5792	3.0792	0	2
27	27	0.75	8	0.8864	-0.9874	2.4874	-1.5325	3.0325	-2.1698	3.6698	0	2
28	28	0.75	8	0.8864	-0.9874	2.4874	-1.5325	3.0325	-2.1698	3.6698	0	2
29	29	0.375	8	0.744	-1.0833	1.8333	-1.5409	2.2909	-2.0758	2.8258	0	2
30	30	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
31	31	1	8	0.7559	-0.4816	2.4816	-0.9465	2.9465	-1.49	3.49	0	2
32	32	0.5	8	0.7559	-0.9816	1.9816	-1.4465	2.4465	-1.99	2.99	0	2
33	33	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
34	34	1.125	8	1.4577	-1.7322	3.9822	-2.6287	4.8787	-3.6768	5.9268	0	4
35	35	0.25	8	0.4629	-0.6573	1.1573	-0.942	1.442	-1.2748	1.7748	0	1
36	36	1.125	8	0.991	-0.8174	3.0674	-1.4269	3.6769	-2.1395	4.3895	0	3
37	37	1.375	8	1.7678	-2.0898	4.8398	-3.177	5.927	-4.448	7.198	0	5
38	38	1.375	8	0.9161	-0.4206	3.1706	-0.984	3.734	-1.6427	4.3927	0	3
39	-1	0.875	8	1.4577	-1.9822	3.7322	-2.8787	4.6287	-3.9268	5.6768	0	4
40	0	1	8	1.069	-1.0953	3.0953	-1.7528	3.7528	-2.5214	4.5214	0	3
41	1	0.875	8	0.8345	-0.7607	2.5107	-1.2739	3.0239	-1.8739	3.6239	0	2
42	2	0.75	8	0.8864	-0.9874	2.4874	-1.5325	3.0325	-2.1698	3.6698	0	2
43	3	0.625	8	1.0607	-1.4539	2.7039	-2.1062	3.3562	-2.8688	4.1188	0	3
44	4	1	8	1.1952	-1.3426	3.3426	-2.0777	4.0777	-2.9371	4.9371	0	3
45	5	0.875	8	0.991	-1.0674	2.8174	-1.6769	3.4269	-2.3895	4.1395	0	2
46	6	1.25	8	1.3887	-1.4719	3.9719	-2.326	4.826	-3.3245	5.8245	0	4
47	7	0.75	8	0.7071	-0.6359	2.1359	-1.0708	2.5708	-1.5792	3.0792	0	2
48	8	1.125	8	1.126	-1.0819	3.3319	-1.7744	4.0244	-2.584	4.834	0	3
49	9	0.875	8	1.126	-1.3319	3.0819	-2.0244	3.7744	-2.834	4.584	0	3
50	10	0.625	8	0.744	-0.8333	2.0833	-1.2909	2.5409	-1.8258	3.0758	0	2

**Appendix C1. Continued.**

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD		Limits +/-2.575 SD		Limits +/-3.294 SD		Min	Max
51	11	1	8	0.7559	-0.4816	2.4816	-0.9465	2.9465	-1.49	3.49	0	2
52	12	1.625	8	1.1877	-0.703	3.953	-1.4334	4.6834	-2.2874	5.5374	0	4
53	13	1.625	8	1.1877	-0.703	3.953	-1.4334	4.6834	-2.2874	5.5374	0	3
54	14	1.125	8	1.126	-1.0819	3.3319	-1.7744	4.0244	-2.584	4.834	0	3
55	15	1.125	8	1.126	-1.0819	3.3319	-1.7744	4.0244	-2.584	4.834	0	3
56	16	1	8	1.1952	-1.3426	3.3426	-2.0777	4.0777	-2.9371	4.9371	0	3
57	17	1	8	1.6903	-2.313	4.313	-3.3525	5.3525	-4.5679	6.5679	0	5
58	18	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
59	19	1.75	8	1.669	-1.5213	5.0213	-2.5478	6.0478	-3.7478	7.2478	0	4
60	20	0.625	8	0.744	-0.8333	2.0833	-1.2909	2.5409	-1.8258	3.0758	0	2
61	21	1.25	8	1.0351	-0.7788	3.2788	-1.4154	3.9154	-2.1596	4.6596	0	3
62	22	1.5	8	1.3093	-1.0662	4.0662	-1.8715	4.8715	-2.8129	5.8129	0	4
63	23	1.125	8	0.8345	-0.5107	2.7607	-1.0239	3.2739	-1.6239	3.8739	0	2
64	24	0.875	8	1.3562	-1.7832	3.5332	-2.6172	4.3672	-3.5923	5.3423	0	4
65	25	1.375	8	1.1877	-0.953	3.703	-1.6834	4.4334	-2.5374	5.2874	0	3
66	26	1.5	8	1.3093	-1.0662	4.0662	-1.8715	4.8715	-2.8129	5.8129	0	3
67	27	1	8	1.069	-1.0953	3.0953	-1.7528	3.7528	-2.5214	4.5214	0	3
68	28	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
69	29	1.75	8	1.5811	-1.349	4.849	-2.3214	5.8214	-3.4583	6.9583	0	5
70	30	0.875	8	0.8345	-0.7607	2.5107	-1.2739	3.0239	-1.8739	3.6239	0	2
71	31	1.125	8	0.991	-0.8174	3.0674	-1.4269	3.6769	-2.1395	4.3895	0	3
72	32	1.625	8	1.8468	-1.9948	5.2448	-3.1305	6.3805	-4.4584	7.7084	0	5
73	33	1.125	8	0.991	-0.8174	3.0674	-1.4269	3.6769	-2.1395	4.3895	0	3
74	34	1.25	8	1.5811	-1.849	4.349	-2.8214	5.3214	-3.9583	6.4583	0	4
75	35	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
76	36	0.875	8	1.126	-1.3319	3.0819	-2.0244	3.7744	-2.834	4.584	0	3
77	37	1	8	1.4142	-1.7719	3.7719	-2.6416	4.6416	-3.6584	5.6584	0	4
78	38	0.75	8	1.0351	-1.2788	2.7788	-1.9154	3.4154	-2.6596	4.1596	0	3
79	19	0.875	8	0.8345	-0.7607	2.5107	-1.2739	3.0239	-1.8739	3.6239	0	2
80	20	1.25	8	1.3887	-1.4719	3.9719	-2.326	4.826	-3.3245	5.8245	0	4
81	21	1	8	1.1952	-1.3426	3.3426	-2.0777	4.0777	-2.9371	4.9371	0	3
82	22	0.875	8	0.8345	-0.7607	2.5107	-1.2739	3.0239	-1.8739	3.6239	0	2
83	23	1.25	8	1.0351	-0.7788	3.2788	-1.4154	3.9154	-2.1596	4.6596	0	3
84	24	1.5	8	1.4142	-1.2719	4.2719	-2.1416	5.1416	-3.1584	6.1584	0	4
85	25	0.5	8	0.7559	-0.9816	1.9816	-1.4465	2.4465	-1.99	2.99	0	2
86	26	1.25	8	1.488	-1.6666	4.1666	-2.5817	5.0817	-3.6516	6.1516	0	3
87	27	2	8	1.8516	-1.6292	5.6292	-2.768	6.768	-4.0993	8.0993	0	5
88	28	0.375	8	0.5175	-0.6394	1.3894	-0.9577	1.7077	-1.3298	2.0798	0	1
89	29	1	8	1.069	-1.0953	3.0953	-1.7528	3.7528	-2.5214	4.5214	0	3
90	30	1	8	1.069	-1.0953	3.0953	-1.7528	3.7528	-2.5214	4.5214	0	3
91	31	1.125	8	1.2464	-1.318	3.568	-2.0845	4.3345	-2.9807	5.2307	0	3
92	32	0.5	8	0.5345	-0.5477	1.5477	-0.8764	1.8764	-1.2607	2.2607	0	1
93	33	1.125	8	1.126	-1.0819	3.3319	-1.7744	4.0244	-2.584	4.834	0	3
94	34	0.625	8	0.744	-0.8333	2.0833	-1.2909	2.5409	-1.8258	3.0758	0	2
95	35	1	8	0.9258	-0.8146	2.8146	-1.384	3.384	-2.0497	4.0497	0	3
96	36	1	8	1.069	-1.0953	3.0953	-1.7528	3.7528	-2.5214	4.5214	0	3
97	37	1.375	8	1.3025	-1.1778	3.9278	-1.9789	4.7289	-2.9153	5.6653	0	4
98	38	0.625	8	0.9161	-1.1706	2.4206	-1.734	2.984	-2.3927	3.6427	0	2

**Appendix C2. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA bootstrapped confidence intervals for annual tree establishment.**

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD		Limits +/-2.575 SD		Limits +/-3.294 SD		Min	Max
0	0	0.6346	1000	0.373	-0.0965	1.3658	-0.3259	1.5952	-0.5942	1.8634	0	2.5
1	1	0.638	1000	0.3717	-0.0905	1.3665	-0.3191	1.5951	-0.5864	1.8624	0	2.25
2	2	0.6231	1000	0.3568	-0.0763	1.3225	-0.2957	1.542	-0.5523	1.7985	0	2
3	3	0.6369	1000	0.3796	-0.1071	1.3809	-0.3405	1.6143	-0.6135	1.8872	0	2.25
4	4	0.658	1000	0.3783	-0.0834	1.3994	-0.316	1.632	-0.588	1.904	0	2.25
5	5	0.6436	1000	0.3743	-0.0901	1.3773	-0.3203	1.6075	-0.5894	1.8767	0	2
6	6	0.6304	1000	0.3557	-0.0669	1.3276	-0.2857	1.5464	-0.5414	1.8022	0	2
7	7	0.6516	1000	0.3713	-0.0761	1.3793	-0.3044	1.6077	-0.5714	1.8746	0	2.125
8	8	0.645	1000	0.366	-0.0724	1.3624	-0.2974	1.5874	-0.5606	1.8506	0	2
9	9	0.6521	1000	0.3641	-0.0614	1.3657	-0.2853	1.5896	-0.5471	1.8513	0	2.25
10	10	0.6635	1000	0.365	-0.052	1.379	-0.2764	1.6034	-0.5389	1.8659	0	1.875
11	11	0.6594	1000	0.3763	-0.0781	1.3968	-0.3095	1.6282	-0.58	1.8988	0	2.375
12	12	0.676	1000	0.3774	-0.0637	1.4157	-0.2959	1.6479	-0.5672	1.9192	0	2.375
13	13	0.6774	1000	0.3776	-0.0628	1.4175	-0.295	1.6498	-0.5665	1.9213	0	2.25
14	14	0.6593	1000	0.3808	-0.0871	1.4056	-0.3213	1.6398	-0.5951	1.9136	0	2.125
15	15	0.676	1000	0.3854	-0.0793	1.4313	-0.3163	1.6683	-0.5934	1.9454	0	2.25
16	16	0.6901	1000	0.3677	-0.0306	1.4109	-0.2568	1.637	-0.5212	1.9014	0	2
17	17	0.6691	1000	0.3741	-0.064	1.4023	-0.2941	1.6324	-0.5631	1.9013	0	2
18	18	0.6766	1000	0.3746	-0.0576	1.4109	-0.288	1.6413	-0.5573	1.9106	0	2.125
19	19	0.7011	1000	0.3811	-0.0459	1.4482	-0.2803	1.6826	-0.5544	1.9566	0	2.375
20	20	0.6854	1000	0.3765	-0.0526	1.4233	-0.2841	1.6549	-0.5549	1.9256	0	2.375
21	21	0.691	1000	0.3795	-0.0528	1.4348	-0.2862	1.6682	-0.559	1.941	0	2.25
22	22	0.7021	1000	0.3749	-0.0327	1.4369	-0.2632	1.6675	-0.5328	1.9371	0	1.875
23	23	0.6801	1000	0.3774	-0.0596	1.4198	-0.2917	1.6519	-0.563	1.9233	0	2.125
24	24	0.7185	1000	0.3849	-0.0359	1.4729	-0.2726	1.7096	-0.5494	1.9864	0	2
25	25	0.7069	1000	0.3682	-0.0149	1.4286	-0.2414	1.6551	-0.5061	1.9199	0	2.375
26	26	0.7097	1000	0.3951	-0.0647	1.4842	-0.3077	1.7272	-0.5918	2.0113	0	2.5
27	27	0.6934	1000	0.3751	-0.0417	1.4285	-0.2724	1.6591	-0.5421	1.9288	0	2.375
28	28	0.6971	1000	0.3861	-0.0597	1.4539	-0.2971	1.6914	-0.5748	1.969	0	2.5
29	29	0.724	1000	0.3913	-0.043	1.491	-0.2837	1.7317	-0.565	2.013	0	2.125
30	30	0.7124	1000	0.3807	-0.0337	1.4585	-0.2678	1.6926	-0.5415	1.9663	0	2.375
31	31	0.7013	1000	0.3692	-0.0224	1.4249	-0.2495	1.652	-0.515	1.9175	0	2.25
32	32	0.7309	1000	0.3885	-0.0306	1.4923	-0.2695	1.7312	-0.5488	2.0106	0	2.125
33	33	0.6841	1000	0.3668	-0.0348	1.403	-0.2603	1.6286	-0.5241	1.8923	0	2
34	34	0.7153	1000	0.3756	-0.0209	1.4514	-0.2519	1.6824	-0.5219	1.9524	0	2.125
35	35	0.7003	1000	0.3806	-0.0456	1.4461	-0.2797	1.6802	-0.5533	1.9538	0	2.375
36	36	0.7064	1000	0.3807	-0.0397	1.4525	-0.2739	1.6866	-0.5476	1.9603	0	2.375
37	37	0.7314	1000	0.3783	-0.0101	1.4729	-0.2428	1.7055	-0.5148	1.9776	0	2.25
38	38	0.726	1000	0.383	-0.0247	1.4767	-0.2602	1.7122	-0.5356	1.9876	0	2.625
39	-1	0.7111	1000	0.3478	0.0295	1.3927	-0.1844	1.6065	-0.4344	1.8566	0	2
40	0	0.7167	1000	0.3828	-0.0335	1.467	-0.2689	1.7024	-0.5442	1.9777	0	2.5714
41	1	0.7211	1000	0.3796	-0.023	1.4652	-0.2564	1.6987	-0.5294	1.9717	0	2.125
42	2	0.7493	1000	0.3667	0.0305	1.468	-0.195	1.6936	-0.4587	1.9572	0	2.625
43	3	0.733	1000	0.3695	0.0088	1.4572	-0.2184	1.6845	-0.4841	1.9501	0	2.125
44	4	0.746	1000	0.3947	-0.0277	1.5196	-0.2705	1.7624	-0.5543	2.0462	0	2.375
45	5	0.7344	1000	0.3692	0.0107	1.458	-0.2164	1.6851	-0.4818	1.9506	0	2.25
46	6	0.7324	1000	0.3683	0.0106	1.4543	-0.2159	1.6807	-0.4807	1.9455	0	2.25
47	7	0.727	1000	0.3715	-0.0011	1.455	-0.2295	1.6835	-0.4966	1.9505	0	2.125
48	8	0.7304	1000	0.3767	-0.0078	1.4687	-0.2395	1.7004	-0.5103	1.9712	0	2.125
49	9	0.7455	1000	0.3774	0.0058	1.4851	-0.2262	1.7172	-0.4975	1.9885	0	2

## Appendix C2. Continued.

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD		Limits +/-2.575 SD		Limits +/-3.294 SD		Min	Max
50	10	0.7554	1000	0.3757	0.0191	1.4917	-0.2119	1.7227	-0.482	1.9928	0	2.25
51	11	0.769	1000	0.3976	-0.0104	1.5484	-0.255	1.7929	-0.5409	2.0788	0	2.625
52	12	0.7517	1000	0.3793	0.0082	1.4951	-0.2251	1.7284	-0.4978	2.0011	0	2.375
53	13	0.757	1000	0.3749	0.0222	1.4918	-0.2084	1.7224	-0.4779	1.992	0	2.5714
54	14	0.7599	1000	0.3755	0.024	1.4959	-0.2069	1.7268	-0.4768	1.9967	0	2.125
55	15	0.7556	1000	0.3828	0.0053	1.5059	-0.2301	1.7413	-0.5053	2.0165	0	2.375
56	16	0.7358	1000	0.3662	0.0181	1.4535	-0.2071	1.6787	-0.4703	1.942	0	2
57	17	0.7345	1000	0.3816	-0.0135	1.4824	-0.2482	1.7171	-0.5225	1.9915	0	2.125
58	18	0.7434	1000	0.3759	0.0067	1.4802	-0.2245	1.7114	-0.4948	1.9817	0	2.375
59	19	0.7543	1000	0.3743	0.0206	1.488	-0.2097	1.7182	-0.4788	1.9874	0	2.25
60	20	0.7544	1000	0.3775	0.0146	1.4943	-0.2176	1.7264	-0.489	1.9979	0	2.25
61	21	0.7642	1000	0.3737	0.0318	1.4965	-0.198	1.7263	-0.4667	1.995	0	2
62	22	0.7533	1000	0.3704	0.0273	1.4793	-0.2005	1.7071	-0.4668	1.9734	0	2.375
63	23	0.7585	1000	0.3824	0.009	1.508	-0.2261	1.7431	-0.5011	2.0181	0	2.2857
64	24	0.7614	1000	0.3762	0.024	1.4989	-0.2074	1.7302	-0.4779	2.0008	0	2.125
65	25	0.7303	1000	0.3615	0.0218	1.4387	-0.2005	1.661	-0.4604	1.9209	0	1.875
66	26	0.7487	1000	0.3831	-0.0021	1.4995	-0.2376	1.7351	-0.5131	2.0105	0	2.25
67	27	0.7562	1000	0.3724	0.0263	1.4861	-0.2028	1.7152	-0.4705	1.983	0	2
68	28	0.7723	1000	0.3797	0.0281	1.5165	-0.2054	1.75	-0.4784	2.023	0	2.5
69	29	0.7788	1000	0.3856	0.0231	1.5345	-0.214	1.7716	-0.4912	2.0488	0	2.375
70	30	0.7552	1000	0.3673	0.0353	1.475	-0.1906	1.7009	-0.4546	1.965	0	2.25
71	31	0.7564	1000	0.3798	0.0119	1.5009	-0.2217	1.7345	-0.4948	2.0076	0	2.125
72	32	0.7791	1000	0.3837	0.027	1.5312	-0.209	1.7672	-0.4849	2.0431	0	2.125
73	33	0.7489	1000	0.3751	0.0137	1.4842	-0.217	1.7149	-0.4867	1.9846	0	2.125
74	34	0.7619	1000	0.3888	-0.0002	1.524	-0.2394	1.7632	-0.5189	2.0428	0	2.375
75	35	0.7486	1000	0.3812	0.0015	1.4957	-0.2329	1.7301	-0.507	2.0042	0	2.125
76	36	0.7787	1000	0.3861	0.0219	1.5355	-0.2155	1.773	-0.4932	2.0506	0	2.375
77	37	0.7636	1000	0.3847	0.0096	1.5176	-0.227	1.7542	-0.5036	2.0308	0	2.25
78	38	0.7649	1000	0.384	0.0122	1.5176	-0.224	1.7538	-0.5001	2.03	0	2.875
79	19	0.7814	1000	0.4008	-0.0042	1.5669	-0.2507	1.8134	-0.5389	2.1016	0	2.25
80	20	0.7791	1000	0.3625	0.0685	1.4896	-0.1545	1.7126	-0.4152	1.9733	0	2.25
81	21	0.799	1000	0.3996	0.0158	1.5822	-0.2299	1.828	-0.5172	2.1153	0	2.375
82	22	0.7892	1000	0.3934	0.018	1.5603	-0.224	1.8023	-0.5068	2.0852	0	2.125
83	23	0.7839	1000	0.3857	0.0279	1.5398	-0.2093	1.777	-0.4866	2.0543	0	2.5
84	24	0.7747	1000	0.3878	0.0146	1.5347	-0.2238	1.7732	-0.5026	2.052	0	2.375
85	25	0.7785	1000	0.3855	0.023	1.5341	-0.2141	1.7712	-0.4912	2.0483	0	2.25
86	26	0.8002	1000	0.406	0.0045	1.596	-0.2451	1.8456	-0.537	2.1375	0	2.5
87	27	0.7744	1000	0.3841	0.0216	1.5271	-0.2146	1.7633	-0.4907	2.0395	0	2.25
88	28	0.805	1000	0.3828	0.0547	1.5554	-0.1808	1.7908	-0.456	2.0661	0	2
89	29	0.7866	1000	0.3751	0.0513	1.5219	-0.1794	1.7526	-0.4491	2.0224	0	2.125
90	30	0.7587	1000	0.3735	0.0267	1.4907	-0.203	1.7204	-0.4715	1.989	0	2.25
91	31	0.7811	1000	0.3813	0.0338	1.5284	-0.2007	1.7629	-0.4748	2.037	0	2.5
92	32	0.7725	1000	0.3834	0.0211	1.524	-0.2147	1.7597	-0.4904	2.0354	0	2.125
93	33	0.7619	1000	0.3662	0.0441	1.4797	-0.1812	1.7049	-0.4445	1.9683	0	2.5
94	34	0.7836	1000	0.3749	0.0488	1.5184	-0.1817	1.749	-0.4513	2.0185	0	2.375
95	35	0.7786	1000	0.3799	0.0341	1.5232	-0.1995	1.7568	-0.4727	2.0299	0	2.375
96	36	0.8078	1000	0.3904	0.0427	1.573	-0.1974	1.8131	-0.4781	2.0937	0	2.125
97	37	0.7753	1000	0.379	0.0324	1.5182	-0.2007	1.7513	-0.4733	2.0238	0	2.25
98	38	0.7678	1000	0.3806	0.0218	1.5138	-0.2122	1.7479	-0.4859	2.0215	0	2.375

# Appendix D1. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA for 5-yr mean tree establishment.

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD	Limits +/-2.575 SD	Limits +/-3.294 SD	Min	Max
0	0	0.55	8	0.3964	-0.227 1.327	-0.4708 1.5708	-0.7558 1.8558	0.2	1.2
1	1	0.65	8	0.5099	-0.3494 1.6494	-0.663 1.963	-1.0296 2.3296	0.2	1.6
2	2	0.5	8	0.4408	-0.3639 1.3639	-0.635 1.635	-0.9519 1.9519	0	1.2
3	3	0.45	8	0.3338	-0.2043 1.1043	-0.4096 1.3096	-0.6496 1.5496	0	1
4	4	0.55	8	0.4504	-0.3328 1.4328	-0.6098 1.7098	-0.9336 2.0336	0	1.4
5	5	0.525	8	0.44	-0.3373 1.3873	-0.6079 1.6579	-0.9243 1.9743	0	1.4
6	6	0.425	8	0.42	-0.3983 1.2483	-0.6566 1.5066	-0.9586 1.8086	0	1.2
7	7	0.55	8	0.5318	-0.4924 1.5924	-0.8195 1.9195	-1.2019 2.3019	0	1.6
8	8	0.675	8	0.5651	-0.4325 1.7825	-0.78 2.13	-1.1863 2.5363	0	1.6
9	9	0.55	8	0.3665	-0.1682 1.2682	-0.3936 1.4936	-0.6571 1.7571	0.2	1.2
10	10	0.6	8	0.3024	0.0074 1.1926	-0.1786 1.3786	-0.396 1.596	0.2	1.2
11	11	0.625	8	0.2712	0.0934 1.1566	-0.0734 1.3234	-0.2685 1.5185	0.2	1
12	12	0.6	8	0.2619	0.0868 1.1132	-0.0743 1.2743	-0.2626 1.4626	0.2	1
13	13	0.6	8	0.2619	0.0868 1.1132	-0.0743 1.2743	-0.2626 1.4626	0.4	1.2
14	14	0.6	8	0.4276	-0.2381 1.4381	-0.5011 1.7011	-0.8086 2.0086	0.2	1.6
15	15	0.625	8	0.4713	-0.2988 1.5488	-0.5886 1.8386	-0.9275 2.1775	0	1.6
16	16	0.725	8	0.4528	-0.1624 1.6124	-0.4409 1.8909	-0.7664 2.2164	0	1.6
17	17	0.85	8	0.7764	-0.6718 2.3718	-1.1493 2.8493	-1.7076 3.4076	0	2.4
18	18	0.8	8	0.6047	-0.3853 1.9853	-0.7572 2.3572	-1.192 2.792	0.2	2
19	19	0.875	8	0.6923	-0.4819 2.2319	-0.9077 2.6577	-1.4055 3.1555	0.2	2.4
20	20	0.85	8	0.7838	-0.6862 2.3862	-1.1682 2.8682	-1.7317 3.4317	0.2	2.6
21	21	0.825	8	0.6882	-0.5238 2.1738	-0.947 2.597	-1.4418 3.0918	0.4	2.4
22	22	0.9	8	0.5757	-0.2284 2.0284	-0.5824 2.3824	-0.9964 2.7964	0.4	1.8
23	23	0.9	8	0.835	-0.7365 2.5365	-1.25 3.05	-1.8503 3.6503	0.4	2.6
24	24	0.875	8	0.7555	-0.6057 2.3557	-1.0703 2.8203	-1.6135 3.3635	0.2	2.6
25	5	0.925	8	0.5651	-0.1825 2.0325	-0.53 2.38	-0.9363 2.7863	0.2	2
26	6	0.925	8	0.6585	-0.3656 2.2156	-0.7705 2.6205	-1.244 3.094	0	1.8
27	7	0.675	8	0.5007	-0.3064 1.6564	-0.6143 1.9643	-0.9744 2.3244	0	1.6
28	8	0.675	8	0.6228	-0.5457 1.8957	-0.9287 2.2787	-1.3764 2.7264	0	1.6
29	9	0.725	8	0.512	-0.2785 1.7285	-0.5934 2.0434	-0.9615 2.4115	0.2	1.6
30	10	0.675	8	0.5007	-0.3064 1.6564	-0.6143 1.9643	-0.9744 2.3244	0	1.6
31	11	0.675	8	0.4773	-0.2606 1.6106	-0.5542 1.9042	-0.8974 2.2474	0	1.4
32	12	0.825	8	0.6274	-0.4046 2.0546	-0.7904 2.4404	-1.2415 2.8915	0	1.8
33	13	0.725	8	0.5751	-0.4022 1.8522	-0.7558 2.2058	-1.1693 2.6193	0.2	1.6
34	14	0.75	8	0.6655	-0.5543 2.0543	-0.9636 2.4636	-1.4421 2.9421	0.2	2
35	15	0.925	8	0.8681	-0.7764 2.6264	-1.3103 3.1603	-1.9345 3.7845	0.2	2.4
36	16	1.05	8	0.8194	-0.556 2.656	-1.06 3.16	-1.6491 3.7491	0.2	2.6
37	17	1	8	0.7709	-0.511 2.511	-0.9851 2.9851	-1.5393 3.5393	0	2.4
38	18	1.15	8	0.8928	-0.5999 2.8999	-1.149 3.449	-1.791 4.091	0.2	2.6
39	19	1.1	8	0.7928	-0.4539 2.6539	-0.9415 3.1415	-1.5116 3.7116	0.2	2.4
40	20	0.975	8	0.6089	-0.2184 2.1684	-0.5928 2.5428	-1.0306 2.9806	0.2	1.8
41	21	0.825	8	0.6541	-0.4571 2.1071	-0.8593 2.5093	-1.3296 2.9796	0	1.8
42	22	0.85	8	0.699	-0.52 2.22	-0.9499 2.6499	-1.4524 3.1524	0	2
43	23	0.825	8	0.7046	-0.556 2.206	-0.9893 2.6393	-1.4959 3.1459	0	1.8
44	24	0.9	8	0.8418	-0.7499 2.5499	-1.2675 3.0675	-1.8728 3.6728	0	2.4
45	5	0.9	8	0.8211	-0.7095 2.5095	-1.2145 3.0145	-1.8049 3.6049	0	2.4
46	6	1	8	0.8	-0.568 2.568	-1.06 3.06	-1.6352 3.6352	0	2.4
47	7	0.975	8	0.8582	-0.707 2.657	-1.2347 3.1847	-1.8518 3.8018	0	2.6
48	8	0.925	8	0.7402	-0.5257 2.3757	-0.9809 2.8309	-1.5131 3.3631	0	2.2
49	9	0.875	8	0.5651	-0.2325 1.9825	-0.58 2.33	-0.9863 2.7363	0.2	1.8

# Appendix D1. Continued.

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD		Limits +/-2.575 SD		Limits +/-3.294 SD		Min	Max
50	10	1.05	8	0.6024	-0.1307	2.2307	-0.5011	2.6011	-0.9342	3.0342	0.4	1.8
51	11	1.15	8	0.487	0.1955	2.1045	-0.104	2.404	-0.4541	2.7541	0.4	1.8
52	12	1.2	8	0.4781	0.2629	2.1371	-0.0311	2.4311	-0.3748	2.7748	0.6	2
53	13	1.3	8	0.5345	0.2523	2.3477	-0.0764	2.6764	-0.4607	3.0607	0.6	2.2
54	14	1.3	8	0.659	0.0084	2.5916	-0.3969	2.9969	-0.8708	3.4708	0.6	2.6
55	15	1.175	8	0.7285	-0.2529	2.6029	-0.7009	3.0509	-1.2247	3.5747	0.4	2.4
56	16	1	8	0.8	-0.568	2.568	-1.06	3.06	-1.6352	3.6352	0.2	2.4
57	17	1.125	8	0.8345	-0.5107	2.7607	-1.0239	3.2739	-1.6239	3.8739	0	2.4
58	18	1.025	8	0.8172	-0.5768	2.6268	-1.0794	3.1294	-1.6669	3.7169	0	2.6
59	19	1.075	8	0.7246	-0.3452	2.4952	-0.7908	2.9408	-1.3117	3.4617	0	2.4
60	20	1.175	8	0.6798	-0.1574	2.5074	-0.5755	2.9255	-1.0643	3.4143	0.2	2
61	21	1.25	8	0.6024	0.0693	2.4307	-0.3011	2.8011	-0.7342	3.2342	0.4	2
62	22	1.075	8	0.6042	-0.1091	2.2591	-0.4807	2.6307	-0.9151	3.0651	0.4	2.4
63	23	1.225	8	0.6798	-0.1074	2.5574	-0.5255	2.9755	-1.0143	3.4643	0.6	2.4
64	24	1.275	8	0.6671	-0.0325	2.5825	-0.4427	2.9927	-0.9224	3.4724	0.6	2.4
65	5	1.175	8	0.6882	-0.1738	2.5238	-0.597	2.947	-1.0918	3.4418	0.4	2.6
66	6	1.1	8	0.6503	-0.1745	2.3745	-0.5745	2.7745	-1.042	3.242	0.2	2.2
67	7	1.275	8	0.7166	-0.1296	2.6796	-0.5703	3.1203	-1.0856	3.6356	0.2	2.4
68	8	1.175	8	0.7363	-0.2682	2.6182	-0.721	3.071	-1.2504	3.6004	0	2
69	9	1.1	8	0.6414	-0.1572	2.3572	-0.5517	2.7517	-1.0129	3.2129	0	1.8
70	10	1.225	8	0.744	-0.2333	2.6833	-0.6909	3.1409	-1.2258	3.6758	0	2.4
71	11	1.3	8	0.6676	-0.0085	2.6085	-0.4191	3.0191	-0.8991	3.4991	0.2	2
72	12	1.2	8	0.8	-0.368	2.768	-0.86	3.26	-1.4352	3.8352	0.2	2.4
73	13	1.175	8	0.9161	-0.6206	2.9706	-1.184	3.534	-1.8427	4.1927	0.2	2.6
74	14	1.125	8	0.913	-0.6645	2.9145	-1.226	3.476	-1.8824	4.1324	0.2	2.6
75	15	1	8	0.7091	-0.3899	2.3899	-0.826	2.826	-1.3359	3.3359	0	1.8
76	16	0.925	8	0.8548	-0.7504	2.6004	-1.2762	3.1262	-1.8908	3.7408	0	2.4
77	17	0.85	8	0.6655	-0.4543	2.1543	-0.8636	2.5636	-1.3421	3.0421	0	2
78	18	0.95	8	0.6655	-0.3543	2.2543	-0.7636	2.6636	-1.2421	3.1421	0	2
79	19	0.975	8	0.7517	-0.4983	2.4483	-0.9605	2.9105	-1.501	3.451	0	2
80	20	0.95	8	0.6568	-0.3374	2.2374	-0.7413	2.6413	-1.2136	3.1136	0.2	2
81	21	1.05	8	0.6024	-0.1307	2.2307	-0.5011	2.6011	-0.9342	3.0342	0.4	1.8
82	22	1.175	8	0.7363	-0.2682	2.6182	-0.721	3.071	-1.2504	3.6004	0.4	2.4
83	23	1.025	8	0.7046	-0.356	2.406	-0.7893	2.8393	-1.2959	3.3459	0.4	2.4
84	24	1.075	8	0.6756	-0.2492	2.3992	-0.6647	2.8147	-1.1504	3.3004	0.4	2.4
85	25	1.3	8	0.9134	-0.4902	3.0902	-1.052	3.652	-1.7087	4.3087	0.4	2.6
86	26	1.125	8	0.7402	-0.3257	2.5757	-0.7809	3.0309	-1.3131	3.5631	0.4	2.2
87	27	1.025	8	0.7363	-0.4182	2.4682	-0.871	2.921	-1.4004	3.4504	0	2
88	28	1.125	8	0.7479	-0.3408	2.5908	-0.8007	3.0507	-1.3384	3.5884	0.2	2.2
89	29	1.1	8	0.8552	-0.5763	2.7763	-1.1022	3.3022	-1.7171	3.9171	0.2	2.6
90	30	0.8	8	0.5657	-0.3087	1.9087	-0.6566	2.2566	-1.0634	2.6634	0.2	1.8
91	31	0.95	8	0.7838	-0.5862	2.4862	-1.0682	2.9682	-1.6317	3.5317	0.2	2.4
92	32	0.875	8	0.7005	-0.498	2.248	-0.9288	2.6788	-1.4325	3.1825	0	2
93	33	0.875	8	0.6135	-0.3275	2.0775	-0.7049	2.4549	-1.146	2.896	0	1.8
94	34	0.85	8	0.5732	-0.2735	1.9735	-0.626	2.326	-1.0382	2.7382	0	1.6
95	35	1.025	8	0.6882	-0.3238	2.3738	-0.747	2.797	-1.2418	3.2918	0.2	2
96	36	0.925	8	0.5946	-0.2405	2.0905	-0.6061	2.4561	-1.0337	2.8837	0.2	1.8
97	37	1.1	8	0.8751	-0.6151	2.8151	-1.1533	3.3533	-1.7824	3.9824	0.2	2.4
98	38	1.075	8	0.894	-0.6773	2.8273	-1.2271	3.3771	-1.8699	4.0199	0.2	2.4



**Appendix D2. Fire-tree establishment MDSEA bootstrapped confidence intervals for 5-yr mean tree establishment.**

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits +/-1.96 SD	Limits +/-2.575 SD	Limits +/-3.294 SD	Min	Max
0	0	0.6267	1000	0.2684	0.1005 1.1528	-0.0646 1.3179	-0.2576 1.5109	0.1	1.5
1	1	0.6296	1000	0.2669	0.1065 1.1527	-0.0576 1.3168	-0.2495 1.5087	0.1	1.5
2	2	0.6342	1000	0.2677	0.1096 1.1589	-0.055 1.3235	-0.2474 1.5159	0.1	1.4
3	3	0.6374	1000	0.2652	0.1176 1.1572	-0.0455 1.3203	-0.2362 1.511	0.1	1.4
4	4	0.6434	1000	0.2658	0.1224 1.1644	-0.0411 1.3278	-0.2322 1.519	0.1	1.3
5	5	0.6435	1000	0.2612	0.1315 1.1555	-0.0292 1.3162	-0.217 1.504	0.1	1.3
6	6	0.6465	1000	0.2635	0.13 1.1631	-0.0321 1.3252	-0.2216 1.5147	0.1	1.4
7	7	0.6469	1000	0.2672	0.1231 1.1706	-0.0412 1.3349	-0.2333 1.527	0.1	1.3
8	8	0.6513	1000	0.27	0.122 1.1806	-0.044 1.3467	-0.2382 1.5408	0.1	1.4
9	9	0.652	1000	0.2649	0.1328 1.1712	-0.0301 1.3341	-0.2206 1.5246	0.2	1.5
10	10	0.6523	1000	0.2692	0.1246 1.18	-0.041 1.3456	-0.2345 1.5392	0.2	1.4
11	11	0.6552	1000	0.2642	0.1373 1.1732	-0.0252 1.3357	-0.2152 1.5257	0.2	1.5
12	12	0.6587	1000	0.2619	0.1455 1.172	-0.0156 1.333	-0.2038 1.5213	0.2	1.4
13	13	0.6602	1000	0.2617	0.1472 1.1732	-0.0138 1.3341	-0.2019 1.5223	0.2	1.4
14	14	0.662	1000	0.2628	0.147 1.177	-0.0146 1.3386	-0.2035 1.5275	0.1	1.4
15	15	0.6677	1000	0.2618	0.1545 1.1809	-0.0065 1.3419	-0.1947 1.5301	0.2	1.5
16	16	0.672	1000	0.2611	0.1602 1.1838	-0.0004 1.3443	-0.1881 1.5321	0.1	1.4
17	17	0.6753	1000	0.2633	0.1594 1.1913	-0.0025 1.3532	-0.1918 1.5425	0.2	1.5
18	18	0.6799	1000	0.2655	0.1595 1.2003	-0.0038 1.3636	-0.1947 1.5545	0.2	1.4
19	19	0.681	1000	0.2651	0.1614 1.2006	-0.0017 1.3637	-0.1923 1.5543	0.2	1.6
20	20	0.6853	1000	0.2648	0.1663 1.2042	0.0035 1.367	-0.1869 1.5574	0.2	1.5
21	21	0.6905	1000	0.2704	0.1605 1.2206	-0.0058 1.3869	-0.2003 1.5813	0.2	1.5
22	22	0.6898	1000	0.2679	0.1647 1.2149	-0.0001 1.3797	-0.1927 1.5723	0.2	1.4
23	23	0.6897	1000	0.2648	0.1707 1.2086	0.0079 1.3714	-0.1825 1.5618	0.2	1.5
24	24	0.6947	1000	0.2658	0.1738 1.2157	0.0103 1.3792	-0.1808 1.5703	0.2	1.5
25	5	0.7094	1000	0.2591	0.2015 1.2172	0.0421 1.3766	-0.1442 1.5629	0.2	1.5
26	6	0.7114	1000	0.2587	0.2044 1.2185	0.0453 1.3776	-0.1407 1.5636	0.1	1.5
27	7	0.7146	1000	0.2581	0.2087 1.2206	0.0499 1.3793	-0.1357 1.5649	0.1	1.4
28	8	0.7182	1000	0.2617	0.2052 1.2311	0.0443 1.392	-0.1439 1.5802	0.2	1.5
29	9	0.7204	1000	0.2631	0.2046 1.2361	0.0428 1.398	-0.1464 1.5872	0.2	1.5
30	10	0.718	1000	0.2619	0.2046 1.2314	0.0435 1.3925	-0.1448 1.5808	0.2	1.4
31	11	0.7236	1000	0.2636	0.2069 1.2402	0.0448 1.4023	-0.1447 1.5919	0.2	1.5
32	12	0.7272	1000	0.2663	0.2052 1.2492	0.0414 1.413	-0.15 1.6044	0.2	1.4
33	13	0.7269	1000	0.2615	0.2143 1.2394	0.0535 1.4002	-0.1345 1.5882	0.2	1.5
34	14	0.7262	1000	0.2549	0.2265 1.2259	0.0697 1.3827	-0.1136 1.566	0.2	1.4
35	15	0.7303	1000	0.2574	0.2258 1.2347	0.0675 1.393	-0.1176 1.5781	0.2	1.4
36	16	0.7287	1000	0.2582	0.2226 1.2348	0.0638 1.3936	-0.1219 1.5792	0.2	1.5
37	17	0.73	1000	0.2579	0.2244 1.2355	0.0658 1.3941	-0.1196 1.5795	0.2	1.5
38	18	0.734	1000	0.2582	0.228 1.24	0.0692 1.3988	-0.1165 1.5845	0.2	1.5
39	19	0.7391	1000	0.2613	0.2269 1.2512	0.0662 1.4119	-0.1216 1.5998	0.2	1.5
40	20	0.7403	1000	0.2619	0.2269 1.2537	0.0658 1.4148	-0.1225 1.6032	0.2	1.5
41	21	0.7439	1000	0.2632	0.228 1.2598	0.0661 1.4217	-0.1231 1.611	0.2	1.5
42	22	0.7463	1000	0.2632	0.2304 1.2622	0.0685 1.4241	-0.1208 1.6134	0.1	1.5
43	23	0.7475	1000	0.2625	0.233 1.262	0.0716 1.4235	-0.1172 1.6122	0.1	1.5
44	24	0.7451	1000	0.2593	0.2368 1.2534	0.0773 1.4128	-0.1091 1.5993	0.2	1.5
45	5	0.7329	1000	0.2567	0.2297 1.2361	0.0718 1.394	-0.1128 1.5786	0.2	1.6
46	6	0.7361	1000	0.2636	0.2194 1.2527	0.0573 1.4148	-0.1322 1.6043	0.2	1.5
47	7	0.7367	1000	0.2632	0.2209 1.2525	0.059 1.4144	-0.1302 1.6036	0.2	1.6
48	8	0.7404	1000	0.263	0.225 1.2559	0.0632 1.4177	-0.1259 1.6067	0.2	1.5
49	9	0.7402	1000	0.258	0.2344 1.2459	0.0758 1.4046	-0.1098 1.5901	0.2	1.5

# Appendix D2. Continued.

Index	Yr	Mean	n	Std dev	Limits		Limits		Limits		Min	Max
					+/-1.96 SD		+/-2.575 SD		+/-3.294 SD			
50	10	0.7469	1000	0.2619	0.2335	1.2603	0.0724	1.4213	-0.1159	1.6097	0.2	1.5
51	11	0.7464	1000	0.2616	0.2337	1.2592	0.0728	1.4201	-0.1153	1.6082	0.3	1.5
52	12	0.748	1000	0.2579	0.2425	1.2536	0.0839	1.4122	-0.1016	1.5976	0.2	1.5
53	13	0.7489	1000	0.2566	0.2461	1.2518	0.0883	1.4096	-0.0962	1.594	0.2	1.5
54	14	0.7544	1000	0.2559	0.2527	1.256	0.0954	1.4134	-0.0887	1.5974	0.2	1.5
55	15	0.7525	1000	0.2533	0.256	1.2489	0.1002	1.4047	-0.0819	1.5868	0.2	1.5
56	16	0.7588	1000	0.2543	0.2604	1.2571	0.104	1.4135	-0.0788	1.5963	0.2	1.6
57	17	0.7615	1000	0.2565	0.2588	1.2642	0.101	1.4219	-0.0834	1.6063	0.2	1.5
58	18	0.7656	1000	0.2575	0.2608	1.2704	0.1024	1.4288	-0.0828	1.6139	0.2	1.5
59	19	0.7635	1000	0.2587	0.2564	1.2706	0.0973	1.4297	-0.0887	1.6157	0.3	1.7
60	20	0.7668	1000	0.2614	0.2544	1.2791	0.0937	1.4398	-0.0943	1.6278	0.2	1.5
61	21	0.766	1000	0.2588	0.2588	1.2733	0.0996	1.4325	-0.0865	1.6185	0.3	1.5
62	22	0.7668	1000	0.2569	0.2633	1.2703	0.1053	1.4283	-0.0794	1.613	0.2	1.5
63	23	0.7647	1000	0.2562	0.2626	1.2668	0.105	1.4244	-0.0792	1.6086	0.2	1.5
64	24	0.7653	1000	0.2548	0.266	1.2646	0.1093	1.4213	-0.0739	1.6045	0.2	1.6
65	5	0.7635	1000	0.2592	0.2554	1.2716	0.096	1.431	-0.0904	1.6174	0.2	1.5
66	6	0.7675	1000	0.2601	0.2577	1.2773	0.0978	1.4373	-0.0892	1.6243	0.2	1.5
67	7	0.7734	1000	0.2558	0.272	1.2747	0.1147	1.432	-0.0692	1.6159	0.2	1.4
68	8	0.7746	1000	0.2601	0.2649	1.2844	0.1049	1.4443	-0.082	1.6313	0.2	1.6
69	9	0.7781	1000	0.2609	0.2668	1.2894	0.1064	1.4499	-0.0812	1.6375	0.2	1.5
70	10	0.7758	1000	0.2633	0.2597	1.292	0.0978	1.4539	-0.0916	1.6432	0.2	1.6
71	11	0.777	1000	0.2586	0.2701	1.2839	0.111	1.4429	-0.0749	1.6289	0.3	1.5
72	12	0.7748	1000	0.2626	0.26	1.2895	0.0985	1.451	-0.0903	1.6398	0.2	1.5
73	13	0.7752	1000	0.2645	0.2568	1.2937	0.0942	1.4563	-0.096	1.6465	0.2	1.5
74	14	0.7772	1000	0.2637	0.2604	1.294	0.0982	1.4562	-0.0914	1.6458	0.2	1.6
75	15	0.7795	1000	0.2603	0.2692	1.2897	0.1091	1.4498	-0.0781	1.637	0.2	1.5
76	16	0.7807	1000	0.2579	0.2753	1.2861	0.1167	1.4447	-0.0687	1.6301	0.3	1.5
77	17	0.783	1000	0.2624	0.2686	1.2974	0.1072	1.4588	-0.0815	1.6475	0.2	1.7
78	18	0.7836	1000	0.259	0.2759	1.2913	0.1166	1.4507	-0.0697	1.6369	0.2	1.6
79	19	0.7841	1000	0.2577	0.2791	1.2892	0.1206	1.4477	-0.0647	1.633	0.3	1.5
80	20	0.7864	1000	0.2561	0.2845	1.2884	0.1269	1.4459	-0.0572	1.6301	0.2	1.6
81	21	0.7861	1000	0.2586	0.2792	1.293	0.1201	1.4521	-0.0658	1.638	0.2	1.5
82	22	0.7836	1000	0.2586	0.2767	1.2906	0.1176	1.4496	-0.0683	1.6356	0.2	1.5
83	23	0.7865	1000	0.2561	0.2846	1.2885	0.1271	1.446	-0.0571	1.6301	0.2	1.5
84	24	0.7884	1000	0.2512	0.2962	1.2807	0.1417	1.4351	-0.0389	1.6157	0.2	1.4
85	25	0.7886	1000	0.2488	0.301	1.2762	0.148	1.4292	-0.0309	1.6081	0.2	1.5
86	26	0.7915	1000	0.2487	0.3041	1.2789	0.1512	1.4319	-0.0276	1.6107	0.2	1.5
87	27	0.794	1000	0.249	0.3059	1.2821	0.1528	1.4353	-0.0263	1.6143	0.2	1.4
88	28	0.7908	1000	0.249	0.3027	1.2789	0.1496	1.432	-0.0295	1.6111	0.2	1.5
89	29	0.7882	1000	0.2477	0.3027	1.2736	0.1504	1.4259	-0.0276	1.604	0.3	1.5
90	30	0.7864	1000	0.2478	0.3006	1.2721	0.1482	1.4245	-0.0299	1.6026	0.2	1.5
91	31	0.7833	1000	0.247	0.2991	1.2675	0.1472	1.4195	-0.0304	1.5971	0.2	1.6
92	32	0.7828	1000	0.2473	0.2981	1.2675	0.1461	1.4196	-0.0317	1.5974	0.2	1.5
93	33	0.7799	1000	0.2453	0.2991	1.2607	0.1482	1.4115	-0.0282	1.5879	0.2	1.5
94	34	0.7816	1000	0.2502	0.2913	1.272	0.1375	1.4258	-0.0424	1.6057	0.2	1.5
95	35	0.78	1000	0.2514	0.2873	1.2727	0.1327	1.4273	-0.0481	1.608	0.2	1.4
96	36	0.7797	1000	0.2541	0.2817	1.2776	0.1255	1.4339	-0.0572	1.6165	0.2	1.6
97	37	0.777	1000	0.2493	0.2885	1.2656	0.1352	1.4189	-0.044	1.5981	0.2	1.5
98	38	0.7811	1000	0.2512	0.2888	1.2734	0.1343	1.4278	-0.0462	1.6084	0.2	1.5



## Vitae

Evan Larson was born in Princeton, Minnesota on September 5, 1979, to Eric and Shelley Larson. He grew up running the woods of his parent's land and the neighboring 32,000-hectare Rum River State Forest 22 kilometers outside of the town of Milaca, Minnesota, as well as spending a good deal of time camping in the north woods and the Boundary Waters Canoe Area. Evan traveled with his family extensively, and saw much of the United States by the time he graduated from Milaca High School in 1998. Following high school, he enrolled at Willamette University in Salem, Oregon, where he earned a Bachelor of Arts in Environmental and Earth Sciences. During his years as an undergraduate, Evan spent a semester on the island of South Caicos in the British West Indies conducting research with the School for Field Studies, was awarded a Morris K. Udall scholarship for Excellence in Environmental Policy, and was introduced to the science of dendrochronology as a participant in Willamette University's Science Collaborative Research Program.

Under the mentorship of Dr. Karen Arabas and Dr. Keith Hadley, Evan spent the summer of 2001 and his senior year reconstructing the fire history of the old-growth ponderosa pine forests on the kipuka of the Lava Cast Forest in central Oregon. He presented his findings at several professional meetings, including the 2002 Association of American Geographers meeting in Los Angeles, California, where he first met Dr. Henri Grissino-Mayer. Following his graduation from Willamette University, Evan worked as a research technician with Dr. Arabas for the summer before returning to Minnesota to spend a year as a substitute teacher for several public school districts and eventually the Nay Ah Shing Tribal School System on the reservation of the Mille Lacs Band of

Ojibwe. After a year of work, Evan enrolled as a Master's Student in the Department of Geography at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, to continue his studies under the guidance of Dr. Grissino-Mayer.

During the two years of his Master's Program, Evan was introduced to several new lines of dendrochronological and biogeographical research, while developing his comprehension of the natural world and the political realm that revolves around it. He is a member of the Association of American Geographers and the Biogeography Specialty Group, and was awarded the 2003 Biogeography Specialty Group Graduate Research Grant. He is a member of the Whitebark Pine Ecosystem Foundation, participated in the 2004 Monitoring Whitebark Pine for Blister Rust: A Methods Workshop, and presented his research at the 2004 Whitebark Pine Ecosystem Foundation Annual Meeting in Waterton National Park, Alberta, Canada. Evan is also a member of the Tree-Ring Society and the American Geophysical Union.

Evan is continuing his research on whitebark pine as a Ph.D. Fellow in the Department of Geography at the University of Minnesota, with additional funding from an EPA Science To Achieve Results (STAR) Graduate Fellowship. Evan plans to teach and conduct research at the collegiate level.