Appendix 1: Common and Scientific Names of Species Mentioned in the Text

Mammals

Alces alces Aplodontia rufa Arborimus albipes Arborimus longicaudus Bettongia penicillata Bison bison Blarina brevicauda Clethrionomys gapperi Canis latrans Canis lupus Castor canadensis Cervus elaphus Clethrionomys californicus Didelphis virginiana Elephas maximus Erithrizon dorsatum Felis concolor Felis lynx Glaucomys sabrinus Glaucomys volans Gulo gulo Lepus americanus Lepus spp. Lontra canadensis Marmota monax Martes americana Martes pennanti Mephitis mephitis Microtus oregoni Microtus spp. Mustela vison Myotis spp. Myotis volans Neotoma spp. Odocoileus hemionus Odocoileus hemionus sitkensis Odocoileus spp. Odocoileus virginianus Ondatra zibethicus

Moose Mountain beaver White-footed vole Red tree vole Woylie Bison Short-tailed shrew Gapper's red-backed vole Coyote Wolf Beaver Elk Western (California) red-backed vole Virginia opossum Asian elephant Porcupine Florida panther, cougar Lynx Northern flying squirrel Southern flying squirrel Wolverine Snowshoe hare Hares River otter Woodchuck American marten Fisher Striped skunk Creeping vole Voles Mink Myotis bats Long-legged bat Woodrats Mule deer Sitka black-tailed deer Deer White-tailed deer Muskrat

Peromyscus leucopus Peromyscus maniculatus Procyon lotor Rangifer tarandus Rattus norvegicus S. trowbridgii Sciurus carolinensis Sciurus niger Sorex pacificus Sorex palustris Sorex vagrans Sus scrofa Sylvilagus floridanus Tamias striatus Tamiasciurus douglasii Thomomys spp. Trichosurus vulpecula Ursus americanus Ursus arctos horribilis Ursus spp. Vulpes vulpes Zapus spp. Zapus trinotatus

White-footed mice Deer mouse Raccoon Caribou Norway rat Trowbridge's shrew Gray squirrel Fox squirrel Pacific shrew Water shrew Vagrant shrew Domestic pig Cottontail rabbit Eastern chipmunk Douglas squirrel Pocket gophers Brushtail possum Black bear Grizzly bear Bears Red fox Jumping mice Pacific jumping mouse

Birds

Accipiter gentilis Actitis macularia Aimophila aestivalis Aix sponsa Amazona vittata Anas rubripes Ardea herodias Athene cunicularia Bonasa umbellus Brachyramphus marmoratus Bubo virgianus Bucephala clangula Buteo jamaicensis Buteo swainsoni Campephilus principalis Catharus bicknelli Catharus guttatus Catharus ustulatus Certhia americana Ceryle alcyon Chaetura spp. Charadrius vociferous Chaetura pelagica Chaetura vauxi Ciconia ciconia Cinclus mexicanus Coccyzus americanus Colaptes auratus

Northern goshawk Spotted sandpiper Bachman's sparrow Wood duck Puerto Rican parrot American black duck Great blue heron Burrowing owl Ruffed grouse Marbled murrelet Great horned owl Common goldeneye Red-tailed hawk Swainson's hawk Ivory-billed woodpecker Bicknell's thrush Hermit thrush Swainson's thrush Brown creeper Belted kingfisher Swifts Killdeer Chimney swift Vaux's swift White stork American dipper Yellow-billed cuckoo Common flicker

Colinus virginianus Columba fasciata Columba livia Contopus cooperi Corvus corax Dolichonyx oryzivorus Dryocopus pileatus Ectopistes migratorius Empidonax hammondii Falcipennis canadensis Falco peregrinus Gavia immer Haliaeetus leucocephalus Histrionicus histrionicus Hylocichla mustelina Ixoreus naevius Junco hvemalis Melanerpes formicivorus Mniotilta varia Myiopsitta monachus Parus bicolor Passer domesticus Phasianus colchicus Picoides borealis Poecile atricapilla Scolopax minor Seiurus aurocapillus Setophaga discolor Setophaga pensylvanica Setophaga petechia Setophaga pinus Setophaga virens Sialia sialis Sitta pusilla Spinus tristis Strix occidentalis caurina Strix varia Sturnella magna Sturnus vulgaris Thryothorus ludovicianus Troglodytes aedon Troglodytes troglodytes Turdus migratorius Vermivora celata Vireo olivaceus Wilsonia canadensis

Ambystoma maculatum Ambystoma opacum Aneides ferreus Ascaphus truei Dicamptodon tenebrosus Bobwhite quail Band-tailed pigeon Rock dove Olive-sided flycatcher Common raven Bobolink Pileated woodpecker Passenger pigeon Hammond's flycatcher Spruce grouse Peregrine falcon Common loon Bald eagle Harlequin duck Wood thrush Varied thrush Dark-eyed junco Acorn woodpecker Black-and-white warbler Monk parakeet Tufted titmouse House sparrow Ring-necked pheasant Red-cockaded woodpecker Black-capped chickadee Woodcock Ovenbird Prairie warbler Chestnut-sided warbler Yellow warbler Pine warbler Black-throated green warbler Eastern bluebird Brown-headed nuthatch American goldfinch Northern spotted owl Barred owl Eastern meadowlark European starling Carolina wren House wren Winter wren American robin Orange-crowned warbler Red-eyed vireo

Amphibians

Spotted salamander Marbled salamander Clouded salamander Tailed frog Pacific giant salamander

Canada warbler

Ensatina eschscholtzii Gyrinophilus porphyriticus Hyla sp. Ochlerotatus triseriatus Plethodon cinereus Plethodon dunni Plethodon spp. Plethodon stormi Plethodon welleri Rana aurora draytonii Rana cascadae Rana catesbeiana Rana septentrionalis Rana sylvatica Rhyacotriton variegatus Taricha granulosa Zenaida macroura

- Agkistrodon contortrix Chelydra serpentina Clemmys marmorata Crotalus spp. Crotalus viridis Elaphe obsoleta Gopherus polyphemus Opheodrys aestivus Sceloporus occidentalis Terrapene carolina
- Adelges tsugae Blattella spp. Camponotus spp. Chrysomela confluens Dendroctonus spp. Dendroctonus frontalis Lycaeides melissa samuelis Lymantria dispar

Carassi carassius Oncorhynchus kisutch Oncorhynchus clarki Salmo spp. Salvelinus fontinalis

Abies balsamea Abies grandis Acer macrophyllum Acer pensylvanicum Acer platanoides Acer rubrum Ensatina salamander Spring salamander Tree frog Tree hole mosquito Red-back salamander Dunn's salamander Slimy salamander Siskiyou Mountains salamander Weller's salamander California red-legged frog Cascades frog Bullfrog Mink frog Wood frog Southern torrent salamander Rough-skinned newts Mourning dove

Reptiles

Northern copperhead Snapping turtle Western pond turtle Rattlesnake Prairie rattlesnake Rat snake Gopher tortoise Rough green snake Western fence lizard Box turtle

Insects

Hemlock wooly adelgid Cockroaches Carpenter ant Leaf beetles Bark beetles Southern pine beetle Karner blue butterfly Gypsy moth

Fish

Carp Coho salmon Cutthroat trout Trout Brook trout

Plants

Balsam fir Grand fir Bigleaf maple Striped maple Norway maple Red maple Acer saccharum Acer saccharinum Acer spicatum Acer spp. Ailanthus altissima Alnus rubra Amelanchier spp. Arbutus menziesii Berberis spp. Betula alleghaniensis Betula lenta Betula papyrifera Betula populifolia Betula spp. Brachypodium sylvaticum Carya ovata Carya spp. Castanea dentata Cirsium spp. Chamaecyparis lawsoniana Cornus florida Cornus spp. Corylus cornuta Crataegus spp. Cytisus scoparius Elaeagnus umbellata Endothia parasitica Fagus grandifolia Fomes pini Galium spp. Ilex spp. Ilex verticillata Ilex vomitoria Kalmia latifolia Juglans spp. Liquidambar styraciflua Liriodendron tulipifera Magnolia fraseri Melaleuca quinquenervia Nyssa aquatica Nyssa sylvatica Phaeocryptopus gaeumannii Phytophthora lateralis Picea glauca Picea mariana Picea rubens Picea sitchensis Picea spp. Pinus banksiana Pinus contorta Pinus echinata Pinus elliottii

Sugar maple Silver maple Mountain maple Maples Tree of Heaven Red alder Serviceberries Pacific madrone Barberries Yellow birch Black birch White birch Gray birch Birches False brome Shagbark hickory Hickories American chestnut Thistles Port-Orford cedar Flowering dogwood Dogwoods Hazlenut Hawthorns Scotch broom Autumn olive Chestnut blight fungus American Beech Red heart disease Bedstraws Hollies Winterberry Yaupon Mountain laurel Walnuts Sweetgum Yellow-poplar Fraser magnolia Australian paperbark tree Water tupelo Blackgum Swiss needle cast Root rot White spruce Black spruce Red spruce Sitka spruce Spruces Jack pine Lodgepole pine Shortleaf pine Slash pine

Pinus jeffreyi Pinus palustris Pinus ponderosa Pinus resinosa Pinus spp. Pinus taeda Populus deltoides Populus trichocarpa Populus spp. Populus spp. Populus tremuloides Prunus pensylvanica Prunus spp. Pseudotsuga menziesii Quercus alba Quercus garryana Quercus nigra Quercus palustris Quercus spp. Quercus velutina Quercus alba Quercus bicolor Quercus coccinea Quercus prinus Quercus rubra Rosa multiflora Rubus spectabilis Rubus spp. Salix spp. Taxodium distichum Thuja plicata Tsuga canadensis Tsuga heterophylla Viburnum acerifolium Viburnum alnifolium Viburnum spp. Viburnum trilobum

Jeffrey pine Longleaf pine Ponderosa pine Red pine Pines Loblolly pine Eastern cottonwood Black cottonwood Cottonwoods Aspens Quaking aspen Pin cherry Cherries Douglas-fir White oak Oregon white oak Water oak Pin oak Oaks Black oaks White oak Swamp white oak Scarlet oak Chestnut oak Northern red oak Multiflora rose Salmonberry Brambles, raspberries, blackberries Willows Baldcypress Western redcedar Eastern hemlock Western hemlock Maple-leaf viburnum Hobblebush Viburnums High-bush cranberry

Appendix 2: Glossary

- Active adaptive management: Management is treated as a hypothesis to be tested using monitoring data
- Adaptive management: A process of continual improvement in management using monitoring data to refine plans
- Advance regeneration: Seedlings and saplings present in the stand prior to a disturbance that releases them
- Aerial photographs: A capture of the reflectance of items on the Earth's surface on a photographic film

Allele: Expression of a gene

Allochtonous material: Leaves, needles, and plant parts that fall into a water body

- Alluvial: Downstream movement of soils
- Artificial regeneration: Planting seedlings or seeds usually at a particular spacing to establish a new stand
- Barrier: An intervening patch type with a low probability of survival
- Basal area: Cross-sectional area of all trees on a hectare or acre at 1.4 m above ground
- **Broadcasting:** Extrapolating data to other units of space outside of the scope of inference **Brood:** A cohort of young birds
- **Brood parasite:** Birds that reproduce by laying their eggs in the nests of other birds **Browse:** Herbivore consumption of woody plants
- **Carrying capacity:** A point in population growth where births equal deaths and further population growth is limited
- Chain of custody: A process that assures the consumer that wood products came from a certified forest
- **Clearcut:** A regeneration method in which all or most trees are removed to allow establishment of a new cohort of trees
- **Codominant:** Trees in an even-aged stand receiving full sunlight from above and comprising the main canopy layer
- Community: An assemblages of populations over space and through time
- **Composition:** The types or classes of features in an areas, such as species of plants and types of soils
- **Connectivity:** The degree to which the landscape facilitates or impedes movement among habitat patches
- **Context:** An area beyond the extent that we are not managing but it affects the function of our landscape
- **Core:** The interior of a patch
- Corridor: An intervening patch type with a high probability of survival
- Critical habitat: Specific areas and habitat elements essential to the conservation of species listed under the U.S. Endangered Species Act
- Crown classes: Differentiation of trees into classes in response to growth rates and competition in an even-aged stand
- Cutting cycle: Period of time between harvests when some trees of all tree diameters in an unevenaged stand are cut
- Decomposition pathway: An energy web passing through decomposers
- Deferred rotation: Also known as a clearcut with reserves; retains some trees through two rotations
- **Demographic stochasticity:** The variability represented in vital rates owing to fluctuations in survival and reproduction

- **Desired future condition:** A description of the structure and composition of a stand or landscape that you wish to achieve
- **Diameter-limit cutting:** Cutting of all the trees above some minimum diameter during each cutting cycle in an uneven-aged stand
- Digestible energy: That portion of food than can be used by an animal for energy and nutrients
- **Dominant crown class:** Uppermost trees in an even-aged stand receiving sunlight from above and from the sides
- Dynamic carrying capacity: Changing carrying capacity due to fluctuations in resource availability
- **Dynamic corridor:** A corridor that "floats" across the landscape over time to provide connectivity at all times
- **Ecological restoration:** Uses of practices of restoration ecology as well as human and natural sciences, politics, technologies, economic factors, and cultural dimensions
- **Ecosystem management:** A management approach designed to increase the likelihood that it will be socially sustainable
- **Ecosystem services:** Services provided by ecosystems to meet society's needs, including but not restricted to commodities
- Ectotherm: A species that receives most of its body heat from the surrounding environment
- Edge associates: Species that find the best quality habitat where there is access to required resources in two or more vegetation patch types
- Edge density: Edge length per unit area
- Edge specialist: A species likely to only occur where edges between two or more vegetative patch types exist
- **Effect size:** The difference (or slope) that you could detect given your sample size, sampling error, and the probability of making an error when rejecting a null hypothesis
- Effectiveness monitoring: Monitoring designed to determine whether habitat elements, populations, or processes are responding as expected and effectively achieving management goals
- Endotherm: A species that generates its own body heat
- **Environmental stochasticity:** Uncertain environmental events that influence population vital rates **Establishment cut:** Second step in a shelterwood regeneration method to release trees to produce
 - seeds and to provide growing space for regeneration
- Eutrophic system: Nutrient-rich aquatic system
- Extent: The outer bounds of the landscape over which we are managing resources
- Extinction vortex: Accelerated population declines irreversibly leading to extinction
- Fecundity: Number of young produced per female over a given time period
- Filter approach: An approach to biodiversity conservation that employs coarse-, meso-, and finefilter management strategies
- First-order selection: Selection of a geographic range by a species
- Fledgling: A bird that successfully leaves a the nest
- **Forecasting:** Predicting trends into the future, based on past trends
- Forest interior species: A species that avoid edges and use the core of a patch
- **Forest structure:** The physical architecture of a forest in three dimensions
- Forest type: Forest community dominated by representative tree species
- Founder effect: Low genetic variation often seen in a newly established population
- Fourth-order selection: Selection of specific food and cover resources acquired from the patches used by the individual within its home range
- Genetic bottleneck: Marked decline in a population resulting in loss of alleles
- Genetic drift: Some alleles may dominate in small populations by chance alone
- Grain: The smallest unit of space in a landscape that we identify and use in an assessment or management plan
- Grazing: Herbivore consumption of herbaceous plants

- Group selection: Creation of small openings in a stand to establish patches of regeneration an uneven-aged stand
- Guild: A group of species that share common nesting or feeding resources
- Habitat: The set of resources necessary to support a population over space and through time
- Habitat conservation plan: A plan designed to offset any harmful effects of a proposed activity on endangered or threatened species allowing issuance of an incidental take permit
- Habitat element: Piece of a forest important to many species, such as vertical structure, dead wood, tree size, plant species, and forage
- Habitat fragmentation: A process whereby a habitat for a species is progressively subdivided into smaller, geometrically more complex, and more isolated fragments
- Habitat generalist: A species that can use a broad suite of food and cover resources
- Habitat selection: A set of complex behaviors that each species has evolved to ensure fitness in a population
- Habitat specialist: Species that use a narrow set of resources
- Habitat types: Vegetation type or other discrete class of the environment that is associated with some species
- Hard mast: Hard fruits such as nuts and acorns
- Harvesting systems: The means of removing the trees from the site and to a landing during forest management
- Heuristic: Use of models to teach us something about the system
- **Home range:** Area that an individual (or pair of individuals) uses to acquire the resources that it needs to survive and reproduce
- Human commensal: A species that typically is associated with humans
- Hyporheic zone: Subsurface saturated sediments along the stream bottom
- **Ideal despotic distribution:** A distribution of individuals reflecting high individual fitness in the highest quality patches at lower than expected densities caused by territoriality
- **Ideal free distribution:** A distribution of individuals reflecting the freedom of each individual to choose the patch that will provide the greatest energy or other required resources
- Implementation monitoring: Measurements that document compliance with a stand prescription or management plan
- **Incidental take permit:** A permit issued by the USFWS to allow activities that might incidentally harm (or "take") species listed as endangered or threatened under the Endangered Species Act
- Indicator species: Species that are assumed to be surrogates for other species having similar resource needs
- **Individual tree selection:** Removal of one or a few trees from a location in the stand to create a canopy gap to allow tree regeneration to occur
- Induced edge: Edge between two patch types of different successional condition
- Inherent edge: Edge formed by differences in the floristic composition of two patches
- Intermediate crown class: Trees in an even-aged stand receiving partial sunlight from above
- Intra-riparian gradients: Continuum of conditions from the headwaters to the confluence with larger water bodies
- Intrinsic rate of natural increase: Each species' potential for population increase
- Lambda: The population parameter used to estimate population change

Landscape: A complex mosaic of interacting patches

- Logistic growth: As resources become limiting, population growth becomes asymptotic
- Longevity: The age at death of the average animal in a population
- Marsh: Wetlands dominated by nonwoody vegetation
- Matrix: The landscape patch type within which focal patches are embedded
- Matrix management: Managing the matrix condition to be made more permeable to dispersing organisms

- Metapopulation: A population distributed among smaller, interacting sub-populations that contribute to overall population persistence
- **Mortality rate:** The number of animals that die per unit of time (usually 1 year) divided by the number of animals alive at the beginning of the time period

Natality: The number of young individuals born or hatched per unit of time

- **Natural catastrophe:** Extreme case of environmental uncertainty such as hurricanes, fires, and epizootics that can cause massive changes in vital rates
- Natural cavity: Tree hole resulting from fungal decay
- Natural regeneration: Stand regeneration from seedling establishment or sprouting following the disturbance
- **Neotropical migratory bird:** Birds that nest in the northern hemisphere but migrate to the tropics during the winter
- **Oligotrophic:** Nutrient-poor aquatic systems
- **Orographic effecs:** As air is moved over mountains, it increases in elevation, cools and moisture precipitates
- Orthophoto maps: Aerial photos corrected for distortion and usually with topographic information superimposed
- **Overwood removal:** Final step in a shelterwood regeneration method to release newly established regeneration
- Passive adaptive management: The "best" management option is identified, implemented, and monitored
- Phreatophytic vegetation: Vegetation associated with high soil moisture or free water
- **Policy analysis:** An organized projection of how implementation of the policy over space and time might affect the resources valued by society
- Population: Self-sustaining assemblages of individuals of a species over space and through time
- **Population viability analysis:** A structured approach to examining population performance based on demographic characteristics and habitat quantity and quality
- **Preparatory harvest:** First step in a shelterwood regeneration method to encourage seed production **Prescriptions:** Silvicultural management plans for stands
- Primary cavity nester: A species that excavates a cavity in living or dead wood
- **Proximate cue:** An element of structure and/or composition that an individual uses to predict resource availability
- **Q-factor:** The factor by which the number of trees in one diameter class is multiplied to get the number in the next smallest diameter class in an ueven-aged stand
- **Refereed journal:** Scientific literature in which papers are reviewed and can be accepted or rejected based on review by peers
- **Response variable:** Specific indicator or metric used to test a hypothesis
- **Restoration ecology:** The suite of scientific practices that constitute an emergent subdiscipline of ecology designed to return functions to systems where they have been eliminated
- **Riparian area:** The interface between the water and the land
- **Riparian associate:** A species that tends to be found more commonly near water but does not require free water directly
- Riparian obligate: A species that requires free water
- **Risk analysis:** A structured way of analyzing the potential effects of decisions when outcomes are uncertain
- Rotation: A complete growing cycle in an even-aged silvicultural system
- **Rotation age:** The stand age when the stand is harvested and a new even-aged stand is regenerated **Satellite imagery:** Reflectance values collected by satellites for discrete places on the Earth
- Scope of inference: The space and time over which data can be used to assess changes in a response variable
- Secondary cavity user: Species that use natural cavities or those created by primary cavity nesters

Second-order selection: Establishment of a home range

- Seedbank: Seeds stored in the soil
- Seedbed: Growing site for seedlings and sprouts
- Seed-tree regeneration method: Natural regeneration is established by leaving some trees after harvest to provide a seed source
- Serpentine soil: A soil enriched in toxic metals, including nickel, magnesium, barium, and chromium, and lacking in calcium
- Shade intolerant: Plant species that do not survive under low light conditions, and grow well only under full sunlight
- Shade tolerant: Plant species that can survive under low light conditions
- Shelterwood regeneration: Natural regeneration needs protection from sun or frost so a light canopy cover is maintained after harvest
- Shifting gap phase: Forests maintained by frequent small-scale gap disturbances
- Silviculture: The art and practice of managing forest stands to achieve specific objectives
- Sink habitat: Habitat patches in which populations are declining or are maintained by immigration
- Site fidelity: A behavior in which an individual returns annually to the same location despite drastic changes in the habitat
- **Site index:** Height of the dominant trees in an even-aged stand at a specified age **Soft mast:** Soft fruits such as berries and drupes
- **Source habitat:** Patches in which individuals are fit enough to support a stable or growing population **Source patch:** During dispersal, the patch that a disperser is leaving from
- **Stand initiation:** Early stage of stand development following a stand-replacement disturbance
- Stand: Unit of homogeneous forest vegetation used as the basis for management
- Static corridors: Maintaining connectivity in a fixed location
- Stepping stone: Small patches of habitat close to one another to enhance connectivity between high-quality patches
- Stocking: The degree to which a site is occupied by trees of various sizes
- Structure: Physical features of the environment such as vegetation, soils, and topography
- Suppressed tree: Trees in an even-aged stand occurring below the main canopy in the stand
- Survival: The number of animals that live through a time period and is the converse of mortality
- Survivorship functions: Types 1, 2, and 3 refer to high, medium, and low survival rates of juveniles, respectively
- Swamp: A wetland dominated by woody vegetation
- Target patch: During dispersal, the patch that a disperser is going to
- Target tree size: The diameter class representing the largest harvestable trees in an uneven-aged stand
- Territory: The space, usually around a nest, that an individual or pair defends from other individuals
- Thermal neutral zone: The range of ambient temperatures where an animal has to expend the least amount of energy to maintain a constant body temperature
- Third-order selection: Use of patches within a home range where resources are available to meet an individual's needs
- Trans-riparian gradients: Changes in conditions as you move from the edge of the stream into upslope forests
- Trophic level: The feeding position in a food web
- Ultimate resources: Food, cover, and other resources needed for survival
- Validation monitoring: Measurements that provide the basis for testing assumptions
- Vernal pools: Isolated ponds and wetlands that hold water for only a part of the year
- Wolf trees: Large and often deformed legacy trees from the previous stand

Appendix 3: Measuring and Interpreting Habitat Elements

Basic to understanding current conditions and desired future conditions in stands and landscapes is measurement and interpretation of habitat elements. This field exercise introduces you to a few simple techniques for measuring the availability of key habitat elements. More comprehensive information on field sampling of habitat elements can be found in Bookhout (1994), James and Shugart (1970), Hays et al. (1981), and Noon (1981).

METHODS

Some habitat elements are particularly important to many species depending on their size, distribution, and abundance. These include percent cover, height, density, and biomass of trees, shrubs, grasses, forbs, and dead wood. Other habitat elements are associated with only a few species, such as stream gradients (e.g., beaver; Allen 1983) and forest basal area (e.g., downy woodpecker; Schroeder 1982). Visit two areas with very different management histories such as a recent clearcut and an unmanaged forest. Then compare habitat elements between the two stand types and assess the relative habitat quality for a species between them using life history information, a habitat suitability index model, and a geographic information system.

RANDOM SAMPLING

Probably, the most important part of sampling habitat is to sample randomly within the area of interest (stand, watershed, stream system, etc.). Systematic or subjective sampling can introduce bias into your estimates and lead to erroneous conclusions. In this example you will be sampling two stands. Within your stand you should collect a random sample of data describing the habitat elements. For the purposes of this exercise, you will collect data from three or more randomly located points in each stand.

- 1. Using a random numbers table (nearly all statistics books have these) first select a threedigit number that is a bearing (in degrees) that will lead you into the stand. If the number that you select does not lead you into your stand, then select another number until you have a bearing that will work.
- 2. Select another three-digit number that is a distance in meters. Using your compass to establish the bearing and either a 30 m tape measure or pacing, measure along the assigned bearing the randomly selected distance and establish a sample point. You will collect habitat data at this point. Once you have completed collecting data at this point, you repeat the process of random number selection three or more times in this stand and then three or more times in another stand.

MEASURING DENSITY

One of the most common habitat elements that you will measure is density of items, usually trees, snags, logs, shrubs, or other plants. Density is simply a count of the elements over a specified area. When estimating the density of trees, you usually will count all the trees in a circular plot, usually 0.04 ha (0.1 acre) in size. Saplings and tall shrubs are usually measured in a 0.004 ha (0.01 acre) plot. Small shrubs and tree seedlings are usually measured in a 0.0004 ha (0.001 acre) plot.

- 1. From plot center, measure out in each cardinal direction (N, E, S, W) 11.3 m (37.2 ft) (the radius of a 0.04 ha [0.1 acre] plot). Mark these places with flagging.
- 2. Using a diameter tape or a Biltmore stick, measure the diameter at 1.3 m (4.5 ft) above ground of all live trees in the plot that are >15 cm (6 in) dbh (diameter at breast height) and record the species of each tree. Repeat this procedure for all dead trees >15 cm dbh. Expand this sample to 1 ha (or acre) estimate by multiplying the estimates by 25 to convert to a per hectare estimate (or multiply by 10 to get a per acre estimate). This procedure can be repeated for smaller plot sizes to estimate seedling numbers, and so on.

ESTIMATING PERCENT COVER

Using your four 11.3 m (37.2 ft) radii as transects, walk along each stopping at five equidistant points along each transect. At each of these points, you will estimate canopy cover. There are a number of techniques available to estimate canopy cover, including moosehorns (Garrison 1949) and densiometers (Lemmon 1957). A simple approach to estimating cover is to estimate the presence or absence of vegetation using a sighting tube (a piece of PVC pipe with crosshairs) (James and Shugart 1970). At each of the 20 points on your transects, look directly up and see if the crosshairs intersect vegetation (if so record a "1") or sky (if so, record a "0"). Repeat this at each of the five points on each of the four transects.

- 1. Tally the number of "1"s recorded from these points.
- 2. Divide by 20 to estimate percent cover.
- 3. How would you use this technique to measure understory herbaceous cover?

ESTIMATING HEIGHT

Use a clinometer with a percent scale (look through the view finder and you should see two scales, with units given on them if you look straight up or straight down).

- 1. Measure 30 m (100 ft) from the base of the tree or other object that you wish to measure.
- 2. Looking through the view finder, align the horizontal line in the view finder with the top of the tree. Record the number on the percent scale (top).
- 3. Looking through the view finder, align the horizontal line in the view finder with the base of the tree. Record the number on the percent scale (bottom).
- 4. If the top number is positive and the bottom number is negative (<0) then add the absolute values of these two numbers together to estimate height in feet.
- 5. If the top number is positive and the bottom number is also positive (>0), then subtract the absolute value of the bottom number from the top number to estimate height in feet.

ESTIMATING BASAL AREA

Basal area is the cross-sectional area of all woody stems at 1.3 m (4.5 ft) above ground. It is a measure of dominance of a site by trees. The higher the basal area, the greater the dominance by trees. There are two ways to estimate basal area. First, using your estimates of dbh from your sample of trees (see the section on Measuring density, given earlier), you can calculate the area of each stem ($A = 3.1416*r^2$, where r = dbh/2). By summing the areas on a 0.04 ha (0.1 acre) plot and then multiplying the total by 25, you can get an estimate of basal area per hectare (multiply by 10 to estimate basal area per acre).

Alternatively, you can use a wedge prism (Figure A3.1). Holding the prism over plot center, look at a tree through the prism. If the image that you see through the prism is connected to the image of the tree outside the prism, then tally the tree and record its species. If the image that you see through the prism is disconnected from the image outside the prism, then do not record the tree. Moving in a circle around the prism that you continue to hold over plot center record all trees that have the prism



FIGURE A3.1 When using a wedge prism you have two images to compare—the one you see through the prism and the one above or below the prism. If they overlap you count the tree as an "in" tree. If the images do not overlap then the tree is not counted. (Image from Jesse Caputo. With permission.)

image connected to the image outside of the prism regardless of whether they fall in the 0.1 acre plot or not. Tally up the number of trees that were recorded. Generally you will use a 10-factor prism, that is, each tallied trees represents 10 other trees per acre. Multiply the number of trees tallied by 10 and this estimates the basal area in square feet per acre for this site.

ESTIMATING BIOMASS

Biomass of vegetation is usually estimated to provide information on food available for herbivores, typically in the winter when browse resources are essential to supporting herbivores (deer, moose, or hares). Herbivores usually will only eat woody growth resulting from the most recent growing season, and during winter, which includes the twigs and buds, but not leaves (which will have fallen off).

Within a 1.1 m (3.7 ft) radius plot, using clippers, clip all of the twigs within the plot that have resulted from the most recent growing season. Remove and discard the leaves and place the twigs in a bag. Return to the lab and weigh the bag with the twigs. Remove the twigs and weigh the empty bag. Subtract the bag weight from the bag + twigs weight to estimate biomass per 0.0004 ha (0.001 acre) plot. Multiply this number by 2500 (or 1000 in acres) to estimate biomass (kilogram) per hectare.

USING ESTIMATES OF HABITAT ELEMENTS TO ASSESS HABITAT PRESENCE

If you refer to Table A3.1 as an example (you will have your own numbers from your field samples), consider how you would interpret these data for a species of your choice, in this case downy

TABLE A3.1 Comparison of Average and Range of Habitat Elements between Clearcut (with a Legacy of Living and Dead Trees) and Uncut Forests, Cadwell Forest, Pelham, MA

	Clearcut	Mature Forest
Trees >15 cm/ha	3 (0–6)	308 (234–412)
Snags >15 cm/ha	1 (0–2)	22 (4-43)
Basal area/ha	2.4 (0–3)	16 (12–18)
Canopy cover (%)	4 (0–7)	95 (90-100)
Canopy height (m)	23 (18–34)	27 (23–33)
Browse (kg/ha)	1234 (554–2600)	387(122-788)

woodpeckers. DeGraaf and Yamasaki (2001, p. 161) describe habitat for downy woodpeckers as: "... woodlands with living and dead trees from 25–60 cm dbh; some dead or living trees must be greater than 15 cm dbh for nesting."Although both sites contain trees and snags of sufficient size, the canopy cover data in Table A3.1 would suggest that the clearcut is not functioning as a woodland and so we would probably not consider it a suitable habitat for downy woodpeckers though they certainly do use snags in openings at times.

USING ESTIMATES OF HABITAT ELEMENTS TO ASSESS HABITAT SUITABILITY

In addition to using your data to understand if a site might be used by a species, habitat suitability index models have been developed to understand whether some sites might provide more suitable habitat than others (e.g., Schroeder 1982). Very few of these models have been validated especially not using fitness as a response variable. Nonetheless they do represent hypotheses based on the assumption that there is a positive relationship between the index and habitat carrying capacity. If we take the example of the downy woodpecker then its habitat suitability is based on two indices: tree basal area (Figure A3.2) and density of snags >15 cm dbh (Figure A3.3). Considering first the uncut stand, note that there is an average of 16 m²/ha of basal area and 22 snags/ha (8.8/0.4 ha). The corresponding suitability index score for each variable is 1.0 and the overall habitat suitability is calculated (in this case) as the minimum of the two values. Hence, this should be a very good habitat for downy woodpeckers. In the recent clearcut, however, the suitability index for snags is approximately 0.1 and for basal area is approximately 0.2. Hence, the overall suitability in the recent clearcut for this species is 0.1; not very good and certainly less than in the uncut stand. And in this case, snag density is the factor most limiting habitat quality for downy woodpeckers in the recent clearcut. The best way to use these sorts of models is in a relative sense, to compare one site to another. If we were to use this technique for snowshoe hares habitat assessment, then we might find the recent clearcut to be much better habitat.

ASSESSING THE DISTRIBUTION OF HABITAT ACROSS A LANDSCAPE

It is often as important to know whether stands are a suitable habitat for a species and how they are arranged on a landscape. In Figure A3.4, a 490 ha forest has been broken into habitat types based



FIGURE A3.2 Habitat suitability relationship for downy woodpeckers for one of two suitability indices: basal area. (Redrafted from Schroeder, R.L. 1982. *Habitat Suitability Index Models: Downy Woodpecker*. US Fish and Wildl. Serv. FWS/OBS-82/10.38.)



FIGURE A3.3 Habitat suitability relationship for downy woodpeckers for one of two suitability indices: snag density. (Redrafted from Schroeder, R.L. 1982. *Habitat Suitability Index Models: Downy Woodpecker*. US Fish and Wildl. Serv. FWS/OBS-82/10.38.)



FIGURE A3.4 An example of a mosaic of habitat patches of varying suitability based on extrapolation of ground inventory data to digitized patches in Cadwell Memorial Forest, Pelham, Massachusetts.

on overstory cover and stand structure. Field samples were taken at 117 points distributed across the forest and habitat elements were sampled at each point. Habitat suitability index values are then calculated at each point and extrapolated to the habitat types as portrayed in this figure to illustrate how habitat availability for a species can be displayed over a landscape. A different pattern would emerge for other species using this same approach, and these would have to be overlain on stands used as the basis for management. In addition, these types of maps can guide harvest planning in order to achieve habitat patterns leading to a desired future condition for the landscape.

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Appendix 4: Wildlife–Habitat Relationships Models

Since the 1970s, scientists and managers have developed tools that allow them to relate the possible occurrence of a species to a habitat type as the basis for assessing the potential of a unit of land to support populations or communities. A species–habitat-type matrix has long been at the heart of wildlife–habitat relationships (WHR) models such as these, which have been developed for New England, the Blue Mountains, Colorado, the southwestern United States, California, and the Pacific Northwest. These models provide a quick and easy, though not always entirely accurate, ability to relate a species to a habitat type, given knowledge about the structural stage of the habitat type and its location. Each of these models has greater or lesser levels of detail when developing lists of species that could be found in a habitat type or habitat types that a species could be found in. I use a simple hypothetical example of a WHR to illustrate how they are structured and can be used.

THE CENTRAL HARDWOODS EXAMPLE

I use a subset of habitat types and a subset of species to illustrate how a WHR might be developed and used. In this simplified example, consider three habitat types:

- Grasslands—areas dominated by herbaceous vegetation, including grasses, sedges, and forbs Mixed mesophytic hardwoods—upland hardwoods often with 20 or more species represented per acre
- Upland coniferous forest-forests dominated by pines and hemlock

Within the two forested habitat types, we can define four structural states of stand development:

Seedling shrub—woody vegetation <2 m tall Sapling/pole—woody vegetation >2 m tall but <20 cm in dbh (diameter at breast height) Sawtimber—woody vegetation 20–50 cm dbh Old-growth—woody vegetation representing a range of tree sizes with some trees per hectare >50 cm dbh

I then created a matrix of these conditions and whether or not each of the following species was likely to be found in that habitat-type-structural-condition combination: American goldfinch, Chestnut-sided warbler, Pileated woodpecker, Pine warbler, eastern meadowlark, wood thrush, and black bear. Within this simplified system, we can see that we would expect three of these species to occur in grasslands and four to occur in old-growth conifer forests, and that they would be a different set of species (Table A4.1). So if we applied this model to a forest in southern Indiana, then we would be outside the geographic breeding range of Chestnut-sided warblers and pine warblers might be uncommon (Figures A4.1 and A4.2). So although the model can generate a list of species, the user must assess whether the site being assessed is within the geographic range for the species. However, we can also add value to this simplified assessment of potential occurrence of a species by asking how each habitat type might be used by a species. For instance, a black bear might use a seedling stage of forest for feeding, but an old-growth stage for denning. By designating use of each type-condition combination with an "F" or a "D" rather than an X we know more about how the species could use the habitat type. Some models have further refined this attribution

IADLE A4.1									
Simplified WHR N	Aodel for a	Few Habitat	Types and	a Few Speci	es from the	Central H	ardwood	s Region	
Habitat Type	Grassland	Hardwood	Hardwood	Hardwood	Hardwood	Conifer	Conifer	Conifer	Conifer
Structural Stage	Grassland	Seedling	Sapling	Sawtimber	Old-growth	Seedling	Sapling	Sawtimber	Old-growth
Species									
Rough green snake	х	x				х			
American goldfinch	х	х				Х			
Chestnut-sided warbler			х				х		
Pileated woodpecker				x	х			x	x
Pine warbler								x	x
Eastern meadowlark	×							x	x
Wood thrush									
Black bear		x	x	х	x	х	x	x	х
Total species	3	3	2	2	2	3	5	4	4

TABLE A4.1



FIGURE A4.1 Geographic distribution of pine warblers in the summer. (From Sauer, J.R. et al. 2012. *The North American Breeding Bird Survey, Results and Analysis 1966–2011.* Version 07.03.2013 USGS Patuxent Wildlife Research Center, Laurel, MD.)

to identify primary and secondary habitat types, where grasslands may be a primary type for goldfinches and seedling stage forests may be secondary, or less commonly used. It might also be important to know whether certain habitat elements are present, such as snags. If we knew that the conifer-sawtimber condition did not have snags >40 cm dbh, then we might conclude that although the habitat type is adequate for feeding pileated woodpeckers, they would be unlikely to nest there. Some WHR models add considerable detail with regard to habitat elements (e.g., Johnson and O'Neil 2001), while others recognize the importance of habitat elements but do not include some of them explicitly within the model (DeGraaf and Yamasaki 2001).



FIGURE A4.2 Summer geographic range for chestnut-sided warblers. (From Sauer, J.R. et al. 2012. *The North American Breeding Bird Survey, Results and Analysis 1966–2011.* Version 07.03.2013 USGS Patuxent Wildlife Research Center, Laurel, MD.)

VALUES AND CAUTIONS OF USING WHR MODELS

Given the fact that each species has its own niche and habitat requirements, how well can an approach like this represent habitat for a suite of species? As a first-level assessment of the potential for a site to support species x, y, or z, it may be useful to identify focal spcies that may need greater attention in a fine filter analysis. Further, if you know that your management actions are likely to shift a stand from one structural stage to another, then the model can be used to provide an estimate of the potential impacts on species found in that area. For instance, in our simple example, if we clearcut a hardwood sawtimber stand, we likely would lose pileated woodpeckers, gain goldfinches and rough green snakes, and black bears would continue to use the site (although for different reasons). What this does not tell us is that goldfinches would be most likely to use the clearcut if thistles (a source of food) were present in the clearcut and that black bears may use the site if it is not too close to people. A WHR model is not a substitute for an approach that identifies the habitat elements important to a species and describes habitat based on the collection of habitat elements needed to support the species. But WHR models can be a first step toward developing more species-specific habitat models.

Because WHR models do not necessarily include all of the habitat elements important to each species that tests of WHR models document errors of omission (species predicted to occur on a site but were not found there) and commission (species were not predicted to occur on a site but were found there). Edwards et al. (1996) reported error rates of 0%–33% among eight national parks in Utah, while Block et al. (1994) reported error rates from 6% to 42% in California. Errors of commission are usually unknown unless independent field verification such as the study conducted by Block et al. (1994). Although WHR models may be useful for large-scale conservation planning, their use for site-specific planning is limited due to these high error rates in some situations and because geographic ranges and detailed habitat elements are not included in some WHR models (the California WHR models now interface with GIS for more accurate representation of species geographic ranges however). Hence, WHR models should be used with caution and the species lists that are derived from them should be assessed carefully to minimize errors of omission.

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Appendix 5: Projecting Habitat Elements through Time

Once a manager has defined a desired future condition (DFC), then it is important to know whether it is possible to achieve that condition given the mix of plant species on the site and their capacity for growth. If achievement of the DFC is possible, then the manager will need to know what actions will likely be needed and when to achieve the goal and what costs and incomes might be accrued along the way. The U.S. Forest Service developed the forest vegetation simulator (FVS) as a decision support tool for forest managers to use as part of stand and forest plan development (Crookston and Dixon 2005). Because the model has tree growth and mortality functions for most common tree species and because growth varies regionally, FVS has variants designed to simulate the growth of forests in regions across the United States. FVS is a single tree growth and mortality model, meaning that the growth simulations are based on field measurements of a sample of individual trees in a stand.

The model is widely used by public agencies and NGOs and some industries because it is adaptable to a variety of conditions and its ability to use some of the output of the model to understand economics, habitat elements, fuels, and carbon sequestration, among other values associated with forests. Snag dynamics have also been incorporated into some variants of FVS. Further, recent advances have allowed the simulated stand characteristics to be visualized as idealized cartoons of stand structure and composition so that stakeholders can envision what the future conditions might look like, offering a valuable tool for stakeholder input during forest planning.

Although FVS is commonly used to simulate growth of a stand, using FVS to simulate growth of multiple stands simultaneously across a landscape is also possible. The landscape management system (LMS) incorporates FVS (as well as several other growth models) into an overall forest simulation decision support system (Oliver et al. 2012). When landscape visualization is overlain on a topographic map displayed in three dimensions using a digital elevation model, then stakeholders can not only view stands but also landscape change through time from any point in three-dimensional space (Oliver et al. 2012). In this overview of forest stand projection, I first introduce you to simulating stand changes over time and then discuss how these are integrated over landscapes.

INPUTS

In order to simulate growth of a stand, we need information about the stand and about the trees in the stand. Characteristics of the stand include its location, site index (height of the dominant trees at 50 years of age), stand age (for even-aged stands), slope, aspect, elevation and size (ha), as well as the year that the data were collected to represent current conditions in the stand. In addition, a random sample of trees from the stand must be measured to represent as much as possible all other trees in the stand. See Appendix 3 in this book for examples of how these data can be collected or refer to a text book of forest measurements (e.g., West 2009). For each tree, you record the species, dbh (diameter at breast height), height, and crown ratio (proportion of the tree with living branches), as well as the expansion factor or the number of trees per hectare that each sampled tree represents (e.g., samples from a 0.1 ha plot would have an expansion factor of 10). These data allow the model to represent the current condition of the stand as the basis for all simulations of future conditions.

PROJECTIONS

Usually the first simulation is simply to grow the stand without any management and assess the changes in conditions over time. I use an example from a stand on the Oregon State University Forests as an example (Figure A5.1) that is two-story stand with a large 20-year-old cohort and scattered 100-year-old trees. Note that the model allows the user to visualize the stand as well as the diameter and height distributions. In addition to the visualization, tables are available to understand basal area, carbon sequestration, vertical structure, fire risk, habitat suitability for selected high interest species, tree species composition, volume tables, and wind hazard assessment for live trees and for dead trees (e.g., snags per acre by size class). Simulating growth of the stand for 50 years results in a different stand structure (Figure A5.2) and the resulting tables tell us that the basal area has increased from 140 to 313 ft²/acre during that time, and the average tree has increased diameter from 12 to 22 in dbh. The number of trees per acre has dropped from 119 to 90, with 29 snags per acre produced during that time. Note that the model does not simulate growth of shrubs or herbs. At this point in the simulation the planner/manager should be asking, "Does this simulation seem realistic?" If so, then additional simulations with management actions can be attempted to understand achievement of a DFC. If not, then the underlying parameters in the model may need to be adjusted to more accurately represent conditions on your site.

TREATMENTS TO ACHIEVE A DFC

Let us assume that we define a DFC as a stand with three age cohorts of trees, the oldest of which is 200 years of age, and with both hardwoods and conifers represented in the stand, and with five snags >20 in dbh. One first treatment would be to thin the 20-year-old trees to a level to which



FIGURE A5.1 Example of a two-story stand 20 years after establishment on McDonald Forest, Corvallis, Oregon, and projected using stand inventory data. (Based on simulations from the Landscape Management System; McCarter, J.M. et al. 1998. *Journal of Forestry* 96(6):17–23.)



FIGURE A5.2 Example of the stand illustrated in Figure A5.1 projected 50 years into the future. (Based on simulations from the Landscape Management System; McCarter, J.M. et al. 1998. *Journal of Forestry* 96(6):17–23.)

regeneration would become established and receive enough sunlight to grow. I simulated a thin to 30 trees/acre and then planted or relied on natural regeneration of red alder and bigleaf maple (Figure A5.3), which leaves the stand looking very sparse, but allowed removal of 93 thousand board feet of Douglas-fir, which, if sold for \$500/ thousand board feet, would generate \$46,500 based on the harvested volume tables provided by the model. Projecting the stand 50 years into the future, we see a three-storied stand with the lower story consisting largely of hardwoods (Figure A5.4). If there were insufficient snags >20 in dbh, then there are 13 live trees per acre >20 in dbh available to create snags if needed. In fact, the DFC would have been met within 30 years following the harvest. The question then is, how long would this condition persist? Projecting stand growth another 50 years suggests that the stand complexity would persist and potentially increase over the 100 years following the initial harvest, and at that time, there would be 88 thousand board feet per acre, 160 trees/acre, with Douglas-firs as large as 70 in dbh and red alders as large as 18 in dbh.

COMPARISONS

Of course the approach that I took to achieve the DFC is not the only way to get there and may not even be acceptable to some stakeholders. Repeated lighter thinning may be preferable to one heavy thin. Or a different species mix of regeneration may be desired. Or more income may be required. By simulating different types of treatments at different times, comparisons can be made among multiple approaches to achieve the DFC and then the approach acceptable to stakeholders can be used as the basis for developing a stand management plan.



FIGURE A5.3 Example of the stand illustrated in Figure A5.1 thinned and planted to establish a third cohort of trees. (Based on simulations from the Landscape Management System; McCarter, J.M. et al. 1998. *Journal of Forestry* 96(6):17–23.)



FIGURE A5.4 Example of the stand illustrated in Figure A5.3 thinned projected 50 years into the future. (Based on simulations from the Landscape Management System; McCarter, J.M. et al. 1998. *Journal of Forestry* 96(6):17–23.)

INTERPRETATION OF HABITAT ELEMENTS

Although some habitat elements such as tree species, tree size, snag abundance and size, and fallen log accumulation can be estimated directly from the tabulated output from the model, other elements must be inferred. For instance, canopy cover can be estimated from the model and used as a surrogate for the potential of the stand to support shrubs and herbs. As the canopy closes, it is likely that shrubs and herbs will decline. As more large and old trees persist in the stand, there is a greater likelihood that some will contain rot and be more likely to form tree cavities as den sites. Hence the ability to fully understand that a DFC might develop is limited using these models, but knowledge of stand dynamics is useful in making inferences.

STOCHASTIC PROCESSES AND UNCERTAINTIES

Most growth models such as FVS do not explicitly include effects of stochastic processes such as wind, fire, defoliating insects, droughts, floods, and similar events as processes affecting stand development. But clearly these events do occur; so the simulations of stand development are merely representation in the absence of coarse scale disturbances that would cause tree mortality significantly greater than might be found from inter-tree competition mortality. Consequently, it is important to remember that the farther into the future you simulate stand development the more likely one of these stochastic events is to occur, which could significantly affect your ability to achieve a DFC. Simulations such as these are useful to develop plans and modify plans as stands develop but managers realize that unexpected disturbances may cause them to have to plan again following a disturbance.

PROJECTING LANDSCAPES

Projecting landscape change using LMS is largely a function of simulating the dynamics of many stands simultaneously, something that LMS is designed to do as a part of a planning process. Additional information is needed to describe the location, shape, and position of each stand on the landscape and that information is imported from a Geographic Information System such as ArcGIS. By exporting the digital elevation model and the shape files for each stand, the visualization for each stand is overlain on the landscape (Figure A5.5). By adjusting your position in Envision (the



FIGURE A5.5 Example of multiple stands simulated across a landscape. (Based on simulations from the Landscape Management System; McCarter, J.M. et al. 1998. *Journal of Forestry* 96(6):17–23.)

visioning tool created by the U.S. Forest Service), you can look at the landscape from different points around it and above it to understand what stakeholders might see. Further tabular data allow a comprehensive landscape level understanding of the availability of habitat elements over the planning area over time.

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Index

A

Adaptive management, 264, 297; see also Fire management active, 297-298 implementation monitoring, 298 monitoring, 303 passive, 297 process, 8 strategy, 259 traditional adaptive management cycle, 298 validation monitoring, 299 Adenosine-tri-phosphate (ATP), 5 Advance regeneration, 83 balsam fir, 93 in northern hardwood and boreal forests, 99 Aerial photographs, 273, 304 AF&PA, see American Forest and Paper Association (AF&PA) Agricultural environments, 227 certification of agricultural lands for wildlife, 234 edge effects in agricultural settings, 228-229 loss of forests in industrial agricultural settings, 229-230 multifunctional landscapes, 233-234 organic vs. traditional agriculture, 232-233 Agroforestry, 228, 232 third party certification, 234 Alleles, 284, 285 Allochtonous material, 151 Alluvial sediments, 148 American Forest and Paper Association (AF&PA), 321 American Marten habitat selection, 32-33 Amphibians, 4, 29, 47, 145, 210, 230-231 aquatic, 154 chytridiomycosis in, 72 common and scientific names, 349-350 habitat quality, 54 pond-breeding, 147, 155 survivorship functions, 29, 30 Analysis of variance (ANOVA), 302, 307 Analytical models, 285 Animal Unit Months (AUMs), 231 Annual crop management, 230-231 Anolis lizards, 56 ANOVA, see Analysis of variance (ANOVA) Artificial regeneration, 83, 97, 99, 121 Atchafalaya Basin, 149 ATP, see Adenosine-tri-phosphate (ATP) AUMs, see Animal Unit Months (AUMs)

B

Bachman's sparrows, 108, 134–138, 140–142 BACI approach, *see* Before–after, control-impact approach (BACI approach) Barrier, 18, 48, 145, 216, 221 maze of potential, 190 role of, 23 Basal area, 84-85, 103, 122, 134, 137, 139 dependency, 105 estimation, 118, 360-361 stands increase in, 104 thinning effect, 108 BBS, see Breeding Bird Survey (BBS) BC, see British Columbia (BC) Beavers, 147, 148, 155-156 burrow systems, 47 cottonwoods felled by, 48 Before-after, control-impact approach (BACI approach), 302, 307-308, 312 Biodiversity, 1, 237 higher levels of, 233 indicators, 13 loss, 72, 73 screens, 275, 276 sustaining, 10 threat to, 67 Biodiversity conservation, 14, 59, 75, 79 advantages of agroforestry, 232 challenges to managing, 245 climate change effects, 68 coarse-filter approach, 240-243 conceptualization, 239 fine-filter approaches, 243-245 forest fragmentation, 206 forest reserves. 8 funding, 14 meso-filter approach, 243 scientific concept, 238 setting goals, 239 spatial scale, 245-246 time, 247-248 uncertainty, 248-249 Biofuels, 68-69, 230 Biomass, 62, 165 dead wood, 166, 167, 170-171 estimation, 361 human, 5 pattern of changes, 166 theoretical changes in, 88 Birds body temperature, 3 common and scientific names, 348-349 dispersal pattern, 214 using flight paths, 213 forest-interior, 205 inhabiting woodlots disperse seeds, 229 migratory, 32 movement of heavy-seeded tree species, 62 neotropical migratory, 201, 291, 311-313 nestling, 4, 45, 76

Birds (Continued) overwintering, 40 using retention stands, 98 survivorship functions, 29, 30 uneven-aged stands, 122 West Nile virus in, 72 Bird species diversity (BSD), 39, 40, 45 BLM, see Bureau of Land Management (BLM) "Boom and bust" population pattern, 28 Breeding Bird Survey (BBS), 291, 305 British Columbia (BC), 9, 102, 165 forests of, 9-11 timber harvest in watershed, 10 Broadcasting, 301 Brood parasitism, 201, 228 Brown-headed cowbirds, 200, 201 Brown-headed nuthatches, 134-137, 142 Browse, 40, 100, 122, 127 availability, 102 for deer, 46 forage and, 123 quantity and quality, 53 resources, 361 BSD, see Bird species diversity (BSD) Buffer strips, 47, 153 Bullfrogs, 72, 145 Bureau of Land Management (BLM), 156 lands, 223, 271

С

CAPS, see Conservation Assessment and Prioritization System (CAPS) Cause-and-effect relationship, 311, 313 Cavity-nesting birds (CNB), 161, 163, 174 CC stands, see Clearcut stands (CC stands) CEA, see Cumulative effects analysis (CEA) Cellulose-managed system dead and damaged trees, 44-45 even-aged stands, 39 FHD, 39 food and cover in, 37 forest floor, 47 fruit production, 43-44 Gopher tortoises, 47 herbivores, 48 horizontal patchiness, 40 niches for species, 38 proximity to water, 47 shade-tolerant species, 38 stages of decay of trees and logs, 44 tree species and invertebrate associations, 45-46 vertical complexity, 37-40 CFI plots, see Continuous forest inventory plots (CFI plots) Chain of custody, 320 CITES, see Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) CLAMS, see Coastal Landscape Analysis and Modeling Systems (CLAMS) Clayoquot Sound (CSP), 10 Clearcut stands (CC stands), 99, 121 Clearcutting, 96

Clearcut with reserves, see Deferred rotation method Climate, 56 geographic range of northern copperheads, 58 gradient of oak species, 59 isotherms for date of first frosts, 58 map of moisture stress in Oregon Coast Range, 58 moisture, 57 patterns of tree pollen from sediments in Wisconsin Lake, 57 precipitation, 59 predictions of species ranges, 59, 60 Climate change, 69, 318, 337 burning of fossil fuels, 69 carbon dioxide concentrations, 71 contributions to atmospheric carbon, 70 current range of northern bobolink, 71 impacts of increase greenhouse gases on Earth's climate, 70 Clonal plants, monitoring, 310 CNB, see Cavity-nesting birds (CNB) Coarse-filter approach, 240, 275-276 ecosystem indicators, 243 goals and objectives, 260 natural-and human-induced disturbances, 242 open and early-successional forest conditions, 241 Coarse-filter approach, 240, 275-276 ecosystem indicators, 243 goals and objectives, 260 natural-and human-induced disturbances, 242 open and early-successional forest conditions, 241 Coastal Landscape Analysis and Modeling Systems (CLAMS), 271 Codominant trees, 85, 86, 105, 106, 165, 173 Columbia River, 23 Commercial thinning, 103, 107 Eastern white pine stocking chart, 104 site index curves for northern red oak in Lake States, 106 stand density index diagram, 105 stands increase in basal area over time, 104 Community, 2 Composition, 37 effects on species composition, 183 forest, 40, 93, 94 hardwood, 46 plant community, 88 plant species, 102, 123, 132 species, 41, 54 Connectivity, 218 landscape fragmentation, 219 landscape resistance map for American black bear, 221 landscape structure, 218-219 management app roaches to, 222 physical and genetic connectivity, 220-222 Conservation Assessment and Prioritization System (CAPS), 275-276 Conservation strategies, 267; see also Ecoregional assessments Context, 199 Continuous forest inventory plots (CFI plots), 141 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES), 327 Core, 202, 277

Corridors, 222 Cover, 3, 4, 28, 164 canopy, 97, 122, 373 conifer, 52 estimating percent cover, 360 foliage, 39 overstory, 137 resources, 26, 32, 37, 44 shrub, 31, 197 thermal. 55 types, 2 understory, 141 Critical habitat, 31, 328 natural habitat, 333 removal, 253 Crown classes, 85, 86 CSP, see Clavoquot Sound (CSP) Culmination of MAI, 107 Cultural effects on habitat patterns, 67 climate change, 69-71 factors leading to extinction of passenger pigeon, 76 invasive species, 71-74 land use, 67-69 passenger pigeons, humans, and forests, 75-77 synergistic effects, 75 Cumulative effects analysis (CEA), 331 Current forest condition, 259 Cutting cycle, 117-119, 122, 124, 127

D

Data hungry, 292–293 Dead trees, 44-45, 161, 191, 370 Dead wood, 191 biomass, 166, 167, 170-171 creation and loss, 182 retention, 172 Dead wood management, 161 changes in dead wood over time, 166-167 comparison of decay constants, 167 fate of trees, snags, and logs in forests, 162 following disturbance, 165-168 generalized pattern of changes in dead wood biomass, 166 log users, 164-165 natural disturbance, 161, 162 in Oregon forests, 174-175 primary cavity excavators, 161-163 ruffed grouse use logs, 164 secondary cavity users, 163-164 during stand development, 167-168 DECAID, 169, 174 Decomposition, 165 dead wood changes, 166 of organic matter, 59 organisms effect, 161 pathway, 6 Deferred rotation method, 97 Degradation, 13 Demographic stochasticity, 284, 285, 288 Density-dependent habitat selection, 26: see also Vertebrate habitat selection fixed amount of resources in patch, 27 ideal free distribution, 27

Density management diagram, see Stocking chart Density measurement, 359-360 Desired future condition (DFC), 125, 131, 135-136, 255-256, 260, 310, 334, 369; see also Redcockaded woodpecker habitat assessing risk of losing species, 242 habitat elements and population responses, 301 management actions, 132, 260 pathways to, 256 spatial scale and, 245 stand prescription development, 131-133 Diameter-limit cutting, 121–122 Digestible energy, 3, 5, 41 Direct effects, 101, 102 of climate change on biodiversity conservation, 68 on habitat for some species, 54 of invasive species, 73 of rain, 59 of reduced pH, 59 soils, 56 Dispersal, 213 distances, 214 natal dispersal, 213 understanding successful dispersal probability, 214-218 Disturbance(s), 79 bison, elk, and other herbivores, 80 frequency, 82 frequency, size, severity relationships, 83 histogram of fire-size distribution for 2898 lightning fire, 80 legacy trees, snags, and logs, 81 severity, 81-82 size and pattern, 79-81 zones of hurricane frequency in New England, 82 "Doing nothing" management, 122, 341, 345 "Domains of scale", 209, 269-270, 271 Dominant crown class, 38 Dominant trees, 85, 96 even-aged stand, 38 site tree, 157 Douglas-fir forests, 54, 87 Douglas-fir plantation, 108 on forest industry land in western Oregon, 109 green-tree retention stand in western Oregon, 111 plantation establishment and management in, 109, 110 seed tree regeneration method, 110 Douglas-fir stand, 83 coastal, 105 understory, 74 Dynamic carrying capacity, 28 Dynamic corridors, 222

E

Earth Summit, 317, 321 Eastern white pine stocking chart, 104 Ecological psychology, 17 restoration, 13–15, 193, 341 rotation age, 108 Ecological range of variability (ERV), 342, 343 Economic rotation age, 107, 108 Ecoregional analysis, 272–273 Ecoregional assessments, 267 climate change, 270 ecoregional analysis, 272-273 examples, 271 habitat availability and quality patterns assessment, 273-280 spatial scaling properties, 269-270 US national hierarchy of ecological units, 268 utility and effectiveness, 279-280 Ecosystem management, 7 Ecosystem services, 13 analysis, 14-15 examples, 14 sustaining and marketing, 324 Ectotherms, 4 Edge associates, 202 Edge density, 204 Edge geometry, 203 decreasing patch size, 203 edge density, 204 staggered setting approach, 205 Edge specialists, 202 Effectiveness monitoring, 140-141 Effect size, 308 Endangered Species Act (ESA), 253, 328, 330, 337 Endotherms, 4, 55, 57 Energy, 3, 344 pathways through forest, 6 production, 68-69 savings of cavity-roosting species, 164 Environmental ethics, 15 "actors" and "do-ers", 16, 17 forest activist protects tree from being cut, 16 Environmental stochasticity, 284, 285, 292 ERV, see Ecological range of variability (ERV) ESA, see Endangered Species Act (ESA) Establishment cut, 96, 97 Eutrophic systems, 146 Even-aged stands, 94; see also Uneven-aged stands capabilities of site, 95-96 change in MAI with stand age, 108 commercial thinning, 103-107 fertilization, 107 identifying legacy elements to retain, 98 live tree diameters distribution, 95 natural regeneration and planting options, 99-100 precommercial thinning, 103 regeneration method, 96-98 rotation length, 107-108 site preparation effects on habitat elements, 98-99 vegetation management effects on habitat elements, 100-103 Extent, 199 Extinction vortex, 76

F

Fallen logs, 45, 124, 191 Fecundity, 29 Federal funding, 331–332 FEMAT, *see* Forest Ecosystem Management Assessment Team (FEMAT) Fencerows, 42, 229, 232 Fertilization, 107 FHD, see Foliage height diversity (FHD) Field and farm management, 230 annual crop management, 230-231 grazing management, 231 influencing woodlot function, 230 land sparing, 231-232 Filter approach, 239-240 coarse-filter approaches, 240-243 meso-filter approaches, 243 Fine-filter approach, 243, 276-277 in coarse-filter approach, 244 gap analysis, 277-279 goals and objective, 260 indicator species, 245 Fire frequency, 182, 183 Fire management, 181 changing fire risk through management, 183 fire in managed forests, 185 fuels treatments on habitat elements, 184-185 on habitat elements and succession, 181-183 salvage logging, 183-184, 185-187 First-order selection, 22 Fish cold headwater streams, 21 common and scientific names, 350 type III survivorship curves, 30 Fledgling, 4, 32, 201, 231 Foliage height diversity (FHD), 39, 40 Food Alliance, 234 Forage, 40; see also Cellulose-managed system availability and quality, 40 black bears, 43 change in taxa abundance or community diversity, 41 herbivores, 41 mycophagists, 42 plants with lower lignin and cutin, 42 Forecasting, 301 Forest active forest management, 8, 9 digestible energy, 5 energy pathways, 6 floor, 47 fragmentation, 206-207 gapiness, 86 as habitat, 5 historical approaches to managing, 6-7 interior species, 202, 203, 205, 234 management, 7-8 society views natural resources, 7 type, 21, 31, 40, 87, 126, 128, 173, 207 wildlife habitat, 1 Forest-associated species, PVA for, 286 parameters to home range, 288 simulated home ranges, 287 time-step between alternative management approaches, 289 WHR model, 287 Forest certification, 320 certification effectiveness, 323-324 certification schemes, 322 FSC, 321 FSC vs. SFI certification approaches, 322 PEFC-certified forests in world, 320 third-party certification, 320

Index

Forest clearing for agriculture, 68 Forest Ecosystem Management Assessment Team (FEMAT), 156, 271 Forest management; see also Fire management "doing nothing", 341 neotropical migrant birds to, 311-313 personal management philosophy development, 343-346 restoration, 341-343 Forest Practices Code (FPC), 10 Forest Stewardship Council (FSC), 321, 322 SFI certification approach vs., 322 Forest structure, 40, 41, 86 characteristics, 117 elements, 87 rate of change in, 209 variability in, 89 Forest sustainability, 317 forest certification, 320-324 humans as part of system, 319-320 resources, 318 scales of sustainability, 318-319 Forest vegetation simulator (FVS), 132, 173, 369 Founder effect, 284-285 Fourth-order selection, 26, 30 FPC, see Forest Practices Code (FPC) FRAGSTATS program, 210 Fruit production, 43-44 FSC, see Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) Fuels, 182, 184 burning of fossil fuels, 69 treatments on habitat elements, 184-185 FVS, see Forest vegetation simulator (FVS)

G

Game Management, 6, 202 Gap-crossing ability, 218-219 Gap analysis, 277–279 Genetically modified tree seedlings (GM tree seedlings), 100 Genetic bottleneck, 284 Genetic drift, 284 Geographic information systems (GISs), 194, 255 Geographic range, 22, 70 American marten, 32 ESA and, 253 marsupials, 203 of northern copperheads, 58 plant species, 310 red-cockaded, 133 species, 24-25 Geology, 53 effects, 54 karst geology locations in United States, 54 microclimatic characteristics, 55 vegetation structure and composition, 53 GISs, see Geographic information systems (GISs) Global positioning system (GPS), 213 GM tree seedlings, see Genetically modified tree seedlings (GM tree seedlings) Gopher tortoises, 47 GPS, see Global positioning system (GPS) Grain, 198, 199, 211, 248, 274

Grazing management, 231 Green-tree retention stands (GTR stands), 111, 121 Grizzly bear, 29, 289–290 "Ground-truthing", 304 Group selection stands (GS stands), 120, 121 GTR stands, *see* Green-tree retention stands (GTR stands) Guild, 6, 245

Н

Habitat, 1, 2 cover, 4 energy flow, 2 environmental activism and effects on. 18 forests as, 5-8 forests of British Columbia, 9-11 function. 2-5 for humans, 5 metabolic rate and ambient temperature relationship, 3 patch of, 4-5 specialists, 21 timber harvest in watershed, 10 types, 2 Habitat availability and quality patterns assessment, 273 coarse-filter approach, 275-276 fine-filter approach, 276-277, 277-279 ground plot data, 275 integrated coarse-filter approach, 276-277 meso-filter approach, 276-277 prioritizing management and assessing policies, 275 seven-step conservation planning framework, 274 WHR models, 274 Habitat banking, 324 Habitat Conservation Plan (HCP), 253, 258-259, 328 Habitat distribution assessment, 362-363 Habitat elements, 37, 87, 297, 303-304, 313; see also Vegetation management effects adaptive management, 297-299 basal area estimation, 360-361 biomass estimation, 361 cause and effect monitoring designs, 307-308 clonal plants, 310 comparisons, 371-372 data availability, 308-309 decisions with data, 309-310 density measurement, 359-360 designing monitoring plans, 299 Douglas-fir forests, 87 estimation to habitat presence assessment, 361-362 estimation to habitat suitability assessment, 362 examples, 310 experimental design, 302 fuels treatments on, 184-185 geographic distribution in woodcock population changes, 306 habitat distribution assessment, 362-363 height estimation, 360 hypothetical range of conditions, 90 inputs, 369 interactions among forest disturbance, climate change, and management, 89 interpretation, 373 land-use, monitoring, 300

Habitat elements (Continued) limiting species in urban and suburban settings, 191-192 management implications from disturbances, 89-90 measuring and interpreting, 359 monitoring, 305-307, 313 neotropical migrant birds, 311-313 percent cover estimation, 360 projections, 369, 370, 373-374 random sampling, 359 salamander subpopulation, 311 sampling intensity, frequency, and duration 302-303 scope of inference, 301-302 selection of indicators, 301 site preparation effects on, 98-99 small mammal species occurrence, monitoring, 310-311 for species occurrence, 304-305 stochastic processes, 373 successional pathways, 88-89 theoretical changes in forest states, 88 treatments to achieving DFC, 370-371 uncertainties, 373 in uneven-aged stands, 122-124 in woodlots, 228-229 Habitat fragmentation, 205 habitat loss, 206 species-area relationships, 206-209 Habitat generalists, 21 Habitat quality, 29, 287 at landscape scale, 200 proximate and ultimate cues to, 31-32 Habitat selection, 21 American Marten habitat selection, 32-33 body mass and home range size relationship, 25 deer mice, 22 distribution of complex of slimy salamander species, 23 first-order selection, 22 fourth-order selection, 26 habitat quality and demographics relationship, 28-30 hierarchical selection, 21-26 measurement, 30-31 metapopulation distribution, 25 population fitness, 29-30 population growth over time, 28 proximate and ultimate cues to habitat quality, 31-32 range maps for geographically restricted species, 23 second-order selection, 25 social cues in, 32 survivorship curves, 30 third-order selection, 26 trophic level, 26 woylie, 24 Hard mast, 43 Harvesting system, 96, 172 HCP, see Habitat Conservation Plan (HCP) Herbicides, 101-102 Herbivores, 41, 42, 48 Heuristic aspects of modeling, 294 Historical range of variability (HRV), 168, 240, 249, 342 Home range, 25 Horizontal patchiness, 40 HRV, see Historical range of variability (HRV) Human commensal, 22

Hydrology, 56, 59, 60 Hyporheic zone, 155

I

ICBEMP assessment, see Interior Columbia Basin Ecosystem Management Planning assessment (ICBEMP assessment) Ideal despotic distribution, 27 Ideal free distribution, 27 IMF, see International Monetary Fund (IMF) Implementation monitoring, 140, 298 Incidental take permit, 253-254 Indicator species, 6, 245 Indirect effects, 53, 59, 102-103 Individual tree selection, 120 Induced edges, 200-201, 205 "Informed" pixels, 275 Inherent edges, 200, 201 Insects, 30, 86 bark-dwelling, 32, 46 common and scientific names, 350 foliage-dwelling, 32 Integrated coarse-filter approach, 276-277 Interior Columbia Basin Ecosystem Management Planning assessment (ICBEMP assessment), 271 Intermediate crown class, 85 Intermediate trees, 85 International laws and agreements, 327 municipal policies, 334-335 national laws, 328-332 state laws, 332-334 International Monetary Fund (IMF), 8 Intra-riparian gradients, 147, 148 Intrinsic rate of natural increase, 28 Invasive species, 71 Bullfrogs, 72 changes in native plant species, 74 direct effects, 73 numbers of nonnative plant species, 73 understory of Douglas-fir stand, 74 whitenose syndrome, 72

K

KISS principle, 294

L

Lambda, 200 Land ownership pattern, 153, 157, 245 Landscape connections, 213 connectivity, 218–222 dispersal, 213–218 gap-crossing ability, 218–222 matrix management for wide-ranging species, 222–224 Landscape management plans, *see* Landscape management system (LMS) Landscape management system (LMS), 246, 256, 369 considering alternative plans, 260–261 current conditions, 255 development, 256

Index

DFC, 255-256 finding solutions to problems, 261-263 goals establishment, 253-255 HCP, 258-259 one-time step in forest landscape pattern, 257 pathways to DFC, 256 plan effectiveness, 263-264 structure, 259-260 Landscapes, 197 forest, 199 gradient-based analysis, 198 habitat area, 209-211 habitat quality at landscape scale, 200 living on edge, 200-205 Swainson's thrushes, 198 Land sparing, 231-232 Land use, 67 energy production and biofuels, 68-69 forest clearing for agriculture, 68 urbanization, 67-68 Late-successional reserves (LSRs), 222 Leslie Matrix, 285-286 Light detection and ranging (LIDAR), 273, 304 Live cavity-tree management, 171 dead limbs on live hardwoods and cavities, 171 leaving snags and logs, 172 Living on edge, 200 brown-headed cowbirds, 201 edge associates, 202 edge geometry, 203-205 feature of landscapes, 200 induced edges, 200-201 species richness, 202 LMS, see Landscape management system (LMS) Log(s); see also Snags creation for wildlife, 173-174 monitoring cavity, 174 users, 164-165 Logistic growth, 28 Longevity, 29, 247 "Louisiana Acres for Wildlife" program, 332-333 LSRs, see Late-successional reserves (LSRs)

Μ

MAI, see Mean annual increment (MAI) Mammals body temperature, 3 common and scientific names, 347-348 dispersal pattern, 214 inhabiting woodlots disperse seeds, 229 movement of heavy-seeded tree species, 62 Marbled murrelet, 290 Marshes, 148 Matrix, 205, 210, 213, 222 Matrix management, 222 BLM lands, 223 land allocation pattern, 223, 224 for wide-ranging species, 222 McIntire-Stennis Act, 332 Mean annual increment (MAI), 107 Meso-filter approach, 243, 276-277 goals and objectives, 260 Metapopulation, 215

distribution. 25 models, 286 stochastic metapopulation model, 290 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Report, 14 mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), 220 Moisture, 57 soil, 59 stress, 58, 59 stress gradient, 59 tolerance, 120 Montreal Process, 317-320, 323 Mortality rate, 29 mtDNA, see mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) Multifunctional landscapes, 233-234; see also Landscape management system (LMS) Municipal policies, 334-335 Mycophagists, 42

Ν

Nam Choan Dam, 18 Natality, 29 National Council on Air and Stream Improvement (NCASI), 332 National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA), 258, 259, 330, 331 National laws, 328 CEA, 331 environmental laws, 328 federal funding, 331, 332 NEPA, 330, 331 US laws, 329-330 Natural catastrophe, 284, 285 Natural cavity, 171–172 Natural regeneration even-aged stands characteristics, 99-100 uneven-aged stands characteristics, 120-121 Nature Deficit Disorder, 17 NCASI, see National Council on Air and Stream Improvement (NCASI) Neotropical migrant birds, 201, 291, 311-313 NEPA, see National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) Nest boxes, 171 Nesting cover, 4 NGOs, see Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), 246, 253, 254, 271, 317, 319 Nonregulatory goals, 254 Nontraditional management approaches, 125-126 Northwest Forest Plan (NWFP), 156, 222, 260-261

0

Occam's razor, 294 Occupational Health and Safety Administration (OSHA), 172 OFPA, *see* Oregon Forest Practices Act (OFPA) Old-growth, 86–87 Oligotrophic streams, 146, 151 Oregon Forest Practices Act (OFPA), 157 Organic agriculture, traditional agriculture *vs.*, 232–233 Orographic precipitation, 55 Orthophotos, 273 OSHA, see Occupational Health and Safety Administration (OSHA) Overwood removal, 97

Р

Pan European Forest Certification (PEFC), 321 Passenger pigeons, 75-77, 241 Passive adaptive management, 297 PCR, see Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) PEFC, see Pan European Forest Certification (PEFC) Percent cover estimation, 360 Performance-based standards, 322 Personal management philosophy development, 343 leaving world, 345-346 living simply and sustainably, 344-345 place on Earth, 344 Pesticides, 101-102 Phreatophytic vegetation, 155 Physical environment, 53; see also Habitat climate, 56-60 geology, 53-55 hydrology, 60 soils, 56 topography, 55-56 vegetation patterns, 60-62 Pittman-Robertson Act, see Wildlife Restoration Act Plan effectiveness, 263-264 Planting options even-aged stands characteristics, 99-100 uneven-aged stands characteristics, 120-121 Plants chemical and physical defenses, 42 clonal, 310 common and scientific names, 350-352 GM. 100 herbaceous, 40, 97 with lower lignin and cutin, 42 in partial shade, 44 producing chemicals, 48 producing phenols, 41 Policy analysis, 335-336 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR), 221 Population, 2, 24, 28, 134 Population fitness, 2, 29-30 Population viability analysis (PVA), 283 extinction risks, 283-285 for forest-associated species, 286-289 goals 285 grizzly bear, 289-290 interpreting results from PVA projections, 294-295 marbled murrelet, 290 model errors and uncertainties, 291-294 models, 285-286 neotropical migrant birds, 291 Precipitation, 56, 59, 183 acid. 59 orographic, 55 Precommercial thinning, 103 Preparatory harvest, 97 Prescriptions, 131, 133, 141 Primary cavity excavators, 161 primary CNB, 163 species, 162

Primary cavity nesters, 44, 45 Process-based schemes, 322 Projecting landscapes, 373–374 Proximate cues, 31–32 Public resources, 7, 199, 319 on private lands, 17 PVA, *see* Population viability analysis (PVA)

Q

Q factor, 118, 122-123

R

Random sampling, 359 Red-cockaded woodpecker habitat, 133; see also Desired future condition (DFC) budget, 141 current stand condition, 134-135 income and expenses, 142 management actions, 136-140 monitoring plans, 140-141 species background and management options, 133-134 stand condition, 137, 138, 139, 140 statistics for 7-ha pine stand, 135, 136, 137, 139, 140 Reduced Emissions of carbon dioxide caused by Deforestation and Degradation program (REDD+ program), 328 Refereed journal, 260 Regeneration method, 96 clearcutting, 96 seed-tree, 96 shelterwood, 97 Regulatory and legal considerations climate change, 337 decisions in United States, 336-337 Endangered Species Act, 337 habitat for animals, 327 international laws and agreements, 327-335 policy analysis, 335-336 Regulatory goals, 253-254 REMs, see Resource Equivalency Methods (REMs) Reptiles, 4 common and scientific names, 350 composite map of species-richness, 279 distribution, 55-56 survivorship curve, 29 Resource Equivalency Methods (REMs), 324 Response variable, 30, 301, 302 Restoration, 341 ecology, 341 human requirements as constraints, 342-343 Riparian area management, 145, 146 animal associations with, 146-147 eutrophic systems, 146 in patchwork ownership, 156-157 Riparian associates, 147 Riparian buffers, 152 beavers, 155-156 land ownership pattern, 153 principles, 155 streamside buffer in managed Oregon forest, 153 streamside management areas, 154-155

Index

two species of aquatic amphibians, 154 width of riparian management area, 153 Riparian functions, 150 allochtonous material, 151 hypothesized functional relationships, 151 tree canopies, 152 Riparian obligates, 147 Riparian zones, gradients within, 147 alluvial sediments, 148 dead wood in stream, 150 hierarchical system of stream orders, 148 intra-riparian gradients, 147 stream morphology, 149 trans-riparian gradients, 149-150 Risk analysis, 295 Rotation, 97 Rotation age, 107 Rotation length, 107-108 Rough-barked trees, 46

S

Salamander subpopulation, 311 Salvage logging, 183-184 boundaries and pattern of Biscuit Fire, 186 scientific debate with social solution, 185-187 SAR, see Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) Satellite imagery, 273, 304 Scope of inference, 301-302 Second-order selection, 25 Secondary cavity users, 44, 163-164 Seed-tree regeneration method, 96 Seedbank, 86 Seedbed, 79, 101, 119, 121 Seed cut, see Establishment cut Seed tree regeneration method, 110 Serpentine soil, 53 SFI, see Sustainable Forestry Initiative (SFI) Shade-intolerant species, 38, 88, 98, 121, 126 Shade-tolerant species, 38, 86, 88, 120, 121 Shelterbelts, 229 Shelterwood regeneration method, 97 Shifting gap phase, 86 Silviculture, 38, 93 as forest disturbance, 93-94 range of management decisions, 93, 94 Single-tree stands (STS), 121 Sink habitat, 27 Site fidelity, 31 Site index, 105-106, 120, 369 Site preparation effects, 98-99 Small mammal species occurrence, monitoring, 310-311 Small privately owned forest management, 126-127 Snags, 44, 45, 81, 98, 135, 161; see also Log(s) clumping, 172 creation for wildlife, 173-174 cumulative species curves, 169 elevated, 45 leaving, 172 monitoring cavity, 174 Social cues, 32 Social facilitation, 75, 76 Social range of variability (SRV), 342, 343

Social values, 15 ecological psychology, 17 environmental ethics, 15-17 **TEK. 15** Soft mast, 43, 44, 87, 124 Soils, 31, 53, 56-57 Source habitat, 27, 202 Source patch, 214–215 Spatially explicit models, 286 Spatial scale, 245-246 Specialty crops, 232 Species common and scientific names, 347 amphibians, 349-350 birds, 348-349 fish, 350 insects, 350 mammals, 347-348 plants, 350-352 reptiles, 350 Species composition, effects on, 183 SRV, see Social range of variability (SRV) "Staggered setting" approach, 205 Stand dynamics, 83 crown class differentiation, 85 forest gapiness, 86 old-growth, 86-87 stand initiation, 83-85 stem exclusion, 85 understory reinitiation, 86 Stand initiation, 83 advance regeneration, 83 basal area, 84 conceptual timeline portraying developmental stages, 84 stocking, 85 Stand prescription development, 131 budget, 132 current stand condition, 132 DFC, 132 management actions, 132 monitoring plans, 132 references, 132-133 schedule, 132 species background, 132 State laws, 332 critical natural habitat, 333 forest practices acts, 334 "Louisiana Acres for Wildlife" program, 332-333 regulatory agency, 332 State Wildlife Grants program (2001), 331 Static corridors, 222 Stem exclusion, 83, 95 Stepping stone approach, 190, 222-223 Stochastic processes, 373 Stochastic single-population models, 286 Stocking, 85, 124, 135 chart, 104, 106 Streamside management areas, 152, 154-155, 157 Structure, 37 forest, 32, 40, 54, 87 of landscape management plan, 259 soil, 56 stand, 86, 103 vegetation, 53 vertical, 38, 82, 85, 122

STS, see Single-tree stands (STS)
Suppressed trees, 85
Survival, 5, 29, 215–216, 258
Survivorship functions, 29, 30
Sustainability, 13, 247, 317; see also Forest sustainability
Sustainable Forestry Initiative (SFI), 321
FSC certification approach vs., 322
Swamps, 148
Synergistic effects, 75
Synthetic aperture radar (SAR), 304

Т

Target patch, 214-215 Target tree size, 117-118, 120, 124 TEK, see Traditional ecological knowledge (TEK) Termites, 166 Territory, 25, 27, 133, 153, 172, 246, 270 The Nature Conservancy (TNC), 271, 272 Thermal neutral zone, 3 Third-order selection, 26 Third-party certification, 320 TNC, see The Nature Conservancy (TNC) Topography, 53, 55–56 Traditional agriculture, organic agriculture vs., 232-233 Traditional ecological knowledge (TEK), 15 Trans-riparian gradient, 148-150 Tree canopies, 152 Tree cavities and dead wood management, 168; see also Dead wood management cumulative species curves of snags, 169, 170 dead wood retention and harvest system considerations, 172 expected range of variability of old-growth forests, 168 likely ranges, 169 live cavity-tree management in managed stands, 171-172 monitoring cavity trees, snags, and logs, 174 snags and logs creation for wildlife, 173-174 Trees, 234 dead and damaged, 44-45 monitoring cavity, 174 rough-barked tree, 46 size and density, 46 species and invertebrate associations, 45-46 in urban, 194-195 Trigger points, 310 Trophic level, 26 Truffles, 42

U

Ultimate cues, 31–32 Ultimate resources, 32, 37 Uncertainty, 89, 200, 248–249, 335 of future climates, 319 in predictions of species ranges, 60 Understory reinitiation, 86 Uneven-aged stands, 94, 117; *see also* Even-aged stands challenges to using, 124–125 cutting cycles in mixed hardwood pine stand, 127 dead and dying trees, 124 development, 121–122 forage and browse, 123 habitat elements in, 122–124

horizontal diversity, 123 idealized distribution of tree sizes, 119 mast. 124 natural regeneration and planting options, 120-121 nontraditional management approaches, 125-126 Q factor, 118 silvicultural approaches, 125 site potential, 120 small privately owned forest management, 126-127 tree densities, 118 trees harvested by diameter class, 119 uneven-aged regeneration methods, 120 vertical complexity arising from regeneration, 126 vertical structure, 122-123 Uninformed pixels, 275 Urban forests, 189-190 habitat elements limiting species, 191-192 managing trees, parks, and forests in urban, 194-195 spaces for habitat management, 191 species interpreting "built environment", 190 urban expansion, 193-194 urban-rural continuum, 189-190 urban streams and wetlands, 192-193 wetlands, and mitigation, 193-194 Urbanization, 67-68, 333 Urban-rural continuum, 189-190 Urban streams and wetlands, 192-193 Use-availability studies, 31-32 U.S. Endangered Species Act, 31

V

Validation monitoring, 299 Vegetation management effects, 100; see also Habitat elements; Site preparation effects direct effects, 102 herbicides, 101-102 indirect effects, 102-103 pesticides, 101-102 Vegetation patterns, 60 mosaic of historic habitat types, 62 potential vegetation of North America, 61 wildlife habitat types, 61 Vernal pools, 60, 147 Vertebrate habitat selection, see Habitat selection Vertical complexity, 37-40 even-aged stands, 39 FHD, 39 niches for species, 38 shade-tolerant species, 38 Very high resolution (VHR), 304 Vital rates, 29, 200, 283-284, 293

w

Watershed, 60, 147, 193 mid-watershed, 148 timber harvest in, 10 Wetlands, 193–194 WHIP, *see* Wildlife Habitat Incentives Program (WHIP) Whitenose syndrome, 72 WHR models, *see* Wildlife–habitat relationships models (WHR models) Wildlife habitat, 2
Wildlife Habitat Incentives Program (WHIP), 331
Wildlife-habitat relationships models (WHR models), 273–274, 287, 313, 365
central hardwoods example, 365–367
for habitat types and species, 366
values and cautions, 368
Wildlife Restoration Act, 328
Willamette Alternative Futures 255, 276
Wolf trees, 85
Wood-decaying fungi, 174
Woodlands management, 227; see also Agricultural environments; Fire management agroforestry, 232

field and farm management, 230–232 forest fragmentation, 227 specialty crops, 232 woodlots values to landowners, 228 Woodlots farm management, 230–232 field management, 230–232 habitat elements in, 228–229 values to landowners, 228 Woylie, 24, 42

Ζ

Zone Model, 290