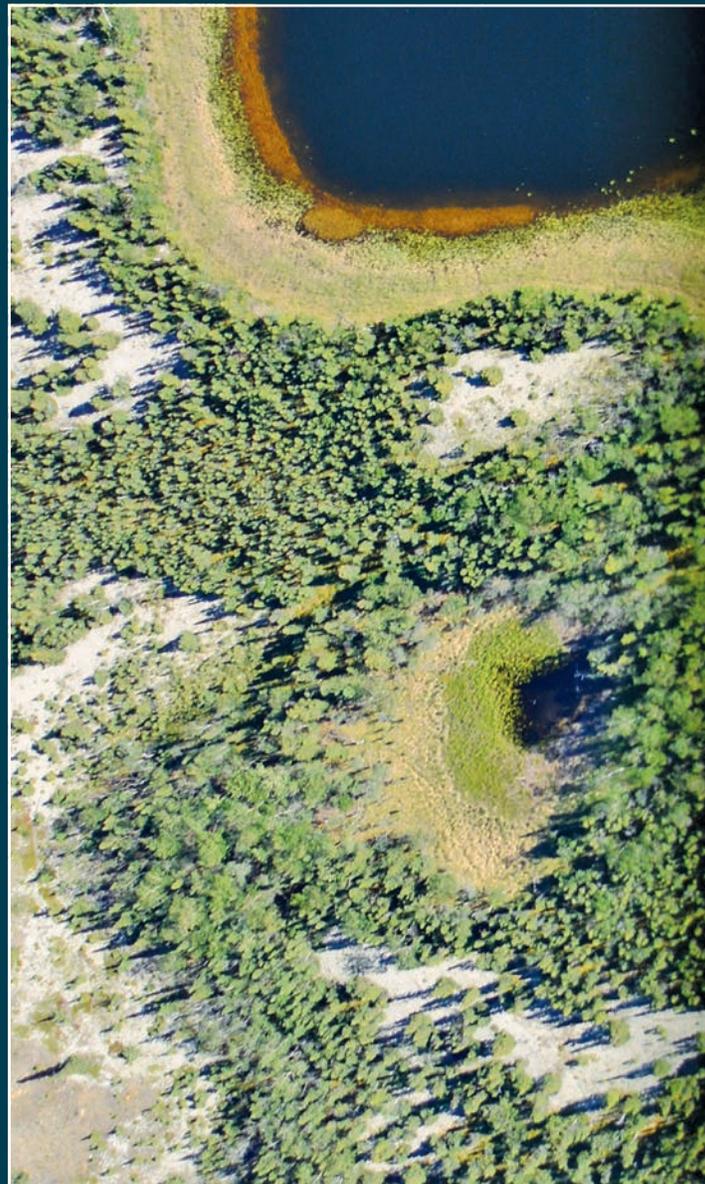




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Forests of the Tanana Valley State Forest and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge, Alaska: Results of the 2014 Pilot Inventory



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Cover photo: Aerial image of boreal forest, bog, and pond areas in the Tanana River Valley taken coincident with the Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal LiDAR and multiband remote sensing sampling strips that will improve the accuracy of estimates of forest conditions across interior Alaska. Photo by Bruce Cook, NASA-Goddard Space Flight Center.

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Abstract

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This report highlights key findings from a test (“pilot”) of an interior Alaska forest inventory design. The pilot inventoried the forests of the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR) in the Tanana River Valley of interior Alaska, covering 2.5 million ac. The inventory consisted of a systematic grid of 98 field-measured plots integrated with NASA’s Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal (G-LiHT) imaging system. We summarize and interpret basic resource information such as forest area, ownership, volume, carbon stocks in trees, ground layers, dead wood, and soils; and vegetation community structure and composition. The black spruce forest type covered 49 percent of the forested area. Most of the aboveground live tree biomass was found in Alaska birch and black spruce forest types, but white spruce forest types had the highest mean aboveground live tree biomass per acre. Standing dead tree biomass was 8 percent of the amount in the live tree pool, with the greatest amounts in the white spruce forest type. Soil carbon per acre in the measured layers was highest in black spruce forests and lowest in aspen forests. Biomass of ground layers (i.e., moss and lichen mats) was almost twice as high on black spruce forests than on other forest types. Shrub and grass cover were comparable among units, but forb cover was greater on TVSF than on TNWR. The design and protocols tested during this pilot were refined for the implementation of the large-scale inventory of forests of interior Alaska that started in 2016.

Keywords: Forest Inventory and Analysis, boreal forests, understory vegetation, down woody material, biomass, soil carbon, lichen, moss, carbon pools, LiDAR, remote sensing.

Summary

The boreal forests of interior Alaska cover about 110 million ac and appear to be changing rapidly in response to warming temperatures. The status and trends of these forests are poorly understood owing, in part, to the lack of a comprehensive inventory. In 2014, the U.S. Forest Service's Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program in conjunction with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's (NASA) Goddard Space Flight Center carried out a test ("pilot") of an interior Alaska inventory design. The pilot inventoried the forests of the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR) in the Tanana River Valley of interior Alaska, covering 2.5 million ac. The inventory consisted of a systematic grid of 98 field-measured plots integrated with NASA's Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal (G-LiHT) imaging system. The design and protocols tested during this pilot were refined for the implementation of the large-scale inventory of forests of interior Alaska that started in 2016.

Black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) Britton, Sterns & Poggenb.) was the most common forest type, covering 49 ± 5 percent of the forested land area (total \pm standard error). Most of the aboveground live tree biomass was found in Alaska birch (*Betula neoalaskana* Sarg.) (18.0 ± 4.4 million tons) and black spruce (13.9 ± 2.7 million tons) forest types on the TVSF. However, white spruce (*P. glauca* Moench Voss) forest types had the highest mean aboveground live tree biomass per acre on both the TVSF (48.8 ± 11.6 tons per acre) and TNWR (46.2 ± 4.8 tons per acre). Black spruce forests on the TNWR had the lowest mean biomass per acre (8.8 ± 2.8 tons per acre). Standing dead tree biomass was 8 percent of the amount in the live tree pool, with the greatest amounts in the white spruce forest type. Birch forests on the TVSF had 48 percent of the biomass of down woody materials (DWM) in the study area despite covering only 24 percent of the forested area. Birch (5.3 ± 1.6 tons per acre) and aspen (*Populus* spp. (5.8 ± 1.5 tons per acre) forests on the TVSF had the highest DWM biomass per acre, while black spruce forests (0.4 ± 0.1 tons per acre) on TVSF lands had the lowest. The majority of the soil carbon (C) in the litter, organic, and the top 1 inch of mineral soil occurred on black spruce (36 percent) and birch (23 percent) forest types across the two inventory units. Soil C per acre in the measured layers was highest in black spruce forests (28 ± 2.6 tons per acre) and lowest in aspen forests (14.9 ± 6.7 tons per acre). Frozen soils were encountered on 14 of the sampled plots, resulting in incomplete measurements and the potential for bias in the statistical estimates. Biomass of ground layers (i.e., moss and lichen mats) was greatest on black spruce forests on the TVSF (10.5 ± 1.3 tons per acre). These forests had almost twice the biomass per acre of any other forest type. Most of the nonvascular ground cover in the inventory unit was in the

form of nitrogen-fixing feather mosses (57 ± 5 percent). Mean cover of tall tree species was greater on TVSF than TNWR (48 ± 2.4 vs. 38 ± 3.6 percent, respectively). Mean shrub and grass cover were comparable among units (overall means of 44 ± 2.5 and 10 ± 1.6 percent for shrubs and grasses, respectively), while forb cover was greater on TVSF than on TNWR (15 ± 2.4 vs. 7.0 ± 1.8 , respectively). The most common vascular plant species recorded overall include (in descending order) lingonberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.), black spruce, Alaska birch, bog Labrador tea (*Ledum groenlandicum* Oeder), white spruce, green alder (*Alnus viridis* (Chaix) DC.), bog blueberry (*Vaccinium uliginosum* L.), and prickly rose (*Rosa acicularis* Lindl.), all recorded on at least 35 percent of all plots. In terms of all estimated pools (aboveground live tree and standing dead tree, DWM, ground layer, and surface soil) C for the various forest types by inventory unit, soils were the largest pool (47 to 84 percent), live trees for 13 to 47 percent, standing dead trees for 1 to 6 percent, DWMs accounted for 1 to 14 percent, and the ground layer for 0 to 7 percent of the C in all estimated pools.

To increase the precision of the inventory estimates, the relatively sparse field plot sample was augmented with G-LiHT data collected in sample strips across the watershed. Initial analyses are described; work is ongoing to integrate the data into inventory estimation. G-LiHT is an airborne imaging system that simultaneously maps the composition, structure, and function of terrestrial ecosystems using LiDAR, imaging spectroscopy, and thermal imaging. G-LiHT provides high-resolution (~ 3.28 ft [~ 1 m]) data that are well suited for studying tree-level ecosystem dynamics, including assessment of forest health and productivity of forest stands and individual trees. In addition, G-LiHT data support local-scale mapping and regional-scale sampling of plant biomass, photosynthesis, and disturbance.

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Introduction¹

The Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program of the U.S. Forest Service monitors the status and trends in the forests of the United States. One key region of the United States that has yet to be inventoried is Alaska's interior boreal forests. Remoteness, a limited road network, and lack of infrastructure have prevented the FIA program from conducting an inventory in the region (Barrett and Gray 2011). In 2014, the Pacific Northwest Research Station's FIA (PNW-FIA) program along with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's (NASA) Goddard Space Flight Center carried out a pilot inventory in the Tanana River Valley of interior Alaska. The inventory occurred on the state of Alaska's Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service's Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). The inventory was a partnership among multiple agencies and organizations including the Alaska Division of Forestry, University of Alaska, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, U.S. Geological Survey, and Oregon State University.

A pilot inventory in interior Alaska is timely because the boreal forests of the region contain an estimated 111 million ac of forested lands or roughly 15 percent of the forested land of the United States (Barrett and Gray 2011). Additionally, this region has seen some of the greatest increases in air temperature in North America (Hinzmann et al. 2013, Wolken et al. 2011). Climate change also appears to be driving increases in the frequency and severity of fires in the region (Kasischke and Turetsky 2006, Turetsky et al. 2011) as well as accelerated rates of permafrost degradation (Jorgenson et al. 2001, 2010). Studies suggest that spruce trees are experiencing declines in growth linked to increasing temperatures and longer growing seasons in some areas (Barber et al. 2000, Beck et al. 2011, Juday et al. 2015) while expanding in others (Roland et al. 2013). The region could be experiencing a biome shift toward ecosystems dominated by deciduous tree species, shrubs, and grasses (Beck et al. 2011, Johnstone et al. 2010). Other research indicates that the Alaska boreal forest represents a broad array of ecosystems that are likely to have unique responses to climate change (Chapin et al. 2010, Jorgenson et al. 2013).

Inventory Design

The Tanana River Valley is drained by the Tanana River (fig. 1). In the southern part of the Tanana River Valley, the river is fed by streams from the Alaska Range, and, in the north, it is fed by streams from the Yukon-Tanana uplands. The valley bottom is typically a wide alluvial floodplain. The valley rises to 2,000 ft in its southern and eastern portions (Hanson 2013). Average summer temperatures in the valley are

The only place in the United States lacking a comprehensive forest inventory is the 111 million acres of boreal forest in interior Alaska, which is 15 percent of all forested land in the nation.

¹ Authors: Robert Pattison, Hans-Erik Andersen, Andrew Gray, and Bethany Schulz.

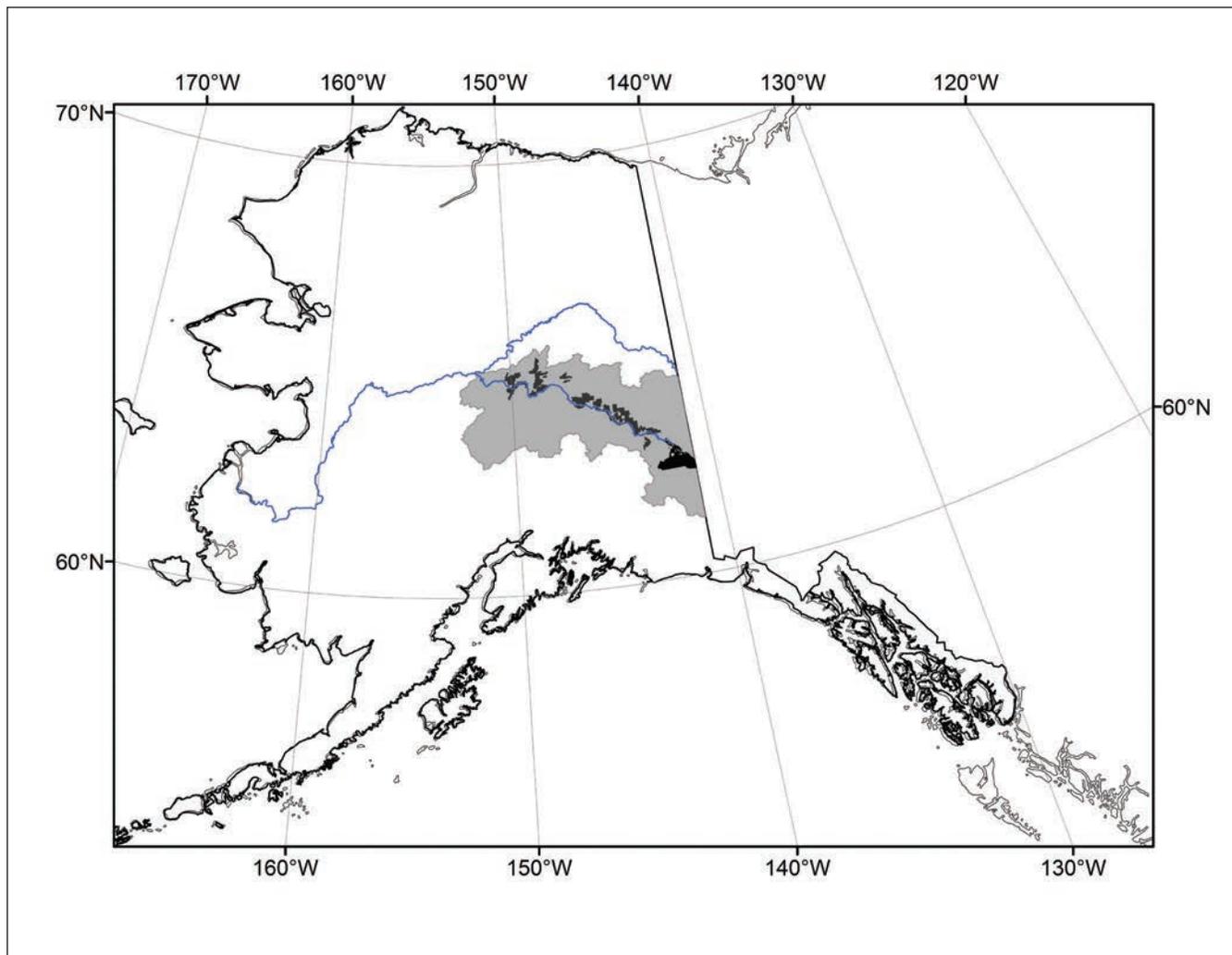


Figure 1—Tanana River basin (in gray) and inventoried lands (in black) within the state of Alaska. The Yukon and Tanana Rivers are shown in blue.

63 °F, and average winter temperatures are -10 °F. The average annual precipitation in the valley is 10.5 inches (Hanson 2013). The TVSF and TNWR land management units are not contiguous, and their positions on the landscape reflect the differences in key management objectives (timber versus wildlife habitat). TVSF lands are most often situated on side hills and active floodplains where productive timber stands occur, with an average elevation of 1,340 ft above sea level (range 250 to 2,900 ft). TNWR, although south of the TVSF, is situated at higher elevations, with an average of 2,200 ft (range 1,770 to 2,860 ft), most commonly on poorly drained lands and lakes within the broad river drainage.

The TVSF covers 1.82 million ac, and the TNWR covers 0.73 million ac. The inventory consisted of a field sample and a remotely sensed sample (fig. 2).

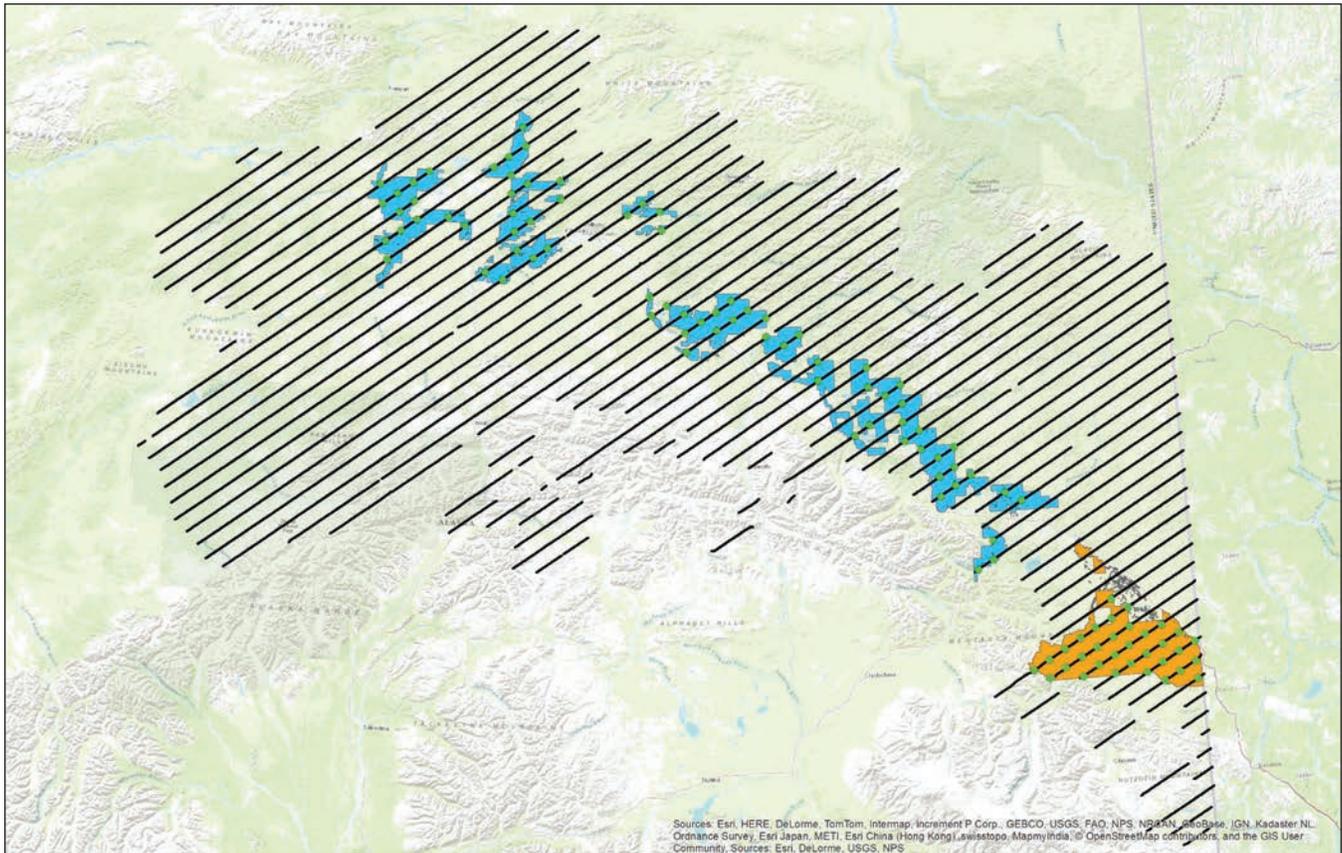


Figure 2—Pilot inventory plot design, showing the approximate location of the plot grid (green dots), the Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal imaging system sample strips, the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (orange), and the Tanana Valley State Forest (blue).

A spatially balanced design was used to identify field sample points across all of interior Alaska following standard FIA procedures with a tessellation of hexagons and one sample plot selected per hexagon (Bechtold and Patterson 2005). The Tanana pilot inventory plot locations were identified at one-fourth the intensity (one plot per 24,000 ac) of the standard FIA sample of one plot per 6,000 ac. A total of 104 plot locations were designated. In most cases, helicopters were required to get crews to the plots to take ground measurements (fig. 3). The remote sensing sample consisted of parallel strips of NASA’s Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal (G-LiHT) imaging system data flown by aircraft; strips were 5.8 mi apart and 800 ft in width and included all preidentified field plot locations in the forested areas of the Tanana basin (mountainous nonforest areas were not flown). Figure 4 shows an example of an output from the G-LiHT data.

Field measurements were taken only at the 98 sample plots where lands qualifying as forest intersected all or part of the FIA plot footprint. Forest land is defined as an area at least 1 ac in size and >120 ft in width that currently has or recently had



Figure 3—Helicopter used to transport field crew to landing zone near a Forest Inventory and Analysis field plot. Mount Denali is in the background.

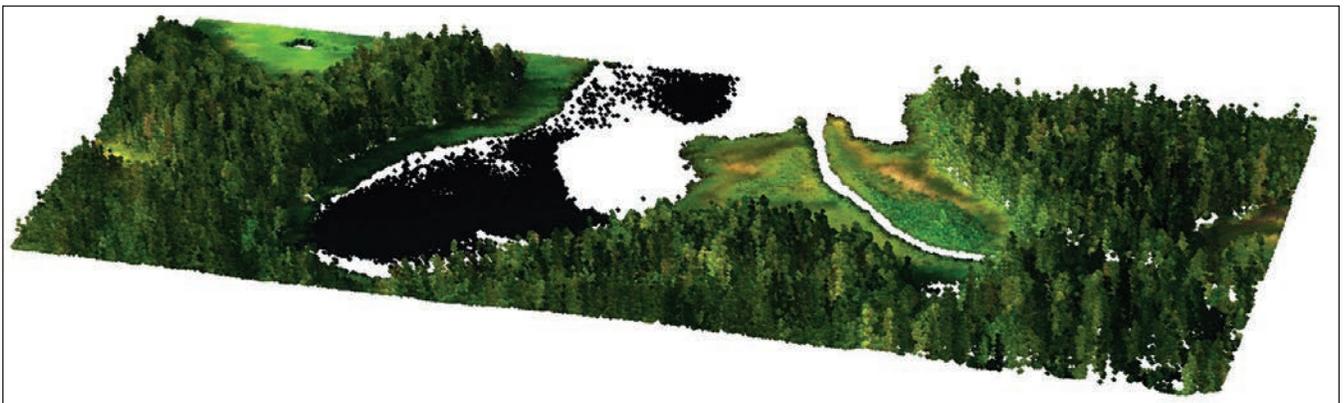


Figure 4—Example of Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal imaging system airborne remote sensing data collected in the Tanana Valley.

at least 10 percent cover of tree species and is not being managed for a nonforest land use that would preclude forest succession. FIA-defined tree species are woody perennial plants that commonly have a single well-defined stem exceeding 15 ft in height at maturity over a substantial portion of their range. Forested plots were measured from June through August 2014.

The nationally standardized “core” FIA plot footprint consists of a cluster of four points, with three points evenly spaced 120 ft from plot center (fig. 5). The core protocols consist of classifying land use, ownership, topography, and forest type on fixed 24-ft-radius subplots around each point; thus an individual plot may sample

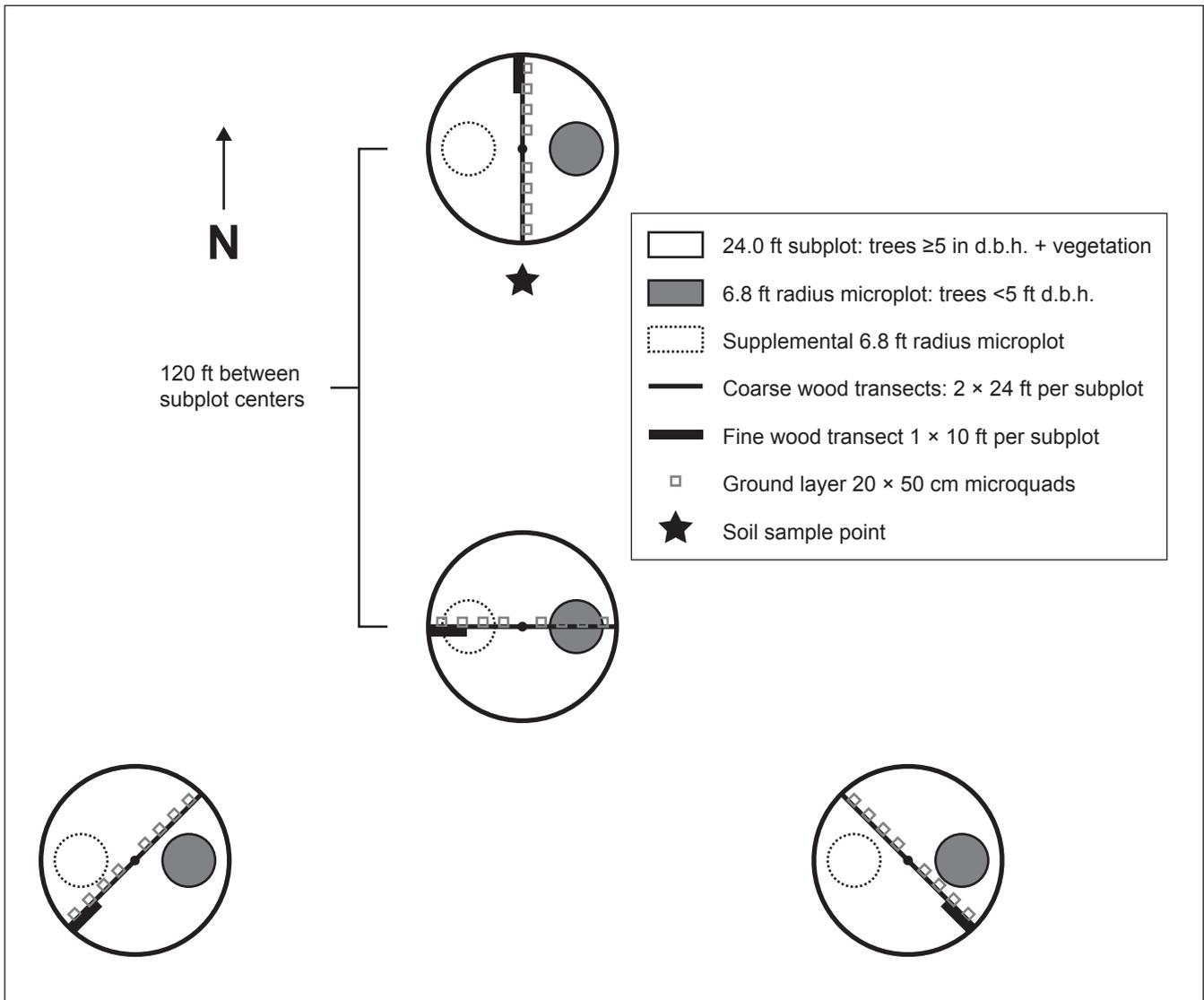


Figure 5—Design of the Forest Inventory and Analysis field plot used in the Tanana pilot study, showing the layout and location of the different measurements within the plot footprint. d.b.h. = diameter at breast height.

Forest Inventory and Analysis



Figure 6—Field crew members measuring tree heights in a recently burned black spruce stand (cones and small branches appear clumped at the tops of the dead trees).

multiple forest or nonforest conditions (Bechtold and Patterson 2005). Trees ≥ 5 inches diameter at breast height (d.b.h.) are measured on each subplot, and trees 1 to 4.9 inches d.b.h. are measured, and seedlings ≥ 1 -ft tall and < 1 inch d.b.h. counted, on 6.8-ft radius microplots offset from each point (fig. 6). Core-optional protocols implemented in the Western States and also in this pilot included measurement of understory vegetation on the subplots and down woody materials (DWM) on

transects crossing each subplot. The PNW-FIA program worked with partners and scientists in the region to identify key variables of interest to understand the current state of these boreal ecosystems. In addition to the core and core-optional FIA field protocols, PNW-FIA incorporated additional field protocols based on responses from and interactions with scientists and stakeholders through a series of workshops. Specific changes to the field protocols included the addition of a second microplot on each FIA subplot (USDA FS 2016) to allow for improved sampling of small-diameter trees such as those found in many lowland black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) Britton, Sterns and Poggenb.) forests common throughout interior Alaska (Van Cleve et al. 1983). Previous work by PNW-FIA in 2007 in interior Alaska identified the need for increased sampling of small-diameter trees (Andersen et al. 2011). As soils in boreal forests can contain up to 85 percent of the total ecosystem carbon (C) (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012, Malhi et al. 1999, Tarnocai et al. 2009), the PNW-FIA program modified the optional “Phase 3” FIA soil protocol (O’Neill et al. 2005) to improve the sampling of boreal forest soils. Ground layer cover of nonvascular plants can be an important component of ecosystem function and structure in boreal ecosystems (Hollingsworth et al. 2008). PNW-FIA implemented a ground layer protocol to improve the sampling of nonvascular ground cover on field plots using methods that had been tested in the region (Smith et al. 2015). Nonforest conditions on plots that were field visited with measured forest land (e.g., meadows next to forest) were also measured to provide information on transition zones and surrounding vegetation. In addition, collaborators with the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service measured a full vascular plant census on subplot 1 and sampled insects on the plots in the TNWR.

Stratification and Analyses

Incorporation of remotely sensed data can improve the ability to provide statistically sound insights with a reduced intensity of field plots for some variables of interest (Andersen et al. 2011, Barrett et al. 2009). Population estimates, means, and variances were calculated using standard procedures for poststratification, using remotely sensed information to improve the accuracy of the plot-based estimates (Cochran 1977, Scott et al. 2005). Because the G-LiHT data were not yet fully processed and available for this initial pilot compilation, we used the Landsat-based National Land Classification Database (NLCD) to develop our stratification (Homer et al. 2007). Poststratification layers are independent of field data and improve the precision of inventory estimates based on the ability of stratification classes to reflect variation in field attributes; when available, the G-LiHT stratification should markedly improve the precision of inventory estimates. NLCD pixels that intersected

the ownership layers for TVSF and TNWR defined the area of the population, and NLCD classes were grouped into strata by ownership and potential forest/nonforest classes. The ratios of the number of pixels within each strata to the known area of sampled lands determined the stratum weights for plots in each class and were used to calculate population means and variances. Ratio estimates (e.g., tons/acre), and their variances were calculated using the ratio of means estimator (Scott et al. 2005).

This initial analysis of the interior pilot data focused on biomass and C attributes and compiled plot data into estimates by landowner (TVSF and TNWR) and forest type. The FIA program defines forest types as “a classification of forest land based upon, and named for, the tree species that forms the plurality of live-tree stocking” (USDA FS 2016). Variance estimates are reported as standard errors (SE) and are shown in the text as \pm SE.

Subsequent inventory implementation—

Since conducting the measurements and initial analyses for this pilot study, FIA was funded by Congress to implement a forest inventory for interior Alaska. In partnership with the Alaska Department of Natural Resources, University of Alaska Fairbanks and Anchorage, and local landowners, field work in the Tanana River basin was initiated in 2016 and is planned for completion in 2018. Based on the results of the pilot, as well as logistical and cost considerations, the following changes were made to procedures as envisioned in the pilot:

- Plot density was reduced to one-fifth the national density from one-fourth as implemented in the pilot (to one plot per 30,000 ac)
- The boundaries of the river-basin inventory units were adjusted to avoid splitting large national parks into separate units sampled many years apart. The Tanana unit was adjusted to encompass Denali National Park (originally in three units), while the Copper-Susitna unit was adjusted to encompass Wrangell-St. Elias National Park (originally in two units).
- The second microplot for measuring seedlings and saplings was dropped. Instead, saplings are being measured in a larger area around the core microplot equal to the area of two microplots (radius 9.6 ft). These trees will be readily distinguishable from the national core.
- Soil cores are being collected at three locations on the plot instead of one to improve the precision of estimates of this large C pool, and greater effort will be made to collect mineral soil to a depth of at least 4 inches whenever possible.

Status of Forest Types and Tree Biomass on the TVSF and the TNWR²

Interior Alaska is experiencing some of the greatest increases in temperature in North America (Stafford et al. 2000). These changes appear to be contributing to increases in the frequency and severity of fires (Kasischke and Turetsky 2006), declines in growth of white spruce (*Picea glauca* Moench Voss) (Beck et al. 2011), changes in hydrology as permafrost degrades (Jorgenson et al. 2013), and greater occurrence of insect outbreaks (Hansen et al. 2016, Sherriff et al. 2011). The changes occurring in the region highlight the importance of providing a baseline assessment of the current status of the forests in the region. Knowledge of the current status of forests in the region is also important to gain insights into the capacity to use forest resources for timber and energy production (Fresco and Chapin 2009).

Methods

The footprint of 98 plots intersected with lands that met the FIA definition of forest (fig. 7). The FIA plots were used to provide estimates of the area of the forest types and the aboveground biomass of live and standing dead trees in the TVSF and the TNWR. Trees ≥ 5 inches d.b.h. were measured on each 24-ft-radius subplot, and trees 1 to 4.9 inches d.b.h. were measured on two 6.8-ft-radius microplots per subplot. Tree measurements included d.b.h., height (and height to broken top), species, crown ratio, crown class, and damages. In addition, seedlings (conifers ≥ 0.5 ft tall or hardwoods ≥ 1 ft tall, and < 1 inch d.b.h.) were counted by species in each microplot. (Smaller trees in many ecosystems are often ephemeral; these size limits are used by FIA nationally to balance field effort with the likelihood of a tree being established and likely to survive in favorable conditions.) The area of each sample size per plot defined the trees-per-acre area expansion for each tree. Aboveground “bone-dry” (oven-dry; 0 percent moisture content) tree biomass was calculated for trees ≥ 1 inch d.b.h. using equations in Manning et al. (1984) for black spruce, white spruce, and quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx.); Singh (1984) for tamarack (*Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch); Alemdag (1984) for Alaska birch (*Betula neoalaskana* Sarg.); and Standish (1983) for balsam poplar (*P. balsamifera* L. var. *angustifolia* (James) S. Watson). A taper model was used to adjust estimates for broken-top snags and snag decay class used to assign decay-reduction factors from Woodall et al. (2011). Merchantable volume of live trees (cubic foot, for trees ≥ 5 inches d.b.h., and international board-foot rule, for conifers ≥ 9 inches d.b.h. and hardwoods ≥ 11 inches d.b.h.) were calculated with equations from Larson and Winterberger (1988).

² Authors: Robert Pattison, Andrew Gray, and Hans-Erik Andersen.



Figure 7—Aerial photo of mosaic of forest and wetlands in the Tanana River Valley.

Results

The majority (89 percent) of the total land area of both inventory units (TVSF and TNWR) was forested (table 1). Twenty percent of the land area in TNWR was nonforest, whereas 3 percent of the land area in TVSF was nonforest.

Black spruce (48 percent) and birch (29 percent) forests were the most common forest types across both inventory units (table 2). On the TVSF, black spruce and birch forests represented 42 and 32 percent of the area, respectively, while on the TNWR they represented 69 and 20 percent of the area, respectively (table 2).

There were 3,861 live trees and 271 standing dead trees measured on the 98 forested plots across the TVSF and TNWR. Six tree species were measured; white spruce had the most aboveground live tree biomass, followed by black spruce and Alaska birch (table 3).

There were an estimated 55.604 (± 5.38) million tons of aboveground live tree biomass on the two inventory units (table 4). The majority (86 percent) of this was found on forests of the TVSF (47.6 ± 5.0 million tons). An estimated 4.3 (± 1.0) million tons of standing dead tree biomass were found on the two inventory units, or 7.7 percent of the live tree biomass. Proportions of dead to live were lowest in the black spruce forest type (2.8 ± 0.6 percent) and substantially higher in the white spruce forest type (11.5 ± 6.1 percent).

Black spruce (48 percent) and birch (29 percent) forests were the most common forest types across both inventory units.

Table 1—Estimated area of land cover categories in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR), derived from the Forest Inventory and Analysis field plot weights^a

| Land type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|-----------------|-----------|--------|---------|--------|-----------|--------|
| <i>Acres</i> | | | | | | |
| Forest | 1,740,617 | 34,026 | 537,052 | 44,517 | 2,277,669 | 56,032 |
| Nonforest | 58,872 | 29,047 | 145,688 | 46,727 | 204,560 | 55,019 |
| Noncensus water | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Census water | 0 | 0 | 52,833 | 28,064 | 52,833 | 28,064 |
| Total area | 1,823,599 | 44,738 | 727,043 | 64,538 | 2,560,642 | 78,528 |

Note: Census water includes bodies of water ≥4.5 ac in size and rivers ≥200 ft wide. SE = standard error.

^a Estimated area is based on the plot sample and may differ from mapped classifications.

Table 2—Estimates of the area of forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------|--------|-----------|---------|
| <i>Acres</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 732,460 | 103,208 | 373,017 | 58,304 | 1,105,478 | 118,537 |
| White spruce | 240,778 | 71,419 | 56,148 | 31,017 | 296,926 | 77,864 |
| Aspen | 82,319 | 46,142 | 0 | 0 | 82,319 | 46,142 |
| Birch | 555,832 | 97,770 | 107,887 | 46,882 | 663,718 | 108,429 |
| Poplar | 94,000 | 48,112 | — | — | 94,000 | 48,112 |
| Nonstocked | 35,227 | 30,491 | — | — | 35,227 | 30,491 |
| Total area | 1,740,617 | 34,026 | 537,052 | 44,517 | 2,277,669 | 56,032 |

Note: Totals may be off because of rounding; data subject to sampling error. SE = standard error. — = estimated at less than 500 ac.

Table 3—Estimated aboveground live tree biomass by species in the Tanana study area, showing totals and per-acre means

| Species | Total | SE | Mean | SE |
|---------------|----------------------------|-------|----------------------------|------|
| | <i>---Thousand tons---</i> | | <i>---Tons per acre---</i> | |
| Tamarack | 13 | 10 | 0.01 | 0 |
| White spruce | 18,350 | 4,444 | 8.06 | 1.95 |
| Black spruce | 16,897 | 2,500 | 7.42 | 1.09 |
| Alaska birch | 16,605 | 3,669 | 7.29 | 1.61 |
| Quaking aspen | 1,764 | 1,419 | 0.77 | 0.62 |
| Balsam poplar | 1,974 | 999 | 0.87 | 0.44 |
| All species | 55,604 | 5,378 | 24.4 | 2.3 |

SE = standard error.

Table 4—Estimates of total aboveground tree biomass (thousands of tons) for live and standing dead trees in forests on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|----------------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | | |
| Live trees: | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 13,891 | 2,652 | 3,279 | 1,136 | 17,170 | 2,885 |
| White spruce | 11,752 | 4,433 | 2,592 | 1,486 | 14,344 | 4,676 |
| Aspen | 1,811 | 1,822 | — | — | 1,811 | 1,822 |
| Birch | 18,009 | 4,403 | 2,139 | 1,339 | 20,148 | 4,602 |
| Poplar | 2,132 | 1,097 | — | — | 2,132 | 1,097 |
| Nonstocked | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| Total live | 47,594 | 5,009 | 8,010 | 1,957 | 55,604 | 5,378 |
| Standing dead trees: | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 367 | 99 | 115 | 42 | 481 | 107 |
| White spruce | 1,559 | 867 | 95 | 78 | 1,654 | 871 |
| Aspen | 188 | 174 | — | — | 188 | 174 |
| Birch | 1,350 | 358 | 41 | 32 | 1,391 | 359 |
| Poplar | 331 | 287 | — | — | 331 | 287 |
| Nonstocked | 256 | 222 | — | — | 256 | 222 |
| Total dead | 4,052 | 948 | 251 | 90 | 4,303 | 952 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

The forests of the TVSF had higher live tree biomass per acre (27.3 ± 2.8 tons per acre) than those of the TNWR (14.9 ± 3.7), primarily owing to the greater proportions of white spruce forest area on TVSF (fig. 8). On both the TVSF and the TNWR, the greatest tree biomass per acre occurred in white spruce forest types, and the lowest occurred in black spruce forests. White spruce forests had similar biomass per acre for both the TVSF (48.8 ± 11.6 tons per acre) and the TNWR (46.2 ± 4.8 tons per acre), whereas black spruce forests on the TVSF had twice the biomass per acre as TNWR. Nonstocked forest was found on one recently disturbed plot and had the highest standing dead tree biomass per acre (7.3 ± 0 tons per acre). Black spruce forests had the lowest standing dead tree biomass per acre (0.4 ± 0.1 tons per acre).

Similar to the biomass results, merchantable net volume of live trees was substantially higher on TVSF than on TNWR (table 5). Merchantable volumes per acre were much higher in white spruce forests than the other forest types, and were lowest in black spruce for cubic-foot volume. Although cubic-foot volume of black spruce was lower on TNWR than TVSF, the reverse was true for board-foot volume, reflecting a greater density of large trees on that forest type in TNWR than in

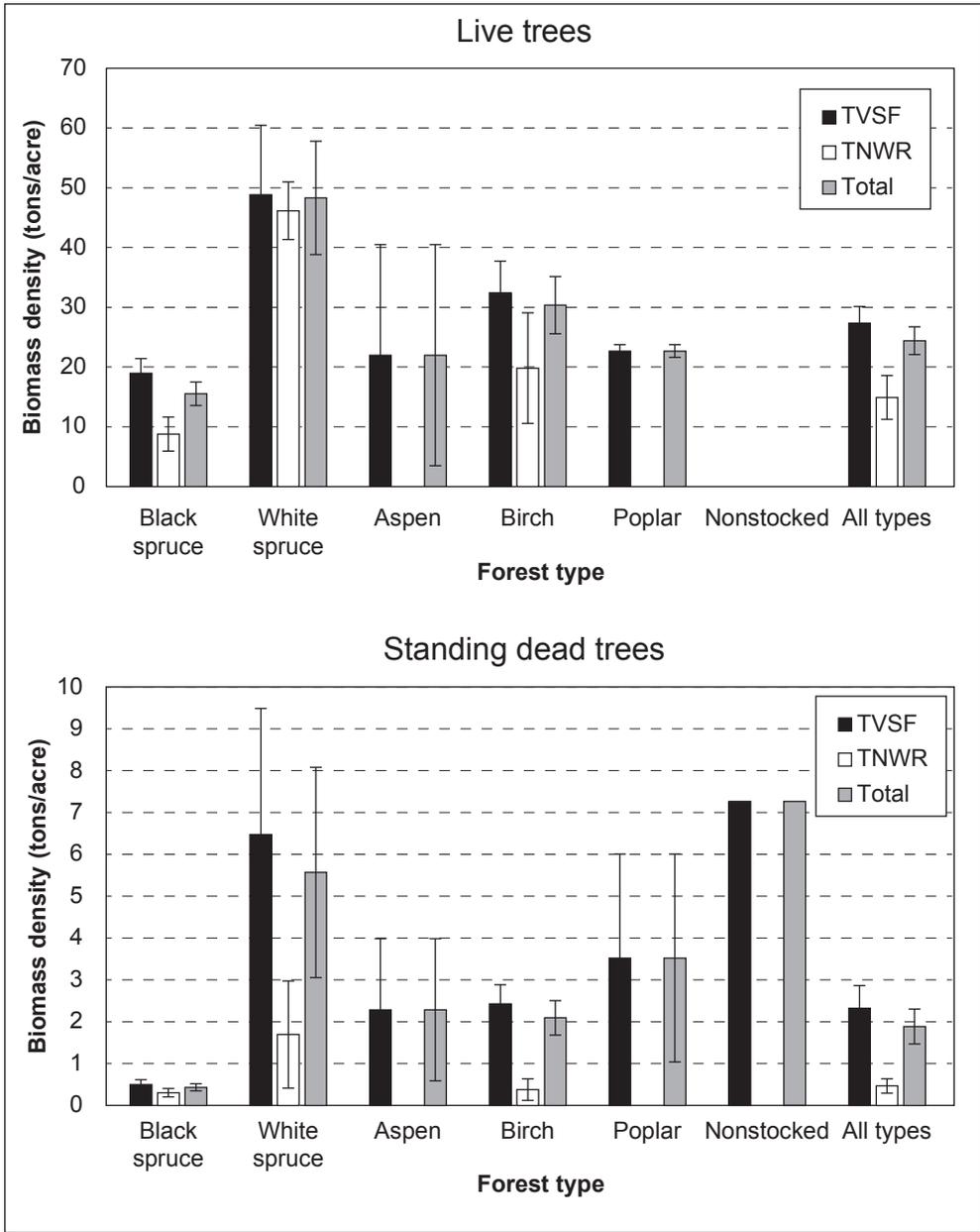


Figure 8—Estimates of aboveground live and standing dead tree biomass per acre (tons per acre) in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).

Table 5—Estimates of live tree merchantable net volume (cubic and board foot) in forests on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-----|-------|-------|
| <i>Cubic feet per acre</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 183 | 40 | 115 | 61 | 160 | 34 |
| White spruce | 1,988 | 518 | 1,616 | 277 | 1,918 | 424 |
| Aspen | 955 | 845 | — | — | 955 | 845 |
| Birch | 984 | 213 | 146 | 97 | 848 | 188 |
| Poplar | 591 | 68 | — | — | 591 | 68 |
| All forest types | 743 | 127 | 279 | 105 | 634 | 101 |
| <i>Board feet per acre (international rule)</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 148 | 72 | 352 | 332 | 217 | 122 |
| White spruce | 6,950 | 2,215 | 5,831 | 967 | 6,738 | 1,805 |
| Aspen | 198 | 176 | — | — | 198 | 176 |
| Birch | 2,007 | 698 | 178 | 191 | 1,709 | 599 |
| Poplar | 1,011 | 442 | — | — | 1,011 | 442 |
| All forest types | 1,728 | 459 | 890 | 435 | 1,531 | 366 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

TVSF. Hanson (2013) estimated 963 ft³/ac and 1,885 board feet per acre net volume on state lands in the Tanana Valley, of which 63 percent was TVSF. The lower volume estimates from the FIA inventory may be due to the different land base, or to using different equations in our current compilation system. Older FIA documentation had some of the same equations Hanson (2013) identified for interior Alaska, which we will evaluate before completing the basinwide inventory.

Discussion

There was almost twice the tree biomass per acre on forests of the TVSF as on the TNWR forests. Within the TNWR, white spruce forests had more than five times the biomass per acre as black spruce forests (table 4). These results highlight the variability in forests within the region. Forest composition and structure in interior Alaska are strongly determined by physiographic characteristics that influence solar radiation, and soil temperature and moisture (Viereck et al. 1983). Sites with colder soils (e.g., lowlands and north-facing slopes) are commonly dominated by black spruce forests with lower tree biomass, whereas sites with warmer soils (e.g., south-facing uplands) are often dominated by white spruce or deciduous forests (Viereck et al. 1983). The TVSF is characterized primarily by sites supporting more productive forests that are important for their timber resources (Hanson 2013). The TNWR is

There was almost twice the tree biomass per acre on forests of the TVSF as on the TNWR forests.

primarily composed of less productive lowland forests, as indicated by aboveground live tree biomass per acre in black spruce forests at half the amounts found in TVSF. However, areas of more productive forests occur within the TNWR as evidenced by the presence of white spruce forests with high tree biomass per acre (fig. 9). Although black spruce forests had relatively low tree biomass per acre, the collective acreage of these forests highlights their importance to total tree biomass in the region.

Although the values for tree biomass per acre within forest types were generally consistent with the values found in Viereck et al. (1983) (table 6), the values for birch forests in this study were lower. One potential reason for the discrepancy might be that the FIA field sample was a probabilistic sample, whereas Viereck et al. (1983) subjectively sampled forests, which may have resulted in a sample of more productive forests present in the primary study area that was being used.

The FIA forest type classification is a simple grouping based on dominant species and obscures the reality that many forests have multiple dominant tree species, and that many with the same species are significantly different in stature, function, and composition of other species. This topic is explored in more detail later in this report. With additional work and some subjective assessment, it might be possible to group plots to level IV or V classes of Viereck et al. (1992) or other classifications that users might find useful.



Forest Inventory and Analysis

Figure 9—Dense ground layer of forage lichens and mosses in patchy mosaic of a mixed black and white spruce forest.

Table 6—Tree biomass for different forest types near Fairbanks, Alaska

| Forest type | Number of stands | Range | | Mean | SE |
|--------------|------------------|----------------------|--------|-------|-------|
| | | <i>Tons per acre</i> | | | |
| Black spruce | 4 | 7.07 | 49.00 | 22.72 | 9.40 |
| White spruce | 4 | 27.44 | 109.64 | 77.81 | 19.09 |
| Aspen | 2 | 20.76 | 78.02 | 49.39 | 28.63 |
| Birch | 3 | 41.00 | 65.63 | 49.77 | 7.95 |
| Poplar | 3 | 18.14 | 80.42 | 53.96 | 18.58 |

SE = standard error.

Source: Viereck et al. 1983.

Although this study represents a preliminary estimate for a subset of the landscape, it demonstrates the variation present in forest composition and density and the effect that can have on landscape- and regional-level estimates of live and dead tree biomass. We expect the mean biomass densities for forest land to change as we complete the Tanana River basin and move on to other areas of interior Alaska. Live tree growth is being estimated from increment cores and will be reported in future publications. Mortality rates will be difficult to estimate with much precision until these plots are up for remeasurement, hopefully in 10 to 12 years.

Characterizing Forest Vegetation of the Tanana Valley³

Introduction

Knowledge of the existing distribution and abundance of plant species and how they are organized into plant community types is important for monitoring the successional changes of natural ecosystems in response to both discrete and chronic disturbances. Many recent studies in Alaska have documented large-scale changes in vegetation cover linked to changes in climatic conditions. Shrubs are expanding into both arctic (e.g., Berner et al. 2015, Tape et al. 2006) and alpine tundra (Dial et al. 2007, 2016), hardwoods replace spruce in some areas (Johnstone et al. 2010), and white spruce forests are expanding in others (Roland et al. 2013). Our understanding of successional pathways is evolving as increasing fire frequency and permafrost degradation re-order community structure (Johnstone et al. 2008, Jorgenson et al. 2013). At the same time, new pest outbreaks are being observed that could further influence shifts in vegetation composition (Nossov et al. 2011, USDA FS 2015). These changes can affect biomass accumulation and

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greenhouse gas emissions (Rupp 2011), which are commonly used to assess rates of climate change. In the past, national assessments of greenhouse gas emissions have excluded most of Alaska outside of southeast coastal forests owing to lack of data and the minimal amount of managed forested lands, and the long-held idea that the boreal region was a C sink.

Forest vegetation in interior Alaska is less species-rich in vascular plants than in other biomes, with a limited number of overstory tree species and fewer FIA forest types. However, plant species organize into many unique assemblages, depending on site characteristics. Characterizing forest plant communities beyond forest types determined by tree stocking can sharpen our focus/understanding of the consequences of the changes we may detect in future measurements, potentially influenced by changes in climate and disturbance regimes.

Vegetation data collected on the ground are relatively scarce in Alaska and are usually collected within a limited spatial extent owing to the logistical challenges of travel in interior Alaska. For example, sampling strategies are often limited to a land management unit (Roland et al. 2013) or along the limited road system (Hollingsworth et al. 2006, Malone et al. 2009). The FIA 2014 pilot project in interior Alaska provides a systematic sample of 71 plots within the TVSF and 27 plots on the TNWR. This relatively small sample size allows us to begin to explore the current structure and species distributions. Given rapid changes occurring and expected to occur in interior Alaska, documenting vegetation conditions now is essential for monitoring vegetation change over time. Using data generated from FIA's Vegetation Profile (VEG profile) protocol along with standard inventory data, the vegetation in the different forest communities sampled are characterized.

Methods

Standard national FIA core data elements, as described in the introduction, were collected on 98 plots and distributed systematically across the TVSF and the TNWR in interior Alaska. In addition, the FIA Core-Optional VEG Profile level of detail 3 protocol was implemented on all plots (USDA FS 2014c). Both forest and nonforest conditions were sampled if accessible. Data were collected on each subplot.

Structure was measured as canopy cover of growth habits by height layer (see the tabulation below). Growth habits include graminoids (grass-like plants), forbs, shrubs, tally species trees, and nontally tree species. Tally tree species are those that are tracked and measured with core FIA tree measurements. The tally list is short

for Alaska, and only six species are found in interior Alaska: black spruce, white spruce, Alaska birch, balsam poplar, trembling aspen, and tamarack. Other species encountered as trees are recorded as nontally trees.

| Layer number | Range |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 | Ground level (0 to 2 ft) |
| 2 | Greater than 2 to 6 ft |
| 3 | Greater than 6 to 16 ft |
| 4 | Greater than 16 ft |

Species information was collected for the four most abundant vascular plant species per growth habit, if the species was present with at least 3 percent canopy cover on a subplot. Abundance was recorded as a percentage of the area of a subplot with canopy cover. The growth habits for species data are as described for structure, except for trees, which are recorded as small trees (distinct main stem but less than 5 inches d.b.h.) or large trees (at least 5 inches d.b.h.), regardless of tally tree status. These data were summarized by averaging subplot cover measurements by plot (and condition for those plots with more than one condition class), and determining the percentage of plots where species were recorded for various domains. Estimates of forest structure and species cover were produced following standard FIA compilations (Bechtold and Patterson 2005).

In addition, a full census of all vascular plants on subplot 1 was implemented on the plots within the TNWR by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (which also conducted insect surveys). Here, all species were recorded with an ocular estimate of percentage canopy cover, with no minimum cover limitation.

Results and Discussion

Standard FIA forest types are based on the existing tree species stocking. Forest type is one of several variables that define a forested “condition;” other biologically defined variables include stand size class and tree density. Although the official definition refers to the “plurality” of tree species, all FIA forest types in Alaska refer to one tree species only. Because plot centers are systematically selected, there are many plots where several conditions or forest types occur on a single plot. For the interior Alaska pilot, nonforest conditions on forested plots were included in measurements; 15 of 26 subplots with nonforest conditions have VEG Profile data.

Of the 98 sampled plots, 73 were intact (fully forested in a single condition), 11 were fully forested but with multiple conditions, and 14 plots included some nonforest land cover class (table 1). The black spruce forest type was the most common, with 38 intact plots, and occurred on 7 plots with multiple conditions and 8 plots with some nonforest conditions. Alaska birch was the second most common with 20

intact plots; white spruce was third with 8 intact plots. All the nonforest land cover classes sampled were natural vegetation types, with shrubland being most common. Full descriptions of forested conditions sampled and distribution between the two land managers are included in table 7.

Structure—

Average cover by growth habit and layer varied by forest type and land manager (fig. 10). Note that all aspen and balsam poplar stands are within the TVSF, and that the white spruce forests on TNWR are represented by mixed-condition plots and some plots with nonforest conditions. Tree cover in black spruce stands on TVSF was greatest in layer 3, while tree cover in TNWR was greatest in layer 2. White spruce stands had similar profiles for both management areas, but with grass and forbs providing more cover in TVSF. The tally tree species cover tends to be highest in birch and balsam poplar stands. Aspen and balsam poplar stands occurred only in TVSF. Balsam poplar had the highest average cover of tally trees in layer 4 of all forest types, but these estimates are based on very small sample sizes. Nontally tree cover was minimal and is not shown to simplify the figures.

Shrubs were common in all types but varied by height. Low shrubs in layer 1 dominate in most forest types, with average canopy cover from greater than 25 to over 40 percent. In some stands, these low shrubs provide continuous ground fuels that play an important role in fire behavior. Tall shrubs (layers 3 and 4) are prominent in birch, white spruce, and balsam poplar forest stands. Tall shrubs often provide browse for wildlife species and contribute more to total biomass than other components of understory vegetation. Grass can compete with trees in regeneration harvest units; it was present in all types, with the highest values found in birch forest types on TVSF. Forbs were most abundant in balsam poplar stands.

Vascular plant species—

Two methods were used to collect species records: (1) the core FIA VEG Profile and (2) a full census on subplot 1 conducted by TNWR. In total, 79 genera, 145 species, 11 subspecies, and seven varieties were recorded; 47 genera, 94 species, and 7 subspecies were recorded with the VEG Profile; and 68 genera, 115 species, 10 subspecies, and 7 varieties from the full census. There were 32 genera, 45 species, 3 subspecies, and 7 varieties recorded unique to the full census. Over the same TNWR plots where the full census was conducted, only 34 genera, 54 species, and 6 subspecies were recorded over the 105 subplots with the VEG Profile method. Scientific and common names, recorded growth habits, wetland indicator status, and with constancy (percentage of plots where recorded) by owner and survey method are shown in appendix 1. Note that the genus *Carex* is represented

Tall shrubs (layers 3 and 4) are prominent in birch, white spruce, and balsam poplar forest stands.

Table 7—Number of plots by forested condition and percentage of plots with records of large (LT) and small (SD) trees by species

| Condition and forest type description | Plot count | | Tree species | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|------|--------------|--------------|-----|--------------|-----|--------------|-----|---------------|----|---------------|-----|----------|----|
| | Total | TVSF | TNWR | Black spruce | | Alaska birch | | White spruce | | Quaking aspen | | Balsam poplar | | Tamarack | |
| | | LT | SD | LT | SD | LT | SD | LT | SD | LT | SD | LT | SD | LT | SD |
| Single condition: | -----Number----- | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 38 | 25 | 13 | 47 | 100 | 21 | 50 | 21 | 0 | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| Alaska birch | 20 | 17 | 3 | 20 | 45 | 80 | 90 | 55 | 60 | 5 | 25 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 0 |
| White spruce | 8 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 75 | 50 | 100 | 88 | 25 | 25 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Aspen | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 33 | 67 | 67 | 67 | 67 | 67 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Balsam poplar | 3 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 67 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| Nonstocked | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Multiple condition: | -----Percentage of plots where recorded----- | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Black spruce/Alaska birch | 4 | 4 | 0 | 75 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 50 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Black spruce/multiage | 3 | 0 | 3 | 33 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 67 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White spruce/multiage | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Alaska birch/multiage | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White spruce/Alaska birch | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Some nonforest: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Black spruce/shrubland | 3 | 2 | 1 | 33 | 100 | 0 | 33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 33 |
| Black spruce/mixed vegetation | 2 | 1 | 1 | 50 | 100 | 50 | 0 | 50 | 100 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White spruce/shrubland | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 50 | 100 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Black spruce/shrubland/mixed vegetation | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Black spruce/nonvascular | 1 | 0 | 1 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White spruce/mixed vegetation | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Alaska birch/shrubland | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Alaska birch/nonvascular | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Alaska birch/mixed vegetation | 1 | 1 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 100 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| White spruce/nonvascular | 1 | 0 | 1 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

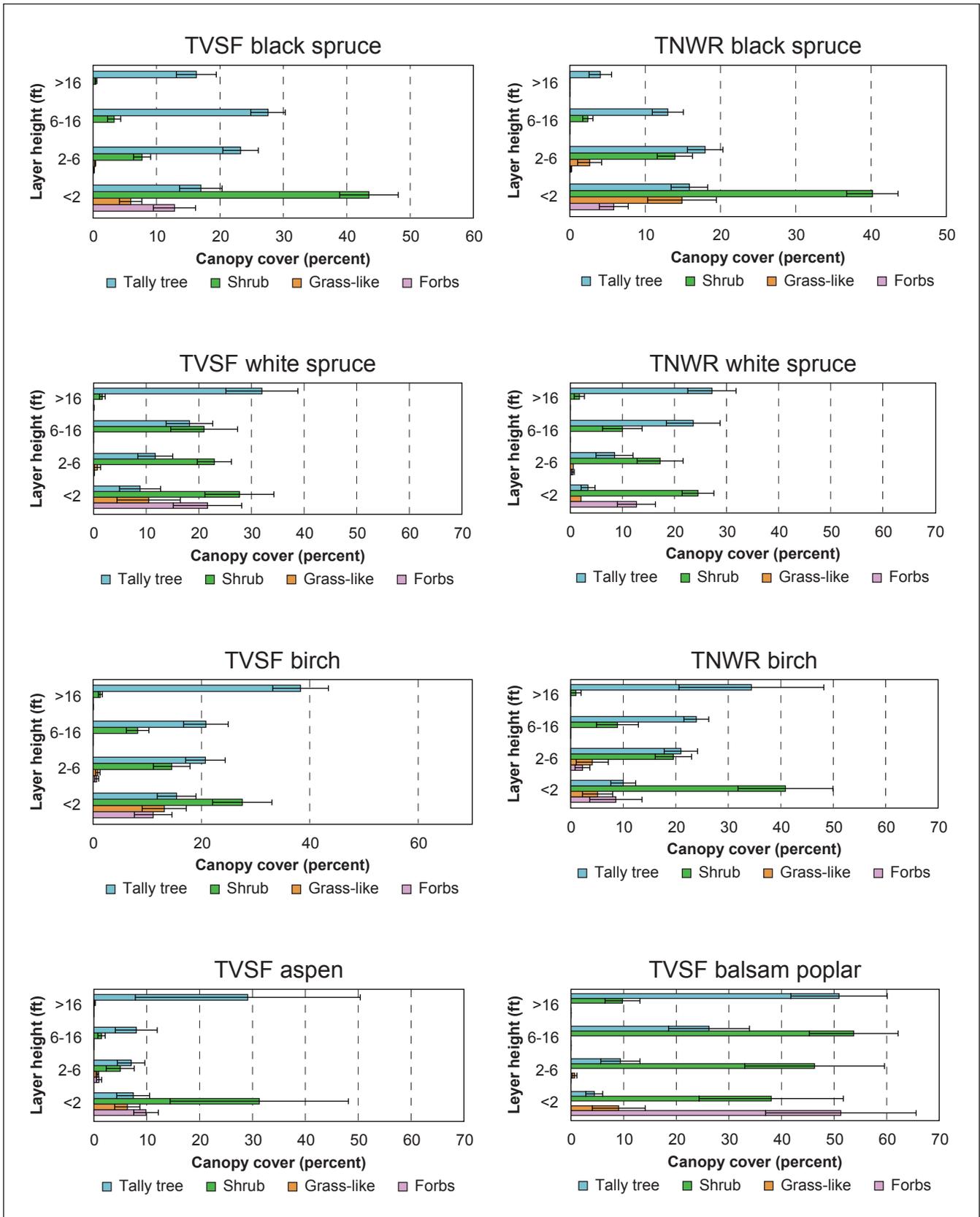


Figure 10—Average cover by growth habit by layer for five predominant forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).

by 20 species. There are also 17 species of *Salix* (8 of which can attain small tree size), and 6 species of *Equisetum*. No introduced or invasive species were recorded in either effort. There is one record of the common dandelion (*Taraxacum officinale* ssp. *ceratophorum* (Ledeb.) Schinz ex Thell.), but this subspecies is native to Alaska.

Combining both methods of species surveys, in total 26 obligate wetland species (those species almost always occurring in wetlands) were recorded on 20 plots. Fourteen obligate wetland species were recorded on 11 plots using the Veg Profile method, and another 12 obligate species were recorded using the full census method plots. On TVSF, five plots had obligate wetland species; three were single-condition black spruce, one was black spruce with shrubland, and another was black spruce with shrubland and mixed vegetation. On TNWR, 12 plots were single-condition black spruce, 1 was black spruce with nonvascular vegetation, and 2 were white spruce—one with shrublands and another with nonvascular vegetation. Finding obligate wetland species within black spruce vegetation types is not unusual, considering that black spruce can be found in a variety of landscape positions. Wetland species occurring within a white spruce forest type is a bit unusual, as it is generally understood that white spruce is found on drier, more productive sites. This could indicate the presence of thermokarst formation—areas where ice wedges have melted out, often producing small ponds of standing water surrounded by slightly elevated lands now draining and drying out (Jorgenson et al. 2001). As we continue work in interior Alaska, it would be beneficial to note potential signs of thermokarst formation.

Most abundant species—

Tree and shrub species dominated the most commonly recorded abundant species for each forest type using the core FIA VEG Profile (table 8), and most forest types had several top species in common. The hardwood types with only a few sample plots had a few unique species that are included in table 8, but most species are ubiquitous across most forest types. The most abundant species plus any fruit-bearing species by land manager are shown in tables 9 and 10.

Tree species distributions are displayed by size across forest conditions in table 1. The VEG Profile data allow for a different perspective of regeneration than the sapling and seeding counts on microplots; abundance is recorded as canopy cover over the entire subplot area. Large trees were 5 inches or greater in diameter, and small trees were less than 5 inches in diameter (USDA FS 2014b). Black spruce and birch forest types are tied for number of other tree species found on single-condition plots, but white spruce and birch trees are found on more forest types and condition combinations than black spruce trees (table 7). Fifty percent of black

Table 8—Most common abundant species and percentage of plots where recorded overall and by forest type

| Species common name | Forest type | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | All plots (n = 98) | Black spruce (n = 38) | Alaska birch (n = 20) | White spruce (n = 8) | Balsam poplar (n = 3) | Aspen (n = 3) | Other (n = 25) |
| | <i>Percentage of plots where recorded</i> | | | | | | |
| Lingonberry | 72 ¹ | 84 ³ | 65 ⁴ | 38 | 0 | 33 | 88 |
| Black spruce | 68 ² | 100 ¹ | 45 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 76 |
| Alaska birch | 67 ³ | 53 ⁴ | 100 ¹ | 88 ² | 0 | 67 ² | 68 |
| Bog Labrador tea | 62 ⁴ | 87 ² | 55 ⁵ | 0 | 0 | 33 | 64 |
| White spruce | 58 ⁵ | 34 | 70 ³ | 100 ¹ | 67 ² | 67 ² | 72 |
| Green alder | 53 ⁶ | 40 | 75 ² | 63 ³ | 0 | 67 ² | 60 |
| Bog blueberry | 38 ⁷ | 53 ⁴ | 25 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 44 |
| Prickly rose | 36 ⁸ | 8 | 70 ³ | 88 ² | 67 ² | 33 | 32 |
| Bluejoint | 28 ⁹ | 13 | 40 | 38 | 67 ² | 67 ² | 28 |
| Dwarf birch | 24 ¹⁰ | 42 ⁵ | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 24 |
| Field horsetail | 16 | 11 | 20 | 63 ³ | 67 ² | 33 | 16 |
| Quaking aspen | 16 | 11 | 30 | 25 | 0 | 100 ¹ | 4 |
| Fireweed | 12 | 3 | 25 | 13 | 33 | 67 ² | 8 |
| Thinleaf alder | 8 | 0 | 5 | 38 | 100 ¹ | 0 | 4 |
| Balsam poplar | 6 | 0 | 5 | 13 | 100 ¹ | 0 | 4 |
| Redosier dogwood | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 67 ² | 0 | 0 |

Note: Superscripts indicate the rank of the five most common species within each forest type; n = number of plots.

spruce plots had small Alaska birch trees present with at least 3 percent cover. Co-occurrence of spruce and birch on many plots reflects how FIA forest types do not identify mixed stands.

Nontally tree species were recorded as either large or small trees on seven plots and included green alder (*Alnus viridis* (Chaix) DC.), Bebb willow (*Salix bebbiana* Sarg.), and Scouler’s willow (*S. scouleriana* Barratt ex Hook.). The seven plots included three white spruce, three birch, and one black spruce forest type.

Other alder and willow species were commonly recorded as shrubs and provided cover in the mid layers of most other conditions sampled. An alder species was recorded on 58 of 98 plots, and on 30 of those plots, the average subplot cover was greater than 15 percent. Green alder was the most commonly recorded species. Alder species are important pioneer species on many sites. They provide nitrogen fixation via symbiotic bacterial nodules, and litter production leads to higher C incorporation into soil, producing sites suitable for other plant species. Soils beneath alders are known to be higher in C and nitrogen than adjacent spruce or mixed-forest stands (Mitchell 1968). Thin-leaf alder *Alnus incana* (L.)

Table 9—Most commonly recorded species, plus fruit-bearing species in Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF), with constancy and average cover where present

| Common name | Constancy | Average cover | SE |
|------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----|
| | | <i>Percent</i> | |
| Alaska birch | 69 | 22 | 3.1 |
| Lingonberry | 67.6 | 13 | 2.2 |
| White spruce | 63.4 | 17 | 2.8 |
| Black spruce | 59.2 | 39 | 3.5 |
| Bog Labrador tea | 57.7 | 21 | 3.5 |
| Prickly rose | 42.3 | 15 | 3.8 |
| Bluejoint reed grass | 35.2 | 16 | 3.7 |
| Mountain alder | 26.8 | 12 | 2.4 |
| Bog blueberry | 25.4 | 10 | 2.4 |
| Field horsetail | 23.9 | 27 | 6.6 |
| Cloudberry | 14.1 | 4 | 1.2 |
| High bush cranberry | 12.7 | 11 | 6.4 |
| Black crowberry | 11.3 | 6 | 1.6 |
| American red raspberry | 4.2 | 2 | 0.4 |
| Red currant | 2.8 | 2 | 0.5 |

SE = standard error.

Table 10—Most commonly recorded species, plus fruit-bearing species in Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR), with constancy and average cover where present

| Common name | Constancy | Average cover | SE |
|------------------|-----------|----------------|-----|
| | | <i>Percent</i> | |
| Black spruce | 92.6 | 24 | 3 |
| Lingonberry | 85.2 | 8 | 1.1 |
| Bog Labrador tea | 77.8 | 24 | 3.4 |
| Bog blueberry | 70.4 | 8 | 1.3 |
| Alaska birch | 63 | 19 | 6.7 |
| Grayleaf willow | 51.9 | 4 | 0.9 |
| Dwarf birch | 44.4 | 11 | 2.5 |
| White spruce | 44.4 | 15 | 5.1 |
| Mountain alder | 40.7 | 16 | 4.3 |
| Black crowberry | 33.3 | 8 | 2.2 |
| Prickly rose | 22.2 | 4 | 2.1 |
| Cloudberry | 7.4 | 2 | 0.8 |

SE = standard error.

Moench ssp. *tenuifolia* (Nutt.) Breitung has been subject to die-back in recent years, especially in dense stands that form along riverbanks (Nossov et al. 2011, USDA FS 2015).

There were 54 plots with one to three species of willow, and 32 plots with one of the seven willow species that may be encountered either as shrubs or trees (app. 1) (USDA NRCS 2015, Viereck and Little 2007). Grayleaf willow was recorded most often. Willows are important browse species, with feltleaf (*Salix alaxensis* (Anderson) Coville, Bebb (*S. bebbiana* Sarg.), and grayleaf all being important for moose browse. Bebb willow is the most common species forming “diamond willow:” stems with diamond-shaped patterns along their trunks that can be carved into walking sticks or furniture (fig. 11). Formations are formed by several species of fungi that attack branches at the junction with the main stem (Viereck and Little 2007)

Tall alder and willow shrubs represent an underaccounted source of biomass; allometric equations based on cover and height alone do not exist. Although common in lands classified as forests, they also cover vast landscapes as the tall shrub vegetation cover. Tall shrubland cover type represent a measureable portion of the landscape: 6 percent of interior/Cook inlet—19,065,193 ac (tall shrub) and an additional 316,209 ac (low or tall shrub) (Boggs et al. 2014).

Common low shrubs include the important berry species valued as traditional food sources, lingonberry, (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.), and bog blueberry, (*V. uliginosum* L.) (Hupp et al. 2015) as well as species that create continuous fuels for wildfire such as bog Labrador tea (*Ledum groenlandicum* Nutt.) and dwarf birch, (*Betula nana* L.) (fig. 12). Bog Labrador tea and lingonberry make up the majority of shrub cover in layer 1 in black spruce forest types (mean canopy cover 21.4 (SE 3.0) and 10.8 (SE 2.1), respectively). Prickly rose (*Rosa acicularis* Lindl.) produce rose hips, important for human use and forage for bird species (Viereck and Little 2007).



Matthew O'Driscoll

Figure 11—Carved Bebb’s willow stems displaying “diamond willow” scar formations.

Common low shrubs include the important berry species valued as traditional food sources, lingonberry, (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.), and bog blueberry.



Figure 12—Detail of vegetation on a boreal forest floor showing forage lichen and lingonberry.

Only a few herbaceous species appear in tables 8 through 10; bluejoint grass (*Calamagrostis canadensis* (Michx.) P. Beauv.) and field horsetail (*Equisetum arvense* L.). Both can indicate rich, wet soils. Although many forb and grass species were recorded (65 forb species and 34 grass-like species), they may be more commonly present with percentage canopy cover lower than 3 percent.

Overall, TVSF is more diverse, with a wider range of elevations, forest types, and lower constancies for most common species recorded. Although berry species may be more dispersed on TVSF, one might find bigger patches there. If you are looking for new berry picking spots, you may have better success on the TNWR.

Crosswalk to the Alaska Vegetation Classification—

The Alaska Vegetation Classification (Viereck et al. 1992) is widely referenced by land managers and resource specialists and is often used to interpret vegetation mapping efforts in Alaska (Boggs et al. 2001, 2014; Cella et al. 2008). This classification is broadly hierarchical. Level I describes the major vegetation cover: forest, scrub, and herbaceous. At Level II, forests are defined as needle-leaved, broadleaved, and mixed. Needle-leaved and broadleaved designations indicate that conifer or deciduous tree species make up 75 percent or more of the tree cover. In mixed forests, there is no clear dominance of either needle-leaved or broadleaved species. Level III is defined by canopy closure; closed forests have canopy cover of 60 percent or more, open forests have between 25 and 60 percent canopy closure, and woodlands have less than 25, but at least 10 percent cover. Scrub vegetation classes (dominated by shrubs) include dwarf tree scrub, tall scrub, low scrub, and dwarf scrub. The dwarf tree scrub class is defined as vegetation having 10 percent or more cover of a tree species that will not exceed the height of 10 ft at maturity, and tall scrub is vegetation at least 5 ft tall, with 25 percent or more cover in tall shrubs. Herbaceous vegetation types are dominated by nonwoody vegetation and are divided into graminoid, forbs, bryoid (mosses and lichens), and aquatic vegetation. These are further divided by moisture classes; dry, mesic, and wet. Level IV of the Alaska Vegetation Classification begins to specify the dominant vegetation species, which can be difficult to distinguish from remotely sensed data over large geographic areas.

Using VEG Profile data together with tree data collected, each subplot or condition can be classified to at least Level III, and often beyond. I examined the Veg Profile subplot species records and classified each to Level III of the Alaska Vegetation Classification, often referring to Veg Profile Structure, Plot, Condition and Tree data to verify or adjust the Level III class. For each subplot or condition assessed, the FIA forest type assigned was noted. Hardwood stands less than 20 years old and conifer stands less than 30 years old were not included to avoid misplacement into Level I scrub types (10 complete and 2 partial plots). Table 11 demonstrates the wide variety of structure and composition that each of the five FIA forest types can represent, with both the FIA black spruce and birch forest types each keying out to nine different Alaska Vegetation Classification Level III classes. Summarizing the results of inventory by FIA forest types can lose sight of the complex relationships among site qualities, past and ongoing disturbances, and species composition and structure. As forest inventory continues in interior Alaska, there may be reason to further define the FIA forest types in this region.

Table 11—Number of plots of each Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) forest type where at least one subplot or condition represents a Level III type of the Alaska Vegetation Classification

| Level I | Level II | FIA forest type | Level III | | |
|------------------|---------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| | | | Closed (1) | Open (2) | Woodland (3) |
| I (forest) | | | <i>Number of plots</i> | | |
| A (needle-leaf) | Black spruce | Black spruce | 9 | 33 | 14 |
| | | White spruce | 4 | 9 | 4 |
| | | Birch | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| | | Balsam poplar | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| | B (broadleaf) | Birch | 12 | 7 | 1 |
| | | Aspen | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | | Balsam poplar | 1 | 3 | 0 |
| | C (mixed) | Black spruce | 0 | 8 | 4 |
| | | White spruce | 2 | 4 | 1 |
| | | Birch | 6 | 10 | 0 |
| | | Balsam poplar | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| | II (scrub) | | | | |
| A (dwarf tree) | Black spruce | 2 | 9 | 6 | |
| | Nonstocked | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| B (tall scrub) | White spruce | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| | Nonstocked | 1 | 0 | 0 | |
| C (low scrub) | Black spruce | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| | White spruce | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| | Birch | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| | Nonstocked | 1 | 2 | 0 | |
| III (herbaceous) | | | Dry (1) | Mesic (2) | Wet (3) |
| A (graminoid) | Nonstocked | 0 | 0 | 2 | |
| B (forb) | Nonstocked | 0 | 0 | 1 | |

Summary—

Vegetation data collected on the ground are relatively scarce in Alaska, but is essential to aid the interpretation of the remotely sensed data that managers have come to depend on with increasing frequency. One goal of vegetation data analysis is to understand how existing vegetation communities may change in the future. Shifts in species composition can be a signal of changes in moisture availability or drainage that are not evident at the soil surface. Changes in vegetation structure often

trigger further change to communities by altering waterflow, nutrient cycling, and capture of solar radiation (Jorgenson et al. 2013, Sturm et al. 2001). Although the interior Alaska pilot was a first-time visit, some novel plant communities sampled could indicate sites undergoing transitions.

The VEG Profile provides important information about the arrangement of vascular plants in the forest stands sampled. Structure characterization is important for fire behavior modeling and wildlife habitat assessments. Data on the distribution of large and small trees reveal the presence of multiple other tree species on most plots assigned to a single-species forest type, suggesting that alternative successional pathways are possible under particular disturbance regimes, including climate change (Johnstone et al. 2010, Mann et al. 2012, Rupp 2011). Although VEG Profile captures the presence of large shrubs and nontally trees with cover and height layer, the only allometric equations for calculating biomass of large shrubs are based on stem diameters (Chojnacky and Milton 2008). Stem diameter measures for large woody shrubs and nontally tree species should be considered in the future for inclusion into biomass estimations (e.g., Bond-Lamberty et al. 2002, Mack et al. 2008). In addition, adding a full census of vascular plant species on at least one subplot per plot would capture important rare or indicator species that can occur with minimal abundance and provide a measure of species richness across the vast landscapes of interior Alaska.

Although vegetation data allow us to describe forested areas with more detail and inference than tree data alone, we can go further by fully integrating the full suite of data variables collected. Standard plot and condition information collected on FIA plots, along with the special interior Alaska protocols (ground layer and soils), go a long way toward elucidating the types of changes that may be occurring. Combining tree, Veg Profile, soils, and ground layers provides the means to classify vegetation types further, incorporating landscape and topographic positions, which is helpful when overall species diversity is limited.

Patterns of DWM on the 2014 Tanana Pilot Inventory⁴

Introduction

Down woody materials are an important component of forest ecosystem structure and function. Down woody materials influence nutrient cycling, contribute to wildlife habitat and forest fires, and can contain a substantial proportion of terrestrial ecosystem biomass (Harmon et al. 1986, Woodall 2010). Relative to other forests types, the role of DWM in boreal forests is poorly understood (Pan et al. 2011, Pedlar et al. 2002). Recent natural disturbances in boreal forests of Siberia and Canada have led to an estimated 27 percent increase in the total deadwood (standing dead and DWM) in these forests (Pan et al. 2011). As boreal forest ecosystems of interior Alaska are experiencing some of the greatest increases in temperature globally (Arctic Climate Impact Assessment 2005) with associated declines in spruce productivity (Beck et al. 2011) and increases in fire frequency and severity (Kasischke and Turetsky 2006, Turetsky et al. 2011), it is important to understand the current status of these systems both to provide insights into the role of fire and to serve as a baseline for monitoring trends.

Methods

As part of the 2014 Tanana pilot inventory, we carried out standard DWM sampling protocols (USDA FS 2014a). Down woody materials were sampled on accessible forest conditions on all field plots (i.e., portions of plots that were forested and where access was not hazardous). Sampling occurred by using the line-intercept method along transects located through the center of each of the subplots (fig. 5). Each transect is segmented to tally coarse woody debris (CWD) and fine woody debris (FWD). Coarse woody debris includes downed, dead tree and shrub boles, large limbs, and other woody pieces that are ≥ 3 inches diameter, ≥ 6 inches in length, and severed from their original source of growth. Coarse woody debris also consists of dead tall tree species or single-stemmed woodland species trees that are leaning more than 45° from vertical. Fine woody debris consists of downed, dead branches, twigs, and small tree or shrub boles < 3 inches in diameter that are not attached to a living or standing dead source. Fine woody debris is tallied on 6- to 10-ft transects depending on the size of pieces. These FWD transects occur along the 24-ft CWD transects (fig. 5). The attributes collected on each piece intersecting the transect differ based on whether the pieces are CWD or FWD. For each CWD piece, transect diameter,

⁴ Authors: Robert Pattison, Andrew Gray, and Hans-Erik Andersen.

species, and decay class were recorded. Decay class is a classification of the level of decay based on shape, presence of bark or branches, and wood density. Decay class 1 refers to pieces with little decay, while decay class 5 refers to pieces that have advanced decay.

Field data were compiled into estimates of DWM biomass using estimators based on transect diameter, transect length, and species detailed in Woodall and Monleon (2008). These estimators generate a volume for CWD pieces and convert these volumes into per-unit-area estimates. Volume estimates are then converted to biomass by accounting for species-specific wood density and decay class (Woodall and Monleon 2008). The estimates of the DWM content by forest type and owner for the Tanana pilot inventory unit were derived using the poststratified plot weights described in the “Introduction” (“Stratification and Analyses” section).

Results

Birch forests on the TVSF had an estimated 4,122 (\pm 1,080) thousand tons of biomass in DWM or 48 percent of the total DWM biomass in the two inventory units (fig. 13). About 72 percent of that biomass was in CWD. The next highest DWM biomass values occurred on white spruce forests on TVSF, which had an estimated 1,244 (\pm 453) thousand tons of biomass or 14 percent of the total DWM biomass in the two inventory units. For these forests, CWD made up 79 percent of the total DWM biomass. Within each forest type and landowner category, the percentage of DWM in CWD and fine woody materials (FWM) varied. Black spruce forests on TVSF and birch forests on TNWR had the lowest proportion of total DWM in CWD (33 to 39 percent). The remaining forest types had 50 to 79 percent of the total DWM in CWM (fig. 13). Birch forests on TVSF had the most CWD and FWD stocks (tables 12 and 13).

Aspen forest types had the highest DWM biomass per acre, while black spruce forest types had the lowest (fig. 14). Birch forest DWM biomass per acre showed high variability between TVSF and TNWR with birch forests on TVSF having 2.8 times more DWM biomass per acre than on TNWR. The CWD consisted of a range of decay classes (fig. 15) for each forest type.

On a per-acre basis, aspen and birch forest types had the highest CWD biomass, while black spruce had more than an order of magnitude less (table 14). Interestingly, birch forest types on TNWR lands had five times less CWD than on TVSF lands, but this trend was not apparent for FWD (table 15). Deciduous forest types had the highest FWD on a per-area basis (table 15).

On a per-acre basis, aspen and birch forest types had the highest CWD biomass, while black spruce had more than an order of magnitude less.

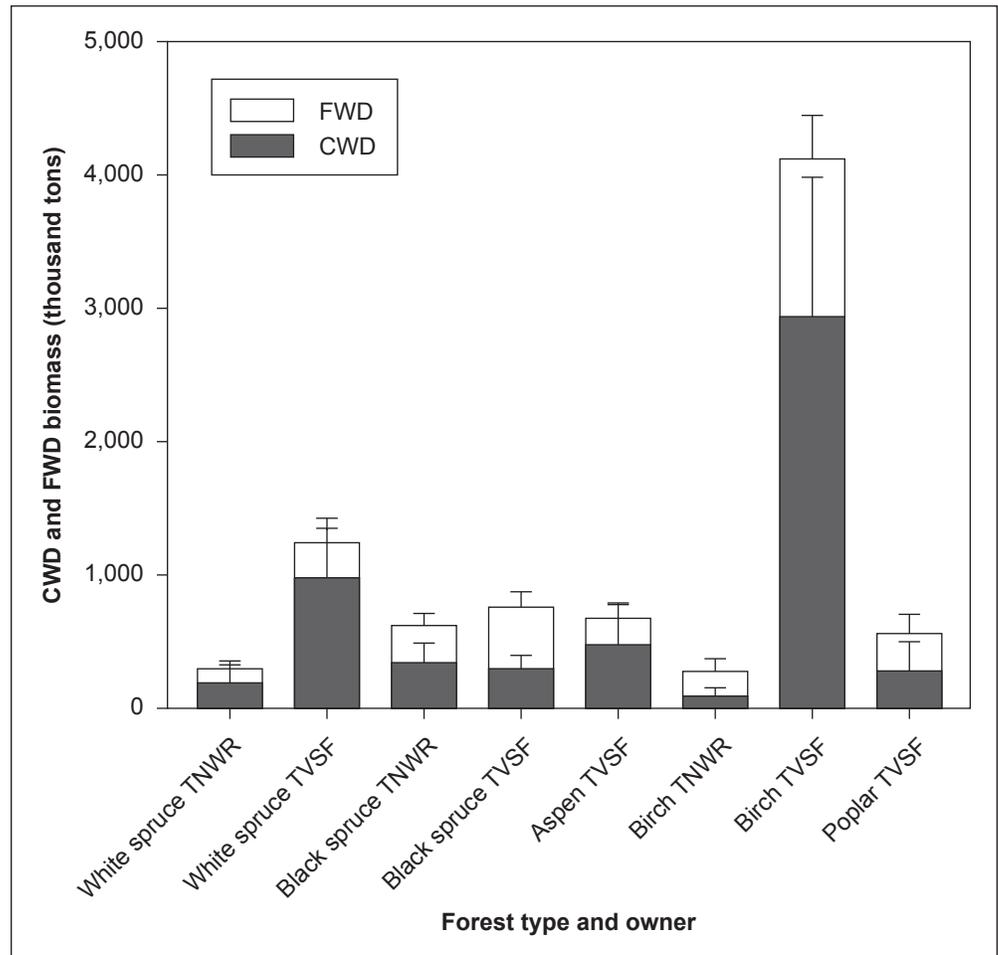


Figure 13—Downed woody material biomass on an area basis for each of the forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Error bars represent the standard error of the estimates. Estimates are for coarse woody debris (CWD) and fine woody debris (FWD).

Table 12—Estimated total coarse woody debris (CWD) biomass stocks in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | | TNWR | | Total | |
|----------------------|-------------|---------|-------------|-------|-------------|---------|
| | CWD biomass | SE | CWD biomass | SE | CWD biomass | SE |
| <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 298.4 | 100.5 | 344.6 | 141.4 | 643.0 | 173.5 |
| White spruce | 981.7 | 440.9 | 194.9 | 131.1 | 1,176.5 | 460.0 |
| Aspen | 480.2 | 297.0 | — | — | 480.2 | 297.0 |
| Birch | 2,950.3 | 1,030.2 | 94.7 | 58.5 | 3,045.1 | 1,031.8 |
| Poplar | 278.7 | 220.0 | — | — | 278.7 | 220.0 |
| Nonstocked | 7.4 | 6.4 | — | — | 7.4 | 6.4 |
| Total biomass | 4,996.7 | 1,074.2 | 634.2 | 181.5 | 5,630.9 | 1,089.4 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Table 13—Estimated total fine woody debris (FWD) biomass stocks in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | | TNWR | | Total | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| | FWD biomass | SE | FWD biomass | SE | FWD biomass | SE |
| <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 460.9 | 116.8 | 276.0 | 95.0 | 736.8 | 150.5 |
| White spruce | 261.9 | 104.5 | 104.8 | 57.5 | 366.7 | 119.3 |
| Aspen | 196.3 | 114.8 | — | — | 196.3 | 114.8 |
| Birch | 1,171.3 | 326.4 | 185.9 | 93.6 | 1,357.2 | 339.6 |
| Poplar | 280.5 | 145.8 | — | — | 280.5 | 145.8 |
| Nonstocked | 54.1 | 46.8 | — | — | 54.1 | 46.8 |
| Total biomass | 2,425.0 | 303.4 | 566.6 | 123.5 | 2,991.6 | 327.6 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

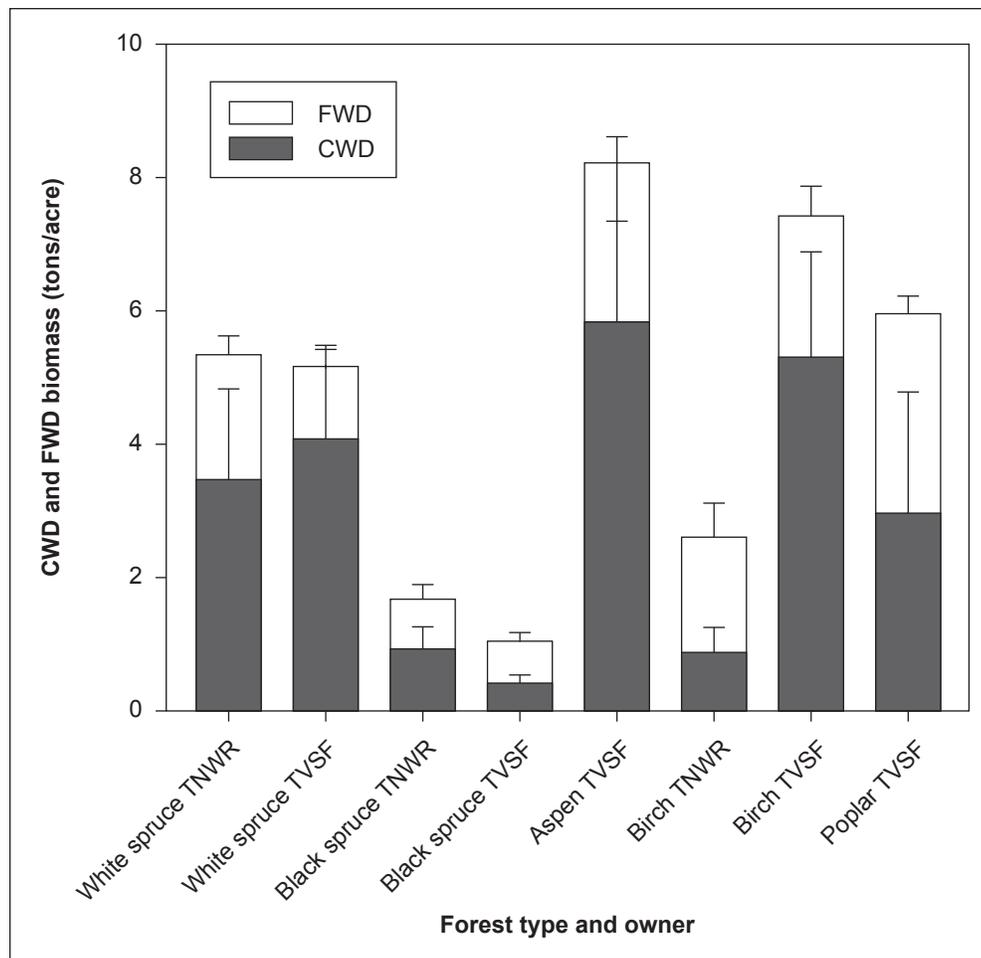


Figure 14—Estimated density (tons/acre) of biomass in down woody material (DWM) for each of the forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Error bars represent + 1 standard error of the estimated totals for coarse woody debris (CWD) and fine woody debris (FWD) in each category.

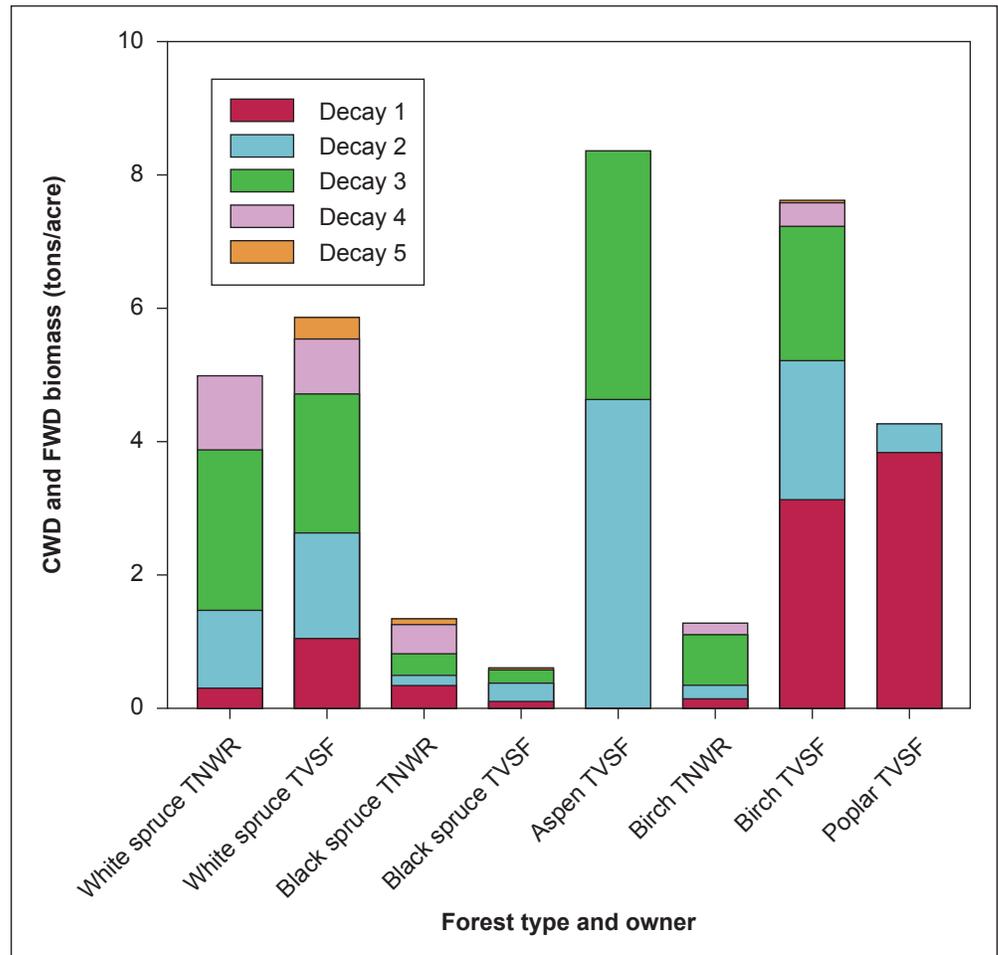


Figure 15—Composition of coarse woody debris (CWD) and fine woody debris (FWD) biomass by decay class for each of the forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Decay class 1 refers to the least decayed, and decay class 5 refers to the most advanced decayed pieces.

Table 14—Estimated coarse woody debris (CWD) biomass (tons per acre) in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | | TNWR | | Total | |
|--------------|----------------------|-----|-------------|-----|-------------|-----|
| | CWD biomass | SE | CWD biomass | SE | CWD biomass | SE |
| | <i>Tons per acre</i> | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.9 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.1 |
| White spruce | 4.1 | 1.3 | 3.5 | 1.3 | 4.0 | 1.1 |
| Aspen | 5.8 | 1.5 | — | — | 5.8 | 1.5 |
| Birch | 5.3 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 4.6 | 1.3 |
| Poplar | 3.0 | 1.8 | — | — | 3.0 | 1.8 |
| Nonstocked | 0.2 | 0.0 | — | — | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| All forest | 2.9 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 2.5 | 0.5 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Table 15—Estimated fine woody debris (FWD) biomass in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | | TNWR | | Total | |
|--------------|----------------------|-----|-------------|-----|-------------|-----|
| | FWD biomass | SE | FWD biomass | SE | FWD biomass | SE |
| | <i>Tons per acre</i> | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.1 |
| White spruce | 1.1 | 0.3 | 1.9 | 0.3 | 1.2 | 0.3 |
| Aspen | 2.4 | 0.4 | — | — | 2.4 | 0.4 |
| Birch | 2.1 | 0.4 | 1.7 | 0.5 | 2.0 | 0.4 |
| Poplar | 3.0 | 0.3 | — | — | 3.0 | 0.3 |
| Nonstocked | 1.5 | 0.0 | — | — | 1.5 | 0.0 |
| All forest | 1.4 | 0.2 | 1.1 | 0.2 | 1.3 | 0.1 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Discussion

There was an eightfold variation in DWM per unit area across the various forest types and ownerships. With the exception of birch forests on the TNWR, the highest values occurred on deciduous forests. Birch forests on the TVSF had 48 percent of the DWM of the total in the two inventory units with 71 percent of that DWM on these forests consisting of CWD. The 2.8-fold difference in birch DWM on state and TNWR lands indicates key functional differences may occur within forest types. These differences may be attributable in part to differences in tree biomass as birch forests on TVSF lands (32.4 tons per acre) had 1.6 times more tree biomass than birch forest on TNWR lands (20.0 tons per acre) (fig. 16). Differences among forest types may also be attributed to tree longevity and inherent mortality rates, where aspen and birch forests tend to be the least long lived of the interior species (fig. 17). Greater DWM biomass per acre in black spruce forests on TNWR lands compared to TVSF, despite the lower live-tree biomass, may reflect slower wood decomposition on wetter sites owing to anaerobic conditions in water-logged wood when temperatures are conducive to microbial activity. The greater amounts of fine wood could result in more extreme fire behavior in hardwood stands than conifer stands, but height to tree crown base and abundance of understory vegetation is also important to predicting fire behavior.

The values of DWM biomass in this study are similar to other studies of boreal forest with similar forest types. For example, DeLuca and Biosvenue (2012 and references therein) found CWD values ranging from 2.6 to 8.0 (tons of biomass acre-1). These values are similar to those found in this study (fig. 14).

Differences among forest types in the amount of down wood material were related to aboveground biomass as well as species' inherent mortality rates.

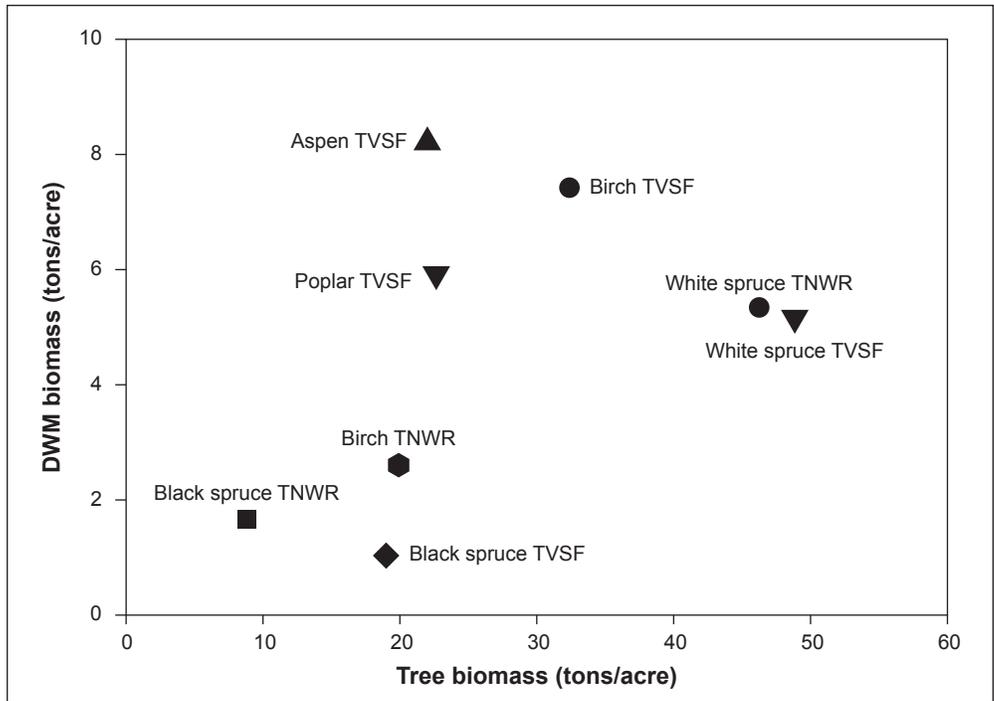


Figure 16—Relationship between aboveground live tree biomass and down woody material (DWM) biomass on the forest types and ownerships on the Tanana pilot inventory. Categories include black spruce, white spruce, birch, aspen, and poplar in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).



Sarah Ellison

Figure 17—Field crew member laying out a Forest Inventory and Analysis plot in an aspen forest.

Soil Carbon Content in the 2014 Tanana Pilot Inventory⁵

Introduction

Boreal ecosystems account for about 50 percent of the world's forest ecosystem C stocks (Malhi et al. 1999). The majority of the C in these ecosystems often occurs in soils (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012, Malhi et al. 1999, Tarnocai et al. 2009). In addition to their C storage capacity, boreal forest soils are important components of ecosystem productivity owing to their role in nutrient cycling and the limitations frozen soils place on tree growth. As boreal forests are experiencing some of the greatest increases in temperature globally (Arctic Climate Impact Assessment 2005, Trenberth et al. 2007) with concurrent increases in fire severity and frequency that can consume soil C (Kasischke and Turetsky 2006, Turetsky et al. 2011), it is important that inventory and monitoring efforts in the boreal regions sample soils.

Methods

The FIA program measured soils in the early 2000s on a 1/16th sample of the standard field plots (i.e., one plot per 96,000 ac). The soil sampling protocol for the 2014 Tanana pilot inventory occurred on all plots and was based on standard FIA soils sampling protocols (O'Neill et al. 2005) but also integrated additional boreal forest-specific sampling methods developed by scientists from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) (USDA FS 2014b). One of the key differences between standard FIA protocols and those used in the Tanana pilot inventory was the use of an electric drill and a metal corer (Nadler and Wein 1998) that improved the ability to sample the thicker organic layers common in many boreal forest soils (fig. 18). Also, because of the thickness of organic soil layers in boreal Alaska, the target depth for mineral soil samples was 4 inches instead of 8 inches.

The soil sampling methods are outlined in the Tanana pilot inventory manual (USDA FS 2014b). Some details of these methods include the following: sampling soils at a location 30 ft south of subplot 2; use of a 12-inch circular frame to sample litter and live moss; and measuring depth of the active (unfrozen) soil layer at the time of sampling. Fourteen percent of forested plots were sampled in June, 60 percent in July, and 26 percent in August.

Soil cores were separated into five layers and their thicknesses measured: dead moss (recognizable plant matter with few roots), root-dominated duff (mainly fine and very fine roots with old plant matter), upper humified duff

⁵ Authors: Robert Pattison, Andrew Gray, Hans-Erik Andersen, and Kristen Manies.



Forest Inventory and Analysis

Figure 18—Soil core after extraction showing the live moss layer on the right and mineral soil on the left.

(dark amorphous material with unrecognizable plant parts), lower humified duff (when present, a sticky amorphous layer without distinct plant fibers), and mineral soil (grittier and denser than organic layers, with no distinct plant parts). Samples were analyzed for oven-dried weights and C content among other properties. Sample bulk density was calculated based on oven-dried weight and sample volume as determined from the sample's length and the diameter of the corer. These values were then converted into C in pounds per acre. Mineral soil samples varied between 1 and 4 inches in thickness. To provide a standardized measure of C content of mineral soil, the C concentration of the mineral soil was calculated for a 1-inch depth. Total soil C for a plot was determined as the sum of the litter and live moss, dead moss, root-dominated duff, upper and lower humified duff layers, and 1-inch of mineral soil. In addition to total soil C, separate analyses were generated for each of the five layers. Estimates of soil C by forest type and ownership were generated using the poststratified plot weights described in the introduction and the double-sampling equations described in Scott et al. (2005).

Results

There were an estimated 56,728 (\pm 4,224) thousand tons of soil C on the TVSF and TNWR (table 16). The majority (75 percent) of this was found on the forests of the TVSF (42,310 \pm 4,065 thousand tons) (fig. 19).

Total measured soil C per acre was relatively similar across forest types for both inventory units (table 17). Deciduous forest types tended to have lower soil C per acre than evergreen forest types (table 17).

The organic layer contained the greatest proportion (65 to 81 percent) of measured soil C across all forest types on both TVSF and TNWR lands (figs. 19 and 20). Birch forests on TNWR had the lowest (65 percent) proportion of measured soil C in the organic layer, while white spruce on TNWR and poplar on TVSF had the highest (81 percent). Mineral soil (1 inch) contained between 8 and

Soil carbon (C) per acre was relatively similar across forest types for both inventory units. Deciduous forest types tended to have lower soil C per acre than evergreen forest types.

Table 16— Estimated soil carbon stocks for all soil layers in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|----------------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|
| <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 20,455 | 2,810 | 10,502 | 1,044 | 30,969 | 2,863 |
| White spruce | 5,894 | 2,019 | 1,671 | 250 | 7,474 | 2,177 |
| Aspen | 1,224 | 548 | — | — | 1,224 | 548 |
| Birch | 13,232 | 1,436 | 2,445 | 293 | 15,662 | 1,440 |
| Poplar | 2,069 | 730 | — | — | 2,069 | 730 |
| Nonstocked | 433 | — | — | — | 433 | — |
| Total carbon | 42,310 | 4,065 | 14,432 | 1,125 | 56,728 | 4,224 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Table 17—Estimated total soil carbon (litter, live moss, organic layer and 1 inch of mineral soil) per acre on forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|----------------------|------|-----|------|-----|-------|-----|
| <i>Tons per acre</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 27.9 | 3.8 | 28.2 | 2.8 | 28.0 | 2.6 |
| White spruce | 24.5 | 8.4 | 29.8 | 4.4 | 25.2 | 7.3 |
| Aspen | 14.9 | 6.7 | — | — | 14.9 | 6.7 |
| Birch | 23.8 | 2.6 | 22.7 | 2.7 | 23.6 | 2.2 |
| Poplar | 22.0 | 7.8 | — | — | 22.0 | 7.8 |
| Nonstocked | 12.3 | 0 | — | — | 12.3 | 0 |
| All forest | 24.3 | 2.3 | 26.9 | 2.1 | 24.9 | 1.9 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

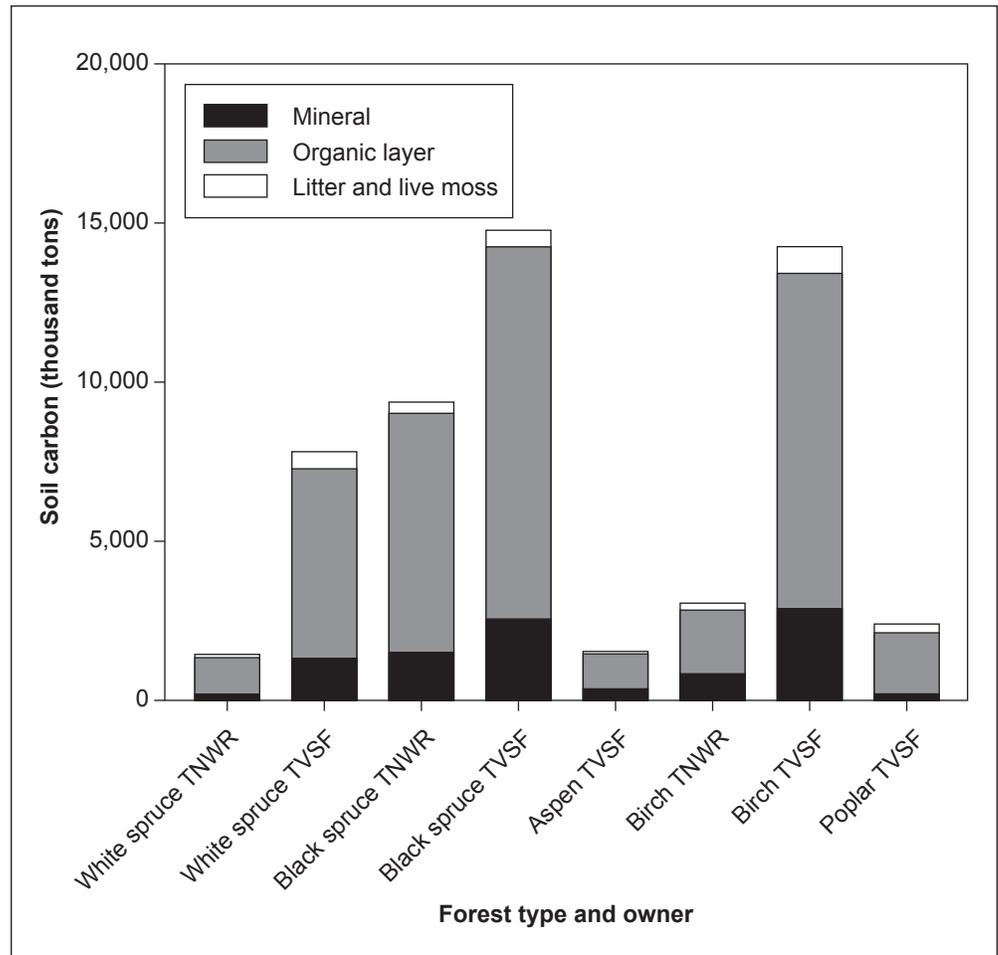


Figure 19—Soil carbon (litter and live moss, organic layer, and 1 inch of mineral soil) for the different forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).

26 percent of measured soil C, with the lowest percentages occurring in balsam poplar forests and the highest occurring in birch forests on TNWR. Litter and live moss accounted for 4 to 11 percent of the measured soil C for all the forest types on both inventory units.

There was a large variation in the contribution of the various layers within the organic layer to the total organic layer content (figs. 21 and 22). Dead moss accounted for 0 to 21 percent of the organic layer. Birch forests on the TNWR and balsam poplar forests on the TVSF had no dead moss, while black spruce forests on the TVSF had 21 percent of the organic layer C made up of dead moss.

Root-dominated duff was found on all forest types and accounted for 9 percent of the aspen forest organic layer and 100 percent of the balsam poplar forest

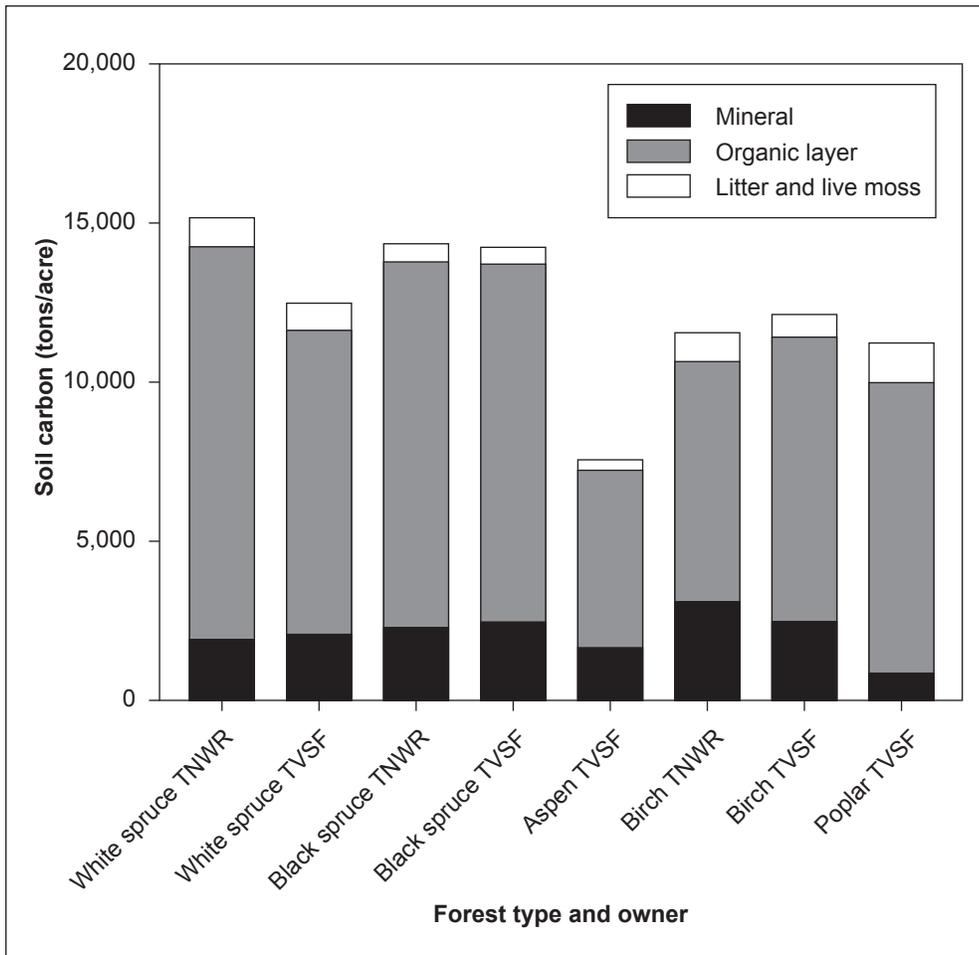


Figure 20—Distribution of soil carbon between litter and live moss, organic and mineral (1 inch) soil layers on a per-acre basis for forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).

organic layer on the TVSF. The upper humified duff layer was not present on balsam poplar forests but accounted for 17 to 35 percent of the other forest types on the TVSF and TNWR. The lower humified duff layer was not present on white spruce and birch forests on the TNWR, nor balsam poplar forests of the TVSF. However, this layer accounted for 50 percent of the organic layer of the aspen forests on the TVSF.

Thaw depths were deepest in the balsam poplar and aspen forest types and shallowest in black spruce forests (fig. 23). Within a forest type, there did not appear to be differences in thaw depths between the TVSF and TNWR.

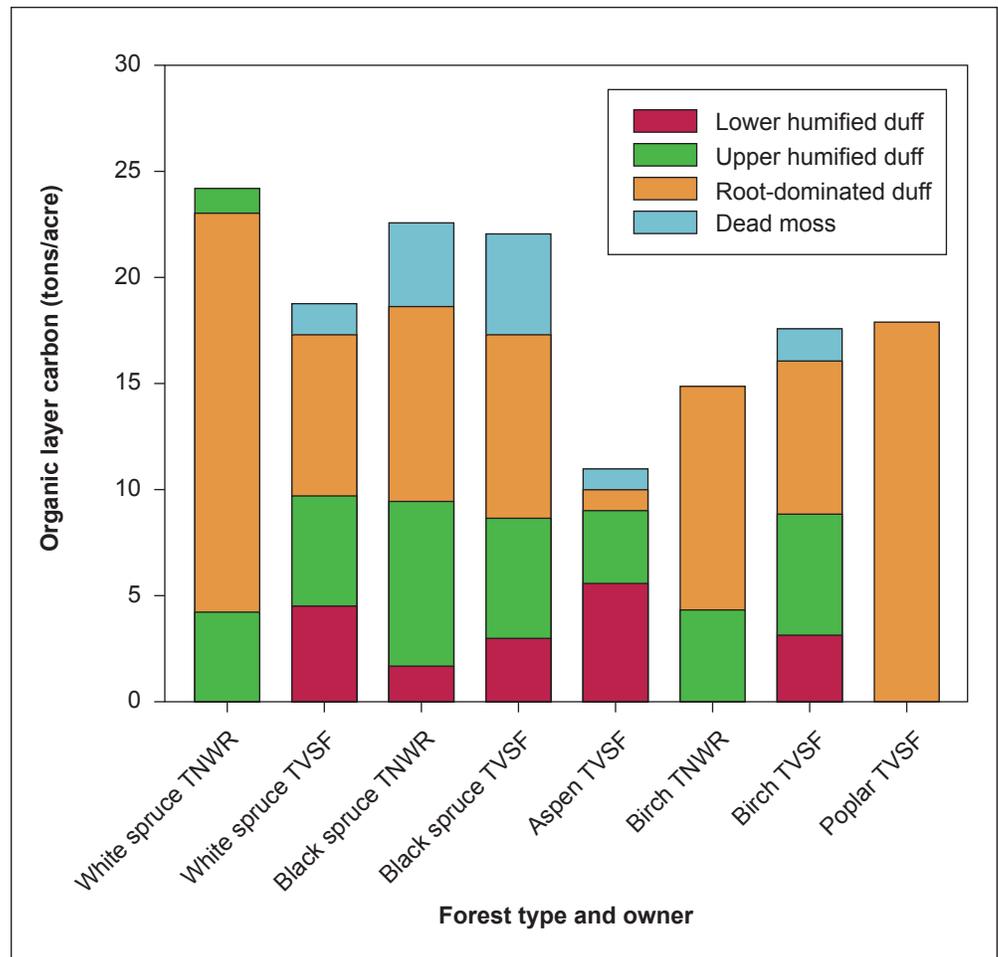


Figure 21—Distribution of soil carbon within the organic layer per acre for forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). The layers within the organic layer include dead moss, root-dominated duff, upper humified duff, and lower humified duff.

Discussion

Across the Tanana pilot inventory unit, most of the total soil C occurred in black spruce and birch forests on TVSF lands (table 16). The total soil C per acre was relatively similar between forest types and ownerships (table 17). White spruce forests on the TNWR had the highest total soil C per acre, and aspen forests on TVSF had the lowest values (table 17). The majority of C in the soils estimated in this study was found in the organic layer (figs. 19 and 20). However, it is likely that substantial amounts of mineral soil C were present at depths greater than the 1 inch estimated here. For soils in the Bonanza Creek Experimental Forest, the C in the upper 1 inch represents 4 to 18 percent of the C down to 39 inches (1 m) in floodplain forests, and 12 percent to 19 percent in upland forests.⁶ Those

⁶ Yarie, J. 2017. Personal communication. Soil scientist, University of Alaska Fairbanks. Fairbanks, AK 99775.

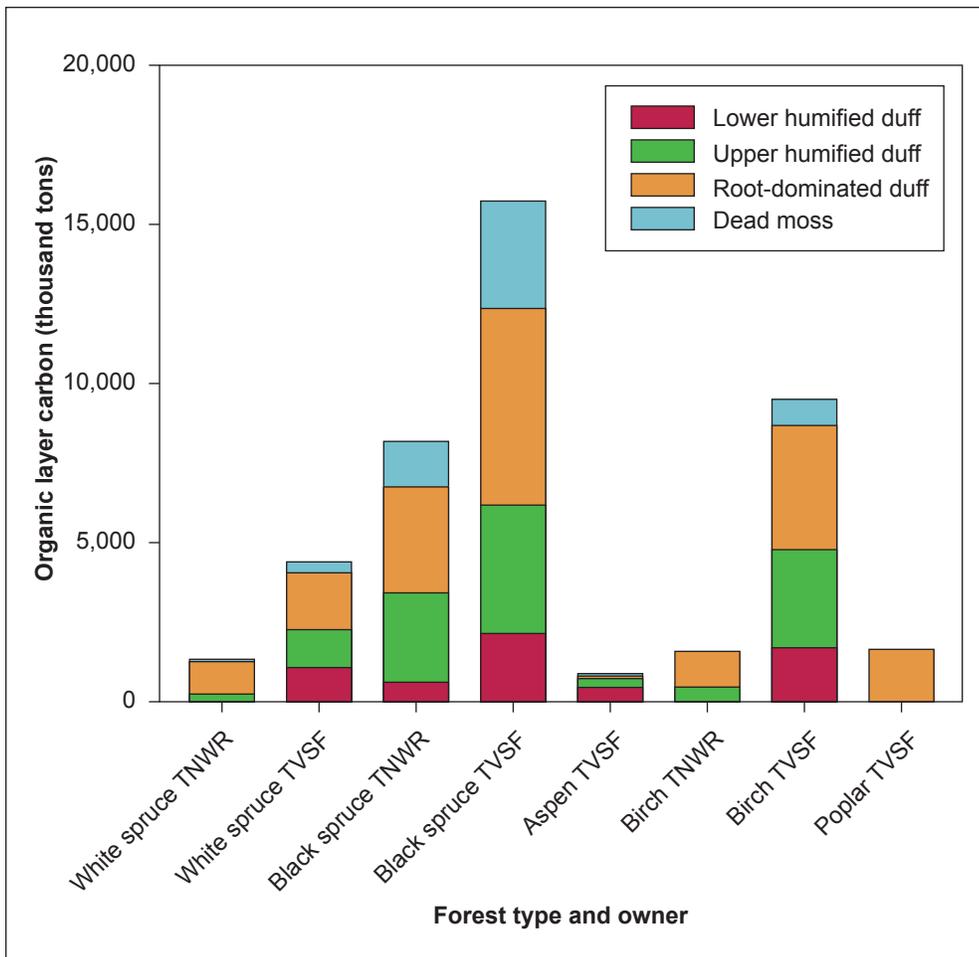


Figure 22—Estimates of organic layer carbon (dead moss, root-dominated duff, upper humified duff, and lower humified duff) content for the different forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR).

estimates do not include any black spruce stands, which likely have an even lower proportion of C in the top 1 inch. Using 15 percent as a rough guide with the FIA sample would suggest that mineral soils down to 39 inches (1 m) have as much or up to twice as much C as the organic layer. Although there was a high amount of variability as to which of the organic layers contributed the most to organic layer C content, in general, the root-dominated duff layer tended to contain most of the C in the organic layer C content.

The values in this study are similar to those in other studies in the region (Hollingsworth et al. 2008, Kane and Vogel 2009, Ping et al. 2010). Hollingsworth et al. (2008) found that the C content of the organic layer of black spruce forests ranged from 15 to 24 tons per acre, while Kane and Vogel (2009) found values that ranged from 17 to 33 tons per acre. In an inventory of 52 sites in interior Alaska dominated by black spruce across a range of topographic positions from well drained to poorly drained, Ping et al. (2010) found that organic layer contained 24 to 1,156

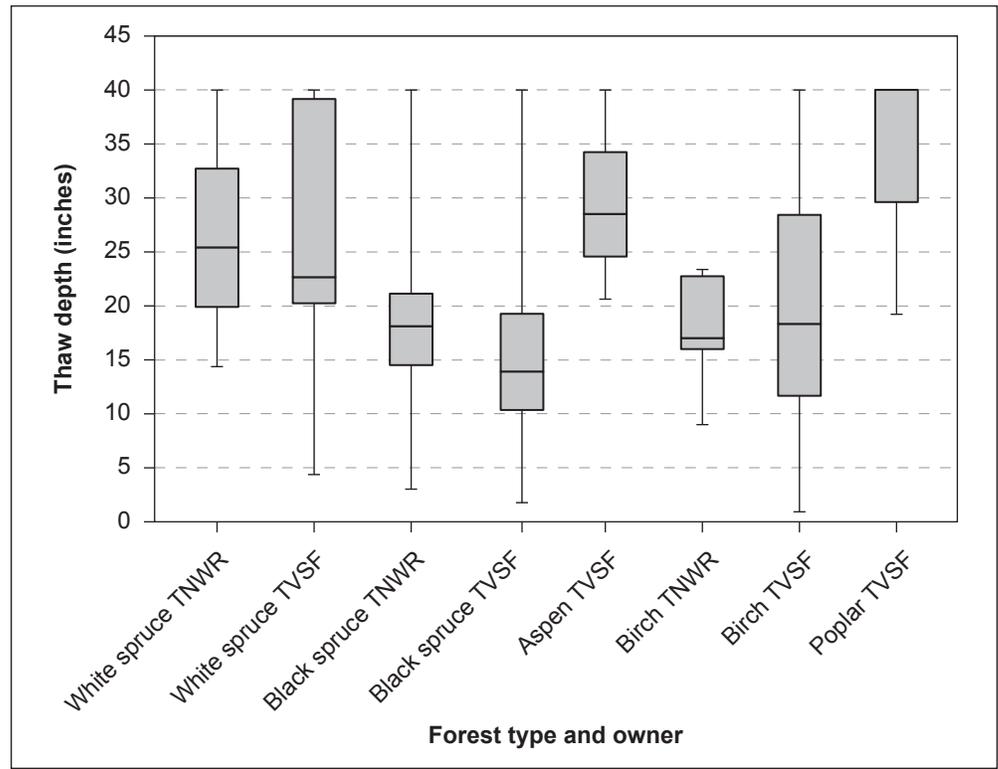


Figure 23—Box and whisker plots of thaw depth for the forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Each box shows the upper and lower quartile, the central bar shows the median, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values. Depths were measured to a maximum value of 40 inches.

tons per acre. Their work sampled soils down to 39 inches, and found that organic layer had 13 to 100 percent of the total C within the top 39 inches of soils in this wide range of sites.

The total soil C was weakly but positively related to stand age for the black spruce forest types ($r^2 = 0.14$, $P = 0.0303$) but not for other forest types in this study. Kane and Vogel (2009) found a similar trend for black spruce forests in the Tanana Valley region. As mentioned above, TVSF lands are considered to be more productive upland ecosystems, whereas TNWR is characterized as less productive, low-lying ecosystems. In spite of these general differences, we did not find clear differences in soil C characteristics between these two landowner groups. When examined on a per-acre basis, black and white spruce and birch forest types had similar soil C content on both ownerships. One potential reason might be that a simple characterization of forest types based on the predominant tree canopy species may fail to recognize the diversity of conditions where black spruce can be abundant (Viereck and Johnston 1990). Consequently, additional effort should be made to refine black spruce forest types based on additional

features (Hollingsworth et al. 2008). Incorporating vegetative and ground cover data could help in this regard (see “Characterizing Forest Vegetation of the Tanana Valley” section) and may lead to more refined insights into understanding soil C as it relates to aboveground composition.

Thaw depths were greatest in the balsam poplar and aspen forest types (fig. 23). This finding was consistent with previous work suggesting that these forest types typically occur on sites where soils thaw more rapidly in the early growing season and where there is little to no permafrost (Jorgenson et al. 2010).

Soils in boreal regions are typically sampled later in the season than our field season—e.g., September and October (Hollingsworth et al. 2008)—to capture the maximum thaw depth of soils and limit the occurrence of frozen layers. However, visiting all plots within a short window late in the season is logistically unfeasible for a broad-scale multiresource inventory. One of the primary concerns in undertaking the Tanana pilot inventory was that soils in some low-lying poorly drained forests such as those dominated by black spruce might be frozen above the mineral layer as the soil corer is unable to sample frozen soils. This concern was warranted for some forest types. For example, 14 of the 95 plots where soils were collected had frozen layers above mineral soil. Of these plots, 13 occurred on black spruce forest types (TNWR $n = 2$, TVSF $n = 11$), and one occurred on birch forest types (TVSF). Two of the 14 plots had soils frozen very near the surface (dead moss layer). Overall, 38 percent of the black spruce forests plots on the TVSF did not have the entire organic layer sampled. Our inventory procedures assume that nonsampled information is “missing at random”; i.e., that the mean of the values that were measured is the same as the mean of the nonsampled areas and the population as a whole. The presence of frozen soils therefore leads to lower precision of total soil C estimates for black spruce forest types on TVSF in particular, where frozen soils were most frequently encountered. Soils frozen above the mineral layer were encountered on plots sampled throughout the growing season (fig. 24). Most of these plots had thaw depths of less than 15 inches at the time of measurement. This result is consistent with Ping et al. (2010), who found that organic layer thickness for a range of black spruce forests was relatively shallow, ranging from 1 to 15 inches for 51 of their 52 field sites. The remaining site had the entirety of the 39-inch-depth sample consisting of organic layer. As mentioned above, Ping et al. (2010) found that the organic layer contained between 13 and 95 percent of the total soil C down to 39 inches for the 51 plots (mean = 51 percent, SE = 19 percent). Collectively, these results suggest that organic layers are relatively shallow and contain a substantial proportion of the soil C.

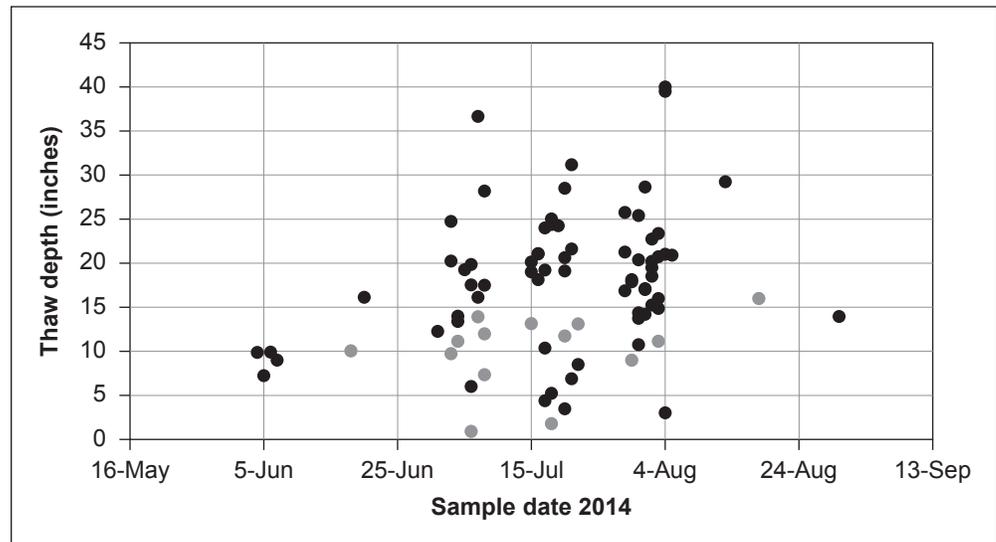


Figure 24—Relationship between thaw depth and sample date for plots. Thaw depth is the average of four measurements at the soil sample site. Light grey symbols ($n = 14$) represent plots where mineral soil was not reached owing to the presence of frozen soil.

Carbon Storage and Other Functions of Moss and Lichen Mats in the Tanana River Valley of Alaska⁷

Introduction

How much C is stored in the ground layer of boreal forests? In northern areas, moss and lichen mats are key players in C cycling because they are often the main interface between soils and the atmosphere (fig. 25). Moss mats in boreal forests account for 20 percent of understory net C uptake and the majority of understory nitrogen fixation (Hasselquist et al. 2016, Lindo et al. 2013). The C storage capacity of ground layers is potentially huge: moss-dominated peatlands currently store roughly 33 percent of the world's terrestrial C (Yu 2012).

Despite this massive potential, ground layer nutrient cycling is now shifting in response to global changes. Specific challenges include increasing area in fires and the expansion of tall shrub vegetation, both of which reduce ground layers. Ground layer carbon losses are rising as arctic and boreal wildfires combust more material than at any point in the last several thousand years (Hu et al. 2015, Kelly et al. 2013, Turetsky et al. 2015). Of particular concern are declines of forage lichens on which caribou and other wildlife depend, and whose decline will have socioeconomic impacts on hunting, tourism, and subsistence practices (Joly et al. 2009). Knowing how these changes might interact with carbon cycling at the soil-atmosphere interface (fig. 25) requires us to understand carbon pool status and trends using emerging forest inventory methods.

⁷ Authors: Robert J. Smith, Sarah Jovan, Andrew Gray, and Bruce McCune.

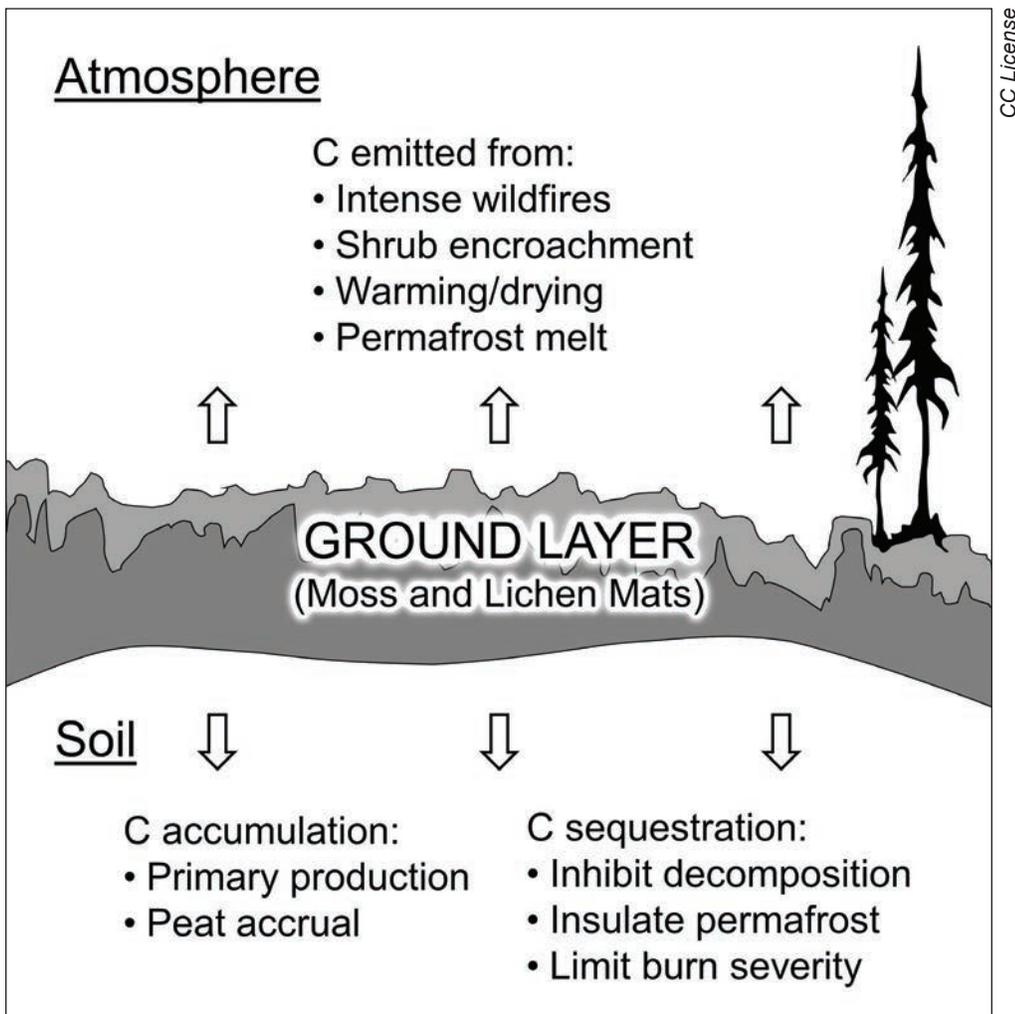


Figure 25—Conceptual carbon (C) balance in moss and lichen mats at the soil-atmosphere interface. In addition to regulating C, ground layers have many other functions (see table 18).

Methods

Carbon and nitrogen pools in boreal ground layers—

We evaluated ground layer attributes at 96 sites in the study area using the FIA Ground Layer Indicator (Smith et al. 2015). This indicator converts field-measured depth and cover of ground-dwelling mosses and lichens into a plot-level estimate of biomass, carbon, and nitrogen for each functional group (fig. 26). Moss and lichen species were grouped into functional groups that were relatively easy to identify after a few hours' training and that corresponded with important nutrient and habitat functions (fig. 27). A further benefit of this method is the ability to assess ecosystem functions of ground layers (e.g., wildlife forage, biological nitrogen-fixation, many others). The Ground Layer Indicator is rapid (about 1 to 2 hours survey time) and complements existing FIA protocols.

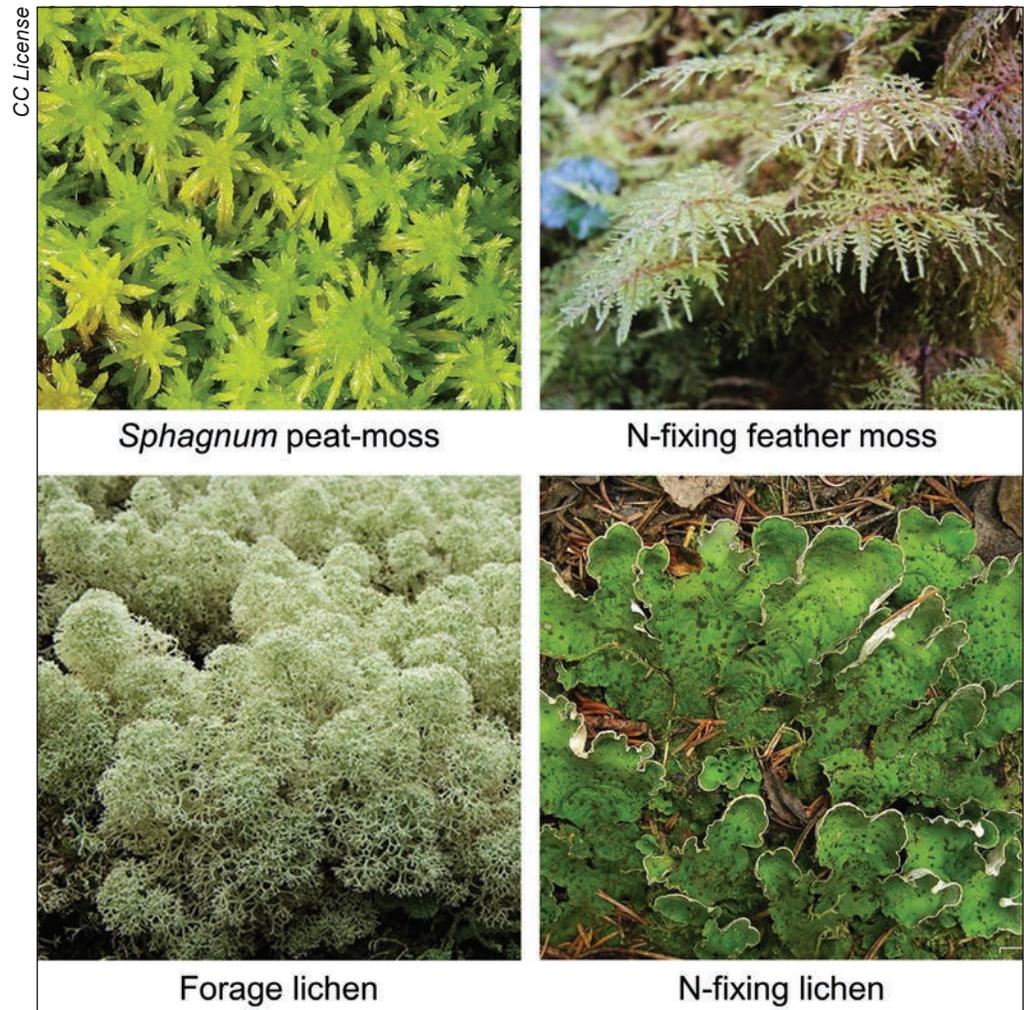


Figure 26—Four of the 13 functional groups used in the Ground Layer Indicator (see table 18 for all groups). The indicator measures depth and cover of all 13 functional groups to estimate biomass, carbon, and nitrogen (N).



Figure 27—A microquad used to measure cover of lichen and moss functional groups in the ground layer.

Environmental influences and validation—

To identify the best environmental and stand-level factors explaining ground layer attributes, we used nonparametric multiplicative regression (NPMR) (McCune 2006, McCune and Mefford 2011), which estimates mean responses as a smoothed function of all possible interactions of an optimized predictor subset. To validate measurements, we used a separate, multiobserver dataset to evaluate whether observers might estimate plot-level biomass differently: in August 2015, six observers used the Ground Layer Indicator (Smith et al. 2015) at premarked sampling units in two plots in north central Minnesota (one upland forest and one peat moss wetland). From a separate-means linear mixed model, a finding of no significant difference among observers' biomass estimates would lend credibility to Ground Layer Indicator measurements from both Minnesota and Alaska.

Results

Carbon and nitrogen pools in boreal ground layers—

Functional group abundances differed across the study area (table 18). Most frequent and abundant were nitrogen-fixing feather mosses, often forming extensive, thick carpets. *Sphagnum* peat mosses were less frequent but often achieved highest within-plot biomass. Forage lichens were moderate in frequency but also had considerable biomass where encountered (table 18). On average, there were 6.6 functional groups per plot. Moss and lichen functional groups reflected the capacity to fix nitrogen, provide wildlife forage, indicate disturbance, alter hydrology, or signal nutrient-enriched conditions (among other functions; table 18).

Across the study area, there was an estimated total of 12,588 (\pm 1,356) thousand tons of ground layer biomass (tables 19 and 21). Of this, there was an estimated 5,586 (\pm 601) thousand tons of carbon and 138 (\pm 15) thousand tons of nitrogen in ground layers (table 19). Ground layer biomass per acre across the inventory unit was 5.53 (\pm 0.60) tons per acre (table 20). There was 2.46 (\pm 0.26) tons per acre of C, and 122 (\pm 13) pounds per acre of nitrogen (table 20).

Forest types—

Black spruce forest types had by far the greatest total (table 19) and per-acre mean (table 20) ground layer biomass across the study area. Total biomass and nutrient stores in black spruce forest types were roughly seven times that in white spruce and Alaska birch forest types (table 19). As a per-plot average, mean biomass and mean nutrient content in black spruce forest types were roughly double that of white spruce forest types, and nearly four times that of most hardwood forest types (table 20). Within the TVSF and the TNWR, most (75 percent) of the ground layer biomass was found in black spruce forest types (table 21). Black spruce forest types on both the TVSF and the TNWR also had the highest estimates of ground layer biomass on a per-acre basis (table 22). Black spruce forest types on the TVSF tended to have greater ground layer biomass per acre than TNWR.

Table 18—Estimates by functional group for forested lands, based on the ground layer measurements at 96 plots in the study area^a

| Functional group | Functions | Mass | | Carbon | | Nitrogen (N) | | Cover | |
|----------------------------|---|----------------------------|-----|--------|-----|--------------|------|-------------|------|
| | | Mean | SE | Mean | SE | Mean | SE | Mean | SE |
| | | ----- Pounds per acre----- | | | | | | --Percent-- | |
| Biotic soil crust | Soil trapping, soil water influx, disturbance indicator | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 |
| Orange lichens | Indicate nutrient overenrichment | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 |
| Forage lichens | Wildlife forage (caribou, etc.) | 394 | 93 | 175 | 41 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 1 |
| Other foliose lichens | Invertebrate habitat, bare site colonization | 9 | 2 | 4 | 1 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 | <0.1 |
| Other fruticose lichens | Invertebrate habitat, bare site colonization | 70 | 16 | 31 | 7 | 1 | <0.1 | 2 | <0.1 |
| N-fixing foliose lichens | N-fixation, nutrient cycling | 148 | 28 | 66 | 13 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 1 |
| N-fixing fruticose lichens | N-fixation, increases albedo | 32 | 22 | 14 | 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 | <0.1 |
| Other feather mosses | Rainfall interception, soil cooling | 645 | 184 | 286 | 82 | 8 | 2 | 7 | 2 |
| N-fixing feather mosses | Broad-area N-fixation, soil cooling | 6,818 | 802 | 3,026 | 356 | 78 | 9 | 57 | 5 |
| Sphagnum peat moss | Carbon storage (peat), water regulation, soil cooling | 1,853 | 619 | 823 | 275 | 17 | 6 | 10 | 3 |
| Turf (acrocarp) mosses | Soil accrual, bare site colonization | 1,050 | 147 | 466 | 65 | 11 | 1 | 18 | 2 |
| Flat (thalloid) liverworts | Soil/detritus binding, water infiltration | 29 | 20 | 13 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 1 | <0.1 |
| Stem-and-leaf liverworts | Soil/detritus binding, water infiltration | 16 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Note: The units for mass, carbon, and N are in pounds per acre. SE = standard error.

^a Each of the mutually exclusive groups integrates growth forms, potential indicator status, and ecosystem effects.

Table 19—Estimates of ground layer biomass, carbon, and nitrogen stocks by forest type for forested lands in the study area

| Forest type | Mass | | Carbon | | Nitrogen | |
|----------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------|----|
| | Total | SE | Total | SE | Total | SE |
| <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 9,551 | 1,472 | 4,238 | 653 | 104 | 16 |
| White spruce | 1276 | 439 | 566 | 195 | 15 | 5 |
| Aspen | 199 | 133 | 89 | 59 | 2 | 1 |
| Alaska birch | 1,508 | 340 | 669 | 150 | 17 | 4 |
| Balsam poplar | 11 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Nonstocked | 43 | 39 | 18 | 17 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 12,588 | 1356 | 5,586 | 601 | 138 | 15 |

SE = standard error.

Table 20—Estimates of ground layer biomass, carbon, and nitrogen per unit acre by forest type for forested lands in the two inventory units in the study area

| Forest type | Mass | | Carbon | | Nitrogen | |
|---------------|----------------------------------|------|--------|------|------------------------------------|----|
| | Mean | SE | Mean | SE | Mean | SE |
| | ----- <i>Tons per acre</i> ----- | | | | ----- <i>Pounds per acre</i> ----- | |
| White spruce | 4.18 | 0.95 | 1.85 | 0.42 | 95 | 21 |
| Black spruce | 8.58 | 0.92 | 3.81 | 0.41 | 187 | 19 |
| Aspen | 2.36 | 0.85 | 1.05 | 0.38 | 52 | 19 |
| Alaska birch | 2.35 | 0.38 | 1.04 | 0.17 | 52 | 9 |
| Balsam poplar | 0.11 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 3 | 1 |
| Nonstocked | 1.22 | 1.22 | 0.54 | 0.54 | 25 | 25 |
| Total | 5.53 | 0.60 | 2.46 | 0.26 | 122 | 13 |

Note: The units for nitrogen are pounds per acre. SE = standard error.

Table 21—Estimated ground layer biomass stocks in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|--------------|----------------------|-------|-------|-----|--------|-------|
| | <i>Thousand tons</i> | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 7,748 | 1,432 | 1,803 | 341 | 9,551 | 1,472 |
| White spruce | 968 | 397 | 308 | 187 | 1,276 | 439 |
| Aspen | 199 | 133 | — | — | 199 | 133 |
| Birch | 1,214 | 305 | 294 | 149 | 1,508 | 340 |
| Poplar | 11 | 7 | — | — | 11 | 7 |
| Nonstocked | 43 | 39 | — | — | 43 | 39 |
| Total | 10,183 | 1,322 | 2,405 | 304 | 12,588 | 1,356 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Table 22—Estimated ground layer biomass per acre in forest types on the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and the Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR)

| Forest type | TVSF | SE | TNWR | SE | Total | SE |
|---------------|----------------------|------|------|-----|-------|------|
| | <i>Tons per acre</i> | | | | | |
| Black spruce | 10.5 | 1.3 | 4.8 | 0.7 | 8.6 | 0.9 |
| White spruce | 3.9 | 1.1 | 5.4 | 1.5 | 4.2 | 0.9 |
| Aspen | 2.4 | 0.8 | — | — | 2.4 | 0.8 |
| Birch | 2.3 | 0.4 | 2.7 | 0.7 | 2.4 | 0.4 |
| Poplar | 0.1 | 0.04 | — | — | 0.1 | 0.04 |
| Nonstocked | 1.22 | 0 | — | — | 1.2 | 0 |
| Total biomass | 5.9 | 0.7 | 4.5 | 0.5 | 5.5 | 0.6 |

SE = standard error. — = no samples fell in this combination of classes.

Environmental influences and validation—

From the NPMR models, the best predictors of ground layer attributes were related to solar radiation and vegetation attributes like forb cover and stand age. Specifically, ground layer carbon and nitrogen were greatest in older stands and lowest in plots with high forb cover and high solar radiation. From the comparison of estimates based on multiple observers in Minnesota, mean biomass did not differ among observers after accounting for site differences ($F = 0.77, p = 0.57$) (fig. 28), suggesting good repeatability of the measurement method.

Discussion

Carbon and nitrogen pools in boreal ground layers—

Ground layers are a substantial C pool in boreal forests of interior Alaska, while at the same time enhancing a variety of ecosystem functions (table 18). Our finding of around 4,500 to 17,000 pounds per acre of biomass is within the range of variability

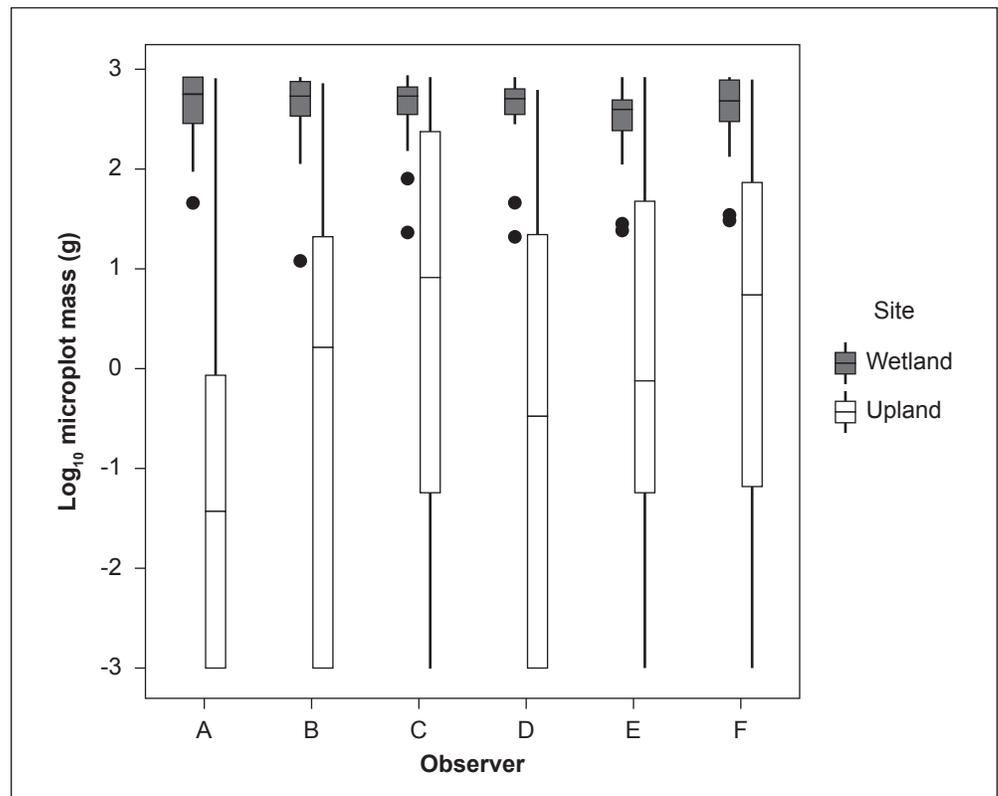


Figure 28—Mean biomass did not differ between six observers in Minnesota after accounting for differences between sites ($F = 0.77, p = 0.57$ from F-test). Agreement between observers suggests good repeatability of the Ground Layer Indicator. Boxes indicate the interquartile range of observations, lines within boxes are the median, whiskers extend to the 1.5 times the interquartile range, and dots are outlier observations.

observed in other moss and lichen mats of the Tanana River area (Barney and Van Cleve 1973, Mack et al. 2008), which gives a sense of the C storage capacity of boreal forest ground layers in interior Alaska. That multiple observers did not statistically differ indicates that estimates are realistic and repeatable. The high abundance of nitrogen-fixing feather mosses suggests large landscape nutrient effects: cyanobacteria in nitrogen-fixing feather mosses contribute the majority of biologically available nitrogen in boreal forest understories, an amount that can be nearly equal to the total amount of nitrogen entering from rainfall (Lagerström et al. 2007). Nitrogen input from feather mosses has ultimate consequences for nutrient ratios, plant growth, and ecosystem productivity (Lindo et al. 2013). Together, these findings imply that moss and lichen mats in the Tanana River region contribute substantially to forest nitrogen and organic carbon stores.

Environmental influences—

It is unclear whether observed patterns will hold as environmental conditions change in interior Alaska. We found that biomass, C and nitrogen were sensitive to a topographic proxy of solar radiation, suggesting that mass accumulation in ground layers is tied to sheltered thermal situations (and probably moist topographic positions as well). Carbon emissions from ground layers and peat will become an increasing possibility as droughts, climate warming, and melting permafrost cause dropping water tables (Fenner and Freeman 2011, Gorham 1991) and increasing fire risks (Kasischke and Stocks 2012). Future efforts to map landscape C could benefit from using topographic proxies of important hydrologic and thermal attributes.

We documented more biomass and carbon in old stands relative to younger stands, consistent with evidence that moss and lichen mats are C “sinks” in old, undisturbed boreal forests, but can be net C “sources” in recently burned stands and for several years after fires (Harden et al. 2000). This emphasizes the dual challenges that wildfires pose to C storage, not only from acute combustive losses (fig. 29), but also from legacy effects that can hinder growth and C uptake for decades. Carbon emissions from burned ground layers, as well as subsequent regrowth of fire-promoting vascular vegetation, could potentially amplify climate warming (Chapin et al. 2010, Kasischke and Stocks 2012, Turetsky et al. 2015). Anticipating these changes will require continued monitoring of vascular and nonvascular vegetation, as well as novel predictive approaches for mapping C pools.

National Park Service and Alaska Division of Forestry



Figure 29—An increasingly common sight: large wildfires in Alaska’s boreal forests and tundra are releasing more carbon from moss and lichen mats than at any point in the last several thousand years.

Future extensions: carbon distribution mapping—

Mapping forest floor C has been a valuable product of FIA inventories (Woodall 2012). As inventories move forward, it will be critical to include ground layer mosses and lichens, as well as the deep organic peat layers (>8 inches deep) that frequently lie beneath them if we are to avoid grossly underestimating carbon (Bona et al. 2013, Chimner et al. 2014).

Carbon estimation in ground layers could also be linked with remote sensing approaches, which have previously been used to map forage lichen cover for caribou habitat, fire effects on moss mats, peatland drought status, ecosystem productivity of moss mats, and forest floor organic C (Harris and Bryant 2009; Kushida et al. 2004; Lewis et al. 2011; Nelson et al. 2013; Pastick et al. 2014, respectively). Recent LiDAR, hyperspectral and thermal imaging (G-LiHT) (see Andersen et al., this publication) could be calibrated with our ground layer biomass estimates to improve stratification of plot measurements and infer regional patterns. The wealth of potential information and tools at our disposal will provide opportunities for ground layer carbon estimation in Alaska, a part of our Nation that is at the forefront of ongoing global changes.

Ecosystem C Pools in the Tanana Pilot⁸

Boreal ecosystems account for about 50 percent of global forest ecosystem C stocks (Malhi et al. 1999). Unlike other forested ecosystems where trees contain a large proportion of ecosystem C, the majority of the C in these ecosystems often occurs in soils (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012, Malhi et al. 1999, Tarnocai et al. 2009). The results of this pilot inventory found that soil organic layers plus mineral soil to a 1-inch depth had 47 to 84 percent of total ecosystem C (live tree, standing dead tree, DWM and soil), depending on forest type and location (figs. 30 and 31). White spruce forests on TVSF lands had the lowest proportion (45 percent) of ecosystem C contained in soils. Black spruce forests on TNWR lands had the highest (84 percent) proportion of total ecosystem C contained in soils. Aboveground live tree C accounted for 13 to 45 percent of total ecosystem C with black spruce forests on TNWR lands having the lowest (13 percent) percentage and white spruce forests on TVSF having the highest (45 percent) percentage (fig. 32). The standing dead tree (“snag”) pool was the smallest overall (2.2 percent of total C) and ranged from 0.5 percent in black spruce forests on the TNWR to 5.9 percent in white spruce forests on the TVSF. When converted to C (biomass × 0.5) (Harmon et al. 2008), DWM contributed a relatively small proportion of the total (live tree, snag, DWM, and

Soil organic layers plus mineral soil to a 1-inch depth had 47 to 84 percent of total ecosystem carbon.

⁸ Author: Robert Pattison.

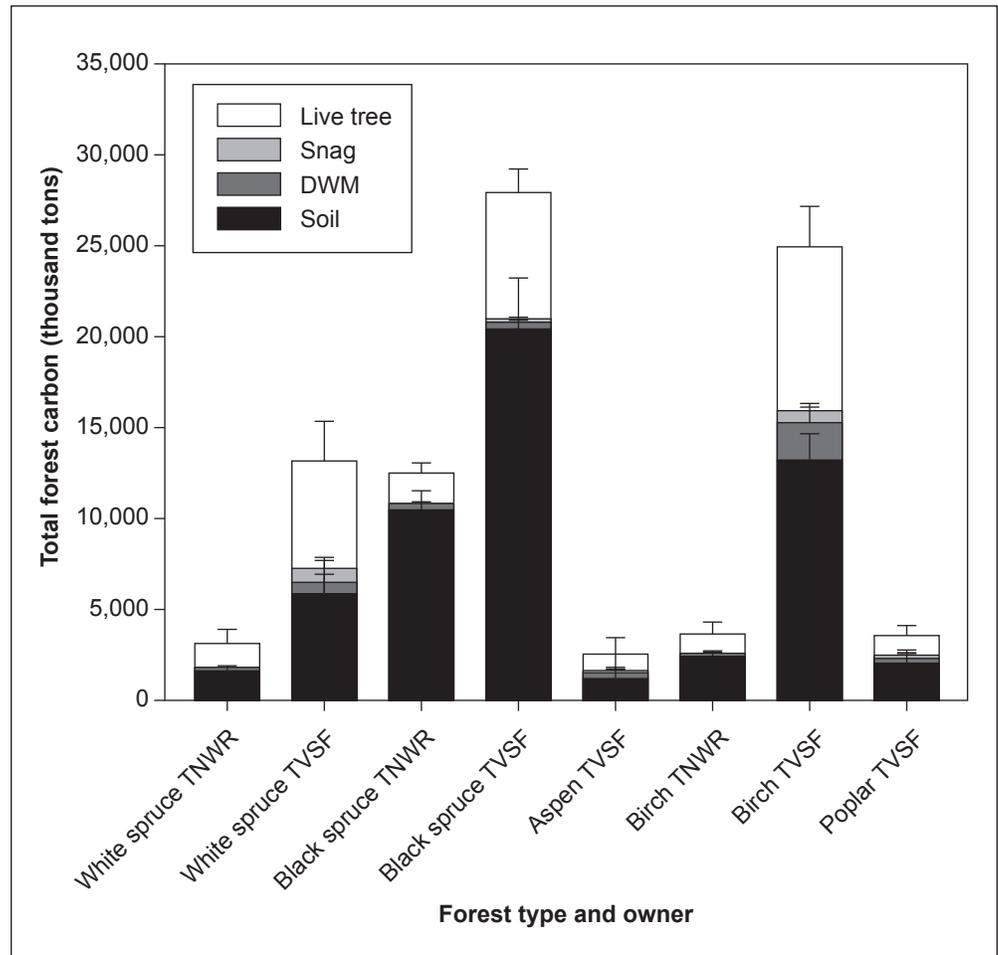


Figure 30—Estimated carbon in trees, down woody material (DWM) and soils in thousands of tons as a total for each of the forest in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Error bars represent + 1 standard error of the estimated totals for trees, DWM, and soils in each category.

soil) C. Black spruce forests on TVSF had the lowest proportion (1.4 percent) of total C in DWM, while aspen forest types on TVSF had the highest (14 percent) (fig. 30). These results are consistent with other studies (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012) which have found that coarse woody debris (CWD) accounted for 8 to 11 percent of total ecosystem (tree, CWD, soil) C. Ground layer as a distinct pool accounted for 0 to 7 percent of total ecosystem (live tree, snag DWM, and soil) C (fig. 33). Poplar forests had the lowest ground layer content, and white spruce forests had the highest C in the ground layer (fig. 33).

The results of this study highlight the variability both in the amount of total ecosystem C found across forests and in how that C is distributed within forest ecosystems. There was close to a twofold variation in total ecosystem C across the forests in this study. There was also close to a twofold variation in the portion C

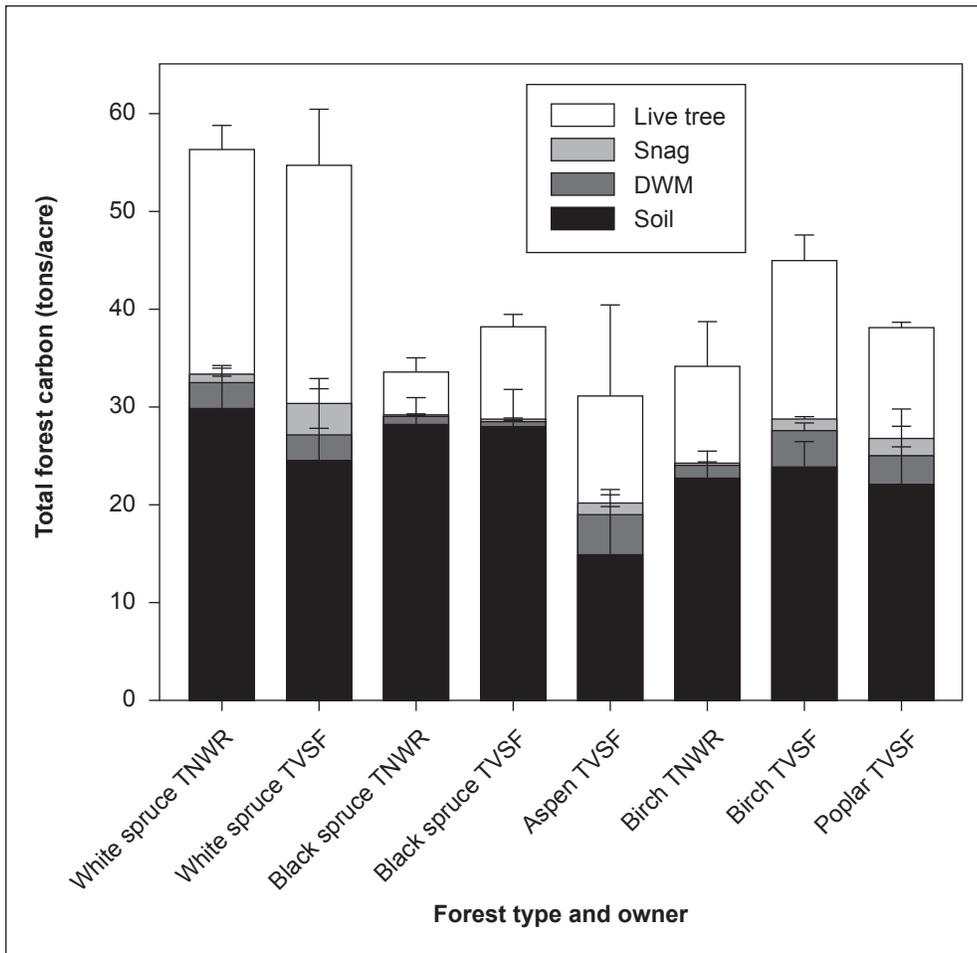


Figure 31—Estimated carbon in live tree, standing dead trees (“snag”) down woody material (DWM) and soil in tons per acre as a total for each of the forest types in the Tanana Valley State Forest (TVSF) and Tetlin National Wildlife Refuge (TNWR). Error bars represent + 1 standard error of the estimated totals for trees, DWM, and soils in each category.

that was found in soils and more than a threefold variation in the percentage of C found in trees (fig. 31). The percentage of total ecosystem C found in soils in this study (45 to 84 percent) is consistent with that found in other boreal forests (De Luca and Boisvenue 2012); however, differences in methodology confound direct comparisons. In this study, black spruce forest soils contained up to 84 percent of the total ecosystem C, elsewhere black spruce forest soils contained 87 percent of ecosystem C (De Luca and Boisvenue 2012).

The inability to sample frozen soils particularly those in low-lying and poorly drained sites such as those dominated by black spruce suggests that soil C was underestimated in these forests. Ping et al. (2010) found that soil organic C in black spruce forests tended to increase as water drainage decreased. These sites are also the most likely to have frozen soils that limit sampling. These authors suggest that



Figure 32—Field crew member measuring tree distance from a subplot center in a white spruce forest.

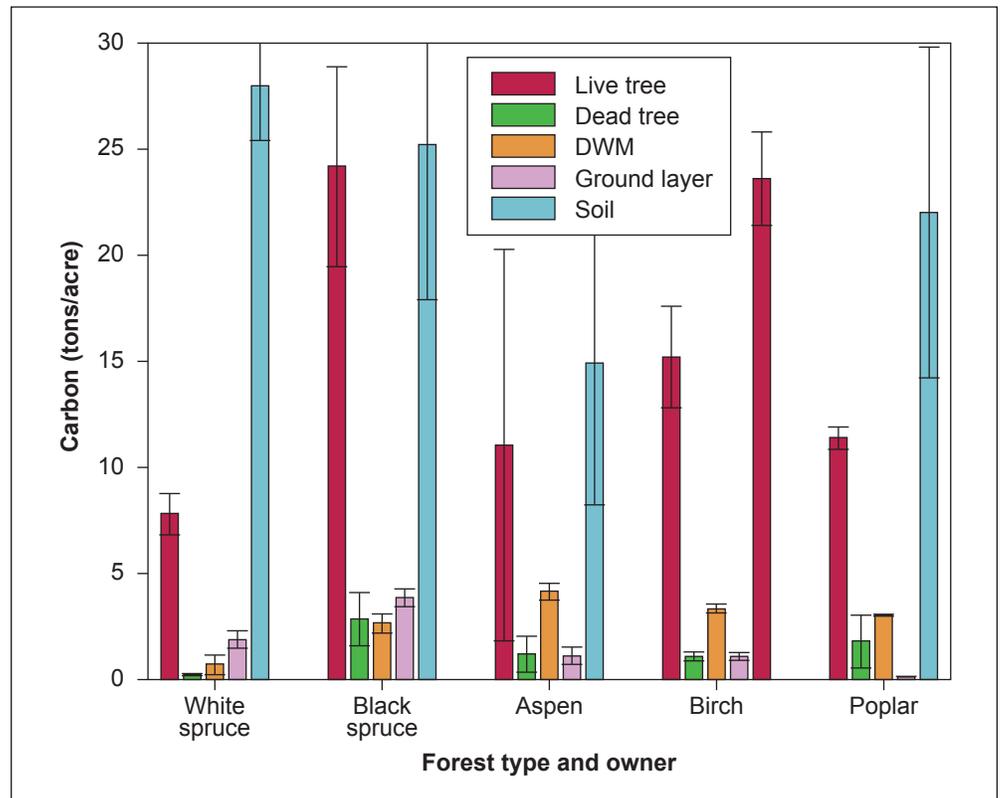


Figure 33—Amount of carbon in various pools by forest types. DWM = down woody material.

sampling at depths less than 40 inches can underestimate soil organic C by as much as 68 percent in black spruce forests. In spite of these limitations, the soil data from this inventory represent an important contribution to understanding soil C dynamics in a region that has limited sampling (Ping et al. 2010) and is vulnerable to climate change (Hinzmann et al. 2013).

Live trees represented another substantial C pool in these forests. The portion of ecosystem C found trees in this study (13 to 45 percent) is similar to that seen in other boreal forests (11 to 64 percent) (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012). Within black spruce forests, those on the TNWR had the lowest portion (13 percent) of total ecosystem C in trees; this appeared to be the result of lower tree C in these forests (fig. 31).

While the ground layer did not represent a substantial contribution to total ecosystem C (fig. 33), understanding the composition of this layer can provide insights into ecosystem productivity and into soil C properties (Hollingsworth et al. 2008).

This study did not attempt to quantify the C content of understory vegetation. Other studies suggest that understory vegetation typically contains less than 1 percent of the total ecosystem C of boreal forests (DeLuca and Biosvenue 2012). Changes in vegetation composition, including but not limited to shrub encroachment (Johnstone et al. 2010), may alter the contribution of understory vegetation to total ecosystem C in boreal forests.

A USFS-NASA Partnership to Leverage Advanced Remote Sensing Technologies for Forest Inventory⁹

Introduction

To increase the precision of the inventory estimates, the relatively sparse FIA field plot sample collected in TVSF and TNWR was augmented with sampled airborne remotely sensed data acquired with the G-LiHT system to increase the precision of inventory parameter estimates. G-LiHT is a portable, airborne imaging system, developed at the NASA-Goddard Space Flight Center, which simultaneously maps the composition, structure, and function of terrestrial ecosystems using LiDAR, imaging spectroscopy, and thermal imaging. G-LiHT provides high-resolution ~3.3 ft (~1 m) data that are well suited for studying tree-level ecosystem dynamics, including assessment of forest health and productivity of forest stands and individual trees. In addition, G-LiHT data support local-scale mapping and regional-scale sampling of plant biomass, photosynthesis, and disturbance. The data are accurately georeferenced and can be matched very precisely with field plot data that are georeferenced using high-accuracy (dual-frequency, GLONASS-enabled) global positioning system.

G-LiHT is a portable, airborne imaging system that simultaneously maps the composition, structure, and function of terrestrial ecosystems using LiDAR, imaging spectroscopy, and thermal imaging.

⁹ Authors: Hans-Erik Andersen, Chad Babcock, Robert Pattison, Bruce Cook, Doug Morton, and Andrew Finley.

Methods

G-LiHT collection—

G-LiHT airborne remote sensing data was acquired in July–August 2014 along single swaths 273 yd wide (250 m wide) spaced 5.78 mi (9.3 km) apart over the entire Tanana inventory unit of 52.1 mi² (135 000 km²) (fig. 2). G-LiHT flight lines were aligned so as to (1) ensure coverage over every FIA plot established for the 2014 pilot and (2) capture as much variability in aboveground biomass as possible within each flight line.

G-LiHT remote sensing measurements—

LiDAR—Detailed specifications for the G-LiHT instrument are provided in Cook et al. (2013). The **airborne LiDAR** data collected in the project provides detailed information on the terrain surface morphology and forest structure within each data swath (fig. 34A and 34B).

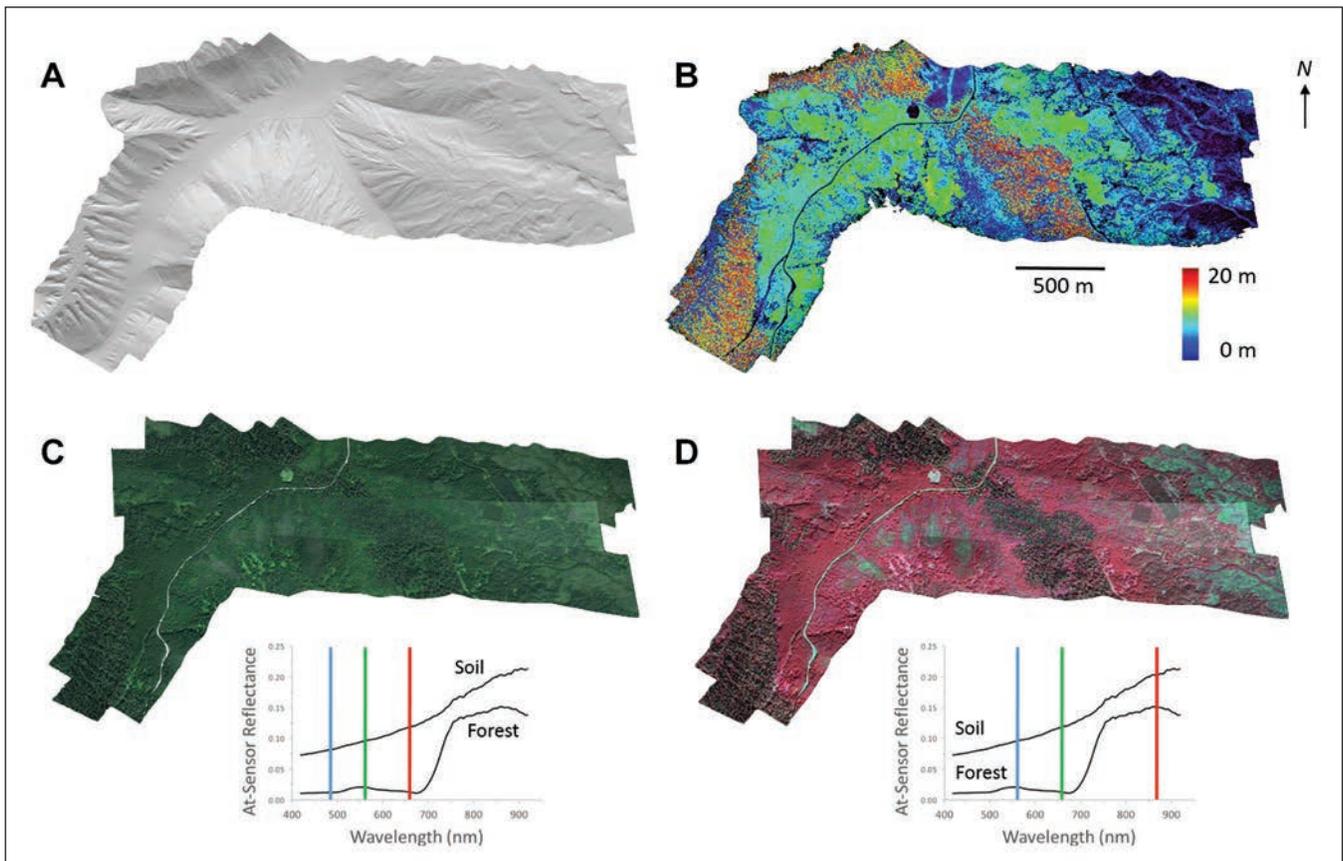


Figure 34—Examples of Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal measurements for an area within Bonanza Creek Experimental Forest: (a) LiDAR-derived terrain model, (b) LiDAR-derived canopy height model, (c) normal-color image derived from hyperspectral sensor data (continuous spectral profiles for various features (soil (left), forest (right)) are shown in insets), and (d) color-infrared image derived from hyperspectral sensor data.

The detailed LiDAR terrain model (fig. 34A) can be subtracted from a LiDAR-based canopy surface model to generate a high-resolution (e.g., 3.3-ft [1-m]) canopy height model (fig. 34B). High-resolution LiDAR-derived canopy height and cover information can then be used to characterize important structural conditions such as forest stand size class and canopy cover (Andersen 2009).

In addition, detailed terrain measurements could potentially be used to detect and characterize geomorphological features associated with permafrost distribution and change (fig. 35).

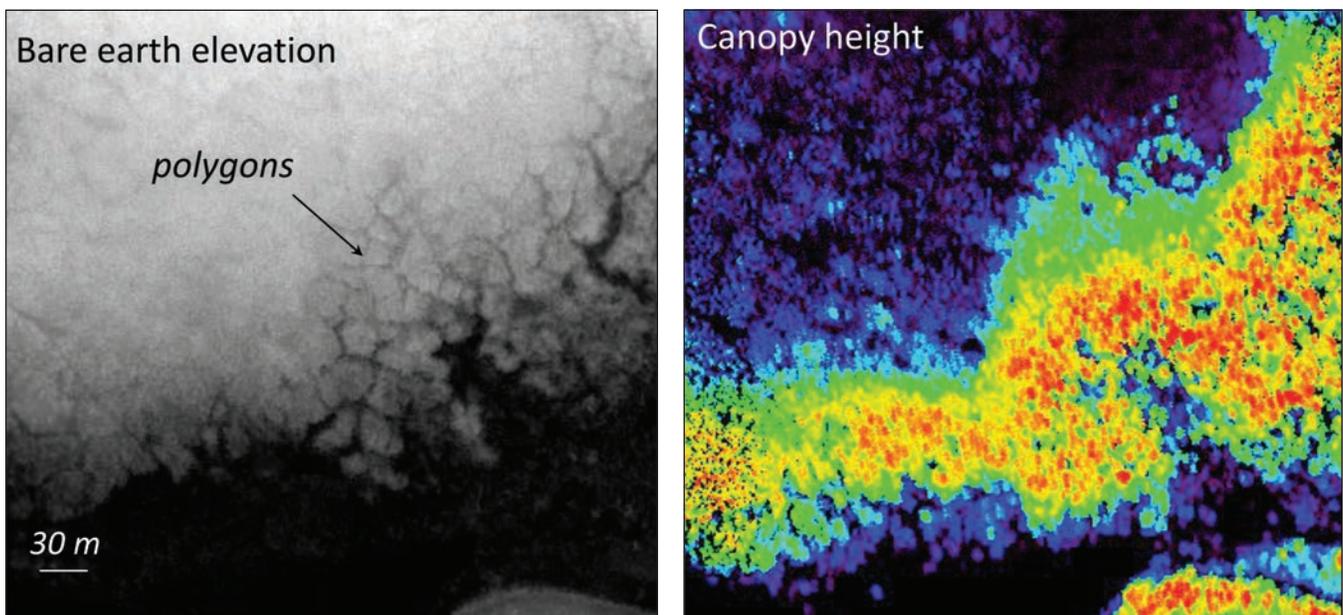


Figure 35—Example of small-scale geomorphological features (patterned ground [polygons] in permafrost soils) captured in Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal high-resolution LiDAR terrain model.

Hyperspectral imaging—G-LiHT’s hyperspectral imaging sensor provides detailed information on the spectral reflectance properties of surface features that is highly complementary to the 3-D canopy structural information provided by LiDAR. At every image pixel, the hyperspectral sensor captures a spectrum of reflectance values ranging from the violet (420 nm) to the near-infrared (950 nm) with a spectral resolution of less than 5 nm and a spatial resolution of 3.3 ft (1 m). Spectral profiles associated with common surface types such as soil and forest are shown in figure 35. Products such as normal color (fig. 34C) and color-infrared (fig. 34D) high-resolution images can then be generated from hyperspectral image, and can provide useful information related to forest type and condition.

The full range of reflectance values can be used in a supervised classification algorithm to generate maps of forest or species type. For example, figure 36 shows the result of applying a Spectral Angle Mapper supervised classification method to G-LiHT hyperspectral data in a forest near Fairbanks, Alaska. Although hyperspectral image processing and analysis is highly complex and sensitive to a number of factors, including surface moisture, solar illumination conditions, etc., preliminary results show the potential of this data for characterizing composition (species class), condition (insect damage, drought stress), and mortality of vegetation within the scene.

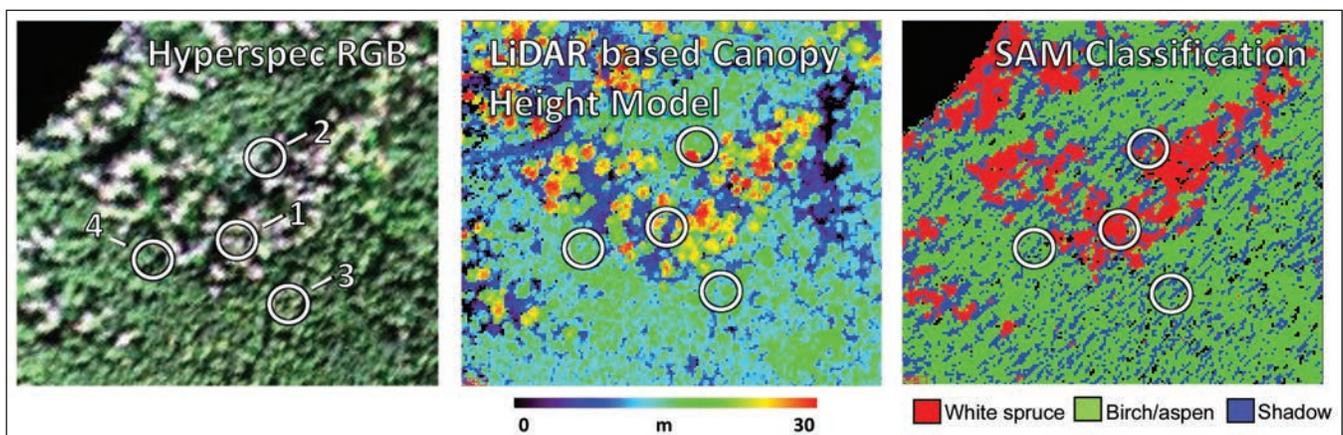


Figure 36—Forest type mapping using Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) classification algorithm applied to Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal hyperspectral measurements. White circles depict Forest Inventory and Analysis subplots.

High-resolution digital camera—A Nikon D7100 digital single lens reflex (DSLR) camera with 20mm f/2.8D lens was mounted next to the G-LiHT sensor to acquire ultra-high resolution normal color frame imagery to supplement the G-LiHT measurements (fig. 37). Because the DSLR imagery was collected as an experiment in this project, there were limitations to the data; for example, approximately 50 percent of the field-of-view was blocked by the G-LiHT instrument and frame rate was too low to enable stereo collection. That being said, it is evident that the DSLR camera provided highly detailed information on many scene components, including CWD, ground cover (lichens, mosses), tree mortality, and hydrology.

LiDAR-based biomass prediction—

Detailed LiDAR-derived metrics obtained from G-LiHT (e.g., height percentiles, canopy cover by height stratum, etc.) can be used to quantify 3-D canopy structure over an area at the scale of an FIA plot or subplot, thereby enabling prediction of inventory attributes (e.g., aboveground biomass) via linear regression analysis. For

example, figure 38 shows the results of a regression analysis at FIA plots within TVSF and TNWR established in the 2014 Tanana pilot. Interestingly, the results indicate that the strength of the regression relationship between LiDAR-based predictor variables and field-measured AGB is increased by including a larger sample of small-diameter trees provided by the second microplot on each FIA subplot.



Figure 37—High-resolution image from digital single lens reflex camera collected concurrently with Goddard-LiDAR/Hyperspectral/Thermal.

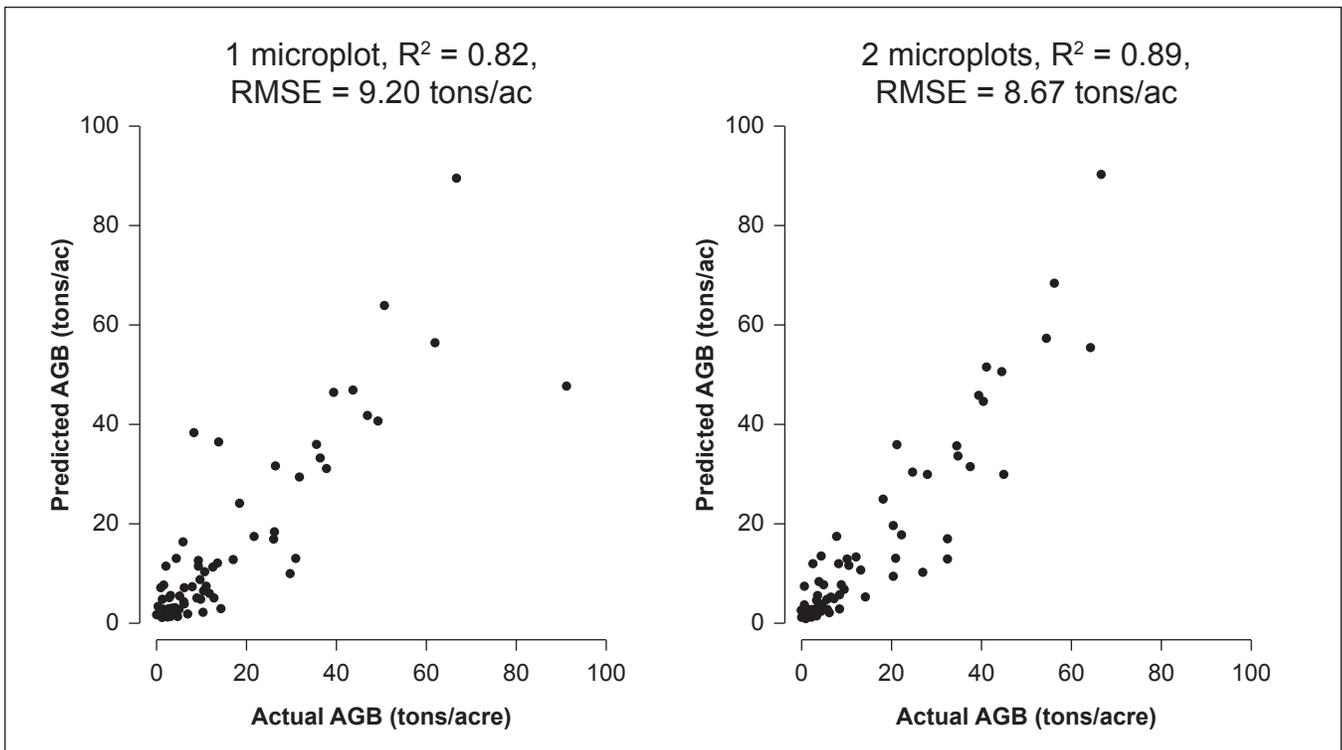


Figure 38—LiDAR-based predicted aboveground biomass (AGB) vs. actual (field-based) AGB for Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) plots with one microplot (left) and FIA plots with two microplots (right). RMSE = root mean squared error.

Future Work

Standard (design-unbiased, plot-based) FIA estimation approaches will be compared with model-assisted (i.e., approximately design-unbiased) and model-based approaches which utilize auxiliary information provided by G-LiHT-derived structural and spectral metrics (Bechtold and Patterson 2005, Gregoire et al. 2011, McRoberts et al. 2014, Särndal et al. 2003). Previous studies have indicated that the precision of aboveground carbon/biomass estimates—and the cost-efficiency of the inventory—can be increased through the combined use of airborne LiDAR data and field data in a two-phase, model-assisted sampling framework (Barrett et al. 2009, Ene et al. 2013). The accuracy and bias of the different approaches to estimation and inference will be evaluated using simulation (e.g., Ene et al. 2012).

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Metric Equivalents

| When you know: | Multiply by: | To find: |
|---|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| Inches (in) | 2.54 | Centimeters |
| Feet (ft) | 305 | Meters |
| Acres (ac) | .405 | Hectares |
| Miles (mi) | 1.609 | Kilometers |
| Cubic feet (ft ³) | .0283 | Cubic meters |
| Pounds (lb) | 454 | Grams |
| Pounds (lb) | .454 | Kilograms |
| Tons (ton) | 907 | Kilograms |
| Tons (ton) | 0.907 | Tonnes or megagrams |
| Pounds per acre (lb/ac) | 1.12 | Kilograms per hectare |
| Pounds per acre | .00112 | Tonnes per hectare |
| Tons per acre | 2.24 | Tonnes or megagrams per hectare |
| Cubic feet per acre (ft ³ /ac) | .07 | Cubic meters per hectare |
| Degrees Fahrenheit | .56(°F – 32) | Degrees Celsius |

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Appendix

Table 23—Scientific and common names of vascular plant species recorded, their growth habits as recorded, wetland status, and constancy on plots by inventory method and owner

| Scientific name | Common name | Growth habit(s) ^a | Wetland status ^b | Method/owner | | |
|---|-----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------|
| | | | | VEG Profile | | Full census |
| | | | | TVSF | TNWR | TNWR |
| | | | | <i>Percentage of plots</i> | | |
| <i>Alnus incana</i> ssp. <i>tenuifolia</i> | Thinleaf alder | SH, tr | | 11.3 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Alnus viridis</i> | Green alder | SH | FAC | 22.5 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Alnus viridis</i> ssp. <i>crispa</i> | Mountain alder | SH, SD | | 26.8 | 40.7 | 34.6 |
| <i>Alnus viridis</i> ssp. <i>sinuata</i> | Sitka alder | SH | | 7 | 7.4 | 3.8 |
| <i>Amerorchis rotundifolia</i> | Roundleaf orchid | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Andromeda polifolia</i> | Bog rosemary | SH | FACW | 0 | 0 | 11.5 |
| <i>Anemone parviflora</i> | Smallflowered anemone | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Arctagrostis latifolia</i> | Wideleaf polargrass | GR | FACW | 0 | 3.7 | 7.7 |
| <i>Arctagrostis latifolia</i> ssp. <i>arundinacea</i> | Wideleaf polargrass | GR | | 0 | 3.7 | 19.2 |
| <i>Arctagrostis latifolia</i> ssp. <i>latifolia</i> | Wideleaf polargrass | GR | | 0 | 0 | 19.2 |
| <i>Arctostaphylos alpina</i> | Alpine bearberry | SH | | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Arctostaphylos rubra</i> | Red fruit bearberry | SH | | 5.6 | 11.1 | 61.5 |
| <i>Arctostaphylos uva-ursi</i> | Kinnikinnick | SH | UPL | 2.8 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Betula glandulosa</i> | Resin birch | SH | FAC | 8.5 | 25.9 | 19.2 |
| <i>Betula nana</i> | Dwarf birch | SH | FAC | 15.5 | 44.4 | 42.3 |
| <i>Betula neoalaskana</i> | Alaska birch | TT, SD | FACU | 69 | 63 | 57.7 |
| <i>Calamagrostis canadensis</i> | Bluejoint | GR | FAC | 35.2 | 7.4 | 30.8 |
| <i>Calamagrostis purpurascens</i> | Purple reedgrass | GR | | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Callitriche palustris</i> | Vernal water-starwort | FB | OBL | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Carex aquatilis</i> | Water sedge | GR | OBL | 4.2 | 7.4 | 7.7 |
| <i>Carex bigelowii</i> | Bigelow's sedge | GR | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Carex canescens</i> | Silvery sedge | GR | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Carex capitata</i> | Capitate sedge | GR | FAC | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Carex chordorrhiza</i> | Creeping sedge | GR | OBL | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Carex concinna</i> | Low northern sedge | GR | FAC | 0 | 3.7 | 11.5 |
| <i>Carex disperma</i> | Softleaf sedge | GR | FACW | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Carex echinata</i> | Star sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Carex gynocrates</i> | Northern bog sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Carex lasiocarpa</i> | Woollyfruit sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Carex lenticularis</i> | Lakeshore sedge | GR | OBL | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Carex leptalea</i> | Bristlystalked sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Carex limosa</i> | Mud sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |

Table 23—Scientific and common names of vascular plant species recorded, their growth habits as recorded, wetland status, and constancy on plots by inventory method and owner (continued)

| Scientific name | Common name | Growth habit(s) ^a | Wetland status ^b | Method/owner | | |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------|-------------|
| | | | | VEG Profile | | Full census |
| | | | | TVSF | TNWR | TNWR |
| <i>Percentage of plots</i> | | | | | | |
| <i>Carex magellanica</i> | Boreal bog sedge | GR | OBL | 1.4 | 0 | 15.4 |
| <i>Carex membranacea</i> | Fragile sedge | GR | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Carex microchaeta</i> | Smallawned sedge | GR | FAC | 2.8 | 3.7 | 11.5 |
| <i>Carex saxatilis</i> | Rock sedge | GR | FACW | 0 | 3.7 | 11.5 |
| <i>Carex stylosa</i> | Variegated sedge | GR | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Carex utriculata</i> | Northwest territory sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 7.4 | 0 |
| <i>Carex vaginata</i> | Sheathed sedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Ceratophyllum demersum</i> | Coon's tail | FB | OBL | 0 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Chamaedaphne calyculata</i> | Leatherleaf | SH | FACW | 2.8 | 3.7 | 23.1 |
| <i>Chamerion angustifolium</i> ssp. <i>angustifolium</i> | Fireweed | FB | | 15.5 | 7.4 | 23.1 |
| <i>Cicuta virosa</i> | Mackenzie's water hemlock | FB | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Circaea alpina</i> | Small enchanter's nightshade | FB | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Comarum palustre</i> | Purple marshlocks | FB | OBL | 1.4 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Cornus canadensis</i> | Bunchberry dogwood | FB | FACU | 18.3 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Cornus sericea</i> ssp. <i>sericea</i> | Redosier dogwood | SH | | 2.8 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Cornus suecica</i> | Lapland cornel | SH | FAC | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Cystopteris fragilis</i> | Brittle bladderfern | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Dasiphora fruticosa</i> ssp. <i>floribunda</i> | Shrubby cinquefoil | SH | | 1.4 | 11.1 | 30.8 |
| <i>Delphinium glaucum</i> | Sierra larkspur | SH | FACW | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Drosera rotundifolia</i> | Roundleaf sundew | FB | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Dryas integrifolia</i> | Entireleaf mountain-avens | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Empetrum nigrum</i> | Black crowberry | SH | FAC | 11.3 | 33.3 | 53.8 |
| <i>Epilobium palustre</i> | Marsh willowherb | FB | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Equisetum arvense</i> | Field horsetail | FB | FAC | 23.9 | 11.1 | 46.2 |
| <i>Equisetum fluviatile</i> | Water horsetail | FB | OBL | 4.2 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Equisetum palustre</i> | Marsh horsetail | FB | FACW | 2.8 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Equisetum pratense</i> | Meadow horsetail | FB | FACW | 1.4 | 7.4 | 11.5 |
| <i>Equisetum scirpoides</i> | Dwarf scouringrush | FB | FACU | 1.4 | 7.4 | 46.2 |
| <i>Equisetum sylvaticum</i> | Woodland horsetail | FB | FAC | 18.3 | 25.9 | 23.1 |
| <i>Erigeron acris</i> | Bitter fleabane | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Erigeron elatus</i> | Swamp boreal-daisy | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Erigeron lonchophyllus</i> | Shortray fleabane | FB | FACW | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |

Table 23—Scientific and common names of vascular plant species recorded, their growth habits as recorded, wetland status, and constancy on plots by inventory method and owner (continued)

| Scientific name | Common name | Growth habit(s) ^a | Wetland status ^b | Method/owner | | |
|--|--------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------|
| | | | | VEG Profile | | Full census |
| | | | | TVSF | TNWR | TNWR |
| | | | | <i>Percentage of plots</i> | | |
| <i>Eriophorum</i> | Cottongrass | GR | | 0 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Eriophorum brachyantherum</i> | Northland cottonsedge | GR | OBL | 0 | 11.1 | 19.2 |
| <i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> | Tussock cottongrass | GR | FACW | 7 | 25.9 | 26.9 |
| <i>Festuca altaica</i> | Altai fescue | GR | FAC | 2.8 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Festuca rubra</i> | Red fescue | GR | FAC | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Fragaria virginiana</i> | Virginia strawberry | FB | UPL | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Geocaulon lividum</i> | False toadflax | FB | FACU | 22.5 | 25.9 | 42.3 |
| <i>Glyceria grandis</i> var. <i>grandis</i> | American mannagrass | GR | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Goodyera repens</i> | Lesser rattlesnake plantain | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Hedysarum alpinum</i> | Alpine sweetvetch | FB | FACU | 0 | 3.7 | 7.7 |
| <i>Huperzia selago</i> var. <i>selago</i> | Fir clubmoss | SH | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Iris</i> | Iris | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Iris setosa</i> | Beachhead iris | FB | FAC | 1.4 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Larix laricina</i> | Tamarack | SD | FACW | 7 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Ledum groenlandicum</i> | Bog labrador tea | SH | | 57.7 | 77.8 | 96.2 |
| <i>Ledum palustre</i> ssp. <i>decumbens</i> | Marsh labrador tea | SH | | 8.5 | 25.9 | 34.6 |
| <i>Lemna minor</i> | Common duckweed | FB | OBL | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Linnaea borealis</i> | Twinflower | FB | FACU | 9.9 | 3.7 | 11.5 |
| <i>Lupinus</i> | Lupine | FB | | 0 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Lupinus arcticus</i> | Arctic lupine | FB | FACU | 1.4 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Lycopodium annotinum</i> | Stiff clubmoss | SH | | 4.2 | 3.7 | 15.4 |
| <i>Lycopodium complanatum</i> | Groundcedar | SH | | 4.2 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Lycopodium lagopus</i> | One-cone clubmoss | SH | FACU | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Lycopodium obscurum</i> | Rare clubmoss | SH | | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Menyanthes trifoliata</i> | Buckbean | FB | OBL | 1.4 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Mertensia paniculata</i> | Tall bluebells | FB | FACU | 8.5 | 7.4 | 26.9 |
| <i>Moehringia lateriflora</i> | Bluntleaf sandwort | FB | FACU | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Moneses uniflora</i> | Single delight | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 26.9 |
| <i>Orthilia secunda</i> | Sidebells wintergreen | FB | FACU | 0 | 3.7 | 30.8 |
| <i>Oxytropis deflexa</i> | Nodding locoweed | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Oxytropis deflexa</i> var. <i>foliolosa</i> | Nodding locoweed | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Parnassia palustris</i> var. <i>tenuis</i> | Marsh grass of parnassus | FB | | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Parrya nudicaulis</i> | Nakedstem wallflower | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Pedicularis</i> | Lousewort | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |

Table 23—Scientific and common names of vascular plant species recorded, their growth habits as recorded, wetland status, and constancy on plots by inventory method and owner (continued)

| Scientific name | Common name | Growth habit(s) ^a | Wetland status ^b | Method/owner | | |
|--|---------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------|-------------|
| | | | | VEG Profile | | Full census |
| | | | | TVSF | TNWR | TNWR |
| <i>Percentage of plots</i> | | | | | | |
| <i>Pedicularis labradorica</i> | Labrador lousewort | FB | FACW | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Pedicularis parviflora</i> | Smallflower lousewort | FB | FACW | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Petasites frigidus</i> | Arctic sweet coltsfoot | FB | FACW | 1.4 | 14.8 | 19.2 |
| <i>Petasites frigidus</i> var. <i>frigidus</i> | Arctic sweet coltsfoot | FB | | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Picea glauca</i> | White spruce | TT, SD | FACU | 63.4 | 44.4 | 46.2 |
| <i>Picea mariana</i> | Black spruce | TT, SD | FACW | 59.2 | 92.6 | 92.3 |
| <i>Poa arctica</i> ssp. <i>lanata</i> | Arctic bluegrass | GR | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Polygonum alpinum</i> | Alaska wild rhubarb | FB | | 5.6 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Polygonum viviparum</i> | Alpine bistort | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Populus balsamifera</i> | Balsam poplar | TT, SD | FACU | 7 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Populus tremuloides</i> | Quaking aspen | TT, SD | FACU | 18.3 | 11.1 | 15.4 |
| <i>Pyrola</i> | Wintergreen | FB | | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Pyrola asarifolia</i> | Liverleaf wintergreen | FB | FACU | 0 | 3.7 | 19.2 |
| <i>Pyrola chlorantha</i> | Greenflowered wintergreen | FB | FACU | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Pyrola grandiflora</i> | Largeflowered wintergreen | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Ranunculus</i> | Buttercup | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Ranunculus lapponicus</i> | Lapland buttercup | FB | | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Ribes hudsonianum</i> | Northern black currant | SH | FAC | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Ribes triste</i> | Red currant | SH | FAC | 2.8 | 0 | 11.5 |
| <i>Rosa</i> | Rose | SH | | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Rosa acicularis</i> | Prickly rose | SH | FACU | 42.3 | 18.5 | 46.2 |
| <i>Rubus arcticus</i> | Arctic raspberry | SH | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Rubus chamaemorus</i> | Cloudberry | FB, SH | FACW | 14.1 | 7.4 | 42.3 |
| <i>Rubus idaeus</i> | American red raspberry | SH | FACU | 4.2 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Rumex aquaticus</i> var. <i>fenestratus</i> | Western dock | FB | | 0 | 0 | 11.5 |
| <i>Salix</i> | Willow | SH | | 4.2 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Salix alaxensis</i> | Feltleaf willow | SH, tr | FAC | 5.6 | 3.7 | 19.2 |
| <i>Salix arbusculoides</i> | Littletree willow | SH, tr | FACW | 1.4 | 11.1 | 34.6 |
| <i>Salix barclayi</i> | Barclay's willow | SH, tr | FAC | 1.4 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Salix barrattiana</i> | Barratt's willow | SH | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Salix bebbiana</i> | Bebb willow | SH, SD | FAC | 16.9 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Salix boothii</i> | Booth's willow | SH, tr | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Salix commutata</i> | Undergreen willow | SH | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |

Table 23—Scientific and common names of vascular plant species recorded, their growth habits as recorded, wetland status, and constancy on plots by inventory method and owner (continued)

| Scientific name | Common name | Growth habit(s) ^a | Wetland status ^b | Method/owner | | |
|---|------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|------|-------------|
| | | | | VEG Profile | | Full census |
| | | | | TVSF | TNWR | TNWR |
| <i>Percentage of plots</i> | | | | | | |
| <i>Salix glauca</i> | Grayleaf willow | SH, tr | FAC | 5.6 | 51.9 | 84.6 |
| <i>Salix hastata</i> | Halberd willow | SH | FAC | 4.2 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Salix interior</i> | Sandbar willow | SH | FACW | 7 | 0 | 15.4 |
| <i>Salix monticola</i> | Park willow | SH | | 1.4 | 0 | 15.4 |
| <i>Salix myrtilifolia</i> | Blueberry willow | SH | FACW | 7 | 14.8 | 26.9 |
| <i>Salix planifolia</i> | Diamondleaf willow | SH | FACW | 1.4 | 0 | 11.5 |
| <i>Salix pseudomonticola</i> | False mountain willow | SH | FAC | 1.4 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Salix pulchra</i> | Tealeaf willow | SH | FACW | 8.5 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Salix richardsonii</i> | Richardson's willow | SH | FACW | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Salix scouleriana</i> | Scouler's willow | SH, SD | FAC | 1.4 | 3.7 | 3.8 |
| <i>Saussurea angustifolia</i> | Narrowleaf saw-wort | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 30.8 |
| <i>Saussurea angustifolia</i> var. <i>yukonensis</i> | Narrowleaf saw-wort | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Senecio congestus</i> | Marsh fleabane | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Shepherdia canadensis</i> | Russet buffaloberry | SH | FACU | 1.4 | 3.7 | 7.7 |
| <i>Sorbus scopulina</i> | Greene's mountain ash | SH | FACU | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Spiraea</i> | Spirea | SH | | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Spiraea stevenii</i> | Beauverd spirea | SH | FACU | 5.6 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Spiranthes romanzoffiana</i> | Hooded lady's tresses | FB | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Stellaria longifolia</i> | Longleaf starwort | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Taraxacum officinale</i> ssp. <i>ceratophorum</i> | Common dandelion (native) | FB | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Tofieldia pusilla</i> | Scotch false asphodel | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 7.7 |
| <i>Triantha glutinosa</i> | Sticky tofieldia | FB | FACW | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Trichophorum cespitosum</i> | Tufted bulrush | GR | | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Triglochin maritima</i> | Seaside arrowgrass | GR | OBL | 0 | 0 | 3.8 |
| <i>Typha latifolia</i> | Broadleaf cattail | FB | OBL | 0 | 3.7 | 0 |
| <i>Vaccinium</i> | Blueberry | SH | | 1.4 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Vaccinium oxycoccos</i> | Small cranberry | SH | OBL | 0 | 0 | 19.2 |
| <i>Vaccinium uliginosum</i> | Bog blueberry | SH | FAC | 25.4 | 70.4 | 92.3 |
| <i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> | Lingonberry | SH | FAC | 67.6 | 85.2 | 100 |
| <i>Valeriana capitata</i> | Captiate valerian | FB | FAC | 0 | 0 | 11.5 |
| <i>Viburnum edule</i> | High bush cranberry | SH | FACU | 12.7 | 0 | 0 |

^a Growth habits: FB = forb; GR = grass-like; SH = shrub or subshrub; tr = potential for tree form; TT = tally tree.

^b Wetland status: FAC = facultative (occur in wetlands and non-wetlands); FACW = facultative wetland (usually occur in wetlands); FACU = facultative upland (usually occur in non-wetlands); OBL = obligate wetland (almost always occur in wetlands); UPL = obligate upland (almost never occur in wetlands).

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