

REKINDLING THE FLAME: RECONSTRUCTING A FIRE HISTORY FOR PETERS
MOUNTAIN, GILES COUNTY, VIRGINIA

A Thesis

by

JENNIFER ANN HOSS

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

May 2007

Major Subject: Geography

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,
Committee Members,

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ABSTRACT

Rekindling the Flame: Reconstructing a Fire History for Peters Mountain, Giles County,
Virginia. (May 2007)

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Beginning in the late 1930s, fire exclusion has drastically altered the vegetation dynamics of the southern Appalachian Mountains. Extremely low fire frequency has allowed for more shade-tolerant species to invade once predominantly open forests and has made it almost impossible for fire-dependent species to establish on a site. One such species is the endangered Peters Mountain mallow (*Iliamna corei* Sherff.) located on Peters Mountain in The Nature Conservancy's Narrows Preserve in Giles County, Virginia. This paper focuses on the fire history and stand dynamics of Peters Mountain and how fire exclusion has altered the forest composition. The historic fire frequency and successional changes discovered here may provide an insight into management strategies for the mallow.

Seventy-nine fire scarred cross-sections were taken and aged to determine fire history dates and frequencies. Three 50x20 meter plots were set up on opposing aspects: northwest and southeast. The aspects were chosen at the direction of The Nature Conservancy personnel. All trees within were identified, cored and aged to determine species composition and the establishment dates of all trees. Fire history analysis

revealed a mean fire interval of 2.48 years, a Weibull median fire interval of 2.18 years and a 25 percent scarred class mean fire interval of 12.5 years. Stand dynamic results show that *Quercus montana* has established on Peters Mountain prior to fire exclusion and remains the dominate species on the landscape. An increased number of fire intolerant species (including *Acer rubrum*, *Sassfras albidum*, *Nyssa sylvatica*) have been establishing on Peters Mountain during the decades of decreased fire frequency, suggesting a shift in forest composition. Frequent fires are suggested for mallow management and oak forest maintenance.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Fire is an important mechanism for maintaining the forests of the southern Appalachian Mountains. Frequent surface fires, both natural and anthropogenic, have historically maintained open forests of oak (*Quercus* L.), chestnut (*Castanea* P. Mill.), and pine (*Pinus* L.) over much of this area (Van Lear and Waldrop 1989; Delcourt and Delcourt 1998; Shumway et al. 2001). Beginning in the mid-20th century, fire control efforts reduced the frequency of fire, altering the vegetation dynamics of the southern Appalachian Mountains. Low fire frequency in this area has allowed for more shade-tolerant species to invade once predominantly open forests and has inhibited the establishment of fire-dependent species. One such species is the Peters Mountain mallow (*Iliamna corei* Sherff.).

Found only on Peters Mountain in Giles County, Virginia, approximately 50 individuals of *Iliamna corei* were first discovered in 1927 on the steep northwest-facing slopes of the mountain (Strausbaugh and Core 1932). The number of individual *I. corei* plants has decreased dramatically, most likely as a result of fire exclusion, reaching numbers as low as three individuals in 1989. Research has indicated Peters Mountain mallow requires periodic fire to stimulate germination (Edwards and Allen 2003;

This thesis follows the style of Ecology.

Dunscomb and Edwards 2001; Caljouw et al. 1994).

Currently, the Narrows Preserve, owned by The Nature Conservancy (TNC), serves as a protective habitat for the endangered and federally protected Peters Mountain mallow. Prescribed burning on Peters Mountain, started in April 2001 (Dunscomb and Edwards 2001), has encouraged the regeneration of *I. corei*, and currently the population is comprised of approximately 50-70 mature plants (The Narrows 2007). Yet, an appropriate fire management strategy for the mountain has yet to be determined. The Nature Conservancy provided funding for this thesis to characterize the fire regime under which *I. corei* was maintained historically.

1.2 Objectives

The objectives of this study are to: (1) reconstruct a fire history for Peters Mountain; (2) determine fire seasonality; and (3) establish species composition and age structure of the forest in the same area as the mallow to elucidate the influences of fire and fire exclusion on forest development and *I. corei* habitat.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Disturbance and Succession Theory

Disturbance is a short- term physical or biological event that alters the living organisms in an ecosystem (Huston 1994; MacDonald 2003). These disturbance events are important mechanisms for ecosystem maintenance, especially for vegetation as they are the initiators of succession. Succession is the gradual replacement of one species by another. Several successional models have been proposed over the years. The first of these models was proposed by Henry Cowles and Frederic Clements. Cowles described vegetation cycles as stages that approached equilibrium (Cowles 1911). The Clementsian model proposes successional stages, or seres, of vegetation eventually lead to a final climax community (Clements 1916, 3-4). This climax community is considered the normal state of a location and is largely determined by regional climate.

Since the Clementsian model, the facilitation, tolerance, and inhibition models of succession have been proposed (Connell and Slatyer 1977). The facilitation model suggests species that arrive later on a site are only able to do so because the earlier species suitably modified the site. The tolerance model suggests all species that could be found on at a site tolerate early successional environments, but the early dominants grow fastest and are eventually outcompeted by slower growing, more tolerant species which then would be considered the late successional species. In this model, late successional species are more tolerant of shade and low resource levels. The inhibition model suggests that later species only occupy a site after all of the early species have died as a

result of some type of disturbance. In this model, early arriving species outcompete late arriving species, thus later successional species are those that are long-lived and thrive after the early successional species have died.

Despite the reason for succession it is clear it occurs and that disturbance is critical. In fact, disturbance is responsible for creating the mosaic of landscape patterns in varying states (undisturbed, recently disturbed, or recovering from disturbance) (Huston 1994; Pyne 1982). Thus it is disturbance that is responsible for many of the landscape patterns we observe.

2.2 Fire Ecology

Fire is significant in almost all terrestrial ecosystems (Huston 1994, 413) and is the primary type of disturbance with which this thesis is concerned. At its most basic, fire occurrence only requires two things: fuel and ignition source (MacDonald 2003). However, vegetation type, topography, and climate all influence fire behavior. The specific combination of these three elements determines the fire regime that will act upon a particular landscape. A fire regime is simply the historical manner in which fire acts upon a landscape. There are three major characteristics that define any particular fire regime: type and intensity, mean size, frequency, and seasonality.

Fire intensity is “the rate at which a fire releases heat” and is “determined by the amount of heat energy produced,” (Fuller 1991, 40). The intensity of a fire often is an indicator of the length of its flames. Generally, low intensity flames will be shorter in stature, while higher intensity flames will be taller. Flame height and intensity

determine the type of fire: low-intensity surface fires, high-intensity crown fires (MacDonald 2003).

The average size of any given fire is variable based on the conditions present at the time of the fire. Vegetation must be flammable and dense enough to carry the flames over an area. The readiness of vegetation to burn may be increased by favorable climatic conditions, such as windy, hot, dry weather. Additionally, the topography of a particular area plays a large role in determining the size of a fire. Without natural breaks in topography a fire may be able to burn freely over a landscape.

Lastly, fire frequency is how often fire occurs on a particular landscape, usually expressed in years. This too is a function of fuel availability and climate. For example, spatially large, high-intensity fires could not occur frequently, even if climatic conditions were present, simply because there would be no fuel. Conversely, low-intensity fires may be able to occur on a landscape as frequent as every year or two, because sufficient fuel is available. Because climate plays a role in determining the frequency of fires, seasonality is often considered when analyzing fire regimes. Fire seasonality is the season in which a fire occurs. Regional climatic patterns such as precipitation or drought often dictate the seasonality of most fires for that region (Huston 1994; MacDonald 2003).

2.2.1 Fire and Plants

Evolutionary traits that plants have adapted to survive and thrive under periodic fire suggest the role of fire in forests is long standing (Smith 1986). Adaptations of vegetation found in several spatially distinct fire regions suggest the role of fire as an

evolutionary architect (Bond and van Wilgen 1996; Pyne 2001, 18). Serotinous cones, hardseededness, thick bark, sprouting ability, flammability, and delayed maturation are examples of such evolutionary traits. Species with some of these types of adaptations are generally found in areas where fire frequency is long enough to allow for vegetation maturation, but short enough so that the space is not invaded by shade-tolerant species between fire intervals.

Fire is an important mechanism for maintaining both pine and oak forests. Several oak species display such fire adapted traits, indicating oak forests are indeed maintained by fire (Brose et al. 2001). These traits include: thick bark, compartmentalization of wounds, and sprouting ability. Additionally, the pine species (*Pinus pungens* Lamb. and *Pinus rigida* Mill.) often associated with the mixed oak-pine forests of the southern Appalachian Mountains also display fire adapted traits such as thick, flaky bark, self-pruning, early cone maturation, opening of sealed cones at low temperatures, relatively quick decline of resin in sealed cones, and basal sprouting (in *P. rigida* only) (Brose and Waldrop 2006).

2.3 Historical Fire Regimes in the Southern Appalachian Mountains

Fire is an important influence on vegetation, even on the forests of the southern Appalachian Mountains. However, there are not very many dendroecological studies in this area (Harmon, 1982; Sutherland et al, 1995; Shumway et al., 2001; Armbrister, 2002; Shuler and McCain, 2003). These studies, however, have indicated the importance of frequent fires in this area for maintenance of oak and pine forests. Natural and anthropogenic fires have played a large role in shaping and maintaining the forest

composition and distribution in this area. Natural fires played a large role in shaping the southeastern landscape years before man arrived in the area 20,000 to 35,000 years ago (Van Lear and Waldrop 1989). Lightning strikes coupled with anthropogenically undisturbed fuel loads would have allowed this type of fire regime to thrive. The presence of charcoal dating back 3900 calendar years in sediment cores from the southern Appalachian Mountains provides evidence of the long history of fire in the region (Delcourt and Delcourt 1997).

Yet decreased fire frequency in this area has led to vegetation change. A study of 43 pine cross-sections in Great Smoky Mountains National Park revealed a fire interval of 12.7 years in the era prior to fire exclusion (Harmon 1982). The fire rotation for the same area increased to 10,700 years after 1940. A study in Maryland, using 19 fire scarred cross sections revealed a fire interval of 7.6 years for the period of 1616 to 1959, after which no fire scars were found (Shumway et al. 2001). Similarly, a West Virginia study using 17 fire scarred cross sections with scars from 1846 to 1962 revealed a fire interval of 15.5 years (Schuler and McCain 2003). These studies indicate that fire has virtually ceased since the middle of the 20th century. The following provides a review of natural fires, anthropogenic fires and the state of forests in the era of decreased fire frequency.

2.3.1 Natural Fire Regimes

Long before any anthropogenic fires were introduced into the Southern Appalachians, lightning fires played a part in determining the types of vegetation present in this area. While these fires may not have been as spatially extensive, intense, or as

frequent as anthropogenic fires (Lafon et al., 2005; Barden and Woods, 1974; Ruffner and Abrams, 1998), it is clear that lightning fires occurred and had some effect on shaping and maintaining the vegetation of the Southern Appalachians. Even today, lightning accounts for 10 percent of the fires in the United States (Sarvis, 1993b).

2.3.2 Native American Uses of Fire

There is substantial evidence that Native Americans did in fact use fire and altered the environments immediately surrounding them. Documented purposes for Native American fire include cooking, warmth, hunting, crop management, improving vegetation growth and yields, fireproofing, insect collection, pest management, warfare, signaling, economics, travel, felling trees, and for clearing (Williams 2002; Delcourt and Delcourt 1997).

Additionally, several studies have found evidence of fire and forest maintenance in areas where Native Americans were known to have lived. Delcourt and Delcourt (1997) found paleoecological evidence that the dominant oak and chestnut species were maintained by frequent and deliberate fires set by Native Americans. Other studies suggest similar results of a periodic, low-intensity, surface fire regime (Ruffner and Abrams 2002; Brose et al. 2001) and suggest these frequent fires are needed for oak forest maintenance. The authors however, disagree as to whether Native Americans are responsible or merely supplemental to this surface fire regime.

While it is clear that Native Americans used fire in many ways to alter their environment, it is debatable whether or not their use of fire resulted in the structuring and maintenance of the North American landscape. Two sides of this debate exist.

William M. Denevan (1992) coined the phrase “the pristine myth,” arguing the New World was not wilderness, but instead was a landscape mosaic highly altered and manipulated by large (estimated 40 million) Native American populations found in Canada, the U.S., Mexico, Central and South America. In fact, Denevan argued that the New World was more pristine in 1750 than in 1492 due to the decrease in Native American populations as a result of disease, and thus the abandonment of lands that were allowed to revegetate.

Conversely, there is “the myth of the humanized landscape.” While proponents of the myth acknowledge Native American use of fire for several reasons, they argue Native American fires were not ubiquitous across the large mass of land of North America and thus were not responsible for forest structure, composition or landscape maintenance. Instead, the myth suggests Native American fires were merely supplemental to the natural lightning fire regime and would have had the greatest impact on vegetation in localized areas (Vale 1998; Russell 1983).

2.3.3 European Uses of Fire

Early European settlers continued the frequent fire regime maintained by Native Americans when they took over the lands in the late 1700s. Europeans most likely continued Native American burning practices to suit similar needs (Brose et al. 2001; Delcourt and Delcourt 1997; Williams 1998). However, during the industrialization era (circa 1880) fire frequency increased. Fires caused by railroad construction, timber harvesting, coal mining and refining, as well as for agricultural purposes shaped the forests of the Appalachian Mountains. Capital intensive logging not only cleared the

forests, but also left the dried remains prone to wildfires (Brose et al. 2001; Williams 1998). The introduction of the railroad into forested landscapes also resulted in catastrophic anthropogenic fires (Caljouw et al 1994; Schuler and McClain 2003). By the first third of the 1900s fire was seen as a destructive force that needed to be either contained or stopped altogether.

As a result, fire suppression and prevention efforts by the United States government since 1940 have increased the fire interval for all forests. During the early years of fire exclusion, it was the policy of the U.S. Forest Service to extinguish all fires, whether anthropogenic or natural. However, anthropogenic fires were still a problem for the Jefferson National Forest. Several reasons account for human set fires, including accidents, revenge against the Forest Service, pyromania, and economic incentive (Sarvis 1993b). Decades of fire prevention education spearheaded by the Smokey Bear campaign starting in 1944 have led to the decline of these anthropogenic fires, though they have not been eradicated (Brose et al. 2001; Sarvis 1993b). Currently it is the policy of the Forest Service to suppress all anthropogenic and natural fires.

Several studies indicate that lightning fires are generally less intense and/or less extensive than anthropogenic fires (Barden and Woods 1974; Ruffner and Abrams 1998), suggesting that anthropogenic fires, first by Native Americans and then by early European settlers, were an important factor in maintaining the vegetation of the Appalachians. Records of the Jefferson National Forest, adjacent to the Narrows Preserve, reveal some of the largest fires on the landscape in the 20th Century, including the 1930 and 1942 fires, are a result of anthropogenic fires, whether accidental or

intentional (Sarvis 1993b). As a result, prescribed burning of national forests lands has been considered since the 1950s.

2.3.4 Forests in the Era of Fire Exclusion

The effects of over a half century of fire suppression have had tremendous repercussions for the vegetation of the area, especially for the pine, pine-hardwood and oak forests. The fire interval for Great Smoky Mountains National Park from 1856-1940 was approximately 10 years for pine forests and 10-40 years for all forests (Harmon 1982). This interval increased to 10,700 years in the years following fire exclusion. Extremely low fire frequency in this area has allowed for more shade-tolerant species to invade once predominantly pine stands. In addition, the low fire frequency had made it almost impossible for pine to establish on a site as an early successional species after a fire disturbance.

While pine may still remain the dominant overstory species in several sites, few if any pine species occupy the midstory and understory. This may indicate that old growth pine stands will be replaced with more shade-tolerant, fire-intolerant species (Welch et al. 1999; Williams and Johnson 1990; Waldrop and Brose 1999). The same is true for oak species that rely on open, fire-maintained conditions and on sprouting after a fire for regeneration (Abrams 1992; Barden and Woods 1976; Harrod and White 1999). The fire-oak hypothesis suggests that oak forests thrive under a frequent fire regime (Abrams 1992). These oak forests may soon be replaced by fire-intolerant hardwoods such as *Nyssa sylvatica*, *Acer rubrum* L., *Sassafras albidum*, and *Betula lenta* L. in the

current era of fire suppression (Ross et al. 1982; Williams and Johnson 1990; Shumway et al. 2001).

While fire suppression is not the answer, natural fires may not be enough. Lightning fires alone may not be extensive enough or produce the intensity needed to reduce existing forest canopy and generate pine or oak establishment (Barden and Woods, 1976; Lafon, et al, 2005). This reinforces the usefulness of anthropogenic fires.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

3.1 Study Area

The Narrows Preserve is located on Peters Mountain in Giles County, Virginia, situated in the Ridge and Valley physiographic province of the Appalachian Mountains (see Figure 3.1).

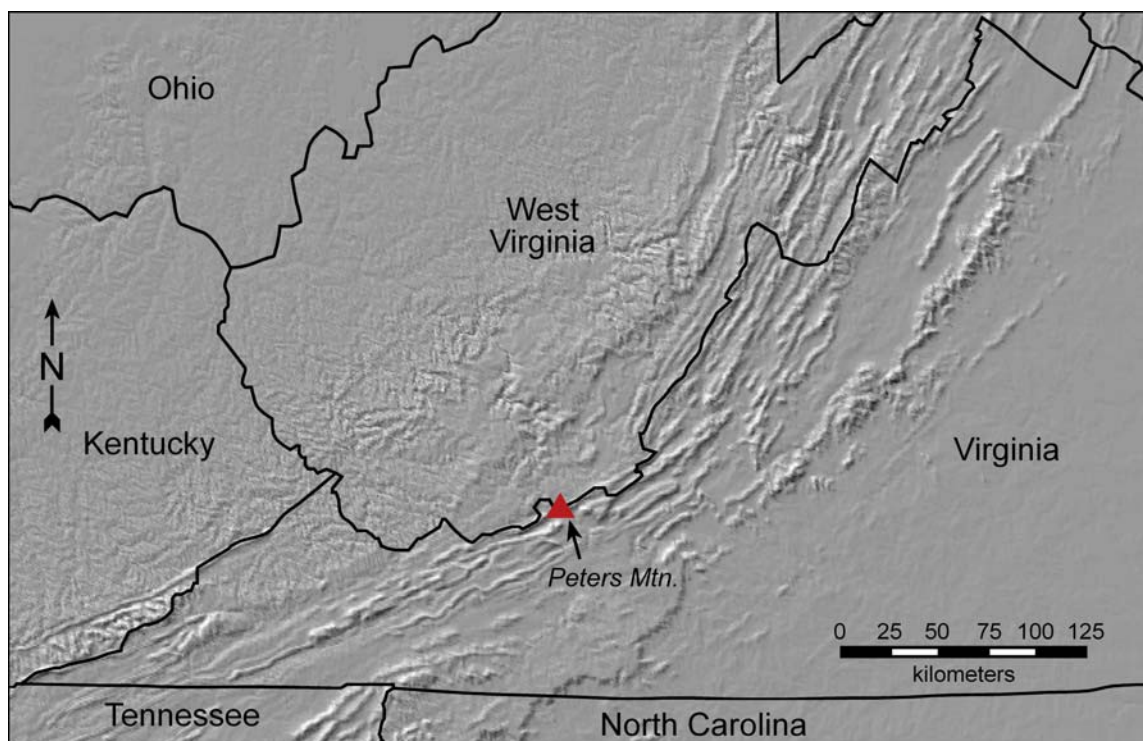


Figure 3.1: Location of Peters Mountain.

3.1.1 Climate

The Southern Appalachian Mountains are classified as a humid subtropical climate (Cfa) (Christopherson 2006) or a humid continental climate (Bailey 1995). These climates are generally moist year round with a pronounced winter dry period. Generally, average annual precipitation for Southern Appalachia is between 762 and

1778 millimeters, with the highest average precipitation rates (1270-1778 millimeters) occurring in the west along the Appalachian Plateau and to the east along the tops of the Blue Ridge Mountains (Climate Atlas of the United States 2000).

Average annual precipitation for Narrows, VA ranges from 63.5 to 101.6 millimeters in the driest and wettest months and average monthly temperatures range from 0° C to 22.2° C in the coldest and hottest months (Intellicast 2007).

3.1.2 Physiography

The Ridge and Valley region is comprised mostly of sedimentary rocks that have been folded, faulted and eroded to form long, parallel ridges and valleys (Shankman and James 2002). Limestone and shale erode to form the valleys, while sandstones and conglomerates form the ridges.

These geological foundations create the basis for differing types of soils and the resulting soil moisture gradient, which has been demonstrated to influence vegetation distribution (Whittaker 1956). Mesic sites generally have the greatest number of tree species while xeric sites have the least number of tree species.

The soils found on Peters Mountain are mostly composed of udept inceptisols, specifically Lehew, Wallen and Berks soils (Swecker et al. 1985). These are highly weathered forest soils that occur on steeper slopes with sandstone bedrock. Lehew and Wallen soils occur on 35 to 65 percent slopes and are very stony with rapid permeability and runoff rates. Lehew and Wallen soils are poor crop and pasture soils, but have high potential for tree production. Berks soils occur on 30 to 80 percent slopes with rock outcrops. The soil is moderately permeable with very rapid runoff rates and low soil

moisture capacity. Like Lehew and Wallen soils, Berks soil is also unsuitable for farming practices yet has high potential for tree productivity.

3.1.3 Vegetation

The southern Appalachian forests are mostly composed of oak forest species (Braun 1950, 231-233; Whittaker 1956, 49-50). The southern Virginia forests in the Ridge and Valley region have a high number of species due to the complexity of the terrain caused by the ridges and valleys. Generally, *Q. montana*, *Q. alba*, *A. rubrum*, *Oxydendrum arboreum* L., *Quercus rubra* L., *Liriodendron tulipifera* L., *Q. velutina*, *Carya* spp., *N. sylvatica*, *Pinus virginiana* and *Robinia pseudoacacia* L. species are common throughout the region.

The vegetation found on the dry southeast facing slopes of the Narrows Preserve is mostly oak. Strausbaugh and Core (1932) reported that *I. corei* inhabited open, pine-hardwood woodlands on Peters Mountain, with *Q. montana*, *Q. rubra*, *Q. alba*, and *Q. coccinea* being the species with the highest importance values (Strausbaugh and Core 1932; Adams and Stephenson 1983).

An increase in tree cover is seen by comparing an aerial photo of Peters Mountain taken in the 1930s (Figure 3.2) to field observations in 2005 (Figure 3.3). The photo displays more open forest conditions while forest conditions observed in 2005 are generally more closed, with numerous smaller trees comprising the forest. Additionally, the aerial photo shows evidence of a thin and clearer forest on the southeast-facing slopes of the mountain. It is possible that this clearing was a result of logging as this aspect of the mountain is much less steep and more easily accessible than the northwest-

facing aspect. During the peak of the industrial timber boom (circa 1910), large portions of forested lands in the Southern Appalachian Mountains were cleared for logging, including Giles county (Sarvis 1993a).



Figure 3.2: Aerial photo of Peters Mountain taken in the 1930s, courtesy of Jesse Overcash, United States Forest Service.



Figure 3.3: Photograph of forest conditions on Peters Mountain, taken by J. Hoss, 2005.

3.2 Field Methods

A chain saw was used to obtain fire scarred cross-sections from both living and dead pine trees (Figures 3.4 and 3.5). Complete cross sections were taken from the dead pines with multiple fire-scars, and partial cross-sections were taken from fire-scarred living pines to preserve the live trees. Global Positioning System (GPS) points were taken at each sample for creation of a map displaying the spatial extent of all fire-scarred samples found on the mountain (See Figure 3.6)



Figure 3.4: Photo of a live fire scarred sample taken from Peters Mountain, taken by J.Hoss, 2005.



Figure 3.5: Photo of a dead fire scarred sample taken from Peters Mountain, taken by J. Hoss, 2005.

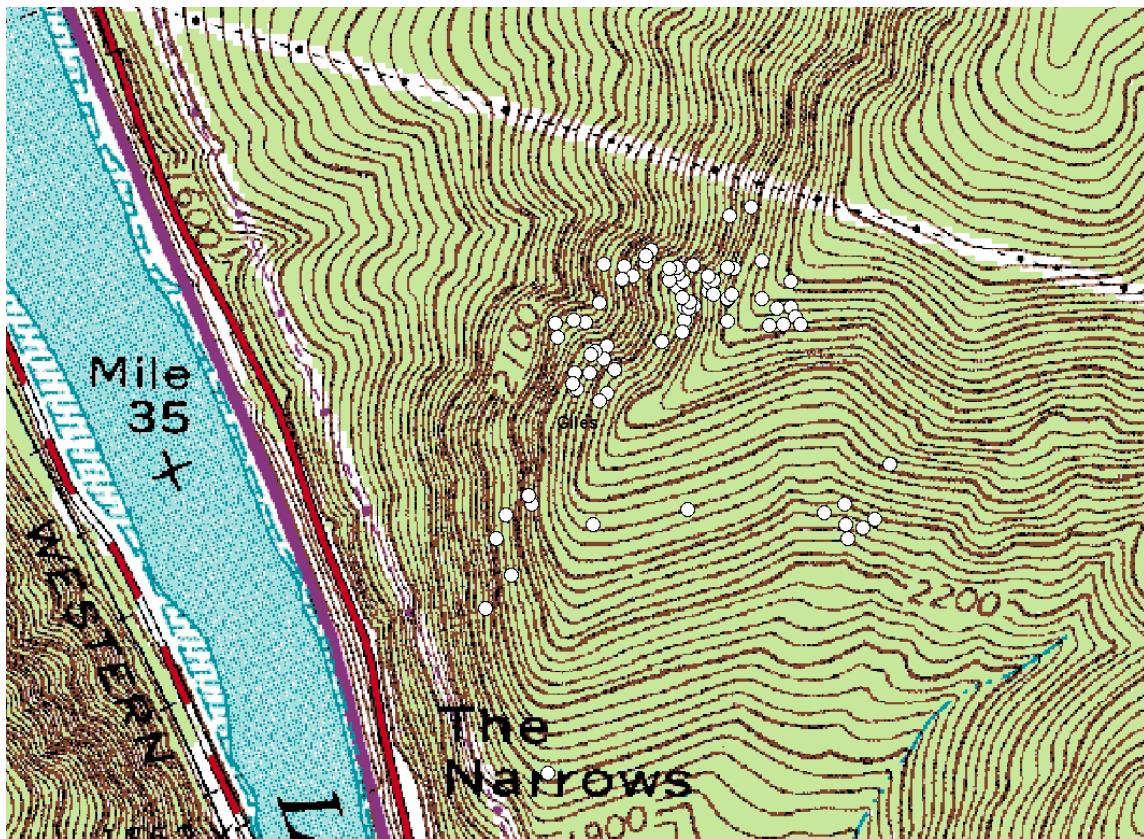


Figure 3.6: Location of the 79 fire scarred samples taken from Peters Mountain.

Forest age-structure and species composition were characterized by using three 20 x 50m plots on the northwest and southeast facing slopes of Peters Mountain (Figure 3.7). The northwest- and southeast-facing plots were located on opposing aspects near the mallow to characterize forest conditions in the area immediately surrounding the mallow. The third plot was situated farther down-slope on the southeast facing slope of the mountain to characterize the forest and fire conditions of the Narrows Preserve as a whole since the majority of the preserve is located on this aspect.

Within each plot, all trees with diameter at breast height (DBH) of at least 5.0 cm were cored using an increment borer. Two cores were taken from opposite sides of each tree at the base of the stem. All sapling (DBH < 5.0 cm, height \geq 50 cm) and overstory trees found in the plot were tallied and identified to species. Seedlings (height < 50 cm) were identified and tallied in a 10 x 20 m subplot nested in the center of the larger plot.

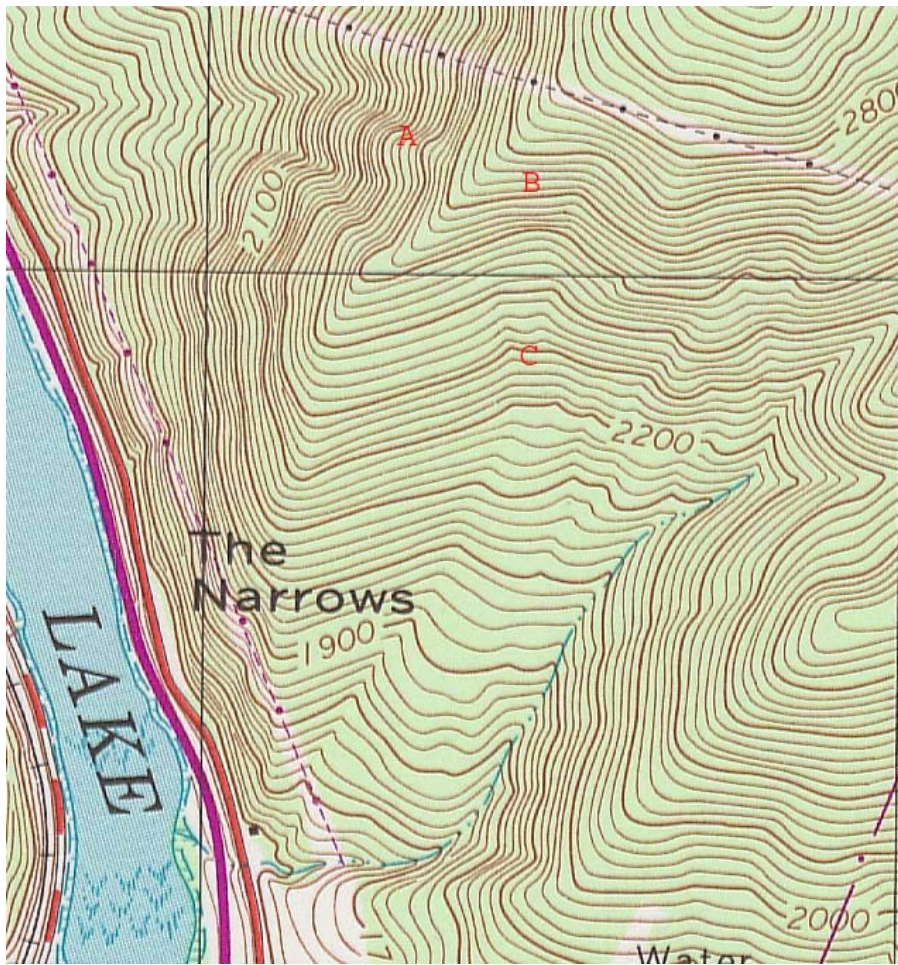


Figure 3.7: Approximate location of the three 20 x 50 m plots.

3.3 Lab Methods

In the lab, cross-sections were reassembled and increment cores glued to wooden mounts. All sample surfaces were sanded using progressively finer sandpaper (40 to 400 grit), enabling the cellular structure of the wood to be visible under 20-30X magnification. Tree-ring patterns from both the cross-sections and the cores were crossdated according to standard dendrochronological techniques outlined in Stokes and Smiley (1968) and Yamaguchi (1991). Each sample was visually crossdated using skeleton plots or the listing method. Skeleton plotting was done on living cores used for the master chronology and listing of significant rings (narrow, wide, locally absent, missing or containing a prominent false ring) was done for all cross sections. After measuring each cross-section and selected increment cores, the crossdating results were tested for accuracy using COFECHA software (Grissino-Mayer 2001a, Holmes 1986).

Fire dates were recorded and archived using FHX2 software (Grissino-Mayer, 2001b), and the seasonality of each fire was recorded and categorized by noting the position of the fire scar within the annual ring (Baisan and Swetnam, 1990): early earlywood, middle earlywood, late earlywood, latewood, dormant, and undetermined. Master fire charts representing temporal patterns of past fire occurrences were created using FHX2 software. Estimates of the Weibull Median Fire Interval, Upper and Lower Exceedance Intervals, and Maximum Hazard Interval were also determined using this software (Grissino-Mayer 1999).

The age structure of the forest was characterized by creating histograms depicting various age classes of each tree species. Basal area and density were calculated to determine the species composition of each plot. The combination of age structure data and fire history was used to infer patterns of past tree establishment with respect to change in the fire regime and to elucidate successional trajectories of the stands.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1 Master Chronology

A master chronology was created using cores and cross sections from 19 living and dead pine trees to accurately cross date all samples obtained. The interseries correlation of the master is 0.628 with an average mean sensitivity of 0.375. The master series dates back to 1857 and the last year measured was 2004. (See Appendix A for entire COFECHA output).

4.2 Fire History

Seventy-one out of the 79 fire scarred samples taken from Peters Mountain were used for fire history analysis. Three of the samples were lost or destroyed in transit from Peters Mountain. Five of the samples were undatable, most likely because they were older than the master chronology.

A visual representation of all fire scars is displayed below (See Figure 4.1). Each horizontal line represents a fire scarred sample and each vertical dash represents a fire event. The bottom x-axis is a composite fire history chart displaying all fires that occurred during the time period. The fire history chart shows incidence of fires from 1867 to 1976. The fires that scarred the most trees on Peters Mountain occurred in 1896, 1910, 1922, 1942 and 1954.

A total of 45 fires were recorded for the period of 1867-1976 (Table 1, Appendix A). No fires were recorded after 1976. Analysis of the fire intervals for 1867-1976 revealed that the mean fire interval was 2.48 years, a median fire interval of 2.00 years, a

Weibull median interval of 2.18 years and lower and upper exceedance intervals of 0.73 years and 4.51 years, respectively. Additionally, seasonality results show that 93.5 percent (101 scars) of fires with determinable seasonality occurred during the dormant season, 1.9 percent (2 scars) occurred during the middle earlywood, and 4.6 percent (5 scars) occurred during the latewood of the growing season. Fifty-four fire scars had an undeterminable season.

Further analysis showed that seven fires (1867, 1871, 1886, 1896, 1910, 1922, and 1942) encompassed 25 percent of samples (See Table 2, Appendix A). The 25-percent scarred class analysis is a standard dendroecological practice that selects the fires that presumably were the most severe and/or extensive. In this study, such an analysis is important because of the high frequency of small fires in the study area. The 25 percent scarred class analysis may better represent the frequency of the large fires that encompassed the entire study area. Analysis of the fires within the 25 percent scarred class revealed a mean fire interval of 12.50 years, a median fire interval of 13.00 years, a Weibull median interval of 12.32 years and lower and upper exceedance intervals of 6.90 years and 18.15 years, respectively.

The GPS points taken at each fire scarred sample were used to create maps to demonstrate spatial extent of each fire (See Maps in Appendix B). While most of the fires are spatially clustered, it is clear that some of the scars were spatially disjunct, indicating that at least some of the fires were quite large in extent.

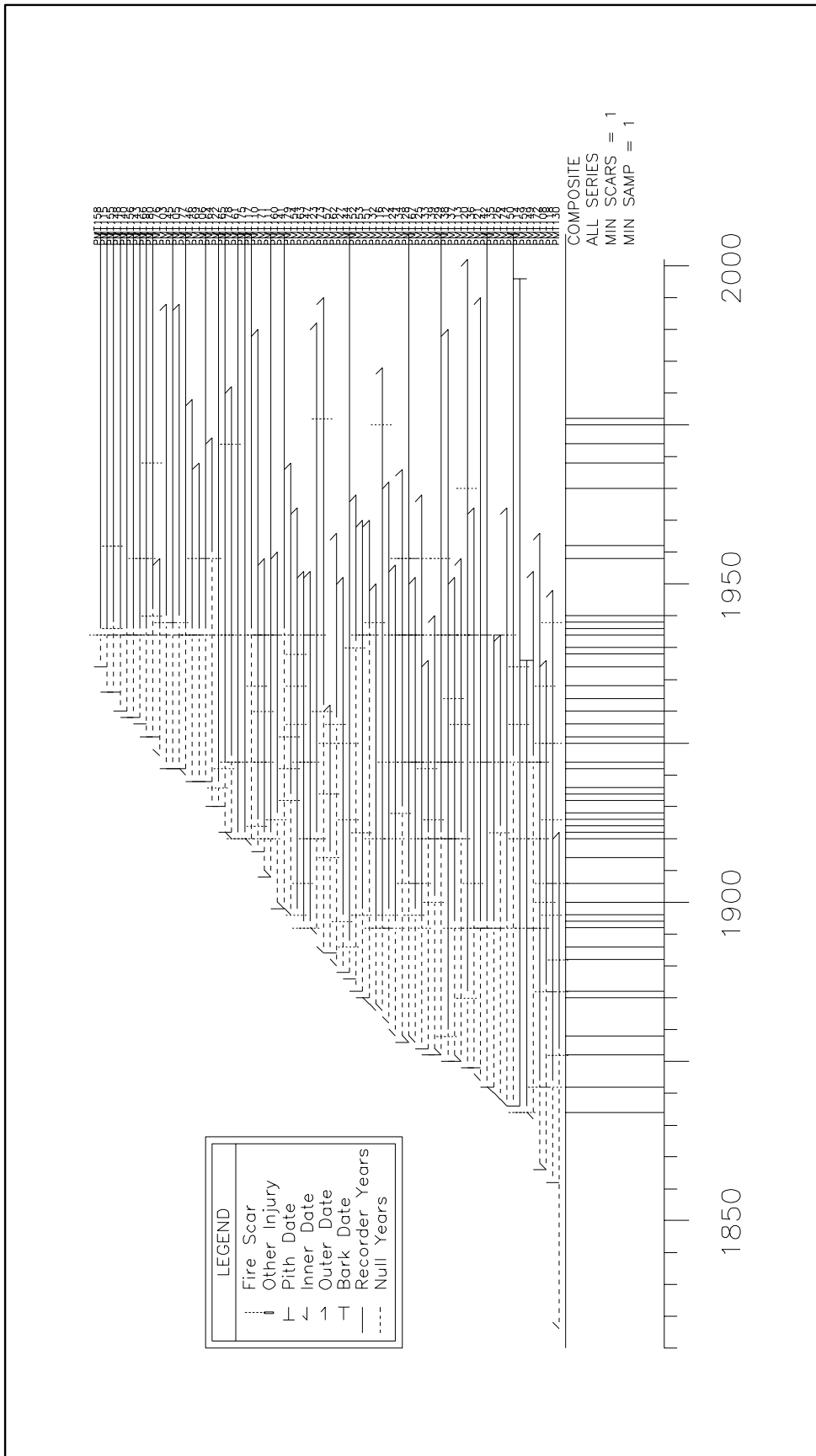


Figure 4.1: Fire history chart for Peters Mountain.

4.3 Age Structure and Size-Class Distribution

Quercus Montana, the dominant species, established during the period from 1860 to 1980 on most of the sites. Age class distribution results for Peters Mountain site A (PMA) (Figure 4.2) show *Q. montana* establishment starting in 1866. It is possible, and very likely, there are much older *Q. montana* trees on the site. Eight *Q. montana* trees with DBH of 26.0 to 42.9 cm were not cored because of heart rot and thus were not included in the age structure analysis. Figure 4.2 also shows a peak in establishment in the late 1950s, immediately after fire cessation displayed in the fire history chart. The ‘other oak’ category established in this pulse are comprised of *Q. rubra*, *Q. coccinea* and *Q. velutina*.

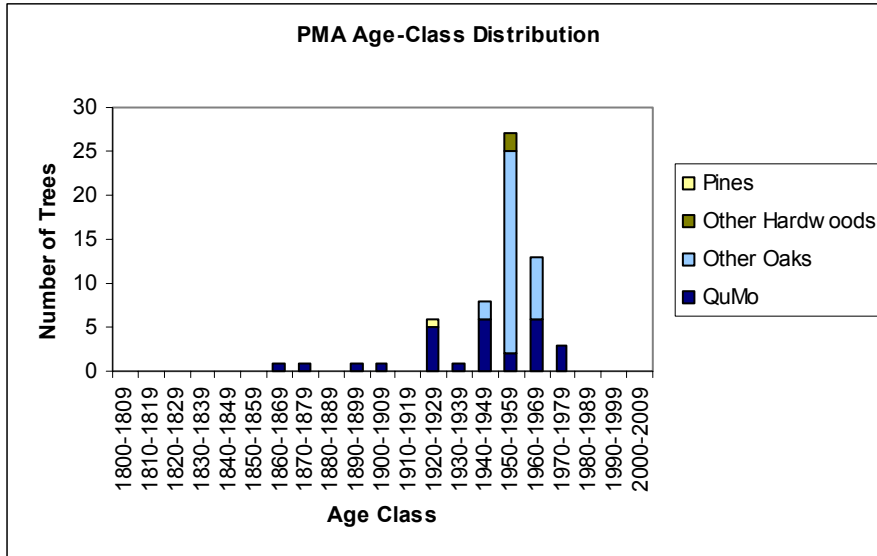


Figure 4.2: Age-Class Distribution of Site A

Results for PMB (Figure 4.3) show a establishment of other hardwoods (*A. rubrum*, *O. arboreum*, and *C. glabra*) during the decade of 1950. A large establishment

period of *P. virginiana* can be seen during the 1960s and 1970s; although there is evidence of this species establishing on the mountain since the late 1800s. Similar to PMA, there is also a *Q. montana* establishment in the 1940s to 1960s. There are fewer older *Q. montana* individuals on this site than site A. Only one core of *Q. montana* was not obtained due to rot, although it was 53.0 cm in diameter and likely very old. One *P. virginiana* sample was also excluded due to rot.

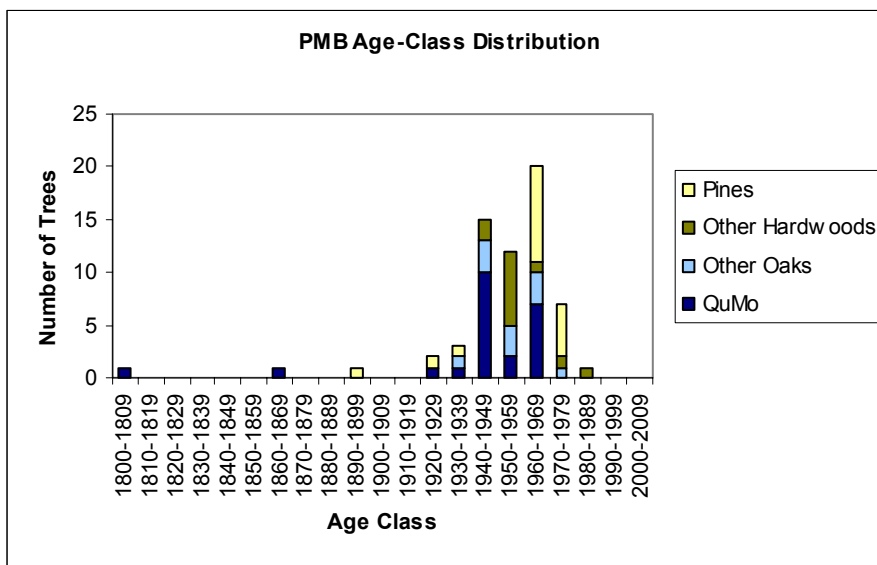


Figure 4.3: Age-Class Distribution of Site B

Site C (Figure 4.4) shows most establishment of all trees occurred after 1920. *Nyssa sylvatica*, *A. rubrum* and *O. arboreum* are the ‘other hardwood’ species that established the most between 1920 and 1990. The only *Q. montana* individuals found on the site established between 1920 and 1950 and only one rotten sample (37.2 cm DBH) was excluded. However, one of each of the following was not included due to rot: *P. pungens*, *N. sylvatica* and *A. rubrum*.

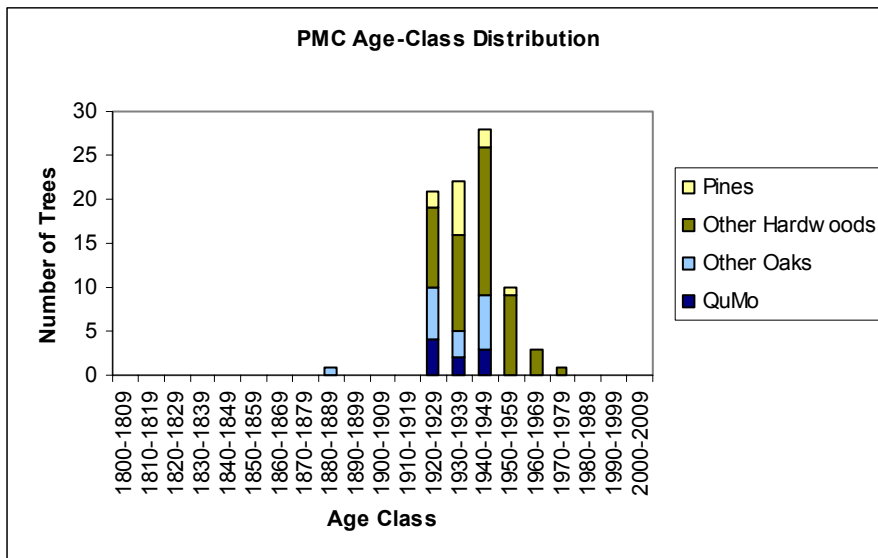


Figure 4.4: Age-Class Distribution of Site C

Quercus montana had the highest basal area in all three plots with 18.5, 20.3 and 8.0 m²/ha for plots A, B and C, respectively. Plot PMA, located on the northwest facing slope of the mountain is composed primarily of oak species, while plots PMB and PMC on the opposing slope are more mixed with different species of oaks, other hardwoods and some pines (Table 4.1).

Seedling and sapling data reveal *Q. montana* and *Q. rubra* are the most numerous seedlings and saplings on site PMA. While *Q. montana* had a large number of seedlings and saplings on site PMB, *Sassafras albidum* is the most numerous seedling type on the site and second most numerous sapling type. *Sassafras albidum* is also the dominant seedling on PMC. *Acer rubrum* seedlings and saplings on PMC are comparable to *S. albidum*.

Table 4.1: Abundance of each tree species in the tree, sapling, and seedling size classes.

Species	Tree basal area (m ² /ha)	Tree density (stems/ha)	Sapling density (stems/ha)	Seedling density (stems/ha)
PMA				
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	0.1	20	120	
<i>Acer saccharum</i>			10	
<i>Castanea dentata</i>			10	
<i>Carya glabra</i>			120	100
<i>Carya tomentosa</i>			10	
<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>			60	200
<i>Pinus virginiana</i>	0.5	10	100	50
<i>Pinus serotina</i>			60	
<i>Quercus coccinea</i>	0.1	10	20	
<i>Quercus montana</i>	18.5	390	320	1500
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	7.9	320	350	800
<i>Quercus velutina</i>	1.3	50	90	200
<i>Sassafras albidum</i>			260	150
Total	28.3	800	1530	3000
PMB				
<i>Acer pensylvanicum</i>			10	
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	0.2	60	400	100
<i>Carya glabra</i>	0.1	20	230	150
<i>Carya tomentosa</i>			40	100
<i>Fraxinus americana</i>			20	100
<i>Gleditsia triacanthos</i>			70	150
<i>Oxydendrum arboreum</i>	0.6	40	90	
<i>Pinus pungens</i>	2.0	70		50
<i>Pinus virginiana</i>	1.5	110	70	
<i>Pinus serotina</i>			70	950
<i>Quercus alba</i>			110	
<i>Quercus coccinea</i>	1.8	30	260	100
<i>Quercus montana</i>	20.3	350	2080	6200
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	0.5	40	280	500
<i>Quercus velutina</i>	1.1	40	600	1300
<i>Sassafras albidum</i>			1060	27,550
<i>Ulmus spp.</i>				50
Total	28.1	760	5390	37,300
PMC				
<i>Acer pensylvanicum</i>			10	
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	1.7	110	710	2650
<i>Castanea dentata</i>			90	50
<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>	2.8	270	130	200
<i>Oxydendrum arboreum</i>	3.8	170	30	150
<i>Pinus pungens</i>	1.6	40		
<i>Pinus rigida</i>	3.5	80		
<i>Quercus coccinea</i>	4.3	80	30	700
<i>Quercus montana</i>	8.0	110		50
<i>Quercus rubra</i>				50
<i>Quercus velutina</i>	3.4	80		
<i>Sassafras albidum</i>			1100	2400
Total	29.0	940	2100	6250

The size class analysis reveals there are several small and fewer large trees (Figures 4.5 – 4.7). The largest tree species found on site A is *Q. montana* followed by other oaks and hardwoods. The pine species are found only in the smallest DBH class.

Similarly, *Q. montana* is the largest species on sites B and C. However, the largest DBH class for both sites is by far is the smallest class. For site B, this is composed of *Q. montana*, *Q. coccinea*, *Q. velutina*, *Q. rubra*, *A. rubrum*, *O. arboreum*, *C. glabra*, *P. pungens* and *P. virginiana*. For site C, this is composed of *Q. montana*, *Q. coccinea*, *Q. velutina*, *N. sylvatica*, *A. rubrum*, *O. arboreum*.

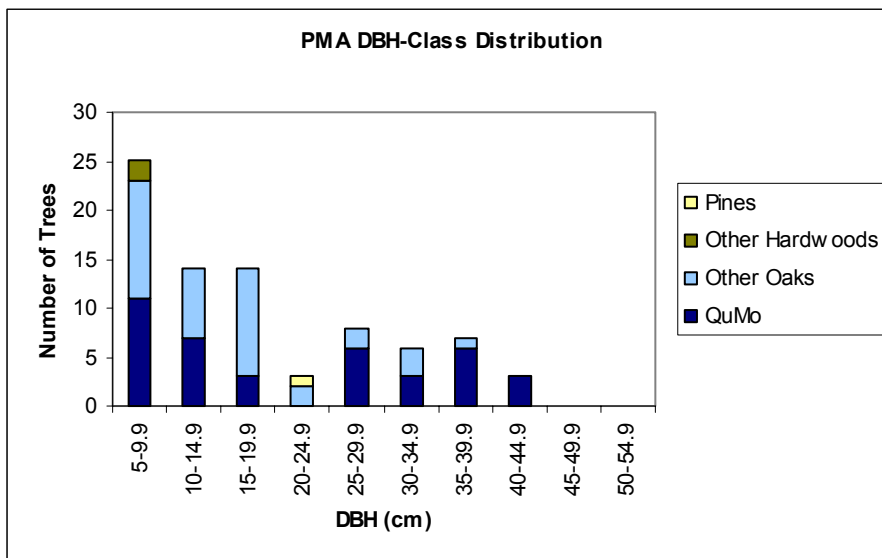


Figure 4.5: Size-Class Distribution of Site A

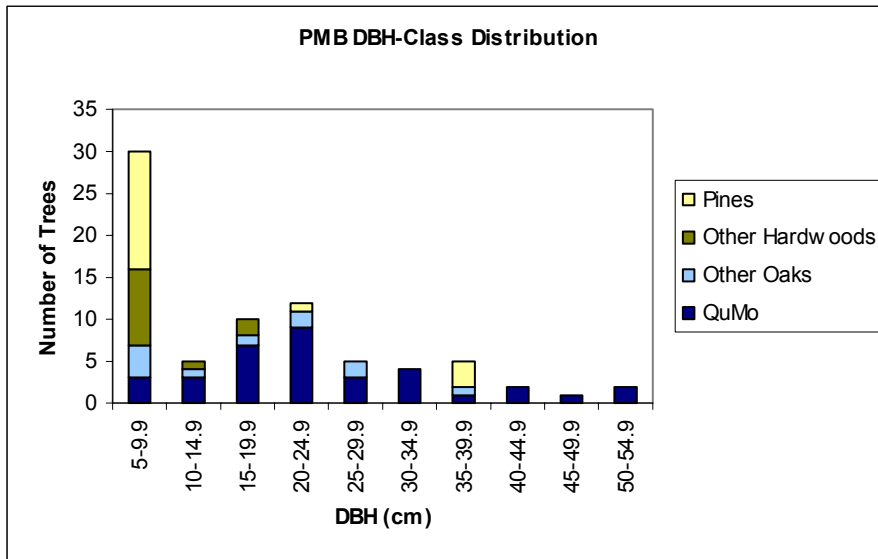


Figure 4.6: Size-Class Distribution for Site B

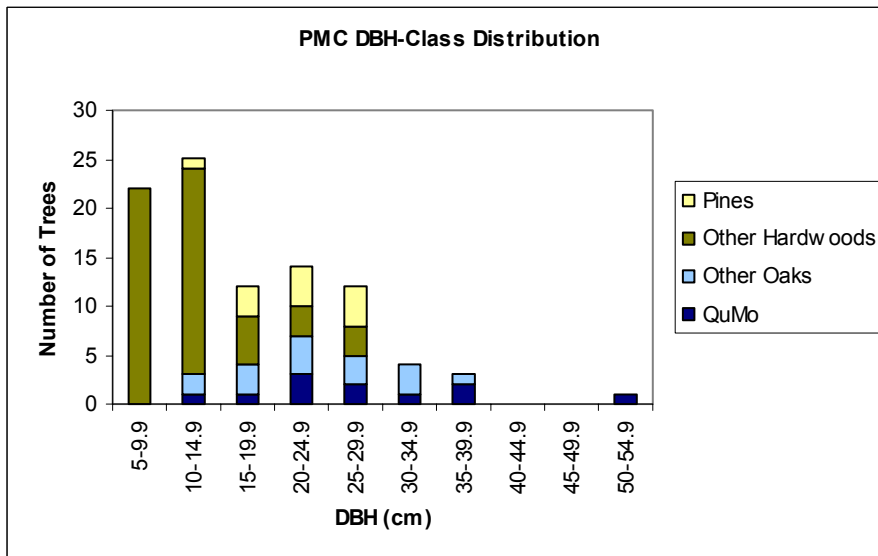


Figure 4.7: Size-Class Distribution of Site C

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 Fire History

It is clear from the fire history analysis that fires occurred frequently on Peters Mountain. The Weibull mean fire interval of 2.18 years indicates that Peters Mountain was historically dominated by a frequent low-intensity fire regime. These results are generally in line with the results of the few studies that have been conducted in the southern Appalachian Mountains and is evidence to support the fire-oak hypothesis presented by Abrams (1992). Results from these studies indicated a fire interval ranging from 7.6 to 15.5 years (Harmon 1982; Shumway et al. 2001, Schuler and McCain 2003). All of these studies were done using 43 or less samples. As a result, the fire interval for Peters Mountain is understandably more frequent (2.18 years) because the sample size was nearly double. A large sample size is necessary in order to ensure most of the fires that occurred on the landscape are included in the fire history analysis. It is specifically important for Peters Mountain since so many of the scars occurred on only one or two samples.

Analysis of the 25 percent scarred class revealed that larger fires occurred on an interval of approximately 12 years. The 25 percent scarred class analysis is important because it reveals how often larger fires occurred. For Peters Mountain these larger fires were in the years of 1867, 1871, 1886, 1896, 1910, 1922, and 1942. These fires covered large areas of Peters Mountain (see Maps 2, 3, 7, 11, 18, 26, 36 in Appendix B) and

crossed the ridge from the northwest to the southeast facing aspect indicating the ridge did not serve as a fire break.

The maps suggest varying spatial extent of all fires on the mountain. This indicates that most fires were small and spatially localized, which was not surprising since oak forests generally thrive under a frequent fire regime. Yet, several fire scarred samples containing the same fire scar are far apart indicating large fires occurred on the mountain.

Seasonality results indicate that most fires occurred during the dormant season, which is fall or spring. Winter burns were probably uncommon because the cooler temperatures inhibit drying and limit fire activity (Lafon et al. 2005). While the ignition source of any of these fires cannot be determined from fire scars, it is likely that both anthropogenic and natural fires occurred. The 1942 fire on Peters Mountain was, spatially, the largest fire on the landscape that this study revealed and there is documented evidence of anthropogenic fires being set in the same year in the adjacent Jefferson National Forest (Sarvis 1993b). Further, because of the spatial extent of several of the fires, they are most likely anthropogenic since these types of fires seem to be larger and more intense (Lafon et al. 2005, Barden and Woods 1974, Ruffner and Abrams 1998). While lightning fires can be large, it is less likely. A lightning fire occurred in 2004 (Judy Dunscomb, The Nature Conservancy, personal communication, 2005).

5.2 Age Structure and Size-Class Distribution

Age structure and size-class distribution results suggest that while *Q. montana* is the dominant and oldest species on the mountain, the forest is progressing into a later successional forest of fire-intolerant hardwoods such as *S. albidum*, *A. rubrum*, and *N. sylvatica*. Succession is responsible for these species establishing only after the cessation of the main disturbance type. The increase in these hardwoods coincides with the decrease in fire frequency following the last fire in the 1950s. Further, the last pulse of establishment of both pines and chestnut oaks across the mountain follows the largest fires in 1922, 1942 and 1954.

Seedling and sapling data reveal oaks are establishing on Peters Mountain, with chestnut oak stems per hectare being in the top three on all sites. However, the number of sassafras establishing on the mountain, especially on the southeast aspect, is overshadowing the oaks. Sassafras seedlings have reached 27,550 stems/ha on site B alone. Additionally, red maple establishment on the same aspect is increasing. This successional trajectory towards a forest with fire intolerant species, suggests indeed, fires were more frequent in the past and that these fires maintained open oak forests.

5.2.1 Site A

Age structure analysis revealed that *Q. montana* has been establishing itself on the site from 1870 to the present. It is possible there were older *Q. montana* individuals, however heart rot prevented gathering of information for these age classes. Their size indicates that these trees were quite old and it is possible they were established before any of the samples we were able to obtain. However, basal area was calculated for these

larger individuals revealing they are the dominant and largest species on the site. This indicates the northwest slope was probably not cleared in recent history. Additionally, the 1930 aerial photo shows this aspect as having a uniform forest.

Few other species exist on this site. It is likely this is because most of the fires occurred on this aspect of the mountain. The few pines that did establish on PMA came after the 1922 fire. Additionally, other less fire tolerant oaks and hardwoods did not establish on the site until after the 1950s, after the largest fire on the mountain. This suggests the historical oak forest on this aspect was indeed maintained by fire (Abrams 1992).

Size class results support this as well, as *Q. montana* is the largest species with the most stems per hectare. The smallest species on the site include such fire intolerant species as *A. rubrum* and *Q. coccinea*.

Seedling and sapling data reveal that *Q. montana* can in fact establish on a site in the absence of fire, however, the abundance of other fire intolerant species establishing on the site suggest a shift in forest composition.

5.2.2 Site B

Similar to site A, *Q. montana* has established on this site early in the 1800s. Only one *Q. montana* could not be obtained due to heart rot. Again, its size (53.0 cm DBH) indicates it would be old. A large gap occurs between 1860 and 1920 where no *Q. montana* established. It is possible this is due to logging or clearing for pasture that occurred during this period and the oldest trees on this site could be remnants of a forest

that existed prior to logging and/or clearing. The aerial photo from 1930 indicates that this site, unlike site A, was much clearer than it is today.

In the absence of *Q. montana* during this time there is an establishment in the 1890s and 1930s of pines and other oaks on this site during the era prior to fire control efforts. The other hardwoods found on this site (*A. rubrum*, *C. glabra*, *O. arboreum*) established and continued to flourish after 1940. This is likely a result of fire exclusion.

Site B contains 17 species compared to site A, with 13. The increase in species is likely a result of aspect, topography and the high amount of disturbance from both fire and logging/agricultural clearing. The northwest aspect is much steeper and rockier. Thus, site A may remain dominated by Chestnut Oak for a longer period of time as fire intolerant species encroachment may be slower. As a result oak forests may become restricted to the most extreme sites while more favorable sites are overtaken by fire-intolerant species (Abrams 1992).

5.2.3 Site C

Age structure results reveal *Q. montana* establishment was much later, beginning in the 1900s. In fact, all other species found on this site did not establish until after that time as well. This too is likely a result of logging/agricultural clearing on this site since it is the lowest in elevation as well as the most accessible. Similarly, logging may be responsible for the large diversity of species found on this site as invasion by early successional species took over after the end of the logging era.

Similar to the other sites *Q. montana* is the largest and most dominant on the site; however, the remaining species are more evenly distributed in size class. Again this

may be an effect of logging. This even sized distribution has resulted in a more dense forest on this side of the mountain.

Seedling and sapling data show the most species establishing on the site are *A. rubrum*, *A. pensylvanicum*, and *S. albidum*; all fire intolerant species. Fire tolerant oaks and pines are establishing on this site but in far fewer numbers, indicating a shift in forest composition.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Since the last major fire on Peters Mountain (1954), the forest surrounding the mallow has markedly changed. While *Q. montana* is still the dominant species, there has been an obvious increase in *S. albidum*, *A. rubrum*, *N. sylvatica*, and other fire-intolerant species on the southeast aspect of the mountain. While the fire frequency prior to 1867 on Peters Mountain is unknown, the age structure and DBH graphs indicate that oaks thrived on the mountain. Natural, Native American and early European fires were common and may have supported the maintenance of this oak-dominated ecosystem. The lack of fire has created a much more closed forest than a frequent, low intensity fire regime would allow, leading to the decline of the oaks, and also of the Peters Mountain mallow. When the mallow was first discovered in 1927, Strausbaugh and Core describe an open mixed oak forest that was evidenced by the 1930s aerial photo. These clear conditions conducive to mallow maintenance and oak dominance were a result of a highly disturbed landscape as evidenced by the high fire frequency and the logging/clearing that took place on the mountain.

In conclusion, it is clear that fires occurred frequently on Peters Mountain. The last fire occurred on Peters Mountain in 1976, indicating a fire free period of 30 years, much higher than the historical mean fire interval. The fire history results reported here are not inconsistent with findings in surrounding areas. Historical evidence of both natural and anthropogenic fires occurring on this site show that indeed fire should be

reintroduced on Peters Mountain at the maximum interval of 12.5 years (25 percent scarred class mean fire interval).

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APPENDIX A

Crossdating and Fire History Analysis

COFECHA Output for Master Chronology.

[] Dendrochronology Program Library
Page 1
[]
[] P R O G R A M C O F E C H A
26198

Run MASTR Program COF 18:35 Thu 21 Sep 2006
Version 6.06P

QUALITY CONTROL AND DATING CHECK OF TREE-RING MEASUREMENTS

File of DATED series: mastr.txt

CONTENTS:

- Part 1: Title page, options selected, summary, absent rings by series
- Part 2: Histogram of time spans
- Part 3: Master series with sample depth and absent rings by year
- Part 4: Bar plot of Master Dating Series
- Part 5: Correlation by segment of each series with Master
- Part 6: Potential problems: low correlation, divergent year-to-year changes, absent rings, outliers
- Part 7: Descriptive statistics

RUN CONTROL OPTIONS SELECTED

	VALUE
1 Cubic smoothing spline 50% wavelength cutoff for filtering	
	32 years
2 Segments examined are	50 years lagged successively by 25 years
3 Autoregressive model applied	A Residuals are used in master dating series and testing
4 Series transformed to logarithms	Y Each series log-transformed for master dating series and testing
5 CORRELATION is Pearson (parametric, quantitative)	
	Critical correlation, 99% confidence level .3281
6 Master dating series saved	N
7 Ring measurements listed	N
8 Parts printed	1234567
9 Absent rings are omitted from master series and segment correlations	(Y)

Time span of Master dating series is 1857 to 2004 148 Years
 Continuous time span is 1857 to 2004 148 Years
 Portion with two or more series is 1866 to 2004 139 Years

```

*****
*C* Number of dated series 19 *C*
*O* Master series 1857 2004 148 Yrs *O*
*F* Total rings in all series 1793 *F*
*E* Total dated rings checked 1784 *E*
*C* Series intercorrelation .628 *C*
*H* Average mean sensitivity .375 *H*
*A* Segments, possible problems 0 *A*
*** Mean length of series 94.4 ***
*****

```

(See Master Dating Series for absent rings listed by year)

ABSENT RINGS listed by SERIES:

PMT141	1 absent rings:	1994
PMT128B	1 absent rings:	1994
PMT115	1 absent rings:	1994
	3 absent rings	.167%

Yrs	1050	1100	1150	1200	1250	1300	1350	1400	1450	1500	1550	1600	1650	1700	1750	1800	1850	1900	1950	2000	2050	Ident	Seq	Time-span		
75	PMT140	1	1930 2004	
101	PMT111	2	1904 2004
75	PMT156	3	1930 2004
69	PMT145	4	1922 1990
74	PMT148	5	1931 2004
106	PMT141	6	1899 2004
85	PMT177	7	1920 2004
127	PMT128B	8	1878 2004
71	PMT115	9	1934 2004
102	PMT114	10	1869 1970
83	PMT147A	11	1870 1952
55	PMT137B	12	1897 1951
117	PMT121	13	1873 1989
126	PMT120	14	1875 2000
137	PMT150	15	1868 2004
115	PMT138	16	1876 1990
87	PMT149	17	1866 1952
93	PMT118A	18	1857 1949
95	PMT174	19	1869 1963

Year	Value	No Ab	Year	Value	No Ab	Year	Value	No Ab	Year	Value	No Ab	Year	Value	No Ab
1857	.936	1	1900	.563	12	1950	1.552	18	2000	.290	10			
1858	-1.306	1	1901	1.221	12	1951	.417	18	2001	.188	9			
1859	-.797	1	1902	-.384	12	1952	-.075	17	2002	-.291	9			
			1903	.015	12	1953	.683	15	2003	1.062	9			
			1904	-.060	13	1954	.483	15	2004	1.049	9			
			1905	-.513	13	1955	.084	15						
			1906	-1.803	13	1956	.210	15						
			1907	-.372	13	1957	-.625	15						
			1908	.124	13	1958	.025	15						
			1909	-.318	13	1959	-.506	15						
			1910	-.149	13	1960	-1.386	15						
			1911	-1.265	13	1961	-.800	15						
			1912	.270	13	1962	1.246	15						
			1913	.983	13	1963	-1.243	15						
			1914	-.491	13	1964	-.626	14						
			1915	-.296	13	1965	.985	14						
			1916	1.136	13	1966	-.974	14						
			1917	-1.384	13	1967	-.321	14						
			1918	-.781	13	1968	1.501	14						
			1919	.862	13	1969	.550	14						
			1920	1.119	14	1970	-.756	14						
			1921	-.195	14	1971	-.937	13						
			1922	.163	15	1972	.152	13						
			1923	.969	15	1973	1.128	13						
			1924	.722	15	1974	1.031	13						
			1925	.382	15	1975	-.145	13						
			1926	-1.180	15	1976	1.650	13						
			1927	.593	15	1977	.051	13						
			1928	.354	15	1978	-1.557	13						
			1929	.671	15	1979	.426	13						
			1930	-3.719	17	1980	.125	13						
			1931	.623	18	1981	.179	13						
			1932	-.205	18	1982	.598	13						
			1933	.212	18	1983	-.281	13						
			1934	-1.381	19	1984	.363	13						
			1935	.871	19	1985	-.720	13						
			1936	-.710	19	1986	-.516	13						
			1937	.336	19	1987	-1.315	13						
			1938	1.907	19	1988	.733	13						

1889	1.325	10	1939	.381	19	1989	1.150	13
1890	-.144	10	1940	.514	19	1990	1.862	12
1891	1.103	10	1941	-.704	19	1991	.918	10
1892	-.278	10	1942	.233	19	1992	.239	10
1893	-.638	10	1943	-.590	19	1993	-.159	10
1894	-.496	10	1944	-1.786	19	1994	-1.554	10
1895	-.805	10	1945	-.232	19	1995	-1.296	10
1896	-.923	10	1946	-.075	19	1996	-1.067	10
1897	.474	11	1947	-.455	19	1997	-.355	10
1898	1.189	11	1948	.966	19	1998	.031	10
1899	-.623	12	1949	.901	19	1999	.620	10

Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value	Year Rel value
1857	1907	1957	2007	2057	2107	2157	2207	2257
1858e	1908	1958	2008	2058	2108	2158	2208	2258
1859-c	1909	1959	2009	2059	2109	2159	2209	2259
1860	1910	1960	2010	2060	2110	2160	2210	2260
1861	1911	1961	2011	2061	2111	2161	2211	2261
1862w	1912	1962	2012	2062	2112	2162	2212	2262
1863-d	1913	1963	2013	2063	2113	2163	2213	2263
1864	1914	1964	2014	2064	2114	2164	2214	2264
1865	1915	1965	2015	2065	2115	2165	2215	2265
1866e	1916	1966	2016	2066	2116	2166	2216	2266
1867	1917	1967	2017	2067	2117	2167	2217	2267
1868	1918	1968	2018	2068	2118	2168	2218	2268
1869	1919	1969	2019	2069	2119	2169	2219	2269
1870	1920	1970	2020	2070	2120	2170	2220	2270
1871	1921	1971	2021	2071	2121	2171	2221	2271
1872	1922	1972	2022	2072	2122	2172	2222	2272
1873	1923	1973	2023	2073	2123	2173	2223	2273
1874	1924	1974	2024	2074	2124	2174	2224	2274
1875	1925	1975	2025	2075	2125	2175	2225	2275
1876-c	1926	1976	2026	2076	2126	2176	2226	2276
1877f	1927	1977	2027	2077	2127	2177	2227	2277
1878	1928	1978	2028	2078	2128	2178	2228	2278
1879	1929	1979	2029	2079	2129	2179	2229	2279
1880	1930	1980	2030	2080	2130	2180	2230	2280
1881	1931	1981	2031	2081	2131	2181	2231	2281
1882	1932	1982	2032	2082	2132	2182	2232	2282
1883	1933	1983	2033	2083	2133	2183	2233	2283
1884	1934	1984	2034	2084	2134	2184	2234	2284
1885f	1935	1985	2035	2085	2135	2185	2235	2285
1886	1936	1986	2036	2086	2136	2186	2236	2286
1887-b	1937	1987	2037	2087	2137	2187	2237	2287
1888	1938	1988	2038	2088	2138	2188	2238	2288
1889	1939	1989	2039	2089	2139	2189	2239	2289
1890	1940	1990	2040	2090	2140	2190	2240	2290
1891	1941	1991	2041	2091	2141	2191	2241	2291
1892	1942	1992	2042	2092	2142	2192	2242	2292

1893--c 1943--b 1993----a
1894--b 1944g 1994f
1895--c 1945--a 1995e
1896--d 1946---@ 1996-d
1897-----B 1947---b 1997---a
1898-----E 1948-----D 1998-----@
1899--b 1949-----D 1999-----B

PART 5: CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SEGMENTS:

5

Correlations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years
 Flags: A = correlation under .3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position

Seq Series	Time_span	1850	1875	1900	1925	1950	1975
		1899	1924	1949	1974	1999	2024
1	PMT140				.69	.47	.54
2	PMT111			.64	.73	.69	.69
3	PMT156				.74	.61	.60
4	PMT145			.56	.58	.56	
5	PMT148				.75	.79	.79
6	PMT141		.67	.63	.77	.77	.61
7	PMT177			.70	.73	.78	.82
8	PMT128B		.46	.83	.87	.73	.71
9	PMT115				.71	.78	.72
10	PMT114	.45	.56	.80	.80	.73	
11	PMT147A	.64	.67	.76	.75		
12	PMT137B		.70	.69	.70		
13	PMT121	.39	.36	.78	.77	.50	
14	PMT120		.65	.58	.53	.42	.47
15	PMT150	.38	.47	.43	.50	.69	.59
16	PMT138		.44	.68	.69	.57	
17	PMT149	.54	.55	.59	.59		
18	PMT118A	.57	.64	.55			
19	PMT174	.51	.58	.79	.78		
Av segment	correlation	.50	.56	.67	.70	.64	.65

For each series with potential problems the following diagnostics may appear:

[A] Correlations with master dating series of flagged 50-year segments of series filtered with 32-year spline, at every point from ten years earlier (-10) to ten years later (+10) than dated

[B] Effect of those data values which most lower or raise correlation with master series
 Symbol following year indicates value in series is greater (>) or lesser (<) than master series value

[C] Year-to-year changes very different from the mean change in other series

[D] Absent rings (zero values)

[E] Values which are statistical outliers from mean for the year

=====
 PMT140 1930 to 2004 75 years
 Series 1

[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (.666) is:
 Lower 1954< -.040 1992< -.018 1977< -.014 1985> -.011 1961> -.010 1979< -.009 Higher 1930 .111 1938 .012

=====
 PMT111 1904 to 2004 101 years
 Series 2

[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (.661) is:
 Lower 1913< -.042 1969< -.018 1910> -.017 1999< -.012 1911> -.008 1907> -.008 Higher 1917 .013 1976 .010

[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
 1910 +3.3 SD

=====
 PMT156 1930 to 2004 75 years
 Series 3

[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (.670) is:
 Lower 1934> -.016 1984< -.012 1984< -.011 2001< -.010 1994> -.009 1985> -.008 Higher 1930 .040 1944 .016

```

=====
=====
PMT145 1922 to 1990 69 years
Series 4
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .561) is:
Lower 1925< -.045 1942< -.044 1926> -.039 1922< -.024 1978> -.016 1947> -.015 Higher 1930 .089 1968
.015
=====
=====
PMT148 1931 to 2004 74 years
Series 5
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .761) is:
Lower 1947> -.025 1977> -.017 1958> -.010 1945> -.009 1942> -.008 1975> -.008 Higher 1944 .014 1976
.012
=====
=====
PMT141 1899 to 2004 106 years
Series 6
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .642) is:
Lower 2003< -.027 2001> -.017 1949< -.016 1910< -.014 1905> -.013 1943> -.013 Higher 1930 .063 1963
.012
[D] 1 Absent rings: Year Master N series Absent
1994 -1.554 10 3
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
1911 -5.1 SD
=====
=====
PMT177 1920 to 2004 85 years
Series 7
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .739) is:
Lower 1948< -.071 1921> -.009 1936> -.008 1925< -.007 1924< -.007 1971> -.006 Higher 1930 .093 1963
.008
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
1948 -5.5 SD
=====
=====

```

```

PMT128B 1878 to 2004 127 years
Series 8
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .695) is:
Lower 1884< -.024 1891< -.021 1881> -.013 1921< -.011 1890> -.009 1903> -.008 Higher 1930 .054 1944
.010
[D] 1 Absent rings: Year Master N series Absent
1994 -1.554 10 3
=====
=====
PMT115 1934 to 2004 71 years
Series 9
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .720) is:
Lower 2001> -.023 1978> -.019 1949< -.015 1942> -.014 1967< -.013 1977> -.010 Higher 1934 .010 1976
.010
[D] 1 Absent rings: Year Master N series Absent
1994 -1.554 10 3
=====
=====
PMT114 1869 to 1970 102 years
Series 10
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .589) is:
Lower 1869< -.033 1896< -.023 1897< -.015 1970> -.014 1885> -.014 1870> -.008 Higher 1930 .051 1917
.020
=====
=====
PMT147A 1870 to 1952 83 years
Series 11
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .727) is:
Lower 1934> -.024 1918< -.016 1870< -.015 1919< -.011 1875> -.009 1916< -.008 Higher 1930 .051 1917
.014
=====
=====
PMT137B 1897 to 1951 55 years
Series 12
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .710) is:

```

```

Lower 1903< -.032 1944> -.013 1906< -.011 1940< -.009 1911> -.009 1902> -.007 Higher 1930 .024 1938
.019
=====
=====
PMT121 1873 to 1989 117 years
Series 13
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .568) is:
Lower 1895> -.033 1877> -.033 1989< -.021 1987> -.017 1880< -.015 1968< -.014 Higher 1930 .088 1978
.012
[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
1877 +4.2 SD; 1895 +4.1 SD
=====
=====
PMT120 1875 to 2000 126 years
Series 14
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .530) is:
Lower 1989< -.038 1942< -.027 1950< -.022 1896> -.015 1988< -.013 1914< -.011 Higher 1906 .012 1917
.012
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
1989 -4.6 SD
=====
=====
PMT150 1868 to 2004 137 years
Series 15
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .453) is:
Lower 2001< -.026 1944> -.016 1884< -.014 1868< -.011 1915> -.010 1930> -.010 Higher 1978 .014 1917
.013
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year
1930 +3.8 SD
=====
=====
PMT138 1876 to 1990 115 years
Series 16
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .609) is:
Lower 1911> -.025 1963> -.019 1973< -.015 1885> -.011 1969> -.010 1926> -.008 Higher 1930 .099 1944
.015
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year

```

```

=====
1911 +3.4 SD
=====
=====
=====
PMT149 1866 to 1952 87 years
Series 17
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .593) is:
Lower 1876> -.012 1935< -.011 1905< -.010 1934> -.010 1911< -.009 1868> -.008 Higher 1938 .021 1944
.014
=====
=====
PMT118A 1857 to 1949 93 years
Series 18
[*] Early part of series cannot be checked from 1857 to 1865 -- not matched by another series
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .549) is:
Lower 1931< -.032 1935< -.020 1936> -.019 1939> -.014 1934> -.012 1921< -.010 Higher 1930 .075 1917
.016
=====
=====
PMT174 1869 to 1963 95 years
Series 19
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( .692) is:
Lower 1872< -.016 1903< -.015 1899> -.015 1963> -.011 1960< -.010 1883< -.009 Higher 1930 .074 1944
.013
=====
=====
[*] All segments correlate highest as dated with correlation with master series over .3281
=====

```

Seq Series	Interval	No. Years	No. Segmt	No. Flags	Corr with Master	Mean msmt	Max msmt	Unfiltered Std dev	Auto corr	Mean sens	Max value	Filtered Std dev	Auto corr
1	PMT140	1930 2004	75	3	0	.666	1.23	.588	.618	.330	2.90	.430	-.009
2	PMT111	1904 2004	101	4	0	.661	1.39	.956	.587	.408	4.27	.544	-.057
3	PMT156	1930 2004	75	3	0	.670	1.59	1.148	.849	.349	4.47	.463	-.015
4	PMT145	1922 1990	69	3	0	.561	1.35	.962	.769	.349	3.63	.615	-.054
5	PMT148	1931 2004	74	3	0	.761	1.43	.789	.514	.418	3.58	.551	-.029
6	PMT141	1899 2004	106	5	0	.642	.75	.455	.671	.398	2.15	.506	-.027
7	PMT177	1920 2004	85	4	0	.739	1.17	1.079	.866	.327	5.04	.358	-.081
8	PMT128B	1878 2004	127	5	0	.695	1.67	.964	.594	.431	4.88	.451	.004
9	PMT115	1934 2004	71	3	0	.720	1.39	1.209	.768	.430	5.66	.509	.054
10	PMT114	1869 1970	102	4	0	.589	1.97	1.235	.753	.328	5.04	.508	.041
11	PMT147A	1870 1952	83	4	0	.727	2.20	.772	.385	.346	4.01	.557	-.016
12	PMT137B	1897 1951	55	3	0	.710	1.84	.794	.716	.273	3.17	.486	-.004
13	PMT121	1873 1989	117	5	0	.568	1.42	.469	.911	.627	4.69	.423	-.022
14	PMT120	1875 2000	126	5	0	.530	1.14	.644	.674	.343	3.46	.559	.042
15	PMT150	1868 2004	137	6	0	.453	.68	.385	.604	.395	2.05	.474	-.008
16	PMT138	1876 1990	115	4	0	.609	1.29	.782	.676	.359	3.91	.342	-.061
17	PMT149	1866 1952	87	4	0	.593	1.51	.738	.416	.362	4.60	.549	.071
18	PMT118A	1857 1949	93	3	0	.549	1.19	.637	.485	.434	3.21	.444	.020
19	PMT174	1869 1963	95	4	0	.692	1.09	.517	.571	.365	3.28	.461	-.037
Total or mean:													
			1793	75	0	.628	1.35	.801	.634	.375	5.66	.482	-.010

- = [COFECHA MASTRCOF] = -

Table 1. Statistical analysis of all fires from 1867-1976

Total Intervals	:	44
Mean Fire Interval	:	2.48
Median Fire Interval	:	2.00
Weibull Modal Interval	:	1.35
Weibull Median Interval	:	2.18
Fire Frequency	:	0.46
Standard Deviation	:	1.87
Coefficient of Variation	:	0.76
Skewness	:	2.03
Kurtosis	:	4.37
Scale parameter	:	2.78
Shape parameter	:	1.51
Minimum Fire Interval	:	1.00
Maximum Fire Interval	:	9.00
Lower Exceedance Interval	:	0.73
Upper Exceedance Interval	:	4.51
Maximum Hazard Interval	:	2.36

Table 2. Statistical analysis of the 25 percent scarred class from 1867-1976

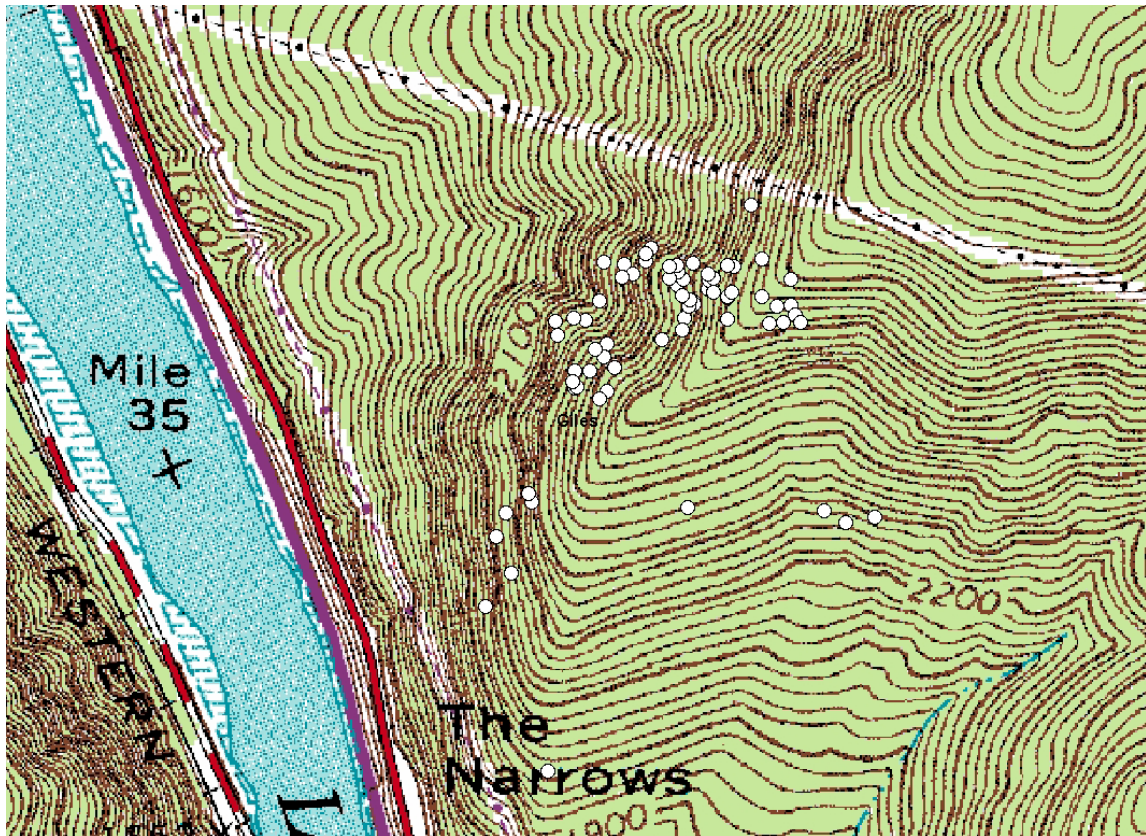
Total Intervals	:	6
Mean Fire Interval	:	12.50
Median Fire Interval	:	13.00
Weibull Modal Interval	:	12.03
Weibull Median Interval	:	12.32
Fire Frequency	:	0.08
Standard Deviation	:	5.36
Coefficient of Variation	:	0.43
Skewness	:	-0.25
Kurtosis	:	-0.94
Scale parameter	:	14.02
Shape parameter	:	2.84
Minimum Fire Interval	:	4.00
Maximum Fire Interval	:	20.00
Lower Exceedance Interval	:	6.90
Upper Exceedance Interval	:	18.15
Maximum Hazard Interval	:	22.95

Table 3. Summary Information on Seasonality of Fires, 1867 - 2005

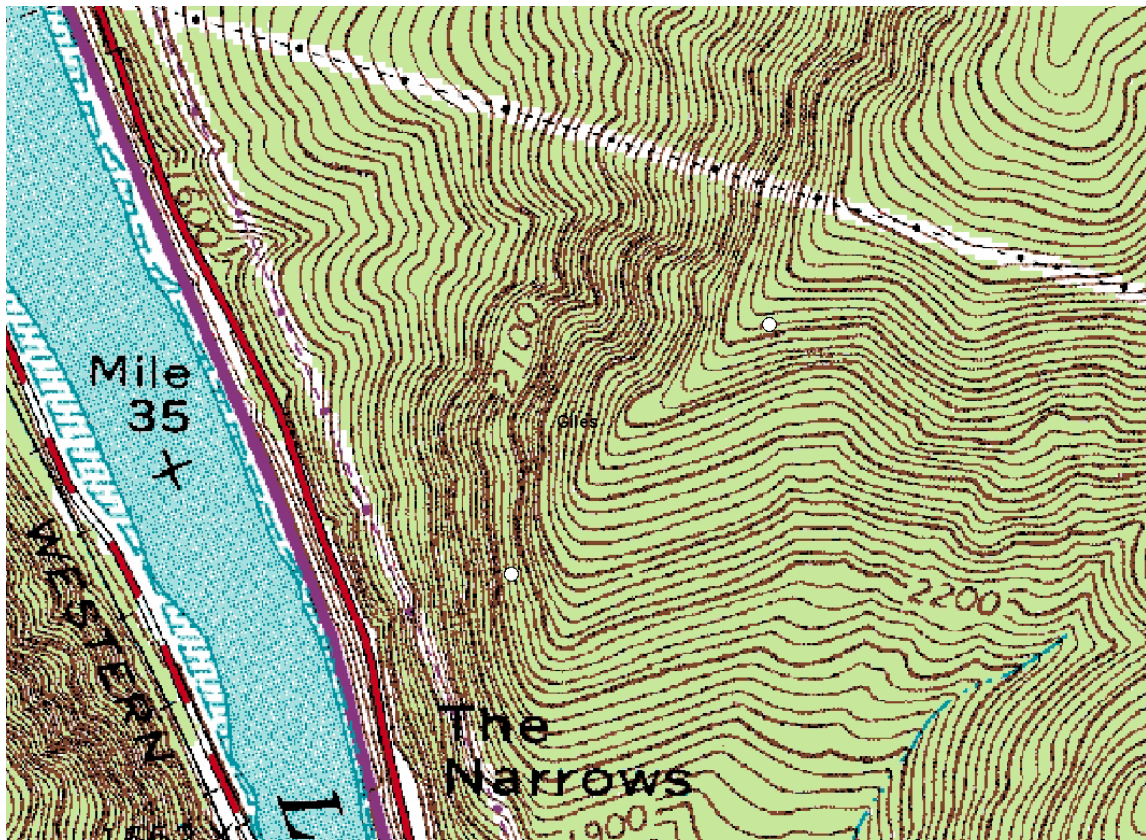
Total number of fires for site	:	162
Number and percentage with season	:	108 66.7%
Number and percentage undetermined	:	54 33.3%
Number and percentage of D fires	:	101 93.5%
Number and percentage of E fires	:	0 0.0%
Number and percentage of M fires	:	2 1.9%
Number and percentage of L fires	:	0 0.0%
Number and percentage of A fires	:	5 4.6%
Number and percentage DE fires	:	101 93.5%
Number and percentage MLA fires	:	7 6.5%

APPENDIX B

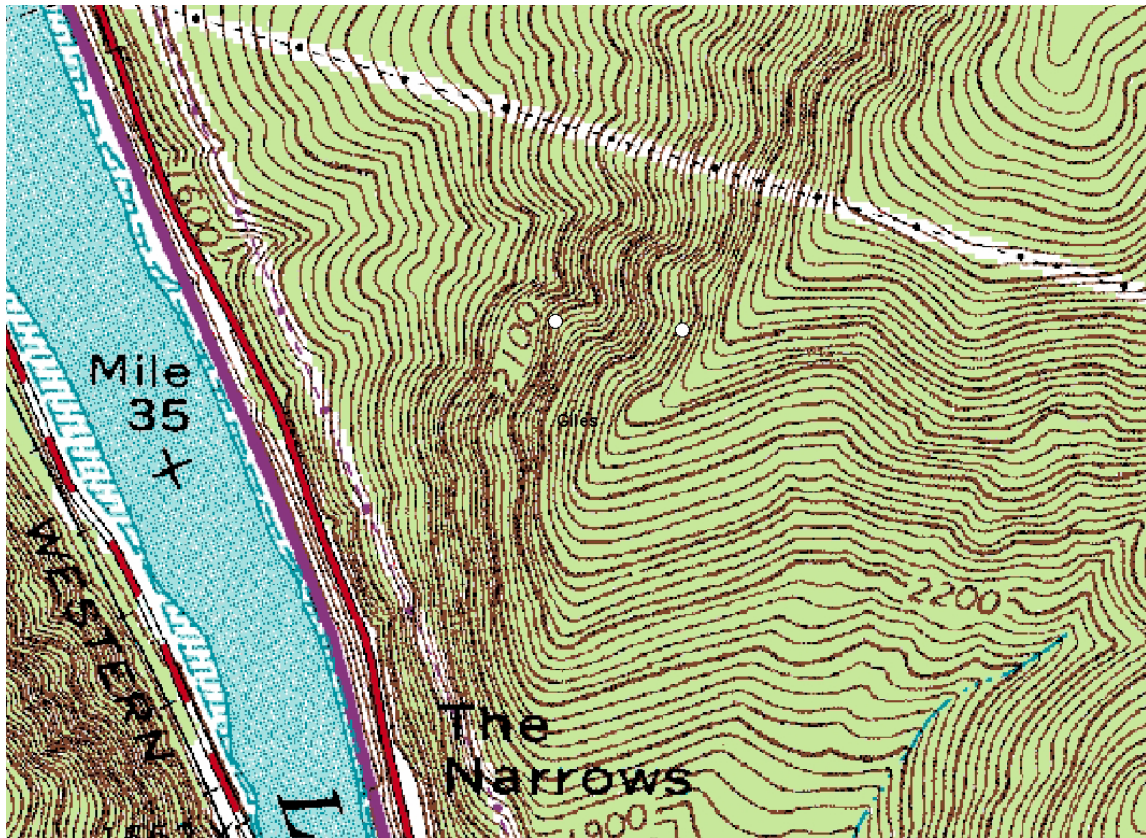
Maps of fire scarred samples



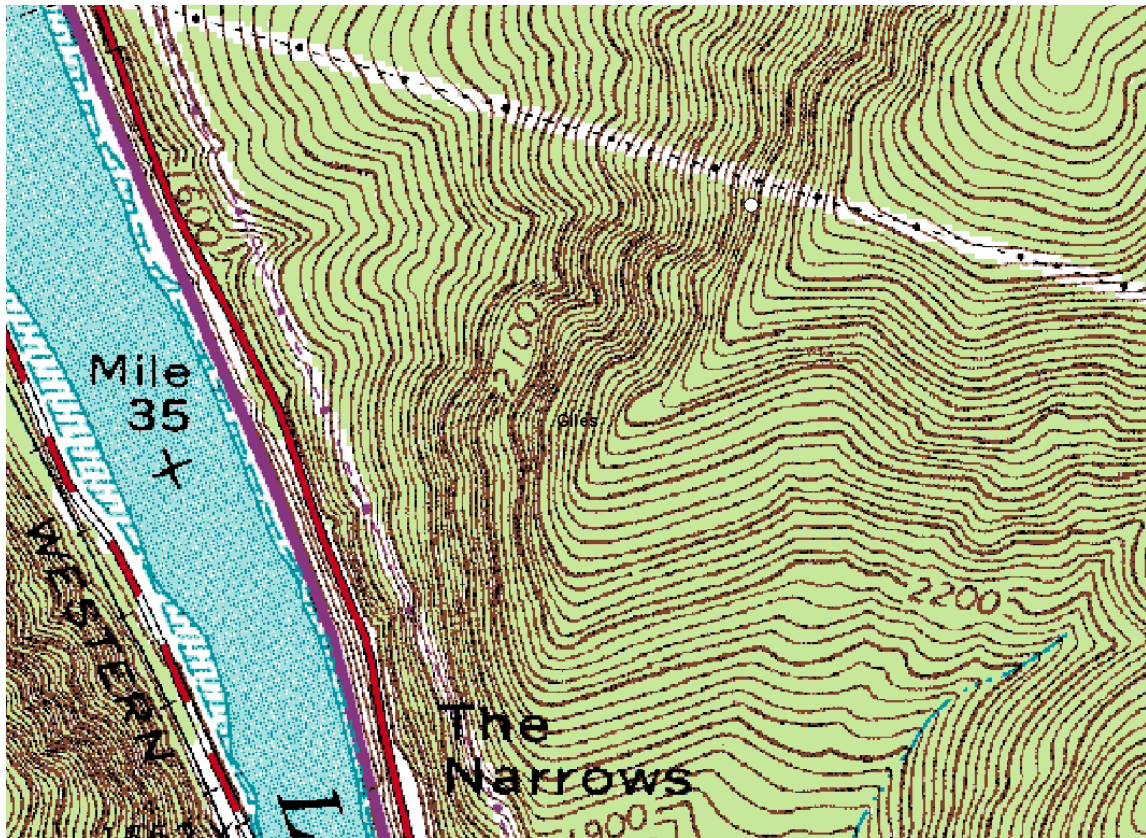
Map 1. Location of the 71 samples used for fire analysis.



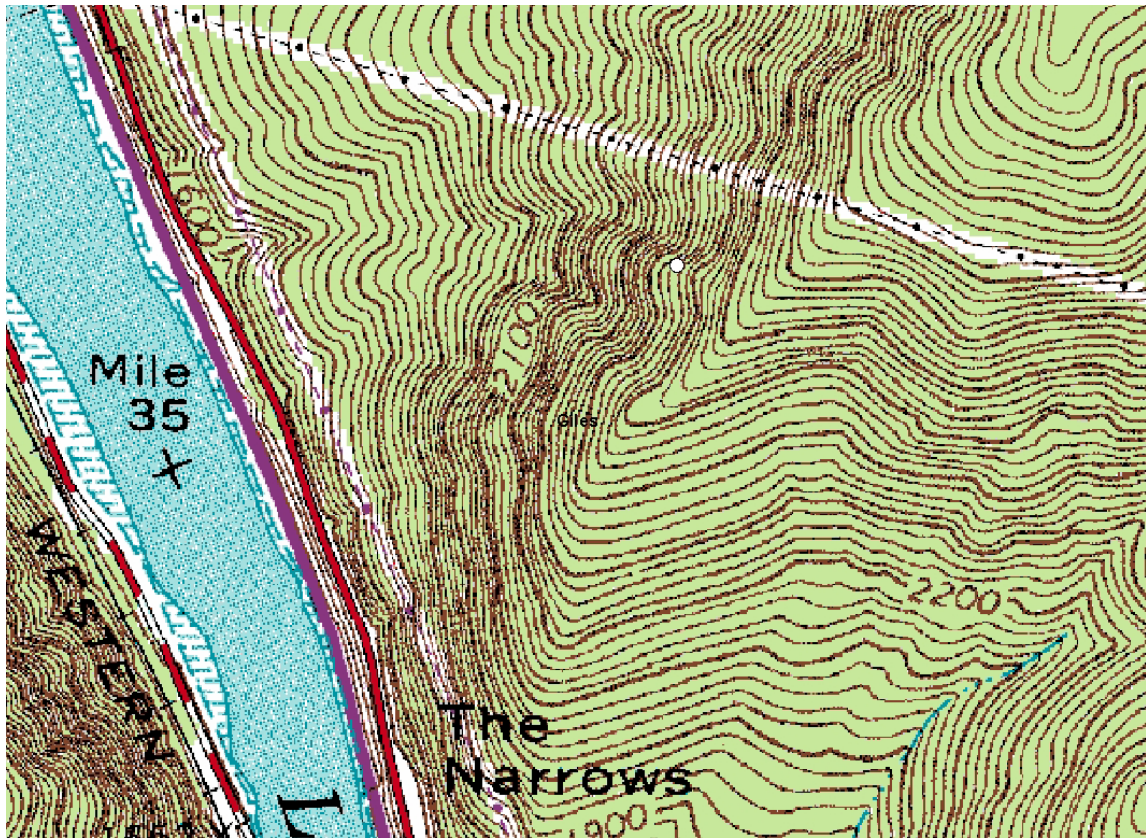
Map 2. Location of samples with 1867 fire scar.



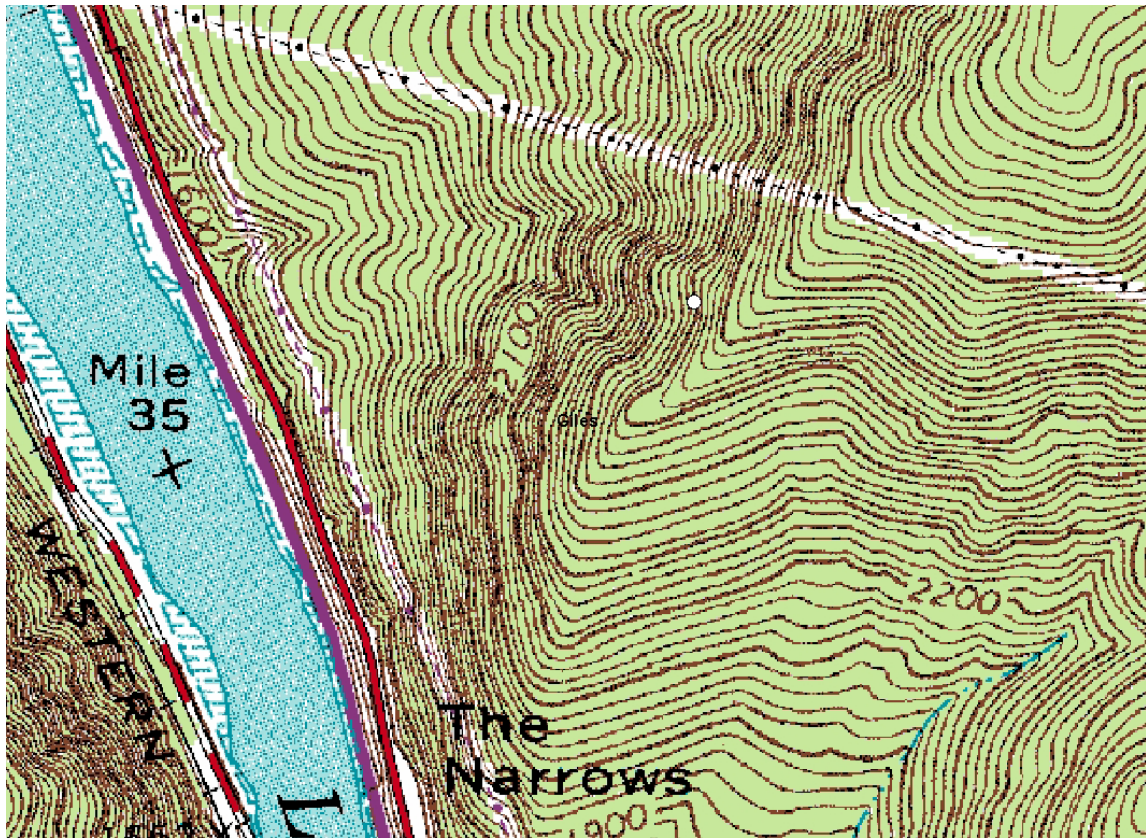
Map 3. Location of samples with 1871 fire scar.



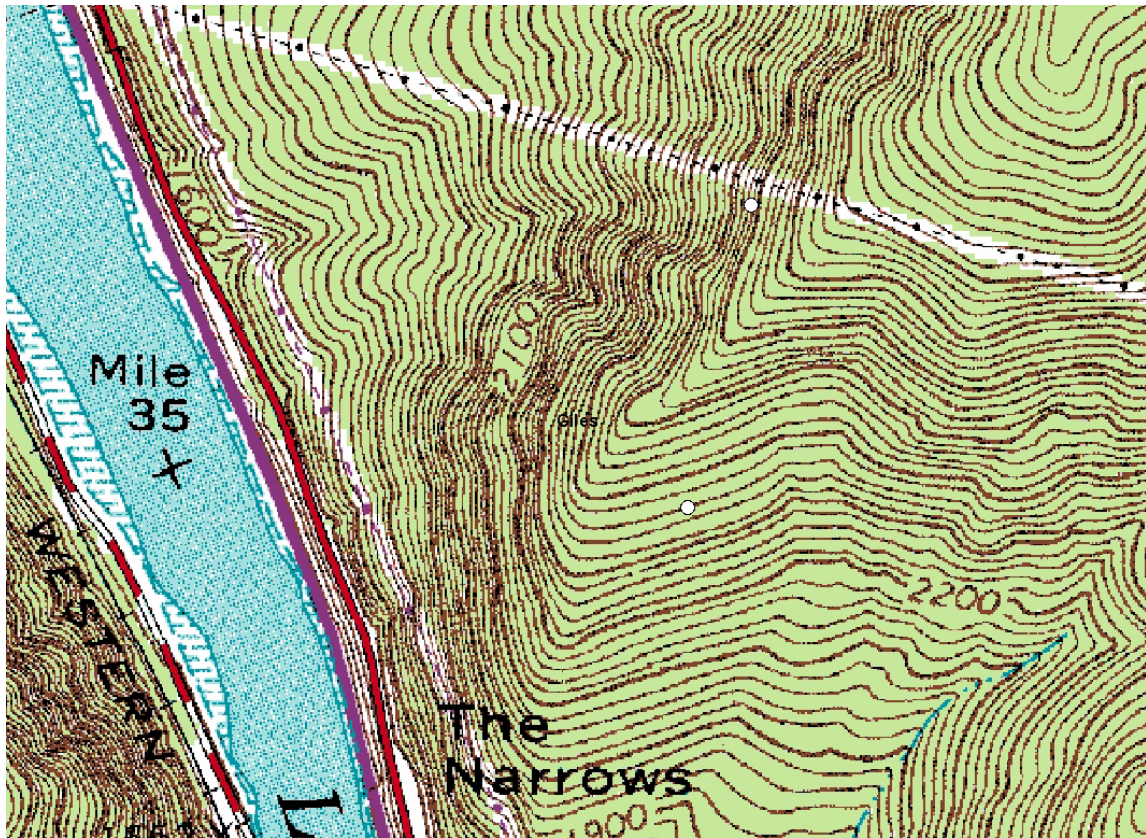
Map 4. Location of samples with 1876 fire scar.



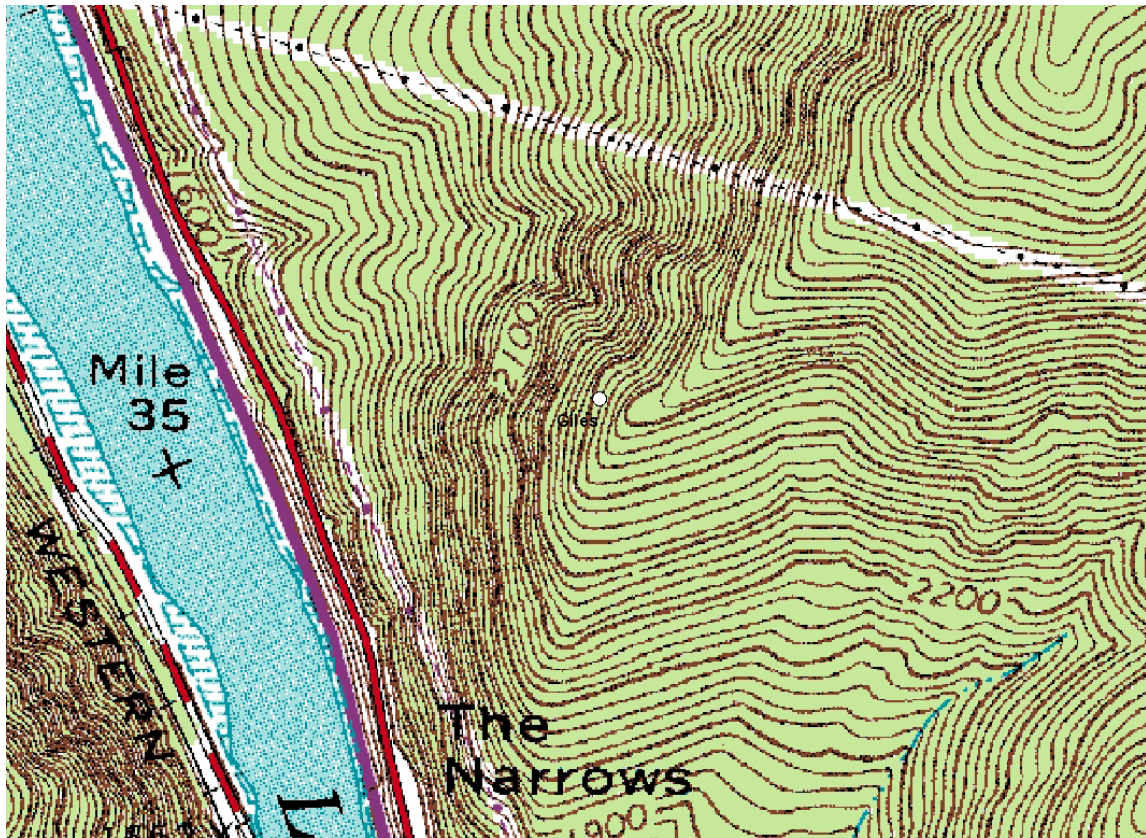
Map 5. Location of samples with 1879 fire scar.



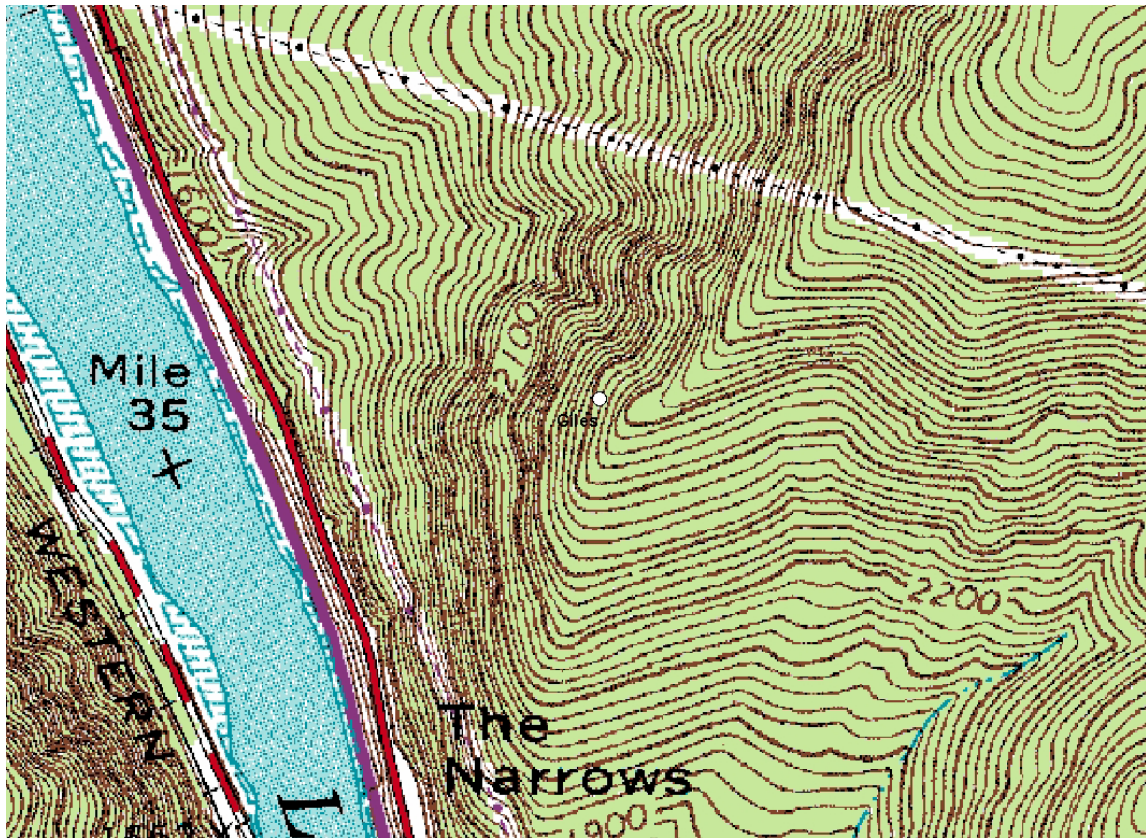
Map 6. Location of samples with 1885 fire scar.



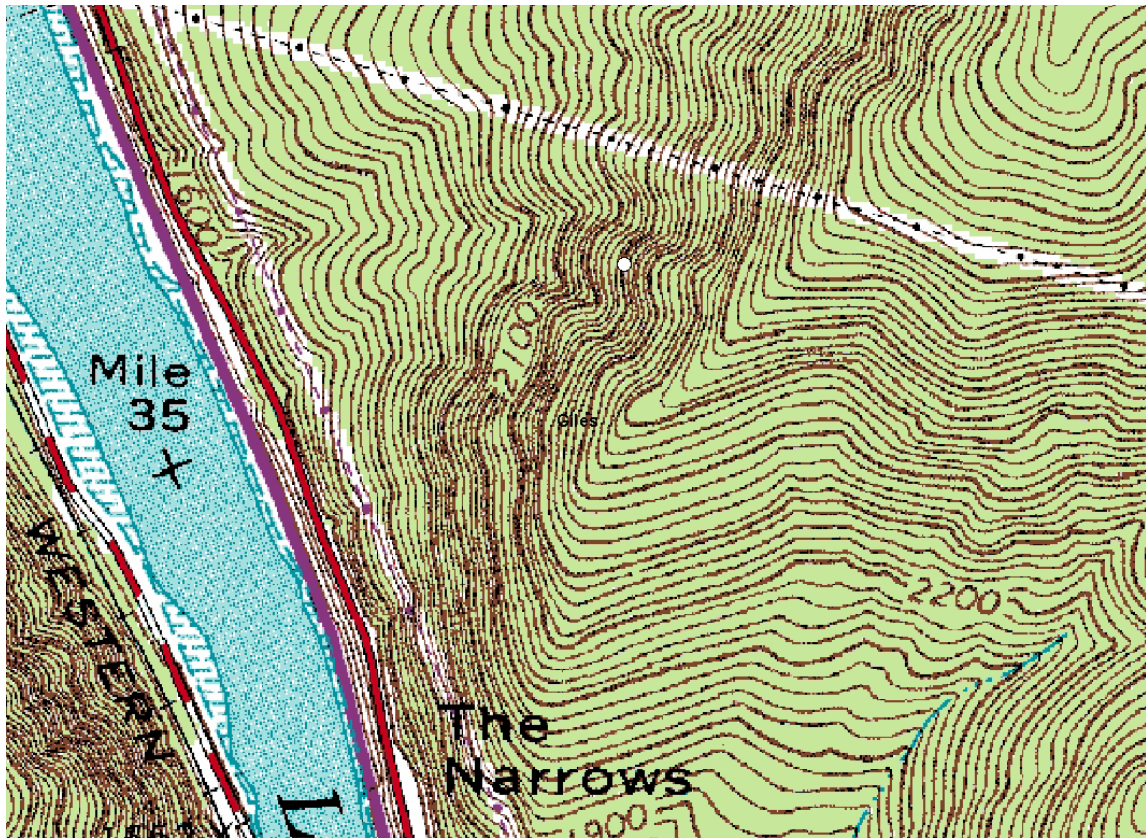
Map 7. Location of samples with 1886 fire scar.



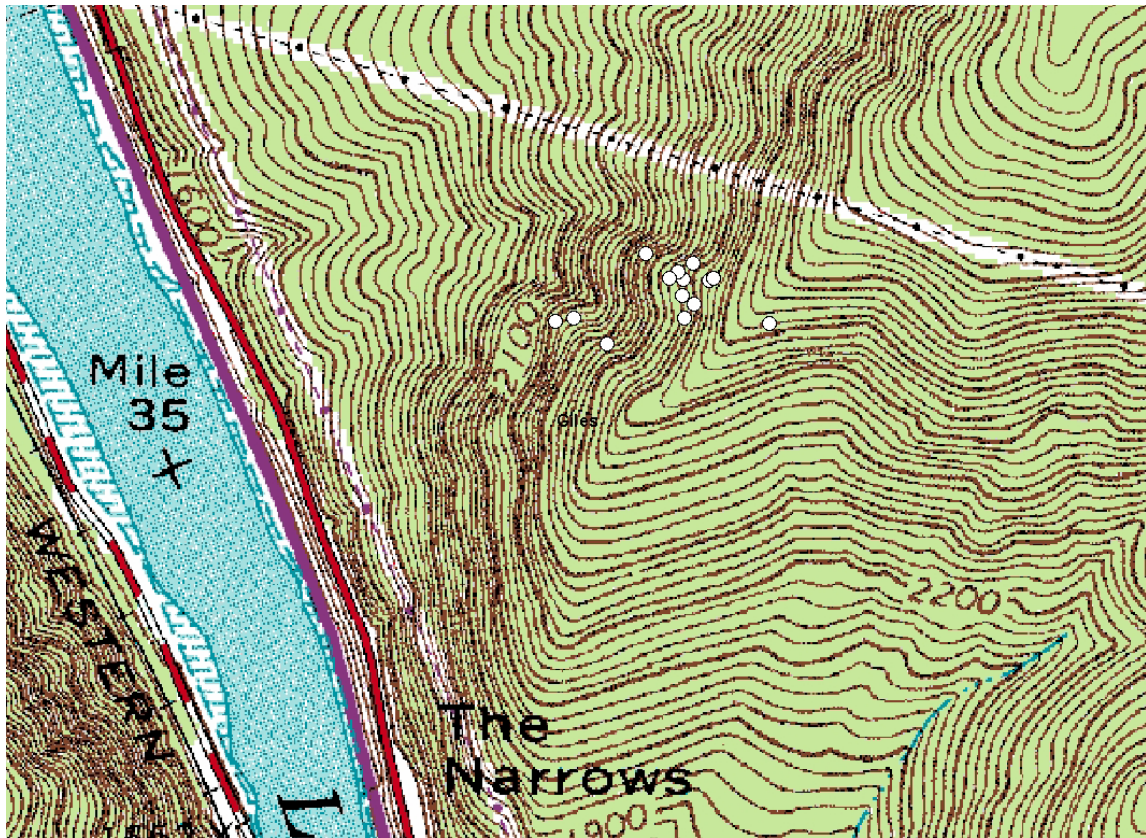
Map 8. Location of samples with 1889 fire scar.



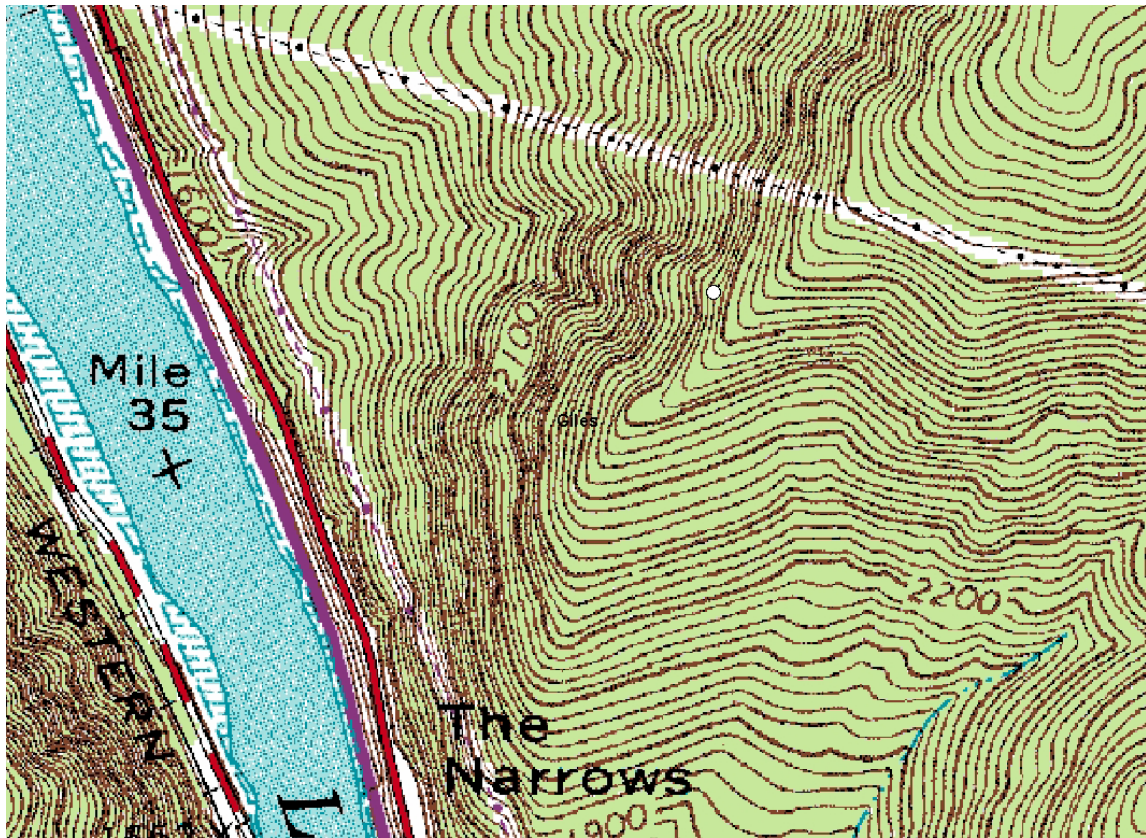
Map 9. Location of samples with 1891 fire scar.



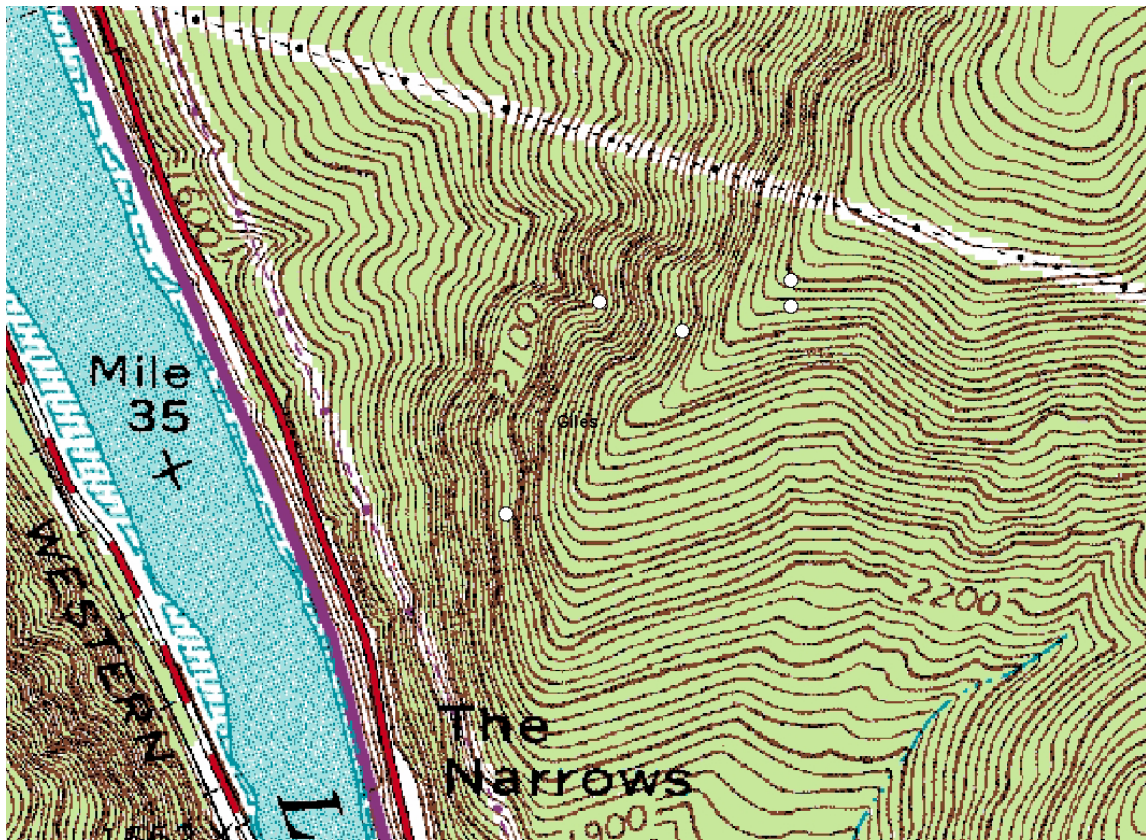
Map 10. Location of samples with 1893 fire scar.



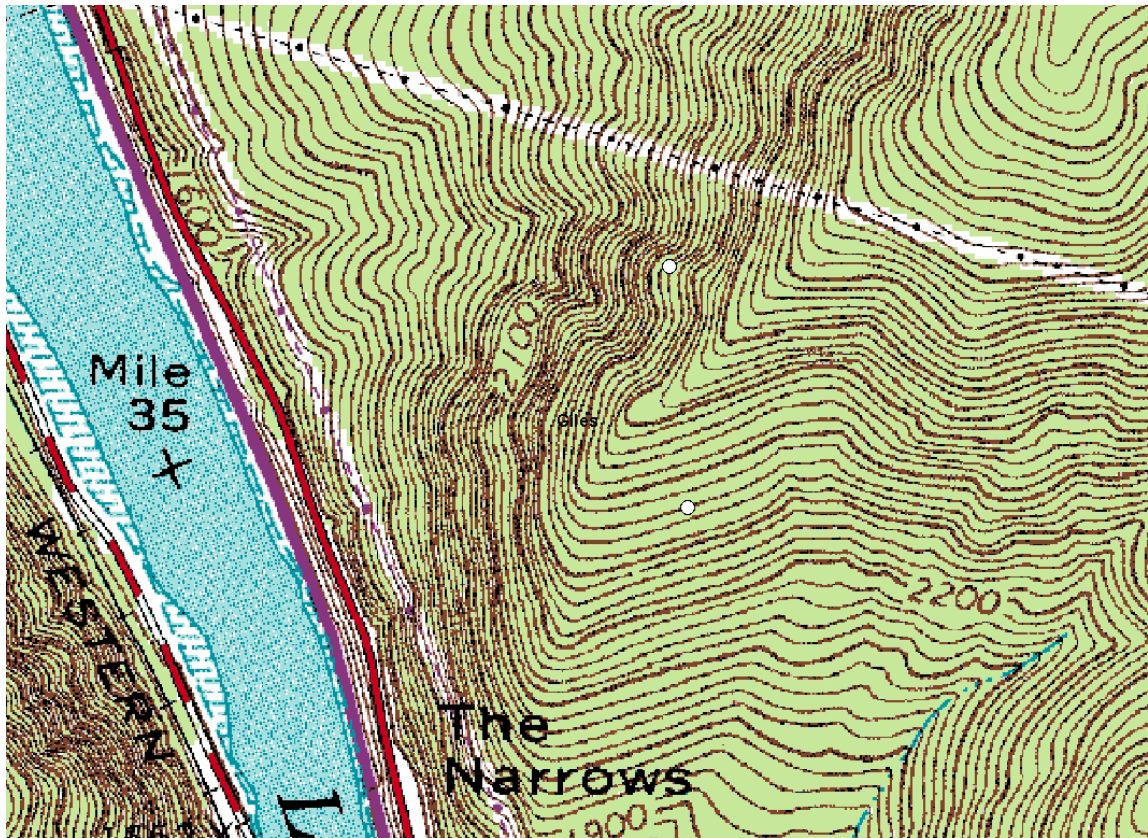
Map 11. Location of samples with 1896 fire scar.



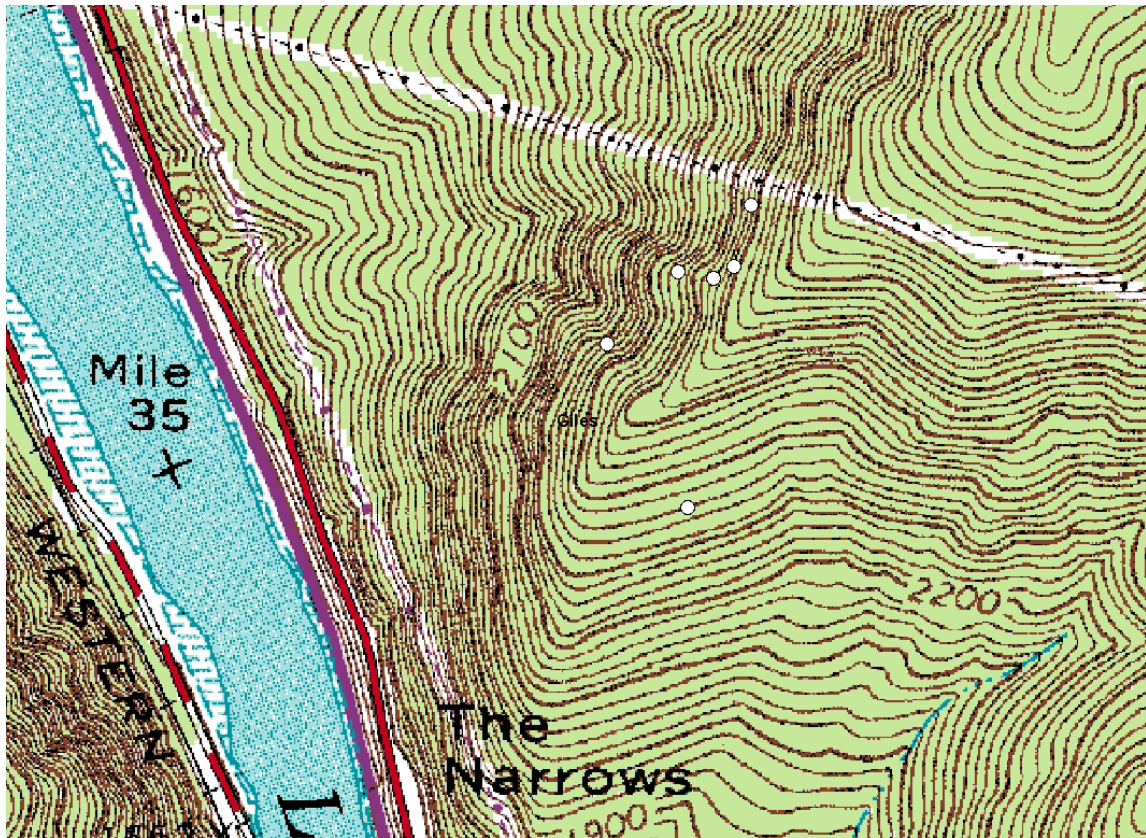
Map 12. Location of samples with 1897 fire scar.



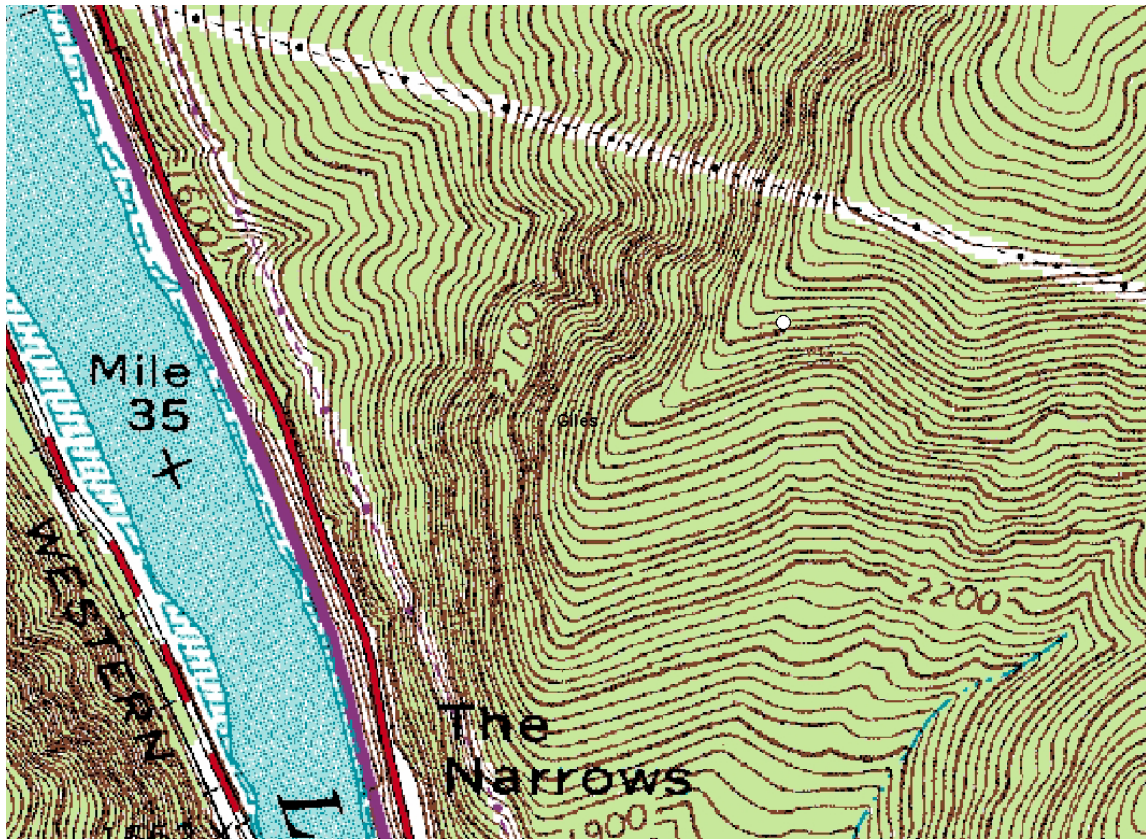
Map 13. Location of samples with 1898 fire scar.



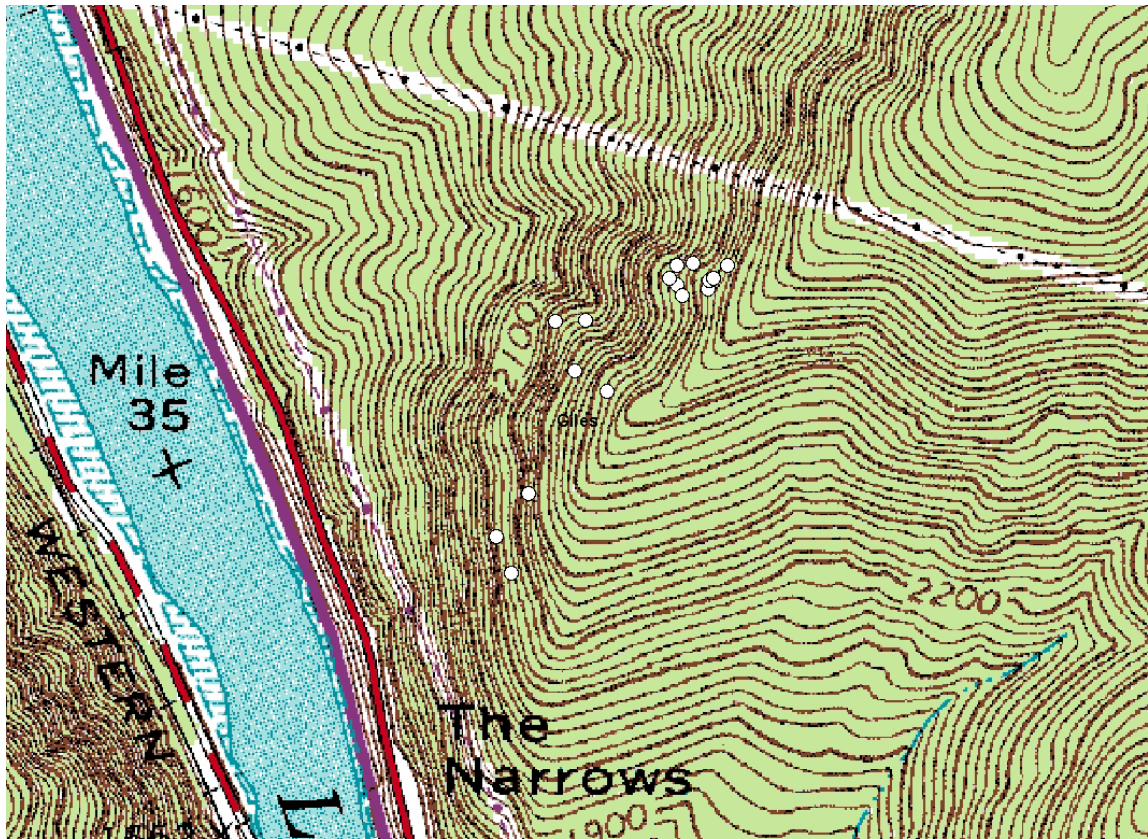
Map 14. Location of samples with 1900 fire scar.



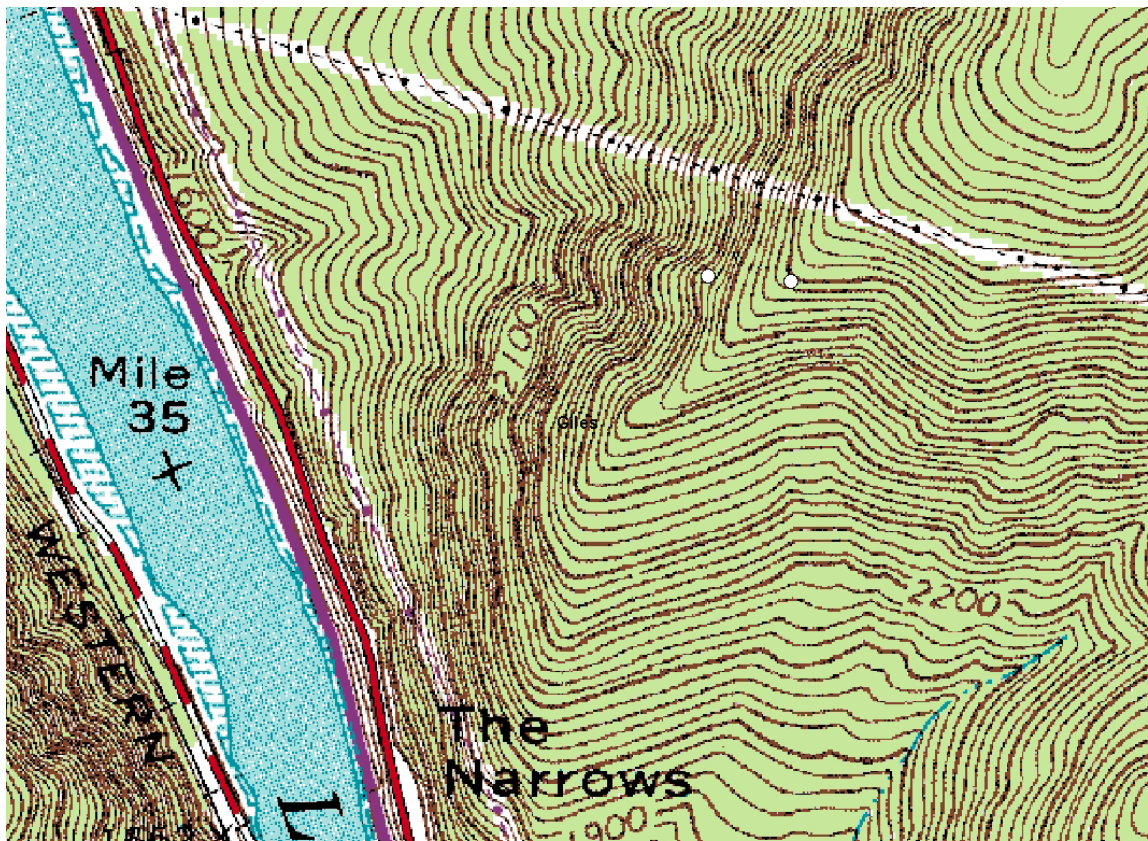
Map 15. Location of samples with 1903 fire scar.



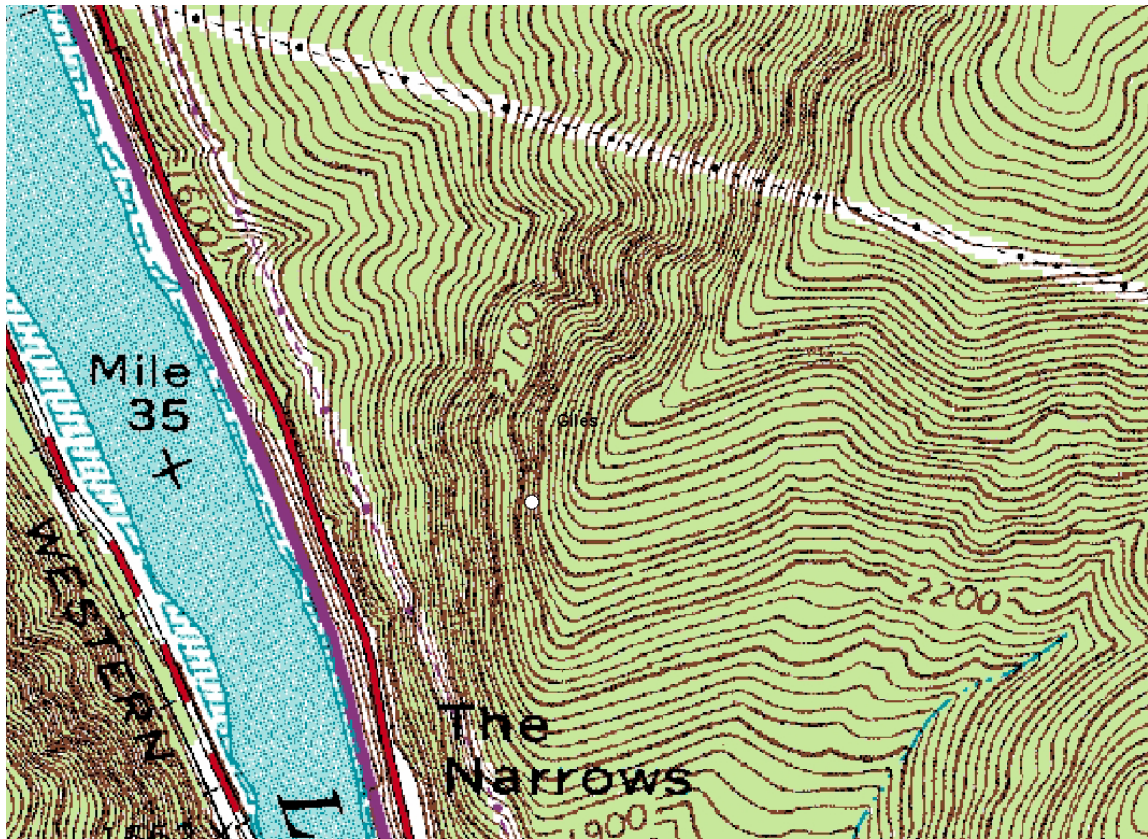
Map 16. Location of samples with 1907 fire scar.



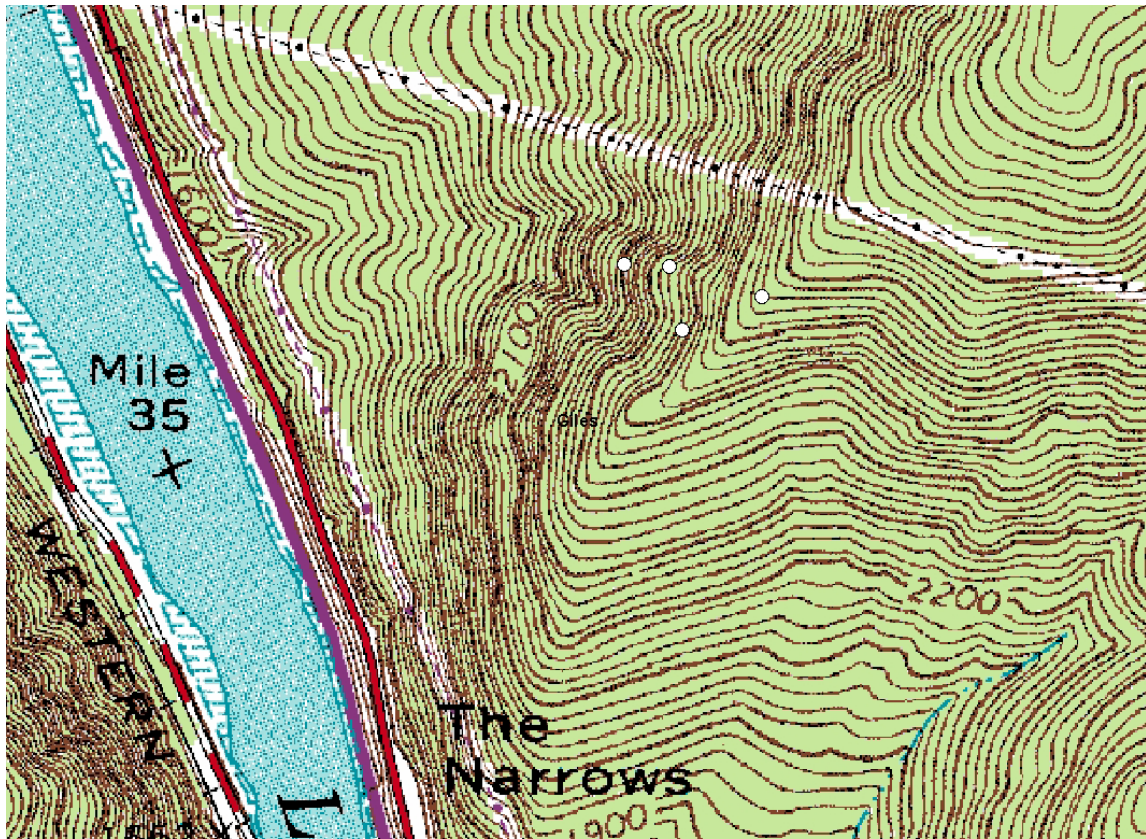
Map 17. Location of samples with 1910 fire scar.



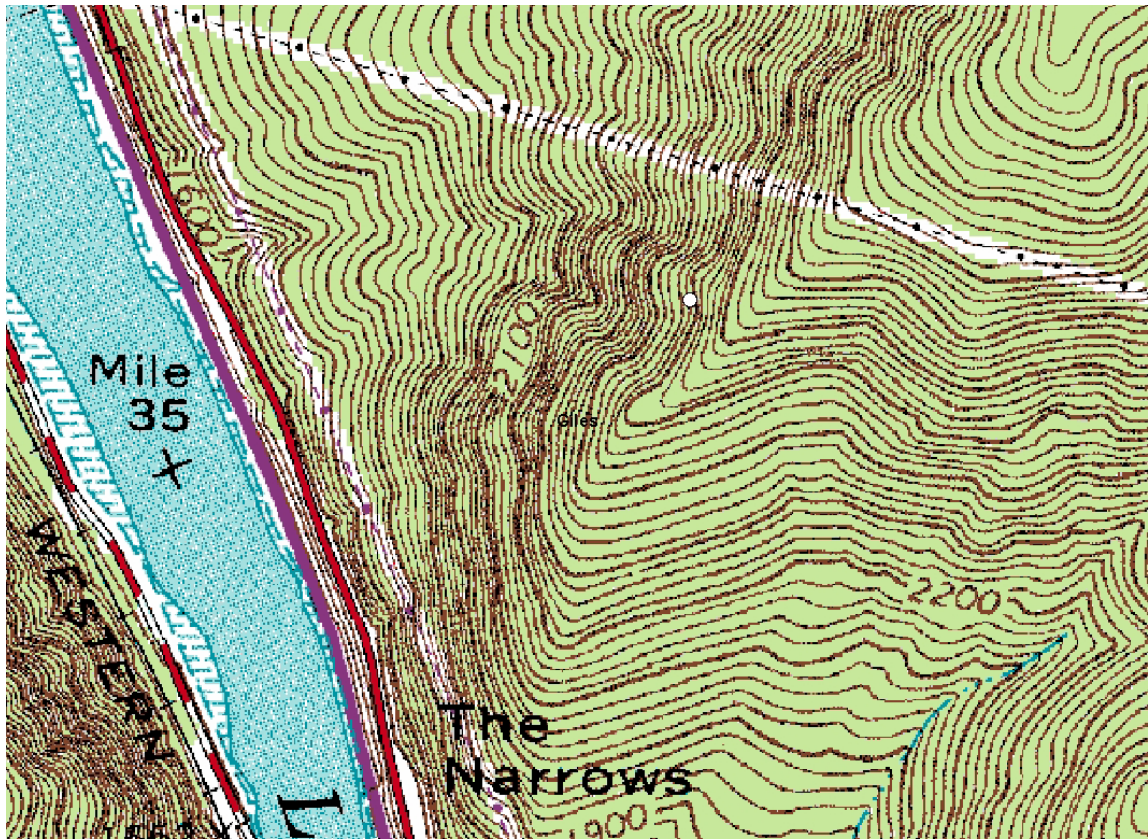
Map 18. Location of samples with 1911 fire scar.



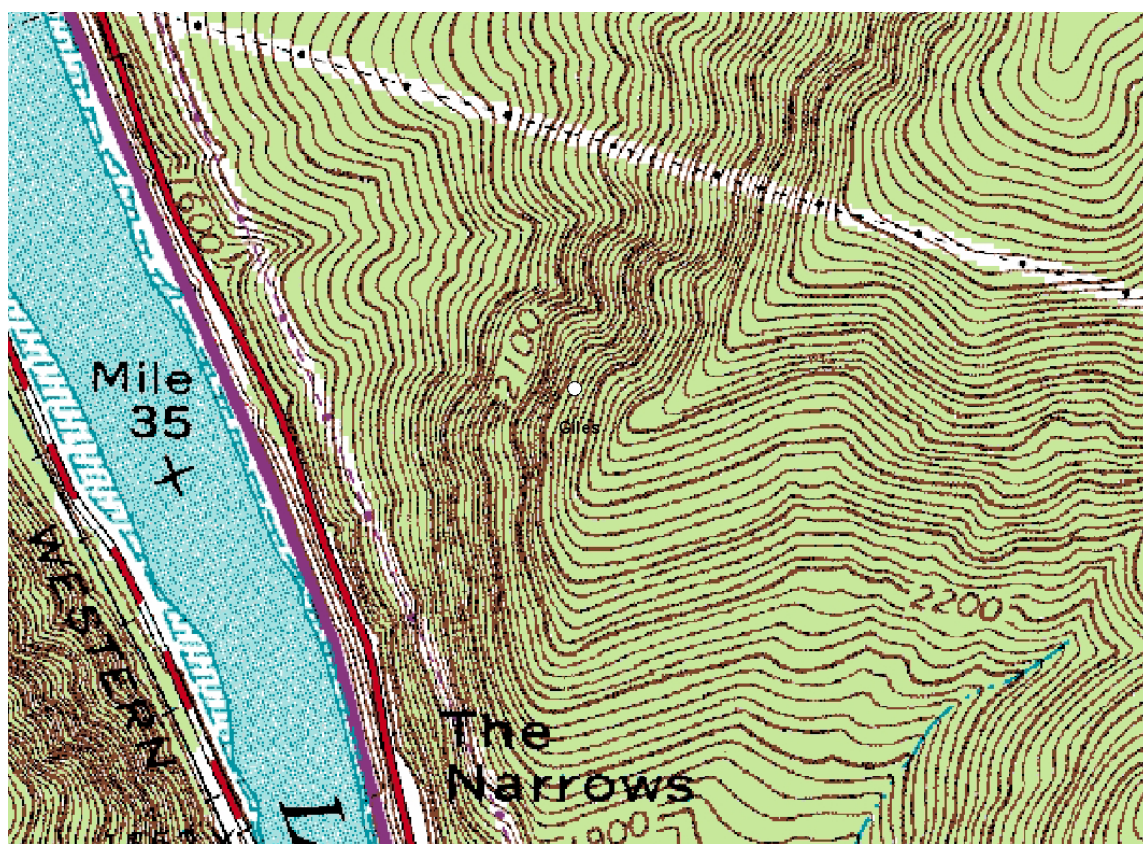
Map 19. Location of samples with 1912 fire scar.



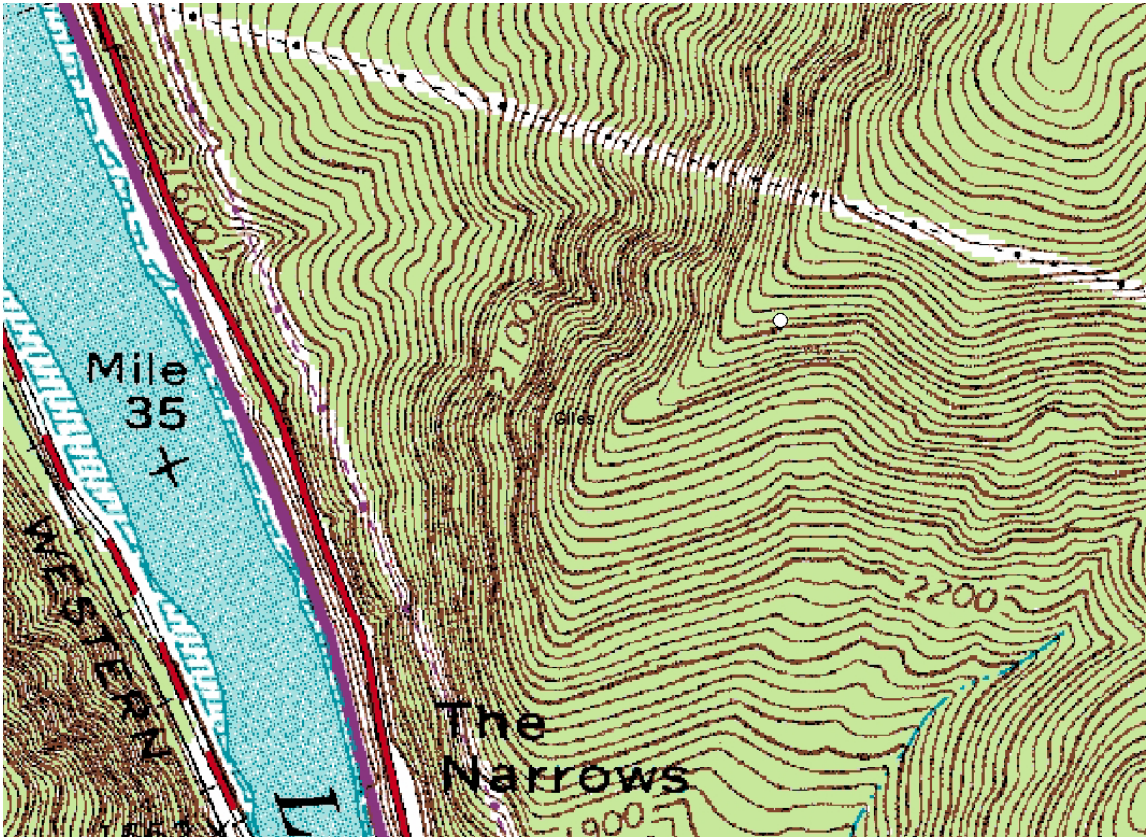
Map 20. Location of samples with 1913 fire scar.



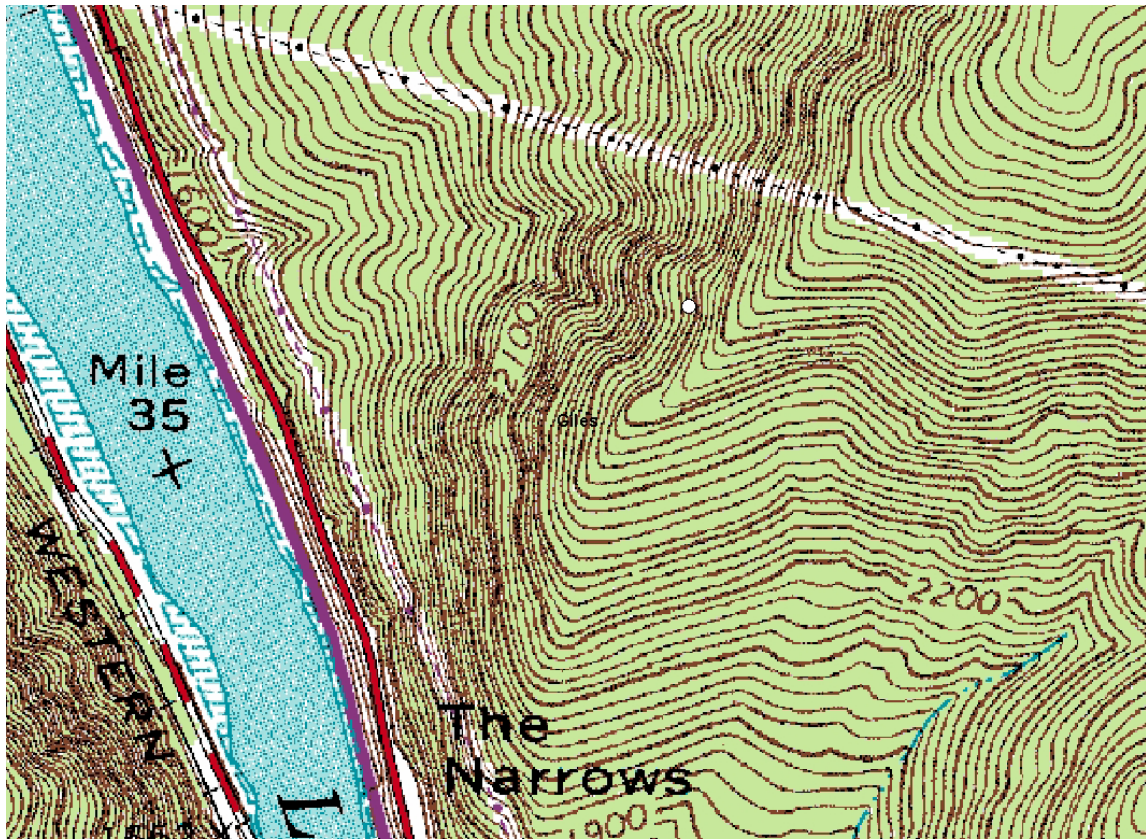
Map 21. Location of samples with 1914 fire scar.



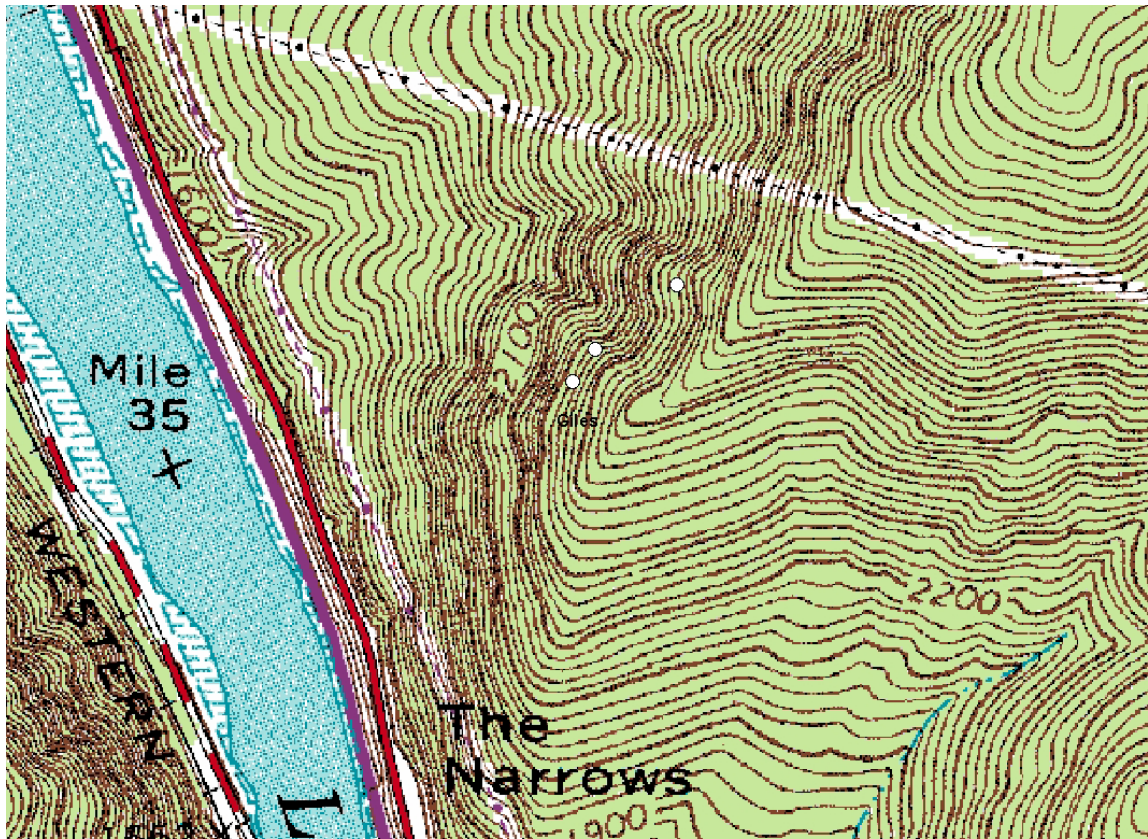
Map 22. Location of samples with 1916 fire scar.



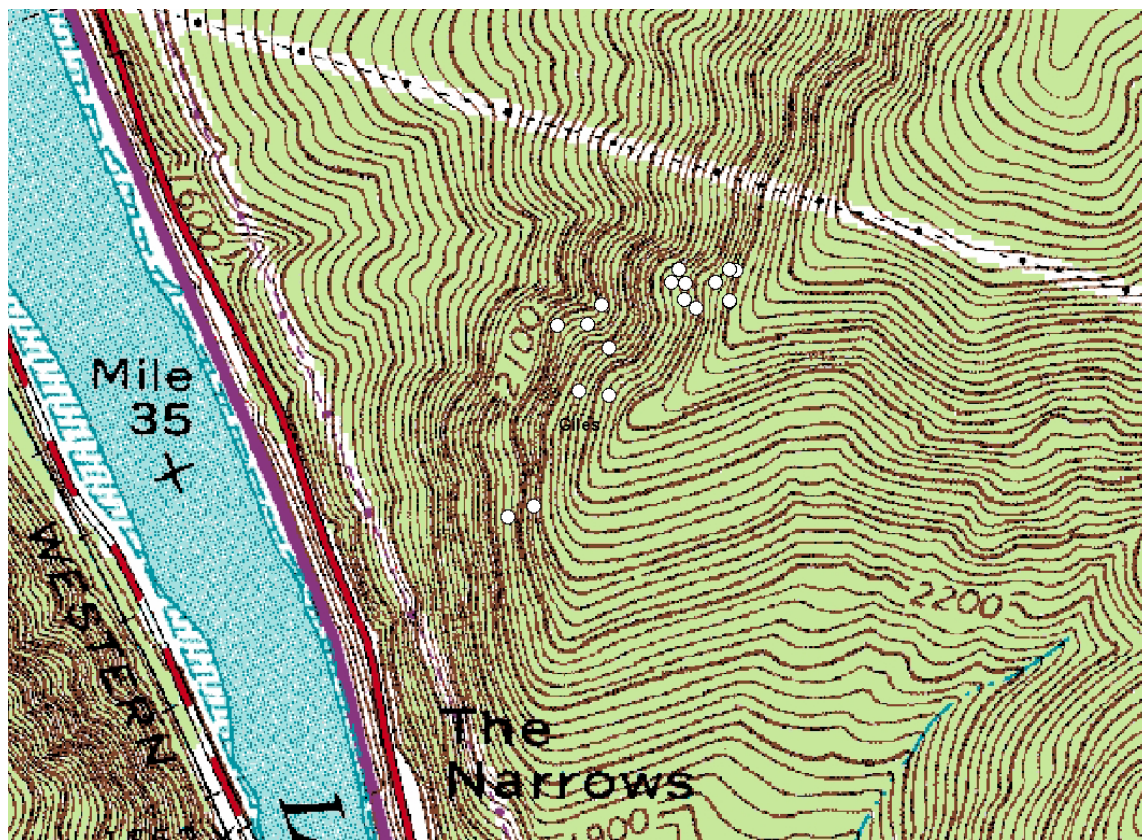
.Map 23. Location of samples with 1917 fire scar.



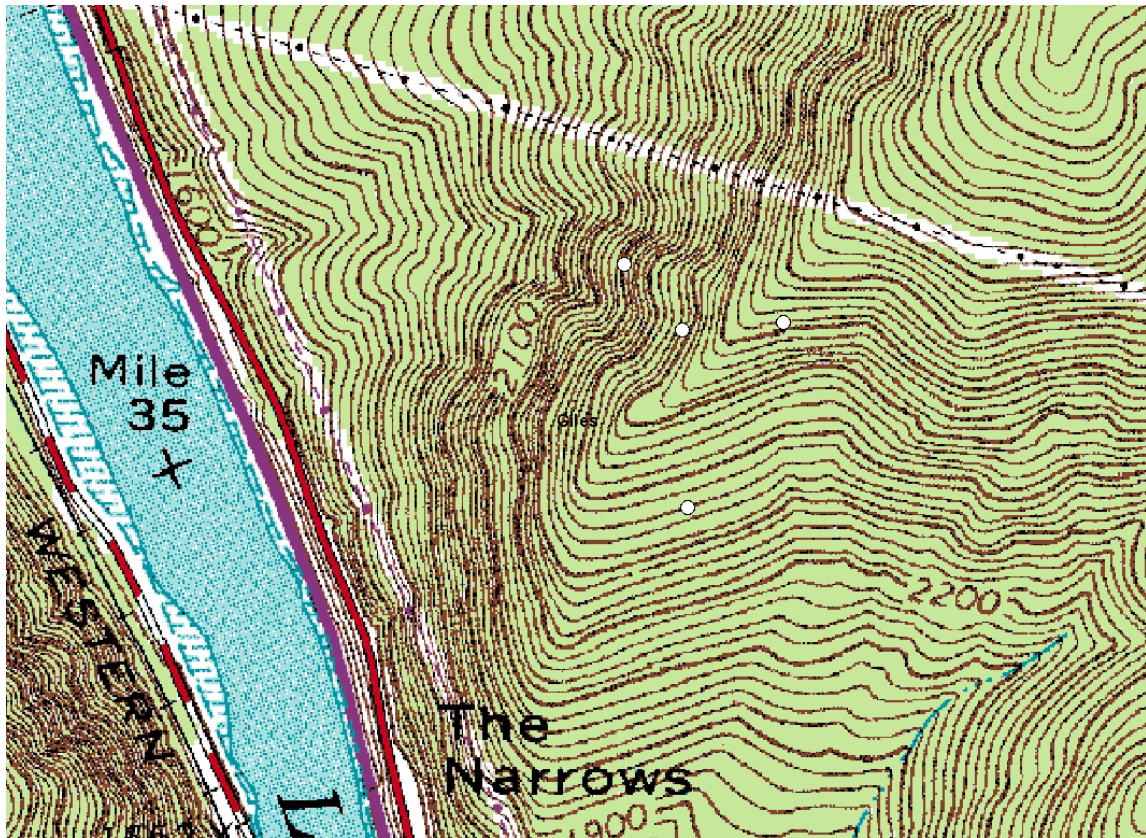
Map 24. Location of samples with 1918 fire scar.



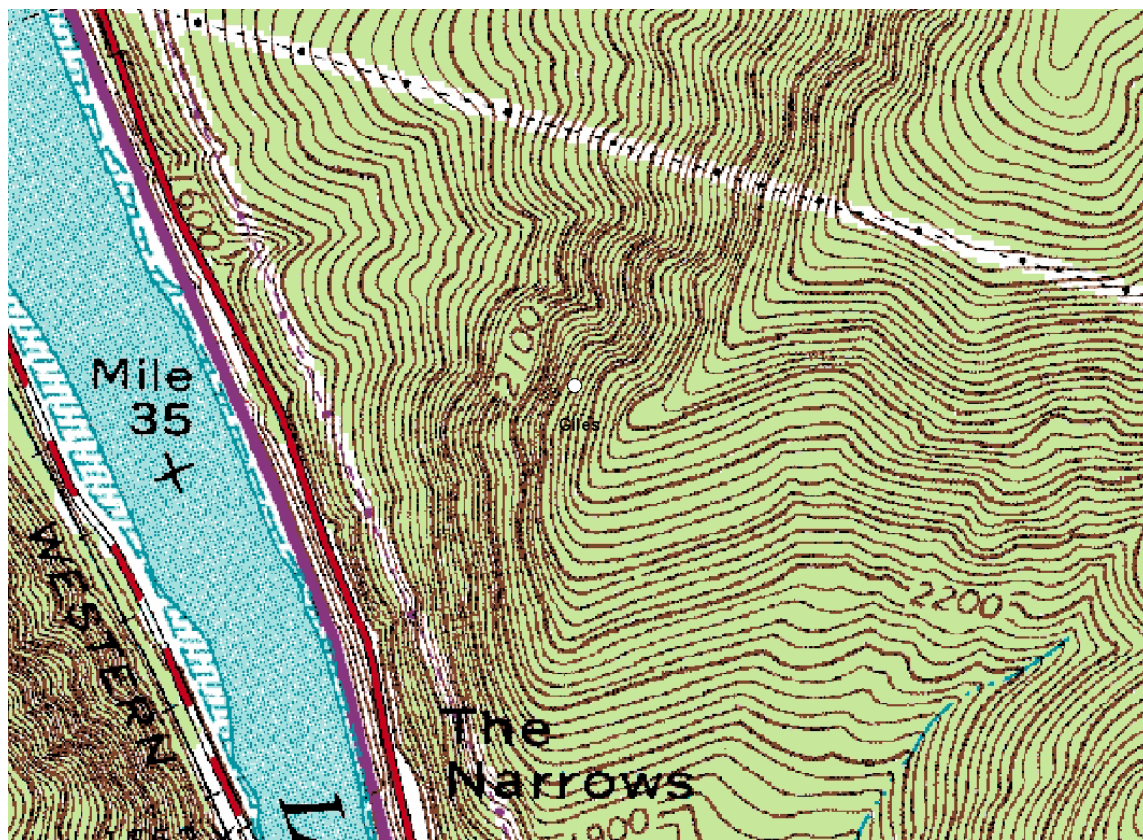
Map 25. Location of samples with 1921 fire scar.



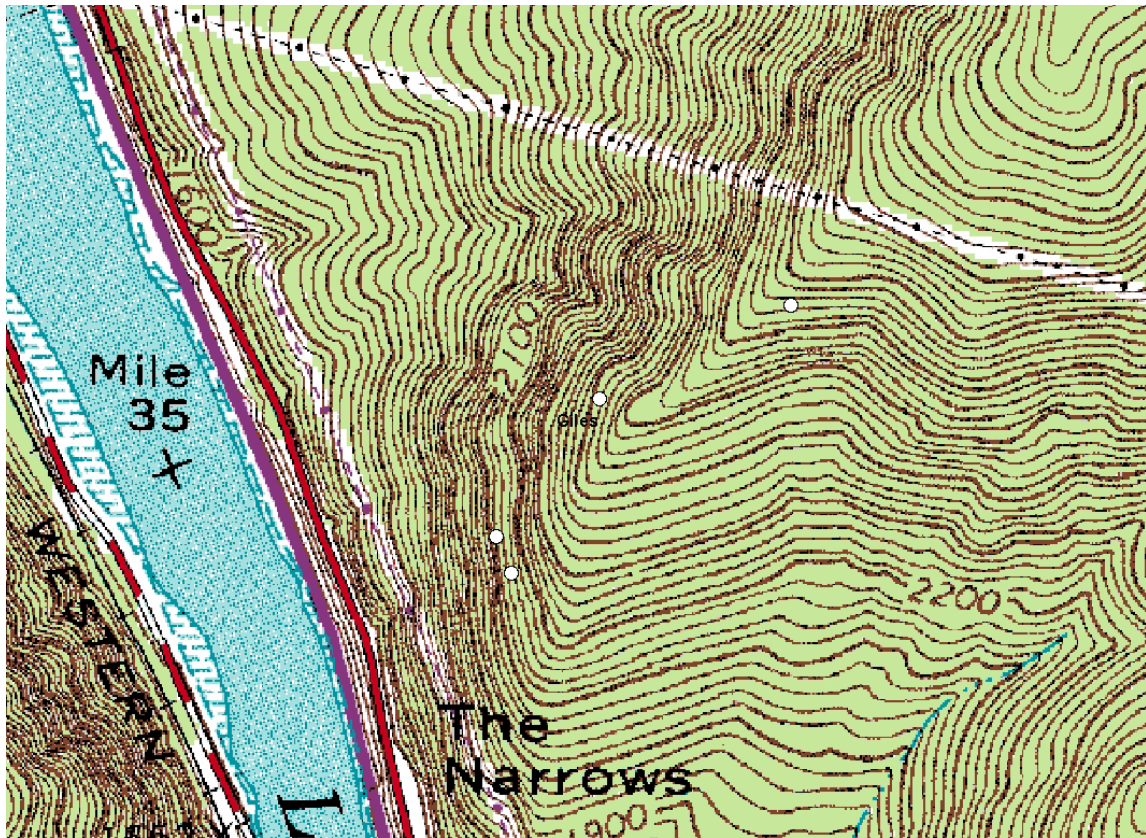
Map 26. Location of samples with 1922 fire scar.



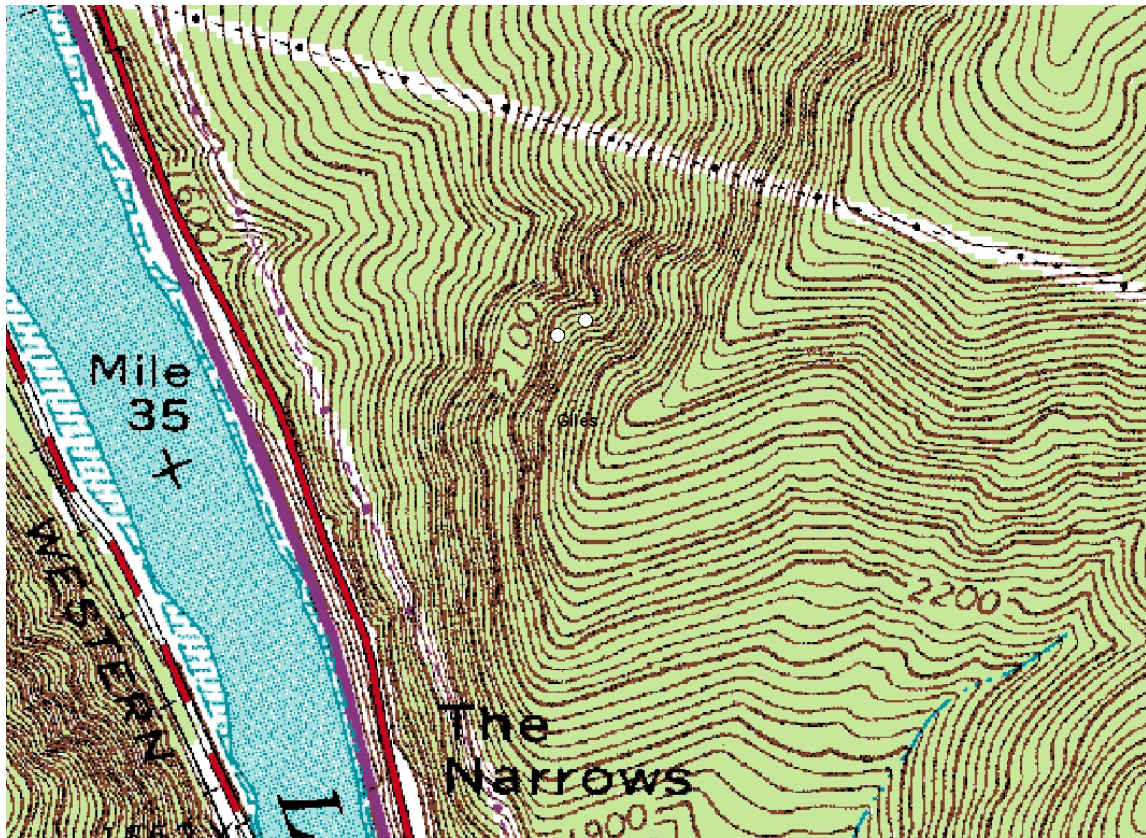
Map 27. Location of samples with 1925 fire scar.



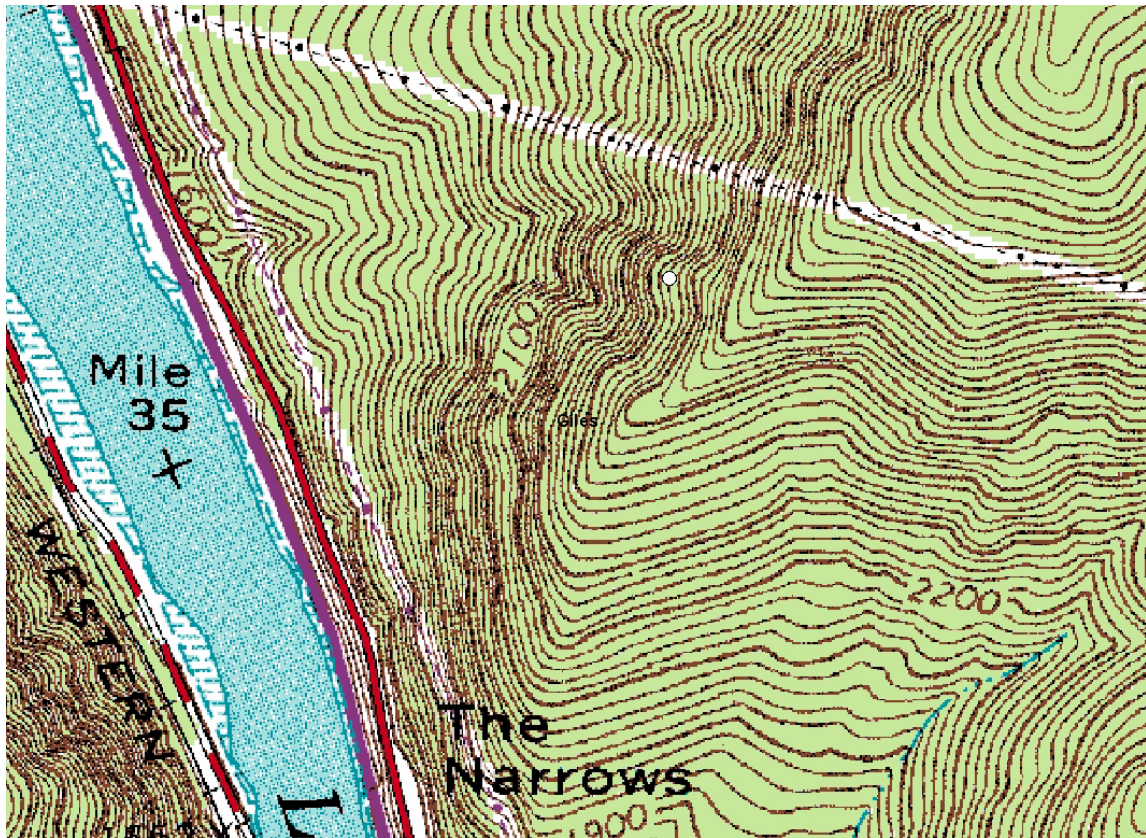
Map 28. Location of samples with 1926 fire scar.



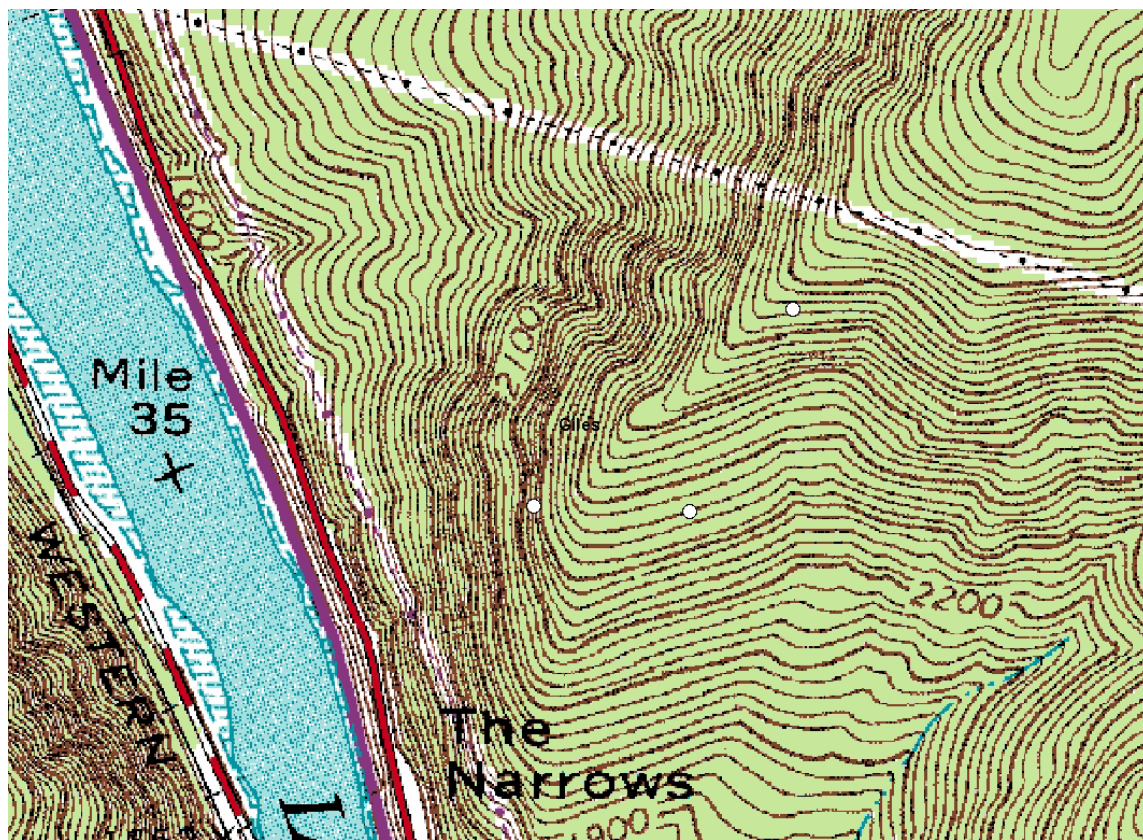
Map 29. Location of samples with 1928 fire scar.



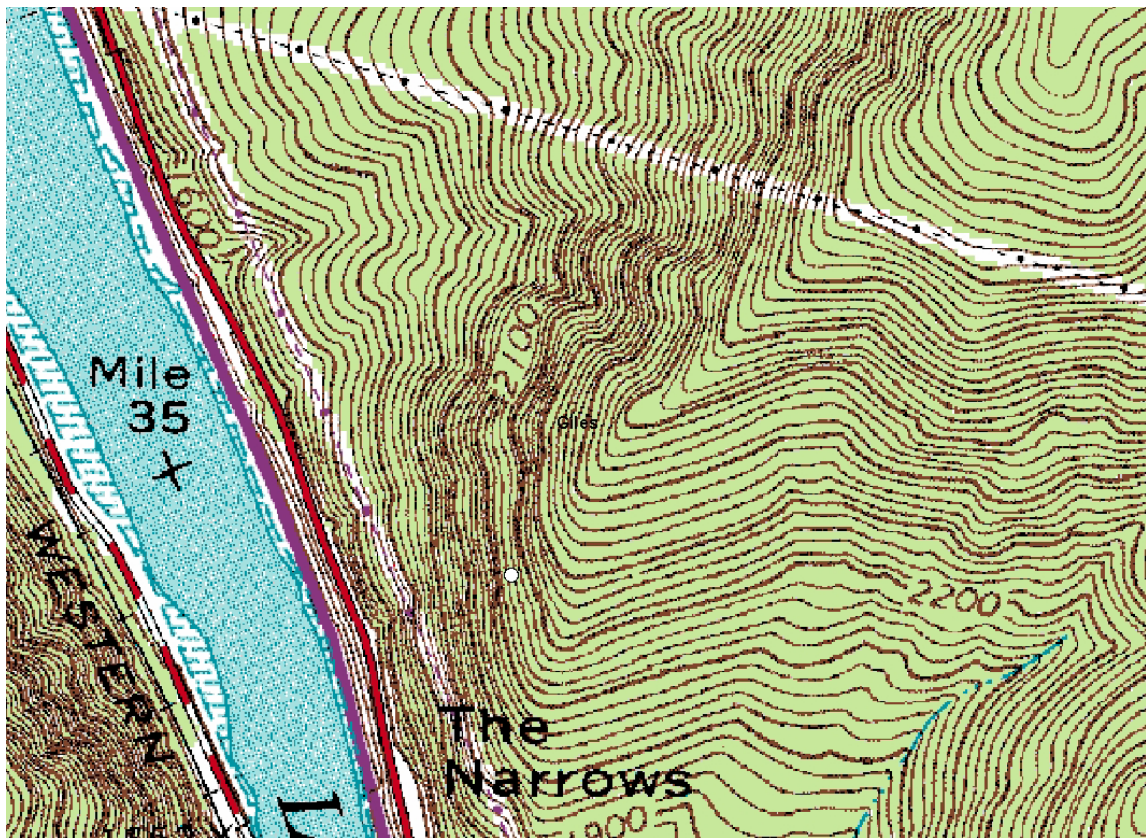
Map 30. Location of samples with 1930 fire scar.



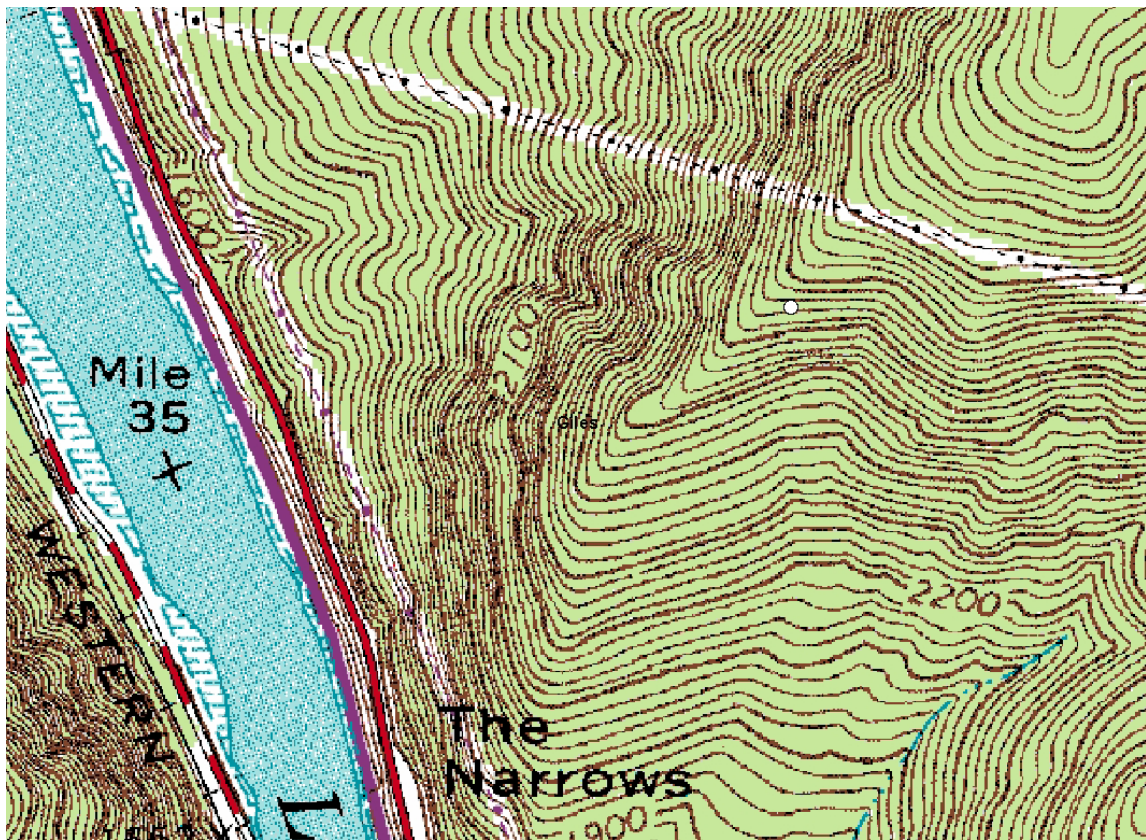
Map 31. Location of samples with 1932 fire scar.



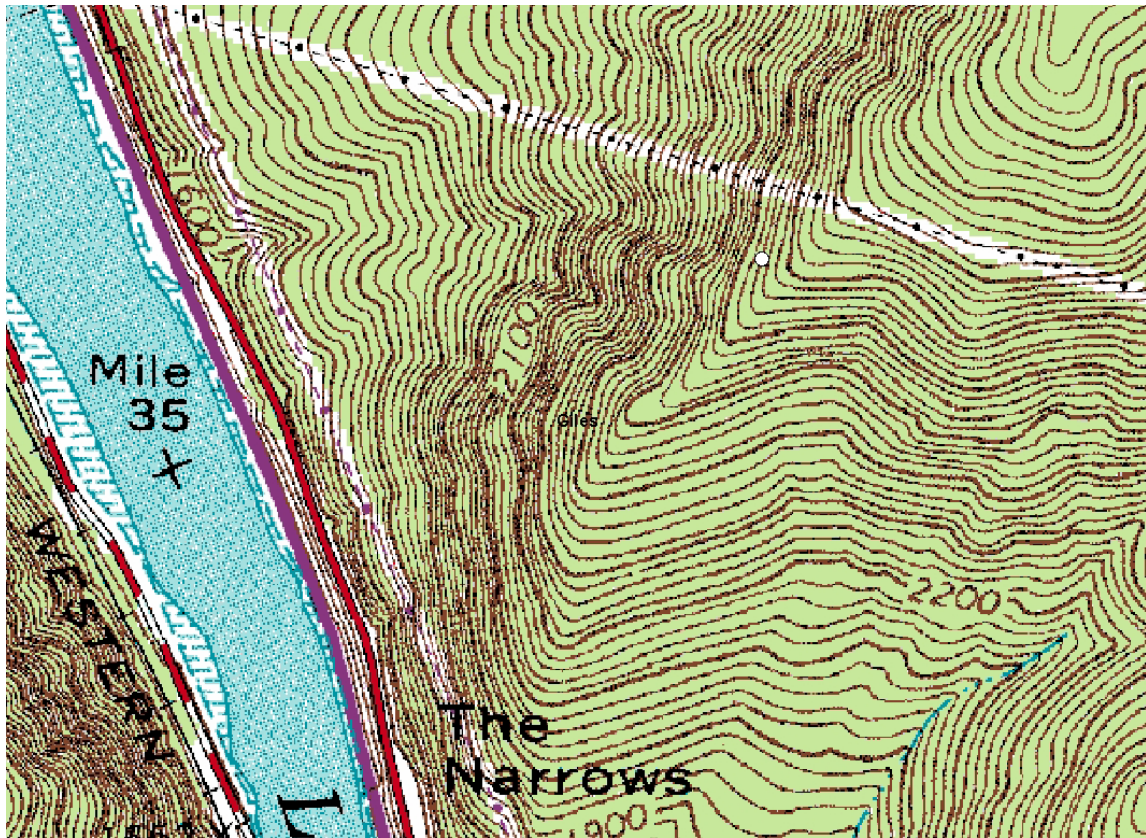
Map 32. Location of samples with 1934 fire scar.



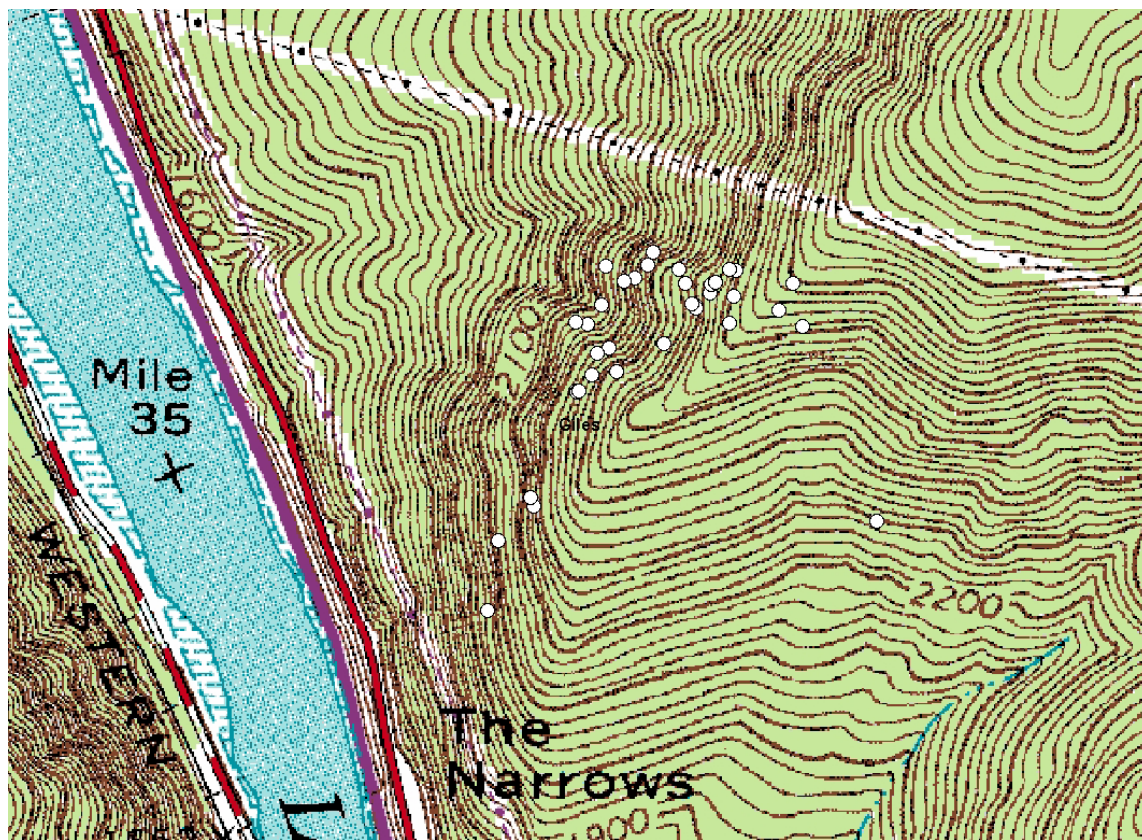
Map 33. Location of samples with 1937 fire scar.



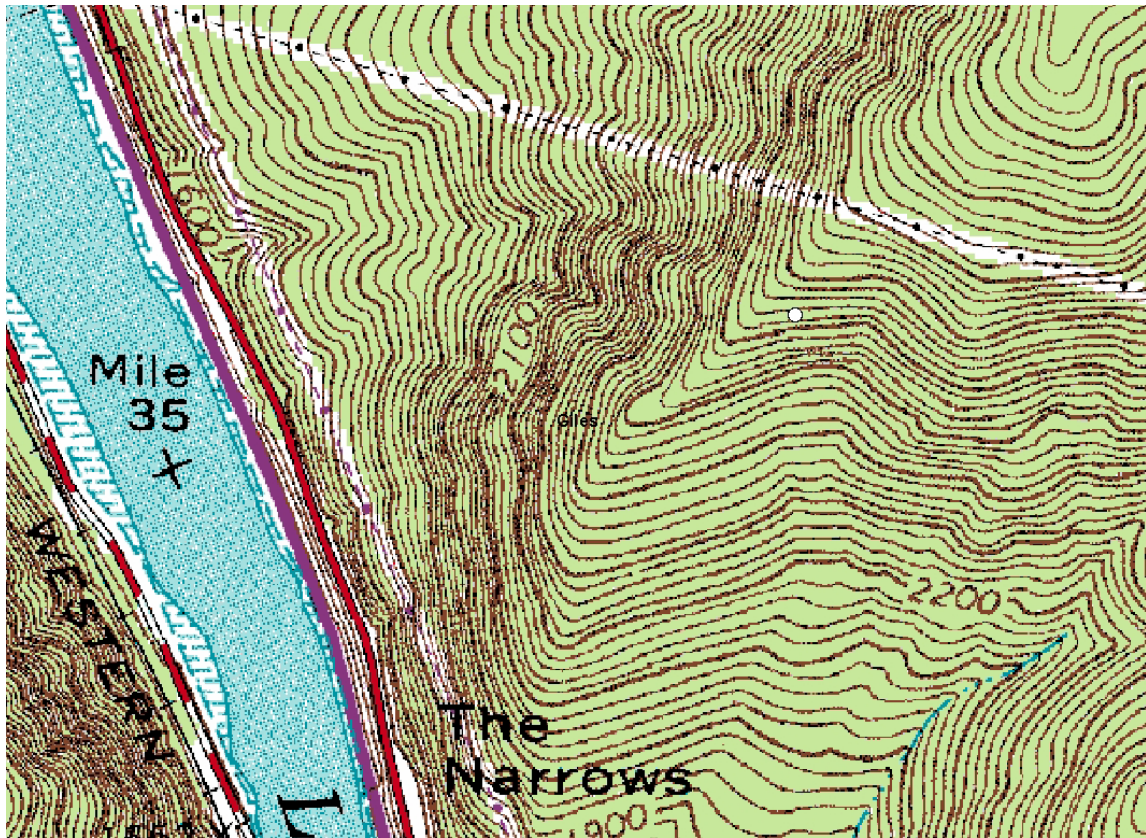
Map 34. Location of samples with 1939 fire scar.



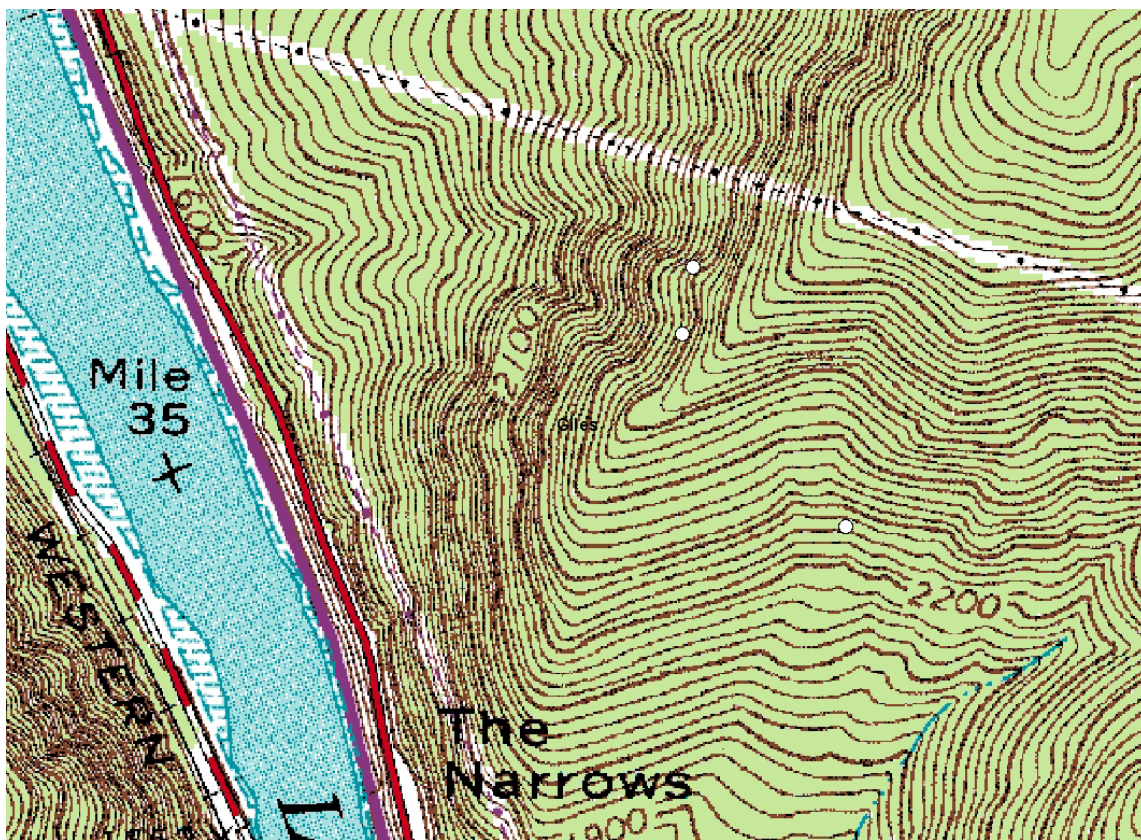
Map 35. Location of samples with 1940 fire scar.



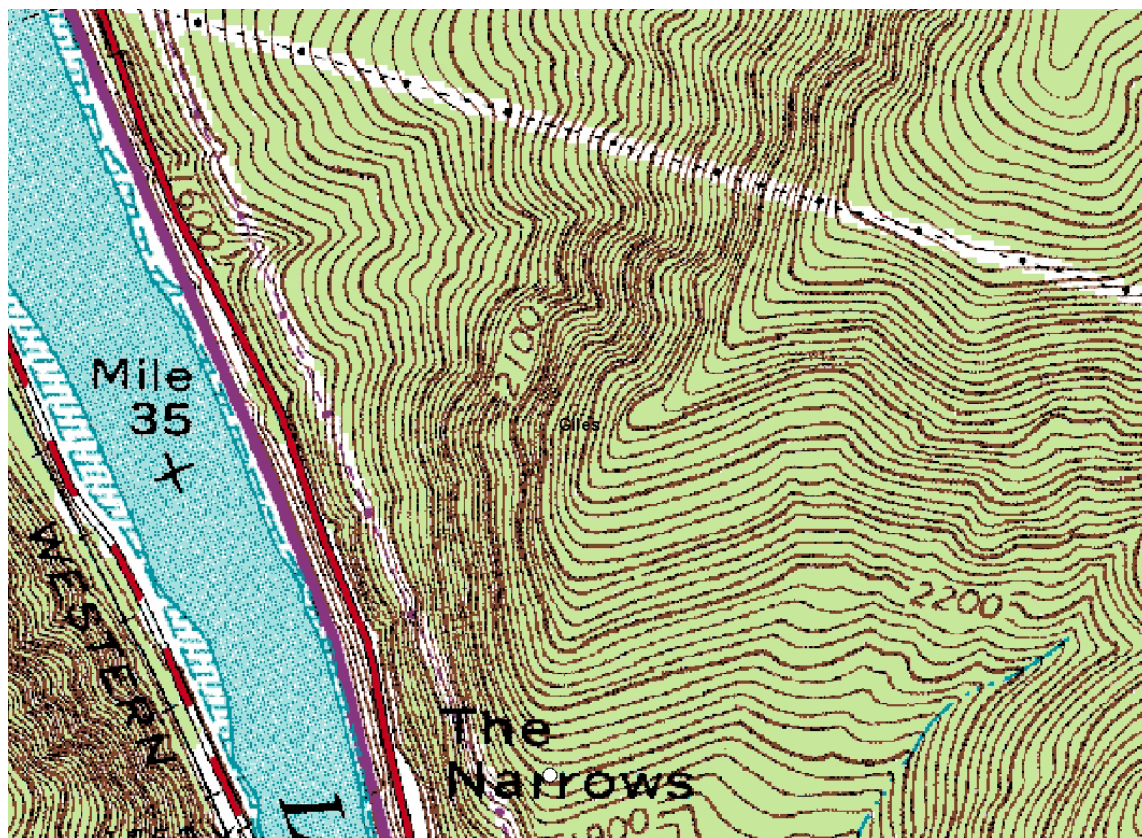
Map 36. Location of samples with 1942 fire scar.



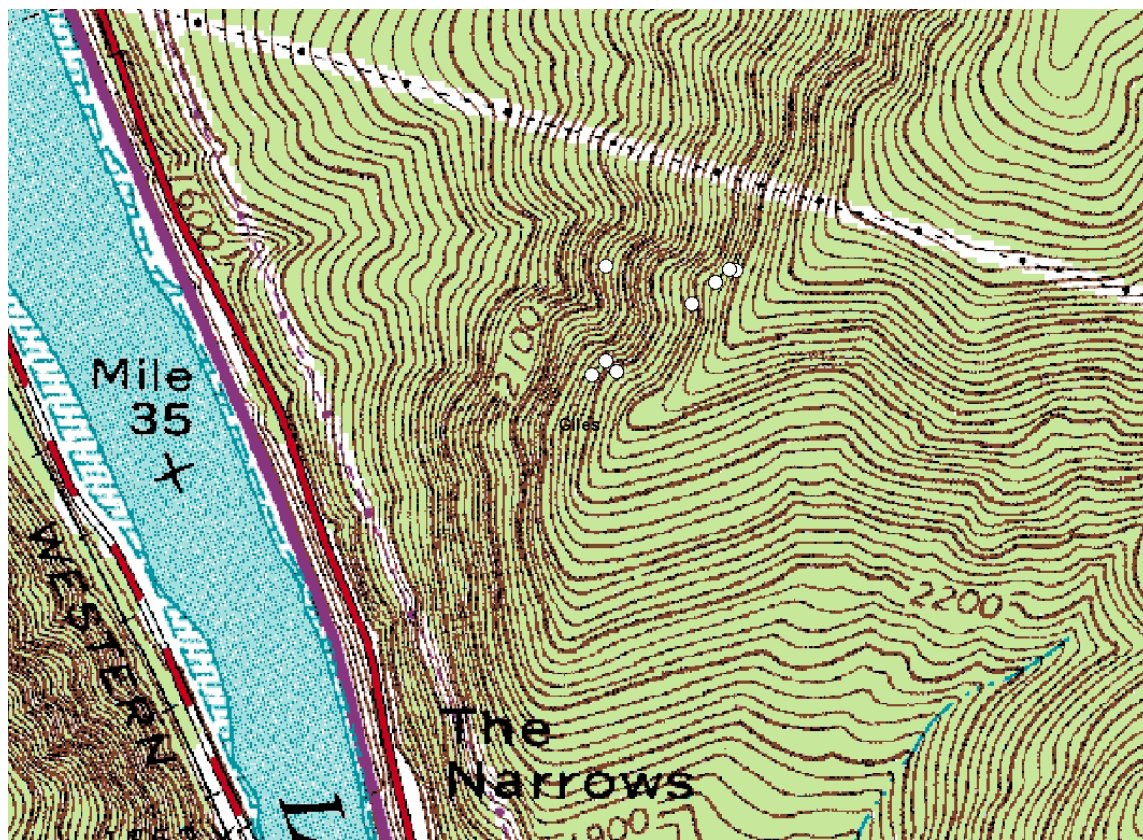
Map 37. Location of samples with 1943 fire scar.



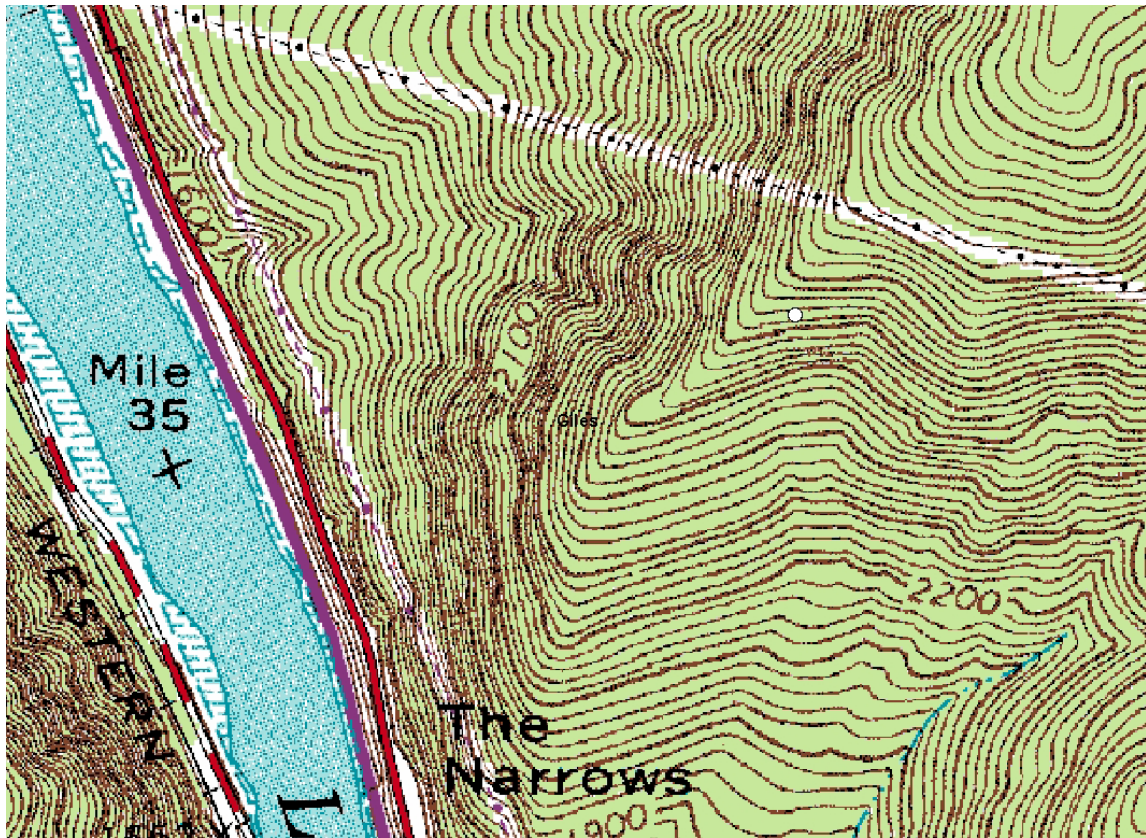
Map 38. Location of samples with 1944 fire scar.



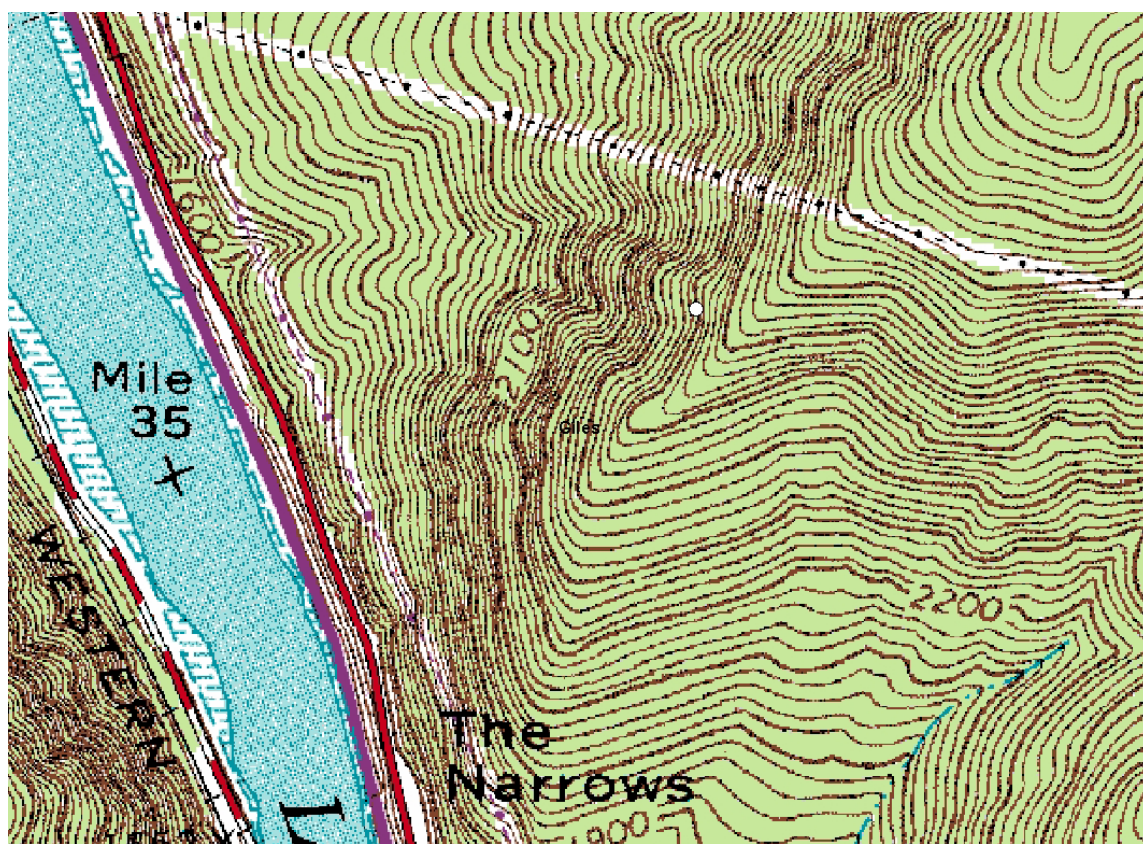
Map 39. Location of samples with 1945 fire scar.



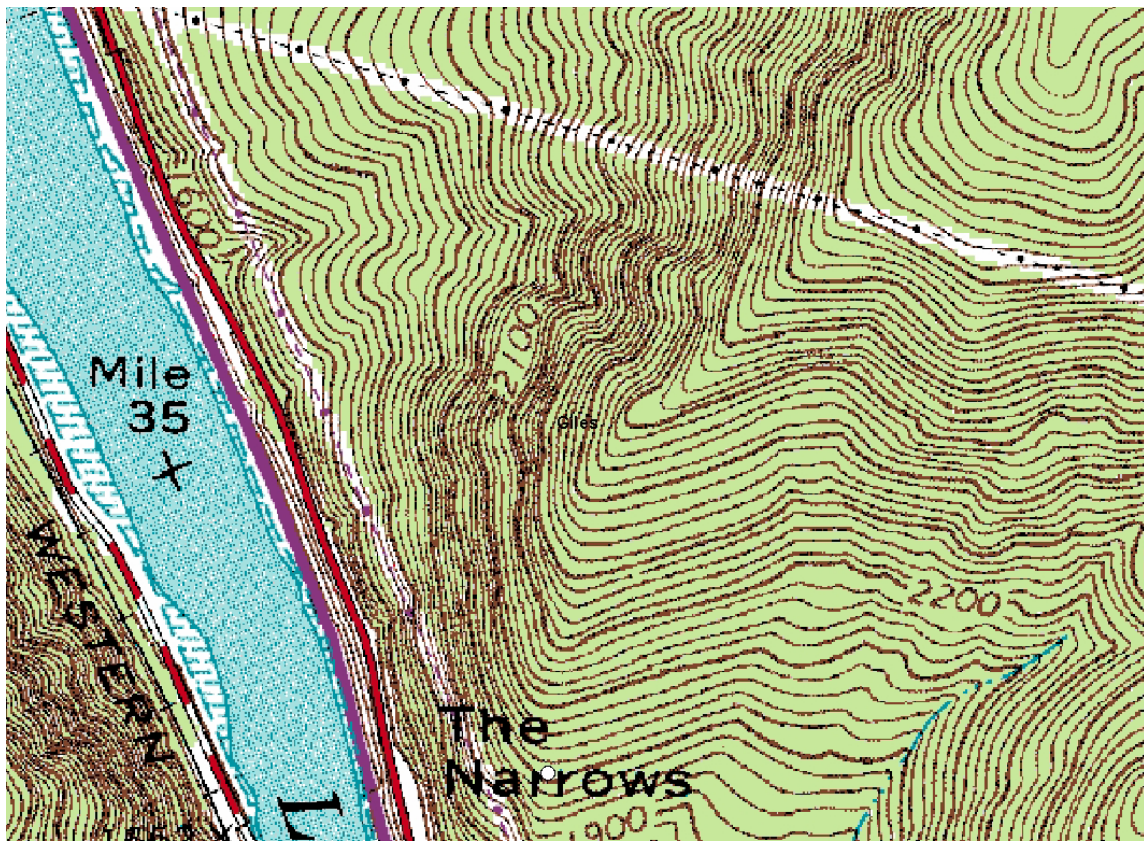
Map 40. Location of samples with 1954 fire scar.



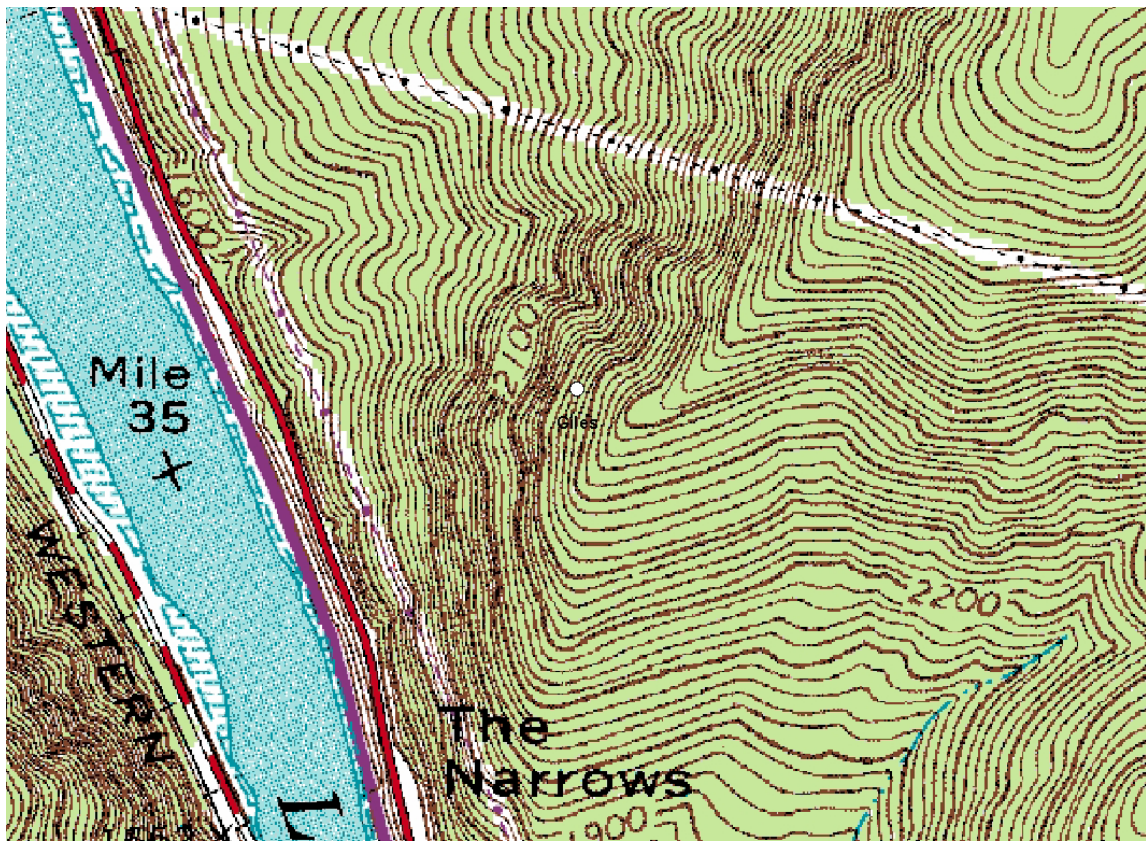
Map 41. Location of samples with 1956 fire scar.



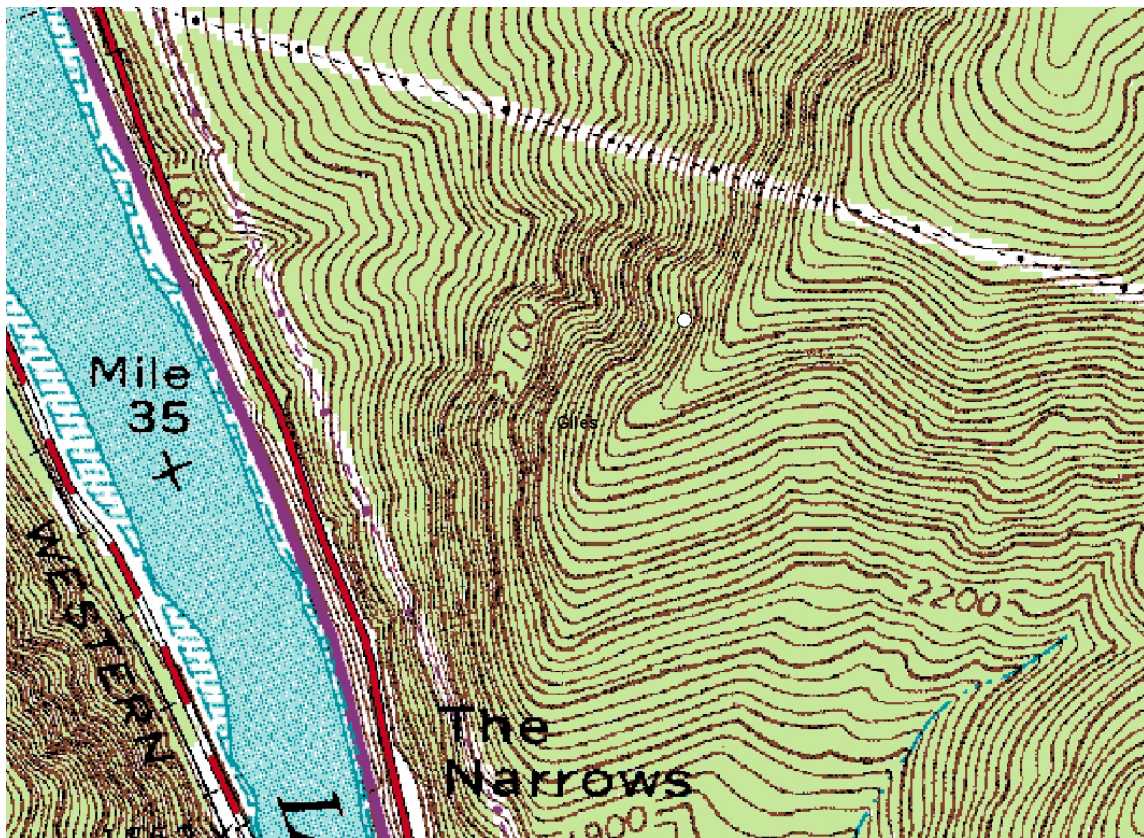
Map 42. Location of samples with 1965 fire scar.



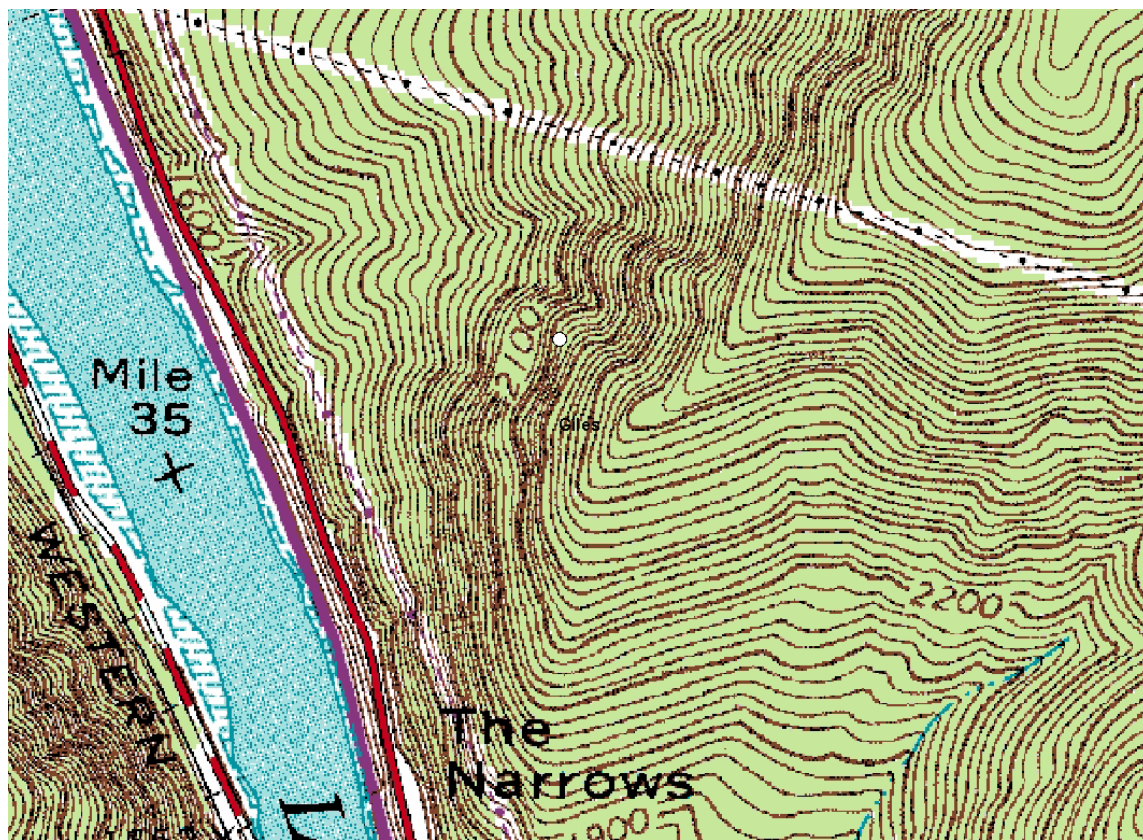
Map 43. Location of samples with 1969 fire scar.



Map 44. Location of samples with 1972 fire scar.



Map 45. Location of samples with 1975 fire scar.



Map 46. Location of samples with 1976 fire scar.

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