United States
Department of
Agriculture

Forest Service

**Pacific Southwest
Forest and Range
Experiment Station**

P.O. Box 245
Berkeley
California 94701

General Technical
Report PSW-44

Proceedings of the Symposium on the

Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks

June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California

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Publisher:

Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station
P.O. Box 245, Berkeley, California 94701

November 1980

Proceedings of the Symposium on the

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Timothy R. Plumb
Technical Coordinator

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PREFACE

In June 1979, more than 200 people met on the campus of Scripps College in Claremont to share information about our native oaks, one of California's most important natural resources. Historical records show that the beauty and value of the arborescent oaks were readily apparent to the early settlers, but during the last 200 years, probably more effort has been spent to remove and kill oaks than to grow and manage them. Efforts by concerned individuals and public resource organizations to manage oaks have generally been ineffective.

Because of the "poor" stem form and the relatively slow growth of most oak trees, professional foresters have generally concentrated their efforts on managing other trees, mainly conifers. Recently, however, broad-scale interest in oaks has developed. The public has become aware of the limitations of our natural resources. The potential of the oak woodlands in meeting energy shortages and wildlife needs, as well as the great immediate value of these woodlands to recreation, are now being recognized. This recognition, and the intense concern now felt about the urbanization of California's woodlands, have contributed to the success of the symposium.

The symposium was sponsored by Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the Society of American Foresters. The background for the symposium and its general tenor was set in the opening address by Dr. Robert Z. Callaham, Director of Pacific Southwest Station, who emphasized that the symposium was a joint effort by scientists, land managers, and practitioners representing many different points of view.

Grateful recognition is due the members of the Coordinating Committee, who provided technical support and encouragement:

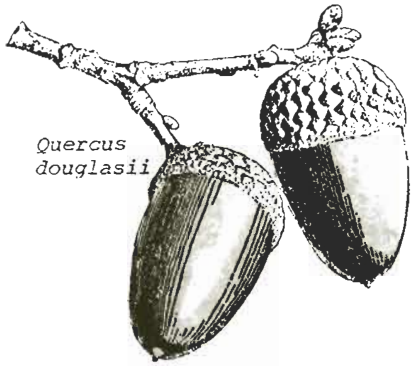
- Leland R. Brown, University of California, Riverside
- Reginald Barrett, University of California, Berkeley
- James R. Griffin, Hastings Natural History Reservation, University of California, Carmel Valley
- Philip M. McDonald, Pacific Southwest Station, Redding
- Norman H. Pillsbury, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo
- Jared Verner, Pacific Southwest Station, Fresno
- Herbert Hahn, Pacific Southwest Region (R-5), Forest Service, representing the Society of American Foresters.

The chairmen of the four sections of the meeting contributed greatly to the success of the symposium, and their work is sincerely appreciated:

- Ecological Relationships, James R. Griffin
- Silviculture and Management, Philip M. McDonald
- Damage Factors, Leland R. Brown
- Products, Jared Verner

We also thank the many individuals who took care of the multitude of jobs to be done, in particular, DiAnne Broussard, Pacific Southwest Station, Riverside, who served as symposium coordinating assistant. The Chaparral Research and Development Program and the Chaparral Research Work Unit, both of Pacific Southwest Station, Riverside, supported the symposium from its inception.

Timothy R. Plumb
Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture
Chairman, Coordinating Committee



Opening Remarks[1]

Robert Z. Callaham[2]

I am particularly happy to be here to open this meeting because I know it is needed. Expressions of need for information about oaks in California have been numerous and frequent in recent years. Responding to this need, the Forest Service, specifically our Chaparral Research and Development Program, has organized this Symposium dealing with oaks in California.

You are about to participate in the first meeting ever designed to collect all facets of information about oaks and related species in California. This Symposium is going to make available a great deal of information, much of it heretofore unpublished. People seem to know more about oaks than they have ever bothered to publish. In some disciplines, such as taxonomy and entomology, there is quite a bit of information--very specific and technical. In some other disciplines, such as silviculture and soils, we lack information but hope this Symposium will provide the occasion to pull together what is known.

One primary purpose of this meeting is to identify the information gaps. Some people talk about the state-of-the-art, but I have come to reject that phrase. I have learned to distinguish between the state-of-science and the state-of-practice. These are two important and different subjects. Scientists want to know about frontiers of knowledge and the gaps for further exploration. Practitioners have very little interest in the state-of-science; they are only interested in what is known that can be put into practice today, at what costs, and with what benefits. This meeting strives to describe both the state-of-science and state-of-practice relating to oaks in California.

Although one of California's largest natural resources, oaks are almost unmanaged. Utilization is low, nonexistent, and even designed to reduce the oak resources in many areas. Most foresters either ignore oaks or consider them as weeds. For many years, oaks have been looked upon as a detriment to range management. Currently, where urbanization is invading the oak-woodlands, the oaks are mixed blessings. Some people look upon them as a nuisance impeding progress; and others value them very highly for their individual beauty, for the shade they cast, and for other environmental benefits.

Tremendous interest in oak has developed in the past few years. Some of this interest is undoubtedly generated by the rapid loss of native oaks in urban-range environments. The recent emphasis on renewable energy resources has rekindled interest in the use of oak wood, particularly to replace fossil fuels. There is growing recognition by more than the wildlife professionals that oaks are tremendously important to wildlife habitat. Most of us have at least a subconscious, latent affection for stately oaks and recognize their environmental and social values.

Oaks obviously have more value than just being nice to have around. Traditional uses of oaks for lumber or other wood products (excluding fuel) have been extremely limited in California. This limitation is due partially to poor tree form, problems is seasoning lumber, and high levels of defect found in our native trees. But some innovative milling techniques have overcome many of these past problems. Utilization of native oaks for lumber is increasing. Modern laminating techniques and seasoning procedures have made it practical to use small and otherwise unusable wood resources.

But oaks have many values other than being just a source of wood products. Their value for watershed protection, wildlife habitat, recreational enjoyment, and general esthetics far exceed their potential value as wood products. With these other values in mind, crooked, branchy trees with a high incidence of defect may not be valueless. But what are their values? One accomplishment I would like to have

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1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology Management and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

2/ Director, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Berkeley, California.

from this meeting is an expression of how we might quantify the nonwood values of oaks.

Fire, the constant threat to all forest trees in California, may cause extensive damage and reduced lumber values, but it may not seriously affect the nonlumber values of oaks. In almost every location where conditions permit tree growth, one or more species of oak can be found. They are a component of the major vegetation types. For example, here in Southern California, they grow in the valleys below the chaparral, in the chaparral itself, as fingers in the riparian draws and drainages that dissect the chaparral, and then on up into the conifer forest above.

Unfortunately, we do not have an accurate estimate of California's oak resource. Oaks are estimated to grow on about 15 to 20 million acres in California. That acreage forms 15 to 20 percent of the entire state. This estimate includes only about 5 million acres of commercial forest land. Estimates of the volume of oak resource are traditionally based only on trees that grow on these commercial forest lands. So we really have no idea of the current volume and value of oak in California. Certainly, the current growth of oaks greatly exceeds their utilization for any products or values.

The Forest Service, other organizations, and individuals have attempted to manage oaks. These efforts have met with little or no success. Obviously, the technology for management is lacking.

The Chaparral R&D Program, launched by the Forest Service in Southern California in November 1977, sent out a questionnaire asking about interest in oak management. Responses evidenced a very high level of interest. Eighty percent of the respondees indicated a mild to intense interest in oaks. This response caused us to bring together 70 people a year ago to plan for this Symposium. Consequently, this meeting is the result of a joint effort by many different institutions and by people having diverse interests, organizational affiliations, and professional backgrounds.

Here we are at the fruition of our planning. More than 50 papers provide a cross section of many interests and viewpoints about oaks. Papers range from highly technical to very practical. There should be something of interest for everyone in the audience. We want your active participation. You are a small enough group that your inquiry and dialogue as a committee-of-the-whole will be meaningful and rather easy to manage. Please join in, ask questions, and seek out people having interests related to yours. Whoever knows about oaks should be in this room. You should be able to find the people that have some information on almost any question. I know that you will benefit from this meeting, and I wish you success. Thank you for coming.

Ecological Relationships


Quercus wislizenii

Neogene History of the California Oaks[1]

Jack A. Wolfe[2]

Abstract: The Neogene oaks of California and adjacent states represent groups that have survived in California today. The Agrifoliae, Lobatae, and Quercus chrysolepis have a history largely in the summer-wet Miocene forests of the Pacific Northwest. The white scrub oaks and Q. tomentella apparently originated in California or in areas to the southwest. The associations and geographic ranges of the California oaks were probably greatly altered during the climatic fluctuations of the Pleistocene.

The fossil record has only a limited contribution at this time relative to the phylogenetic relationships within Quercus. This is partially because of the difficulty in working with foliage in a polymorphic genus, concomitant with the problems of foliar convergence and parallelism such as discussed by Tucker (1974). Even more significantly, fossil plant assemblages older than 22 to 23 million years--that is, pre-Miocene and pre-Neogene--are unknown in the lowland areas of southwestern North America, except for Paleocene and older assemblages, which probably predate the evolution of oaks.

Foliage of species displaying characters of Lepidobalanus, Erythrobalanus, and Protobalanus occurs in the Florissant flora of Colorado (MacGinitie, 1953), which is of late Eocene age. The relationships of any of the Florissant oaks to any extant species or species groups are, in my opinion, highly conjectural. Not until the Miocene can many fossils be confidently relegated to particular species groups of extant oaks.

1/Submitted to the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

2/Geologist, Geological Survey, U.S. Department of Interior, 345 Middlefield Road, Menlo Park, Calif.

A review of the Neogene (Miocene and Pliocene) oaks of western North America indicates that almost all of the species groups extant in California had evolved by sometime in the Miocene. In the Pacific Northwest during the early to middle Miocene, the flora included at least three species of Agrifoliae; one of these represents the ancestor of Quercus kelloggii. During the Neogene this lineage undergoes progressive foliar evolutionary trends such as 1) an increase in number of lobes, 2) an increase in the degree of dissection of the lamina, and 3) an increase in the frequency of secondary teeth on the lobes. This lineage includes leaves variously referred to Q. pseudolyrata Lesq., Q. merriami Knowlt., and Q. deflexiloba H. v. Sm. A closely related species is Q. cognata Knowlt. and its undescribed descendant species; this lineage maintained the presumably primitive shallow and few-lobed conditions and became extinct by the end of the Miocene. An undescribed oak from the Latah flora of Washington is allied to Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii, although the fossil may not be directly ancestral to either species. The next youngest record of this type is Q. cedrusensis Wolfe from the late Miocene of Nevada (Wolfe, 1964).

Also represented in the early to middle Miocene of the Pacific Northwest is a species of Protobalanus closely allied, and probably ancestral, to Quercus chrysolepis Liebm. By the middle to late Miocene, foliage apparently indistinguishable from Q. chrysolepis is of wide occurrence in the Pacific Northwest, as well as in more southern areas (Wolfe, 1964, 1969).

Lobed species of Lepidobalanus occur in the Neogene of the Pacific Northwest. The earliest of these--Q. columbiana Chan.--is typically simple-lobed, although some specimens possess rare teeth on the lobes. Some of the specimens have decidedly rounded lobes, but some have very sharp--almost spinose--lobes, indicating a possible relationship to the bristle-tipped Asian species of Lepidobalanus. Several specimens of the early and middle Miocene Alaskan Q. furuhjelmi Heer are definitely bristle-tipped (Wolfe and Tanai, in press), and thus the Pacific Northwest species could conceivably include some genetic influence from Q. furuhjelmi. In any case, one descendant of this probable plexus--Q. winstanleyi Chan.--represents an extinct and simple-lobed lineage. By the late part of the middle Miocene, a second lineage is consistently compound-lobed and is clearly leading to Q. garryana and Q. lobata.

Yet another group is represented in the Neogene of the Pacific Northwest. The relationships of the species known as Quercus simulata Knowlt. have been much discussed. Some workers (e.g., Chaney and Axelrod, 1959) have favored a relationship to certain Asian species that are segregated by many systematists into the genus Cyclobalanopsis. A recent chemical analysis of leaves of Q. simulata (invalidly referred to Q. consimilis) by Niklas and Gianassi (1978), however, indicates that the fossil is closely related to Asian oaks such as Q. acutissima and Q. chenii but not to any of the cyclobalanopsid oaks. Unfortunately, Niklas and Gianassi did not include in their analysis of extant species the west American Q. sadleriana; this species has several critical morphological similarities in foliage to Q. simulata and Q. acutissima. It seems most probable that Q. simulata represents the same species group as does the extant Q. sadleriana. It would, however, be highly conjectural at this time to derive Q. sadleriana directly from Q. simulata. Also included in this species group is Q. bockei Dorf from the Pliocene of northern California.

The species known as Quercus dayana Knowlt. has been likened to the eastern American Q. virginiana (Chaney and Axelrod, 1959); in marginal and ultimate venation, however, the fossils represent Castanopsis. A second species known as Q. eoprinus H. v. Sm. has, as the epithet indicates, been compared to another eastern American oak; in several critical characters, the fossils can be demonstrated to represent Fagus. Thus, all the Neogene oaks now known in the Pacific Northwest appear to represent species groups that are still extant in western United States.

The known Neogene floras from Nevada appear to represent vegetation that grew at a considerable altitude and that is floristically closely allied to the Neogene floras of the Pacific Northwest (Wolfe, 1969). All the oaks now known represent the Agrifoliae, Quercus simulata, or Protobalanus allied to Q. chrysolepis. The one specimen attributed to the Lobatae (Axelrod, 1958) is a fragmentary lobe of the Acer macrophyllum type.

In California, the early to middle Miocene flora is known from only two assemblages: the undescribed Valley Springs flora from the early Miocene in the western foothills of the central Sierra Nevada and the Tehachapi flora from the middle Miocene of the Mojave desert (Axelrod, 1939). The oaks in the latter flora are in great need of work with modern techniques of foliar analysis. Members of Protobalanus are probably present in the Tehachapi, but whether the scrub oak type of Lepidobalanus is also present remains to be demonstrated. The only oak in the Valley Springs assemblage is closely related to Quercus tomentella of Protobalanus.

During the late Miocene--5 to 13 million years ago--relatives of most of the extant California oaks were represented in California. Some of these, however, first appear in the latest Miocene, that is, younger than 10 million years. For example, the group now represented by the blue oak, Quercus douglassii, is not known until the latest Miocene in California (Condit, 1944), and possibly all the Dumosae also appear at about this time. Considering the general excellence of the Neogene record in the Pacific Northwest and Nevada, I think it reasonable to conclude that oaks such as the white scrub oaks were either present in California lowland areas in the early Neogene or entered the state from the southwest.

One point that the fossil record clearly indicates is that there has been little interchange of oaks between North America and Eurasia. Only in Lepidobalanus can some interchange be documented, and even this was very limited. No oaks referable to Erythrobalanus or to Protobalanus are known in Eurasia or even at high latitudes in North America. The most northern occurrence of Erythrobalanus is in northern Washington during the middle Miocene. For Protobalanus the most northern occurrence is at latitude 54° in central British Columbia, also during the middle Miocene.

What is perhaps of more pertinence to this symposium is to learn from the fossil record the general climatic-ecologic background of the California oaks. That is, have certain lineages been confined to a particular climatic regime for millions of years, which would indicate little adaptive ability? Or, have some lineages shown considerable tolerance of various climatic regimes?

If paleobotanists relied strictly on present climatic tolerances of extant relatives of fossil species to determine the climates under which various assemblages lived, I would certainly run the risk of circuitous reasoning. However, paleobotanists also use data based on the physiognomy of fossil assemblages; for example, types of leaf margins, leaf sizes, proportions of conifers, broadleaved deciduous, and broadleaved evergreen plants, etc. Such physiognomic analyses are independent of the taxonomic composition of a fossil assemblage and thus allow an evaluation of the various climates under which various lineages and species groups have lived (Wolfe, 1971).

In regard to the Agrifoliae, the fossil record strongly indicates that the evolution of the group was centered in the Pacific Northwest. During most of the Miocene, this region was characterized by summer rainfall; by the late Miocene, however, the amount of summer precipitation was declining. Summer temperatures were generally higher than now, and, during the early and middle Miocene, the mean of the warmest month was certainly 20 to 24°C. The known records of the Agrifoliae during the early and middle Miocene are in vegetation that was a diverse broadleaved forest. Although the Quercus kelloggii lineage also occurred in lowland broadleaved forest during the late Miocene, many occurrences are also in upland Mixed Coniferous forest. In such forest, warm month means are consistently less than 20°C. By the late Miocene, therefore, the Q. kelloggii lineage had adapted to approximately its present temperature range, but the lineage has shown a progressive adaptation to drier summer regimes.

Quercus agrifolia and Q. wislizenii have somewhat problematic records. Related fossils occurred in summer-wet assemblages in the Pacific Northwest in the middle Miocene and in drier but probably still summer-wet assemblages in Nevada during the late Miocene. Both lineages became abundant by the latest Miocene in California under even drier conditions.

The climatic history of the Lobatae parallels that of the Q. kelloggii lineage: adapting from summer-wet to summer-dry climates during the Neogene. It may be significant that the oldest occurrence of the Q. douglassii lineage is in a mesic summer-wet assemblage in the northern Sierran foothills during the latest Miocene. The blue oak may well be a late Neogene derivative in California of the Lobatae.

The Quercus chrysolepis lineage appears since the middle Miocene to have been primarily a member of Mixed Coniferous forest--that is, to areas of moderate summer temperatures. This lineage appears to have been more common in late Miocene assemblages that, although existing under summer rain, were somewhat dry. Thus the lineage appears to have occupied areas that were climatically similar to areas in the present range of Q. chrysolepis.

In regard to the lepidobalanid scrub oaks and tree species such as Quercus engelmannii and the protobalanid Q. tomentella, the oldest occurrences of these are in subhumid assemblages. The presumption is that such lineages have a long history in dry environments. However, the evolutionary and ecologic history of these oaks will await future paleobotanical work.

One point that must be emphasized is that the geographic ranges of the California oaks were drastically altered during the Pleistocene, and such alterations occurred several times. During an early Pleistocene glacial, for example, the lowland vegetation near San Jacinto included both Quercus chrysolepis and Q. wislizenii (Axelrod, 1966). During the later Pleistocene Illinoisan glacial, the lowland area around Clear Lake in the North Coast Ranges was occupied by a Mixed Coniferous forest that contained Q. chrysolepis; this area is now a woodland of blue, California white, and interior live oaks. During the Yarmouthian interglacial, the blue and interior live oaks occurred abundantly at Clear Lake, but no California white oak has been found. Not only have the geographic ranges of the California oaks been repeatedly altered during the Pleistocene, the particular oak woodland communities may have undergone significant floristic change.

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Quercus agrifolia

History of Cultural Influences on the Distribution and Reproduction of Oaks in California[1]

Randall S. Rossi[2/]

Abstract: Prior to the advent of European colonization, the California Indians' impact on oaks was confined to acorn collecting and the occasional use of fire. Since 1769 oaks have been vulnerable to six human activities: stock raising, wood cutting, agriculture, flood control, fire supression, and urbanization. Specific research concerning human impacts on the distribution and reproduction of oaks has been meager. In this survey of cultural influences, grazing activity is identified as the most persistent pressure on oak reproduction. Charcoal production consumed a significant amount of oak until the 1960's; incomplete data suggest that cordwood sales continue to account for much wood cutting. Agricultural clearing, initially for orchards, and later for row and field crops, has greatly reduced the range of some species, e.g. valley oak (Quercus lobata). Extensive clearing of blue oak (Q. douglasii) from foothill range in the late 1950's and 1960's was partially supported by federal payments. Riparian oak in the Sacramento Valley have been disappearing since early American occupance and today only a fraction of the original woodland remains. Because of fire suppression efforts since 1900, the build up of fuels and the invasion of woody plants in oak communities make lethal, high-intensity fires more likely. Finally, urban and suburban land uses continually displace native oaks and condemn remnant stands to slow decline without replacement.

INTRODUCTION

Human activities of the last two hundred years have greatly reduced the range of many California oaks and adversely affected their reproduction. While we are aware of the general course of this demise, the actual losses have been incremental, unchallenged, and unrecorded. Further, we are only beginning to ask: What are the consequences of this impoverishment of the landscape?

This paper surveys the state of our knowledge about human impacts on California's oaks. Historically, oaks have been vulnerable to at least six human activities: stock raising, wood cutting, agriculture, flood control, fire supression, and urbanization. The biggest change of the last two hundred years, of course, is that the foothills and valley floors, once occupied by many species of oaks, are largely covered by the farms, cities, and freeways of twenty-two million people.

Four major oak communities, covering about 10 percent of the state, have been recognized as part of California's original landscape. These are: 1) Northern Oak Woodland of the North Coast Ranges and valleys, (Quercus garryana, Q. kelloggii, Q. chrysolepis, and Q. wislizenii); 2) Foothill Woodland of the alluvial terraces

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1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979

2/ Ph.D. Candidate, Geography Department, University of California, Berkeley.

Figure 1 - Areas of Oak Savanna and Woodland in California

and surrounding hills of the Central Valley and Inner Coast Ranges, (Q. douglasii, Q. lobata, Q. chrysolepis, Q. agrifolia, and Q. wislizenii); 3) Southern Oak Woodland of the coastal valleys of Southern California, (Q. agrifolia, and Q. engelmannii); and 4) Riparian Woodlands especially on the Central Valley river margins, where valley oaks (Q. lobata) were locally abundant (Munz and Keck 1963; Griffin 1977).

Each species and certain associations have sustained different kinds of impacts at different times. While some areas are relatively unchanged, in others some species have been eliminated over wide areas, or exist only as remnant stands. And where individual trees or woodland tracts remain there may be a false sense of well-being, since few, if any seedlings are becoming established.

The nature and extent of human impacts on oaks before 1930 is not comparable to that of the last fifty years. Pressures on oaks have increased due to the rapid increase and spread of population, increasing land values, the lengthy periods of fire suppression, the development of practices and machinery for clearing range land, channelizing streams, and building roads and cities. The oaks, which were the single most important plants in the lives of the Indians, are valued by modern man only as amenities in real estate.

Oaks are part of what we define and identify as typically Californian. Attention naturally focuses on the California endemics, Quercus lobata (valley oak) and Q. douglasii (blue oak) which are widely distributed in and around the Central Valley and Coast Ranges. The valley oak, largest of the North American oaks, grows on deep alluvial soils and up onto broad ridge tops. It often forms strikingly beautiful savannas, having a parklike appearance. The blue oak grows on rolling hills and drier sites, singly or in clumps, and is common on thousands of acres throughout the state.

The task of reconstructing how our oak woodlands have changed is a difficult one, and there will always be great gaps in our knowledge. Only a handful of studies have been concerned with landscape changes in the oak woodland (Thompson 1961; Brooks 1967; Vankat 1970; Griffin 1971, 1976; Snow 1972; Dutzi 1979; Rossi 1979). While university and government personnel have advocated and aided in the clearing of thousands of acres of oaks, no state or federal agency has monitored or inventoried the extent or cumulative effects of the activity. Today we find we lack any accurate estimates of even the most recent clearing. Further, with notable exceptions (Griffin 1971, 1976; Snow 1972), the conspicuous lack of oak regeneration, perhaps the most important issue in oak management, has received virtually no study. In strong contrast to the long history of conservation and land stewardship examined by Parsons (1962) in Spain's oak woodlands, California oaks have been disregarded as a natural resource.

ABORIGINAL INFLUENCES

The extensive, almost continuous oak woodlands and savannas of California provided the staple food of the native Indians for centuries. The acorn and the oak were worshipped by these hunter-gatherers (Fages 1937). The extent of their adverse impact on oaks was confined to acorn collecting and the occasional use of fire.

An estimated 500 pounds (230 kg) of acorns were consumed each year (Hoover 1977). In poor seed years it is likely that nearly all of the crop from some species was collected and stored. The preference for acorns of tan oak (Lithocarpus densiflora) and California black oak, (Q. kelloggii) and the accessibility of acorns from valley oak must have created a considerable pressure on these species (Chestnut 1902; Baumhoff 1963). In the Central and Southern Coast Ranges, coast live oak (Q. agrifolia) sustained California's densest Indian population. The effects on reproduction of acorn collecting should not be ignored, but the extent to which it may have altered oak distribution is not known.

The use of fire to clear the ground before acorn harvesting has been noted in Northern California and Yosemite Valley (Baxley 1865; Harrington 1932; Schenck and Gifford) 1952). Fire was used to drive game, aid in collecting food, and make clearings for growing tobacco (Kroeber 1925). Any such fire could kill oak seedlings, but light ground fires would not harm established trees. Captain Belcher observed on the Sacramento River in 1837 that during the dry season the natives burned the annual growth, "and probably by such means destroy many oak plantations which otherwise would flourish" (Belcher 1969, p.48). Hinds, a botanist on Belcher's expedition reported Sacramento Valley natives' practice of lighting their fires at the bases of valley oaks. He continued, "and as they naturally select the largest, it was really a sorrowful sight to behold numbers of the finest trees prematurely and wantonly destroyed" (Hinds 1844, p. 3). From this brief description the death of the trees must be interpreted as accidental, since they represented a perennial food resource.

Regarding the valley oaks, Jepson felt "it is clear that the singular spacing of the trees is a result of the periodic firing of the country — an aboriginal practice of which there is ample historical evidence" (Jepson 1923, p. 167). Lewis (1973) has argued that the California native had an active role in manipulating vegetation with fire. Sampson (1944), Burcham (1957), and Clar (1959) have suggested the influence was more benign. Periodic burning by the California Indians may have thinned oak stands or caused certain areas to remain open, but probably was not a significant factor in altering the overall abundance or distribution of oaks.

EARLY STOCK RAISING

Before European contact, California oaks were principally a food resource, and had evolved in the absence of grazing, agriculture, or commercial uses. However, this changed forever when the Spaniards brought their faith, agriculture, and grazing animals to Alta California in 1769. Cattle and sheep certainly consumed acorns and many seedling oaks in the vicinity of the missions. The grazing tracts, or ranchos, of many missions were in oak studded lands, for example Mission Santa Clara, San Jose, San Antonio, San Miguel, Santa Ines, and San Juan Capistrano. Jepson (1910) observed that the chain of missions corresponded roughly to the range of the coast live oak, and that Spanish land grants encompassed most of the valley oak forests. Local overgrazing, droughts, and the introduction of Mediterranean annual plants contributed to the rapid replacement of the original bunchgrass vegetation (Hendry 1931; Burcham 1957). There is evidence that this change resulted in greater competition for oak seedlings in the thick annual cover (Holland 1976).[3/] Further, poisoning and trapping of predators, coupled with the increase in seed-bearing plants, has brought an increase in seed-eating rodents and birds, putting added pressures on the acorn crop (Holland 1976).

When a mission was established, it would customarily receive from other missions gifts of livestock to begin new herds. In 1827, four years after the founding of the last mission, Thomas Coulter reported that collectively they had 210,000 branded and 100,000 unbranded cattle (Coulter 1951).

Grazing continued to be the most widespread pressure on oaks throughout the Rancho era that followed mission secularization in 1833. Most of the land grants and grazing activity were in the Southern and Central Coast Ranges where huge herds roamed the grasslands and the woodlands alike (Cleland 1941). Burcham (1957) in his history of California range land considers the foothill woodland a grazing resource second only to the grasslands. In the woodlands, grazing impacts are highly selective, since cattle seek out the shade, devouring the oak seedlings and acorns. Further, repeated trampling of clay soils makes germination of woody plants more difficult (Wells 1962). The acorn crop suffers doubly because of its palability and the time of its ripening at the end of the dry season when forage is scarce. Bryant (1848) observed in the Central Valley that "during the period of transition from the dry grass to fresh growth, horses, mules, and even horned cattle, mostly subsist and fatten upon these large and oleginous nuts" (p. 351). Jepson (1910)called the acorns of blue oak in the Sierra foothills "one of the ranchman's assets for stock feed" (p. 216.).

Beginning in the late 1700's swine fed on acorns at Mission San Antonio and other missions (Bolton 1926; Engelhardt 1929). During the 19th century hogs were driven to oak groves for mast feeding in the Coast Ranges (Q. agrifolia), Central Valley (Q. lobata), and Sierra foothills (Q. douglasii), and the acorns were also collected and fed to the animals in lieu of grain (Bryant 1848; Sudworth 1908; Jepson 1923; Fages 1937). In the 1920's hogs were still being fattened on acorns in the Santa Lucia Mountains for shipment to San Francisco (Coulter 1926).

[3/] Personal communication, C.B. Hardham, Botanist, Paso Robles, California.

In 1834 the number of cattle held by the missions alone was estimated to be 400,000 (Bolton 1917). As private ranchos replaced the mission holdings, stock raising spread throughout the state. Cattle numbers burgeoned in response to the Gold Rush influx, until an estimated one million roamed the land in 1860 (Burcham 1957). From 1849 on, month-long cattle drives were regularly made from Southern California ranchos to San Francisco. Treks involving herds of several thousand were made through the Central Coast Ranges and San Joaquin Valley in the fall as the acorns ripened (Cleland 1951). The drought of 1862-64 brought cattle numbers plummeting, but the oaks continued to suffer. During the droughts of 1862-64 and 1897-98, small trees and branches from larger ones, especially Q. agrifolia in the South Coast Ranges, were cut to provide browse in the path of starving cattle and sheep (Jepson 1910; Lynch 1935). The recurring droughts, while temporarily reducing the cattle population, actually heightened the immediate grazing pressures, and seedling oaks stood little chance of survival.

In the 1870's and 1880's the livestock industry began recovering with sheep numbers reaching over four million in 1880, and cattle one million again by 1890 (Burcham 1957). During the wheat "bonanza" decades at the end of the 1800's, grazing land was pushed out to the margins of the cropland, and into the oak woodland and foothills (Hutchinson 1946). The poor natural reproduction in California's oak woodlands since that time has been generally attributed to grazing-related influences (Sudworth 1908; Jepson 1910).

WOOD CUTTING

In 1793 on Vancouver's voyage down the California coast, parties were landed near Santa Barbara to secure water and fuel. Menzies reported in his journal wood "was easily procured at no great distance from the beach as there were some large trees of a kind of ever green Oak, which they were suffered to cut down for the purpose" (Menzies 1924).

During the 19th century, oak wood was a primary source of fuel, but it is impossible to know how much was cut for this purpose. It was reported that mission padres in the San Gabriel Valley had instructed the Indians to cut only oak tree limbs for fuel "preserving the trunks with sacred care" (Clar 1957). Oak wood was used for heating and cooking throughout the mission and rancho period. Fuel and timber demands were locally heavy during the mining era. Blue oak and pine were used as fuel and mine timbers in the Mother Lode mines, with forest removal greatest in El Dorado County (Watts 1959). Oak wood was used to fuel the quicksilver (mercury) retorts at New Almaden (Santa Clara Co.) and New Idria (San Benito Co.), as well as at mines in Napa, Lake, and San Luis Obispo Counties (Yale 1904).[4]

Fire wood cutting was incidental to land clearing in some instances, but in others a profitable activity in itself. Sudworth (1908) noted that valley oak from the river banks, and interior live oak (Q. wislizenii) from the Sierra foothills were "highly prized for domestic use" in the Sacramento Valley. In 1914-1916, as part of an orchard development, 20,000 cords of oak (valley oak, blue oak, coast live oak) were cleared from 12,000 acres (4800 ha) on the Salinas River near Atascadero in San Luis Obispo County (Rossi 1979). The wood was shipped by rail to San Francisco and Los Angeles. There are, no doubt, numerous examples such as these from all over the state.

For more than a century oak has been the preferred wood for manufacture of charcoal in California. Bancroft (1890) says that charcoal from oak had been burned in California since the early 1850's. Oak was cut around San Francisco Bay to supply charcoal burners in the 1850's and 1860's (May 1957). In 1855, 11,000 bags of charcoal, the equivalent of 110 tons made from "red", white, and live oak, was consumed in and about San Francisco. In the 1860's powder mills in Santa Cruz and Marin Counties used charcoal as a major constituent of their product. In the 1880's the Clipper Gap Iron Company annually burned 10,000 to 15,000 tons of charcoal in its furnace near Auburn, requiring as much as 30,000 cords of wood each year (May 1956).

In the early 1900's charcoal from oak was made in large quantities throughout the state, especially in Sacramento, Shasta and Sonoma Counties. Between 1905 and 1910 California's annual charcoal production averaged 160,000 sacks from 3200 cords of wood. Sonoma County was the top producer then, with about 100,000 sacks annually, or about 1,000 tons of charcoal per year. In 1914 at Heroult on the Pit River, a site now under Shasta Lake, 50 cords a day of California black oak were distilled to charcoal for the Noble Electric Steel Company (May 1956).

In the decades from 1920 to 1940 there were only a few charcoal plants of substantial size in operation. During the early 1920's a charcoal plant near Templeton in San Luis Obispo County was making charcoal out of coast live

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[4] Rossi, R.S. (1975) The quicksilver mines of the Santa Lucia Mountains in northwestern San Luis Obispo County, California. Unpublished manuscript. 40 p.

oak and valley oak, and one near Ukiah in Mendocino County was using canyon live oak (Q. chrysolepis). In 1939 about 1400 tons were produced, but eight years later only a few small kilns in San Luis Obispo County were operating (May 1956). However, ten years later, following World War II, the increasing popularity of "outdoor living" sustained the operation of over forty charcoal plants once again in the state. A 1955-56 survey found 30 wood charcoal kilns in San Luis Obispo County, seven in the Sierra foothills, and four in Southern California. In that year San Luis Obispo accounted for more than 80 percent of the 4,650 tons produced (May 1957). Questionnaires determined that 99 percent of the wood burned was oak. Coast live oak was the most commonly used in San Luis Obispo County, cut from the Santa Lucia foothills in the Upper Salinas Valley. Oregon white oak (Q. garryana) was used in Sonoma and Yolo Counties; blue oak and to a lesser extent California black oak in the Sierra foothills (May 1957). By 1961 twenty producers in California were making 5,400 tons of charcoal from 10,000 cords of oak; eleven of these were in San Luis Obispo County (USDA 1963). In the last 15 years, production in the state has dwindled as inexpensive imported charcoal has become available from Mexico.

Use of California oaks for manufactured products has always been limited. Jepson (1923) thought when the name "Mush Oak" was applied to valley oak it was a contemptuous reference to its failure to meet the requirements of a strong, straight wood. He says that the most valuable oak, canyon live oak, was used for shipbuilding, wheels, axles, plow beams, tool handles, and furniture in the early days of the state (Jepson 1910). Coast live oak and blue oak were utilized to a lesser extent for tools and wagon parts. In the 1870 - 1880's in Mendocino County, the forks of open grown California black oak were used as "naturally assembled" ship keels and ribs (McDonald 1969). Wood from valley oak was used in California shipyards during World War II for keel blocks, and a very limited use has been made of it for wine barrels (Schniewind and Bryan 1959; Dost and Gorvad 1977).

Generally oaks have not been managed for commercial uses in California, and in conifer stands have been considered undesirable forest components. California black oak in particular has been removed from softwood stands on state and national forest land, where experiments have shown trees as large as 24" dbh can be poisoned by herbicides (Otter 1960). However, California black oak remains the most important commercial hardwood species in the state.

Statistics point out that 7.8 million board-feet of hardwoods were cut in 1976, virtually all of it California black oak. At the state's largest hardwood mill, Cal Oak, located at Oroville, the wood is used primarily for pallet stock, with a small volume entering furniture manufacturing in Los Angeles.[5] A smaller amount of white oak, mostly Q. lobata is cut annually, and estimated to be between one and two million board-feet (Dost and Gorvad 1977). Recently riparian oaks (Q. lobata) have been cut and sold for wood chips (McGill 1975). Additionally, each year thousands of cords of oak firewood are sold in metropolitan areas, but the sales reported are only a fraction of the actual volume involved. In 1977 California Department of Forestry reported 18,500 cords of fuelwood cut in the state (California Dept. of Forestry 1977). For the last three quarters of 1977 the State Board of Equalization reported 6,000 cords of oak firewood sold in California (three million board-feet)[6] but this may reflect as little as 10 percent of the total.

AGRICULTURE

Throughout California's history, agriculture has displaced extensive tracts of native oaks, and eventually much of the land has become sprawling suburbs. Agricultural operations have made reproduction virtually impossible even when mature trees have been left in the cropland.

The earliest agricultural clearing affecting oaks was for orchards. Following the early Gold Rush immigration, orchards were planted where blue oak, black oak and interior live oak had been cleared from the Sierra foothills (Hutchinson 1946). Between 1900 and 1920 orchards expanded greatly in the Sierra foothills, and in the 1930's Placer, El Dorado, and Nevada Counties were still among the top four counties in pear acreage (Hutchinson 1946; Watts 1959). Early orchards planted on the broad natural levees of the Sacramento River were at the expense of riparian valley oak groves, especially between Rio Vista and Marysville.

In the Santa Clara Valley, the expansion of orchards in the early 1900's led Broek (1932) to observe: "Once a grassland dotted

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5/ Personal communication, Brian Barrette, California Department of Forestry.

6/ Personal communication, J.C. Denny, Chief, Resource Management, The Resource Agency, State of California.

with evergreen oaks, a large portion of the valley is now covered by a veritable forest of deciduous trees" (p. 137). In the Coast Ranges around Paso Robles, a huge promotional development from 1915 to 1925 converted 8,000 acres (3200 ha) of dense coast live oak woodlands and 6,000 (2400 ha) acres of valley oak and blue oak savanna to almond orchards.[7] When most of the acreage proved unprofitable due to marginal rainfall, early frosts and increasing competition from irrigated plantings, the trees were removed in favor of dry farming uses. At least from 1910 on it was recognized that oaks are host to the fungus Armillaria mellea, which may subsequently attack the roots of orchard trees (Smith 1909). After 1925 fewer oaks were cleared specifically for orchards.

For cropland, however, as Jepson (1910) observed, early settlers knew well that the presence of valley oaks was a "sign of the richest soil". Being flat and accessible, these parklike, often pure stands of valley oak, developed on deep alluvial soils, have continually been under the greatest pressure from agriculture. Land cleared of valley oaks includes huge tracts on the east side of the San Joaquin Valley, where today scattered individual trees on the Kaweah River plain attest to the report of 400 square miles (104,000 ha) of valley oaks there in 1910 (Jepson 1910). Valley oaks have been removed or isolated by agricultural uses in the Sacramento Valley, Livermore Valley, Napa Valley, Santa Clara Valley, parts of the Santa Ynez Valley, and the upper Salinas Valley. Round Valley in Mendocino County and San Antonio Valley in the Santa Lucia Range are examples of a few locations where sizable valley oak savannas remain.

In 1861 William Brewer traveling through northern San Luis Obispo County remarked: "... in these valleys are trees every few rods — great oaks, often of immense size, ten, twelve, eighteen, and more feet in circumference ... In passing over this country, every hill presents a new view of these trees — here a park, there a vista with the blue mountains ahead" (Brewer 1864, p. 93). Today, in this area where I have examined the extent of clearing, over 70 percent of the valley oak parkland has been eliminated to facilitate agriculture. Of the trees that remain, nowhere is there a reproductively viable tract of Q. lobata (Rossi 1979).

Clearing, however, is not the only activity affecting the survival of oak savanna. More important is the widespread lack of reproduction. Even where mature trees remain in the fields, reproduction is precluded by recurring planting and harvest operations, and the practice of grazing animals on the crop stubble, where they eat both the acorns and any seedling trees. Characterizing the plight of valley oak, Griffin (1973) observed: "... the scene is now one of tired relics towering over an intensively cultivated system" (p. 6). Very often the only areas where oaks become established is in waste places, abandoned fields, and along roadsides, between the asphalt and the fences. Ironically, one place in San Luis Obispo County where thickets of valley oak saplings have become established is on the freeway borders and median.

STOCK RAISING

Over a large area, particularly in the foothill woodland, grazing activities have caused the same impacts on oak reproduction. The results of predator control and overgrazing included explosive ground squirrel numbers, which in at least one instance, at Fort Hunter Liggett, received national attention.[8]

Oak reproduction also has been found absent in areas protected from grazing (White 1966). Mice, wild pigs, and especially deer consume acorns and oak seedlings, and gophers kill many seedlings by girdling and chewing oak roots (White 1966; Griffin 1970, 1977).

Fifty years ago, Bauer (1930) observed in the Tehachapi Mountains, "grazing explains the openness of the understory and ... absence of young growth generally in oak communities... the very young oaks being readily grazed" (p. 279). Studying the vegetation of the San Luis Obispo quadrangle, Wells (1962) found oak seedlings everywhere absent, except occasionally outside fences, and pointed to heavy cattle stocking to account for the poverty of oak reproduction. In the Santa Ana Mountains, Snow (1972) found that browsing and trampling by cattle destroyed all unprotected seedlings of coast live oak and Engelmann oak (Q. engelmannii) in open habitats. He observed that the absence of grazing in the area between 1895 and 1905 corresponded to a period of successful reproduction of these species. Observing oak reproduction on 50,000 acres (20,000 ha) at heavily grazed Hunter Liggett, Fieblekorn found seedlings of valley oak and blue oak exceedingly rare, and those of coast live oak present on

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[7] Rossi, R.S. (1974) Paso Robles area almond orchard promotion 1910-1925. Unpublished manuscript. 45 p.

[8] San Francisco Examiner-Chronicle, September 12, 1976.

only about 2,000 acres (800 ha).[9] Over an area as large as the Santa Lucia Mountains, Griffin (1976) found a general absence of valley oak seedlings more than one year old and saplings less than 50 years old. Holland (1976) has made the same observation about blue oak throughout its range.

In the blue oak foothill woodlands, ranchers have been clearing oaks and digger pine (Pinus sabiniana) for range improvement since about 1940. It was assumed that the removal of these "weed" trees would improve the forage production and therefore the output of meat. The practice became widespread on the east and west side of the Sacramento Valley when inexpensive methods of killing the oaks were developed. The practice was advocated and directed by the Agricultural Extension Service and university advisors (Leonard 1956; Leonard and Harvey 1956; Johnson et al. 1959; Murphy and Crampton 1964; Dal Porto 1965; Brown 1973). Extensive clearing was done in the period 1945-1960, especially of blue oak and live oak in the Sierra foothills and North and Central Coast Ranges. Methods have included bulldozing, burning, girdling, cutting, and chemical treatment with 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T applied in axe cuts, and even broadcast spraying from aircraft.

From 1945 to 1953 some of the clearing was paid for through matching funds by federal programs of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration (now the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service, A.S.C.S.). Beginning in 1945 the A.A.A. offered payments for clearing land for tillage, and in 1947 payments were extended to clearing land for pasture. Though the statistics reflect only the total clearing it appears that counties with large areas of oak woodland were the most active participants. For instance, in 1947, Amador, Calaveras, and El Dorado counties accounted for one-third of the 1,500 acres (600 ha) cleared for pasture (U.S. Ag. Adj. Adm. Annual Reports 1944-53). From 1948 to 1952 six central Sierra counties (Amador, Calaveras, El Dorado, Placer, Tuolomne, and Mariposa) accounted for over 50 percent of the 110,000 (44,000 ha) acres cleared for range. San Luis Obispo Co. lost over 6500 acres (2600 ha) of oak savanna and woodland under these programs. In Tehama County, where clearing was most extensive, the A.S.C.S. Director estimates that during the last half of the 1950's through the 1960's, blue oak trees were removed from 90,000 acres (36,000 ha). Herbicides were used on about 5,000 acres (2,000 ha), but in these areas subsequent resprouting has reversed the clearing effort.[10] [11]

It was not until 1973 that the practice of clearing oaks from rangeland was seriously questioned. Holland (1973) working in oak savanna sites near Madera, in the Temblor Range, in Kern County, and at Hastings Reservation in Carmel Valley, showed that forage production and nutritional quality are greater under the blue oaks than between them. Further, the forage has greater nutritional value and remains greener into the dry season; the trees also modify the micro-climate and improve range land soils. Further details of this blue oak canopy effect and its implications for oak clearing appear in Holland (1980) and Holland and Morton (1980). Where oaks form a nearly closed canopy (120-200 trees per acre) tree removal has reportedly not affected forage value in some areas (Murphy and Crampton 1964) and enhanced it in others (Johnson et al. 1959).

RIPARIAN OAKS

The riparian forests of the Central Valley, in which valley oaks were a conspicuous element, have undergone a complete transformation, most having disappeared without description. Captain Sir Edward Belcher, visiting the Sacramento Valley about 1840, said of the forests lining the river: "Within, and at the verge of the banks, oaks of immense size were plentiful. These appeared to form a band on each side, about three hundred yards in depth, and within (on the immense park-like extent, which we generally explored when landing for positions) they were seen to be disposed in clumps, which served to relieve the eye, wandering over what might otherwise be described as one level plain or sea of grass" (Belcher 1843). Based on historical accounts of the Sacramento Valley there were about 775,000 acres (310,000 ha) of riparian woodland in 1850. By 1952 only about 20,000 acres (8,000 ha) remained. Today the estimate is 12,000 acres (McGill 1975; Dutzi 1979). Thompson (1961) in his study of the Sacramento Valley concluded that the riparian forests were effaced during the first two or three decades of Anglo-American occupance. Cronise (1868) recognized large-scale destruction of riparian forests by 1868 in Colusa,

[9] Fieblekorn, C. (1972) Interim report on oak regeneration study. Unpublished report on file, Natural Resources Conservation Office, Fort Hunter Liggett, Jolon, California, 23 p.

[10] Personal communication, A. Cornell, Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service, Davis, California.

[11] Personal communication, R. Christianson, Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service Advisor, Tehama County, California.

Yuba, Solano, and Sacramento Counties. At Knight's Landing, huge quantities of cordwood were loaded onto the numerous steamboats navigating the Central Valley rivers during the mining days (Thompson 1961). Agricultural land uses, especially orchards on the broad natural levees, displaced further miles of gallery forests.

Tree removal was also incidental to flood control projects and levee construction. The construction of Shasta Dam by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation in the mid 1940's caused landowners to respond to dramatically reduced flood and erosion dangers on low lying alluvial soils. Moving onto the floodplain, they converted much riparian vegetation to permanent cropland and orchards (McGill 1975). During the period 1952-1972 over 50 percent of the high terrace riparian vegetation on the margins of the Sacramento River was converted to other uses, especially new orchards (13,100 acres (5,240 ha))(McGill 1975).

Valley oaks have been killed indirectly in some areas by greatly lowered water tables created by water impoundment in the foothills and local ground water pumping; in other areas the accumulation of saline irrigation runoff has been equally destructive.

In the Sacramento Valley, local concern for the continuing loss of riparian habitat has been manifested in a workshop and several conferences (e.g., Sands 1977). At the state level, the Secretary for Resources has established the Upper Sacramento River Task Force whose work includes specific interest in diminishing riparian vegetation.

FIRE SUPPRESSION

Fire suppression policies of the last 50 years have resulted in the unnatural build up of fuels in oak woodland communities. The absence of frequent low intensity fires has permitted the invasion of chaparral species, or highly flammable conifers into the understory (Dodge 1975; Griffin 1976). Overgrazing has aggravated the situation by eliminating ground cover to carry low intensity burns. When fires do start, the oaks are consumed in the conflagration unless they are protected in a canyon bottom or by rocky outcroppings. In San Diego County, Dodge (1975) noted that an oak woodland between Pine Valley and Corte Madera that was "fairly open" in 1931 had become covered with a dense understory of brush. When the 1970 Laguna Fire burned through, approximately 50 percent of the oaks were killed, and the remainder extensively damaged. He concluded that high intensity fires are having the effect of converting oak woodlands to pure chaparral stands. In the 1977 Marble Cone fire, the valley oaks in the area of Chews Ridge which had not burned in almost fifty years, were greatly damaged where Coulter pines (*Pinus coulteri*) had invaded. Griffin (1980) found 47 percent of the valley oaks were killed in the areas of crown fire and that the thicket of pine saplings and litter had greatly increased the fire hazard to the oaks.

URBANIZATION

Since 1945 the most conspicuous impact on California's oaks has resulted from the growth of cities and suburbs. At both ends of "El Camino Real" huge population centers have grown up. In the Los Angeles basin where Engelmann oak used to be extensive between Pasadena and Claremont, no intact woodland remains in the path of suburban growth (Griffin 1977). Cities named for their oaks, such as Thousand Oaks, Sherman Oaks and Encino, are often left only with token examples of their natural heritage in order to accommodate growth and development. Around San Francisco Bay, there are few oaks in Oakland, very few left among the suburbs filling in the Livermore Valley, and even fewer in the Santa Clara Valley. Between San Jose and Redwood City, Cooper (1926) found a "more or less skeletonized form" of what was "originally a continuous belt of oak forest" on the alluvial fans that reach the bay. Observing this same area in 1798, Captain George Vancouver compared it to a well kept park planted with huge oaks, and added prophetically, it "required only to be adorned with the neat habitations of an industrious people" (Vancouver 1798). These people certainly have come; the area today numbers over one million people in ten cities and endless suburbs, shopping centers and freeways.

Very often, of course, where urban areas have developed, oaks were originally cleared for agriculture. Yet, where they were spared it is paradoxical that now in large and small cities alike, they fare so poorly and are so little revered. However susceptible oaks are to cutting, grazing and other rural pressures, they succumb just as quickly to overwatering, blankets of asphalt, grade changes and pruning. As parcel sizes become smaller, and the land uses intensify, it becomes less likely that viable oak communities will persist on the metropolitan fringes. Often, in fact, the new suburban residential uses put greater pressures on the native plants than did the previous agricultural uses. Horses and cattle in "backyard" corrals are typically overstocked. Home owners cut and disk weed from their property and also often from the roadsides. In the foothill woodland, land for residential uses includes areas that were too steep or inaccessible for farming; now even these waste places have lost their protected status. Seedling oaks are treated as weeds, and the heavily manicured gardens and public parks are filled with non-native plants.

Many cities have adopted tree ordinances primarily intended to save their remaining oaks, as for example in Visalia, Menlo Park and San Luis Obispo. Unfortunately, the fine for cutting a two-hundred-year-old oak is generally far less than the value of the cordwood from the tree.[12/] County-wide tree ordinances pertain only to incorporated cities, and therefore exempt the vast rural areas and unincorporated suburbs. Steinhart (1978) observed that the luxury of fine healthy groves of oak seem to be the sole possession of the most exclusive and expensive communities, such as Brentwood, Beverly Hills, Montecito, Atherton, Woodside and Piedmont.

SUMMARY

In a brief span of time, modern man has made impacts on California oaks which will affect their distribution and abundance for centuries to come. This stands in contrast to the gentle tenancy of the native Indians.

The oaks in the riparian woodlands have suffered the most extensive losses. Almost everywhere, the range of valley oaks has been seriously reduced and the remaining tracks are largely barren of seedlings. In the foothills, hundreds of thousands of acres of blue oak have been converted to grassland and crops, and grazing activity inhibits oak regeneration in the remaining woodland. Until recently, oaks were cut in the state for charcoal production, but currently fuelwood accounts for the bulk of cutting. In Southern California Engelmann oak and coast live oak have been displaced by suburban growth. Approximately 10 million board feet of oaks are cut each year for manufactured products, most of it being California black oak from Northern California.

The clearing of oaks and the impairment of reproduction indirectly affects wildlife populations, soil development, and the ecosystem in general. The landscape is impoverished both in a visual sense and in terms of its natural diversity. It is slowly losing its appeal, its distinction, its uniqueness. Although the individual species of oak are not likely to become extinct, human use has fragmented the handsome oak landscape, and the unique character of many oak communities is already gone or frozen in premature senescence.

[12/] Visalia Times-Delta, December 16, 1976.

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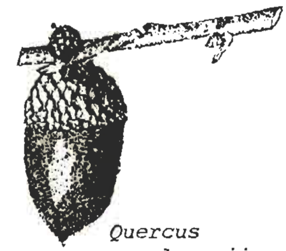

Quercus engelmannii

Taxonomy of California Oaks[1]

John M. Tucker[2]

Abstract: The indigenous oaks of California belong to two genera: Lithocarpus and Quercus. The main differences are tabulated. The Californian species of Quercus belong to three subgenera: the white oaks (subgenus Quercus), the black or red oaks (subgenus Erythrobalanus), and the intermediate oaks (subgenus Protobalanus). The major differences are given in a table. Emphasis in this paper is not on identification, but on hybridization between species, which sometimes complicates identification. Three hybrid complexes are discussed: Quercus douglasii X Q. turbinella subsp. californica, Q. dumosa X Q. lobata, and Q. dumosa X Q. engelmannii. An annotated list of species, varieties, and hybrids is included.

INTRODUCTION

Separating tanoak and other oaks

The oaks indigenous to California represent two different genera in the family Fagaceae. The tanoak, or tanbark-oak, Lithocarpus densiflorus, is the only North American member of its genus which is represented in eastern and southeastern Asia by about 300 species. All the other Californian oaks belong to the genus Quercus.

To the casual observer the tanoak looks quite oak-like, and in fact botanically it was first named as a species of Quercus--Q. densiflora. The two are, nevertheless, very distinct genera. As a practical field character, the acorn cup of Lithocarpus densiflorus is unmistakably different from any of our native species of Quercus, having long, recurved cup scales that give the cup a bur-like appearance. However, this is not a generic difference. Their principal generic differences are summarized below:

Lithocarpus	Quercus
♂ and ♀ flowers borne either in separate inflorescences, or often in the same inflorescence -- with the ♀ at the base, and the ♂ above.	♂ and ♀ flowers borne only in separate inflorescences.
the inflorescence is a stiff spike, or in some species a panicle.	♂ inflorescence is a slender, pendulous catkin.
flowers usually arranged in small clusters (3 to 7 in a cluster) along the spike, in axils of small persistent bracts.	flowers arranged singly along the axis of the inflorescence, the bracts soon deciduous.
geographic distribution: eastern and southeastern Asia, from Japan to the Himalayas, with 1 species in western North America.	world-wide in the Northern Hemisphere.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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Oak subgenera

Considering the "true oaks" -- the genus Quercus -- our Californian species fall into three distinct groups, which are classified as three subgenera. (European botanists, however, classify them somewhat differently, as does Rehder, in his well-known "Manual of Cultivated Trees and Shrubs", 1947). These are (1) the white oaks (subgenus Quercus, or synonym Lepidobalanus), (2) the black or red oaks (subgenus Erythrobalanus), and (3) the intermediate oaks (subgenus Protobalanus). The white oaks occur around the world in the Northern Hemisphere; the black oaks occur only in the New World -- North and Central America, and extreme northern South America; and the intermediate oaks -- a small group of only five species -- are restricted to western North America.

The black oaks and white oaks have long been recognized as very distinct groups. The intermediate oaks, however, have usually been placed (as a small group of closely related species) in the white oaks, especially in older classifications. They are not really intermediate in most morphological characters; rather, in some features they resemble the white oaks, but in others they are more like the black oaks. The characteristics that distinguish the three groups are presented in table 1.

The most reliable difference for distinguishing the white oaks from the black oaks is the character of the inner surface of the acorn shell. In the white oaks this is glabrous or essentially so, while in the black oaks it is conspicuously tomentose. The condition in the intermediate oaks varies from one species to another. In Q. dunnii it is densely tomentose; in Q. vaccinifolia it is only very lightly so; and in Q. chrysolepis, the most common and widely distributed species in the group, it varies from moderately to densely tomentose. Mature acorns are not found till late summer or fall, of course, which to some extent limits the usefulness of this character for making field distinctions. Also, it is a character of less importance in the intermediate oaks because of its variability. Nevertheless for distinguishing the black oaks from the white oaks, this is the most constant difference one can find.

In most of the other differences listed in table 1, occasional exceptions may be found. Hence it is always safer to check several of these characters rather than try to rely on a single difference. For example, in the white oaks the acorns mature in 1 year, while in the other two subgenera 2 years are required -- i.e. the acorns do not mature till the end of the second growing season. The coast live oak (Q. agrifolia) -- one of the three native California black oaks -- is one of the very few exceptions, maturing its acorns in only one season.

In addition to the differences listed in table 1, others could be mentioned in chemical constituents of acorns, and host preferences of oak gall wasps (Family Cynipidae). Although these are hardly useful as field characters, they follow a similar pattern to the characters in table 1, and thus reinforce the validity of dividing the New World oaks into three distinct subgenera.

Objectives

My objectives in the remainder of this paper are (1) to point out a problem that sometimes makes field indentification difficult -- namely, hybridization between species, (2) to indicate the species, varieties, and hybrids I recognize (in an annotated list), and (3) to give explanations for several names that have been sources of confusion. Regarding interspecific hybridization, although it may be a rather infrequent, or even rare, phenomenon in many parts of California, in certain areas it has been so extensive as to create a major problem in identification. I will discuss several such examples. The problematic names to be explained are either cases of synonymy (e.g., an older manual using a name no longer considered valid), or names not often seen in manuals (valid or otherwise) by virtue of their obscurity, or uncertainty on the part of the author.

It is not my objective to provide a ready means of identification of the oaks of California -- hence, I have not included a key, or detailed descriptions or illustrations of individual species. Either of two well-known manuals should be adequate for purposes of identification: "A California Flora" (Munz 1959, and supplement 1968) and "A Flora of Southern California" (Munz 1974). Also, where I have discussed the distributions of individual species, this has been only in general terms. For detailed statements of geographic ranges, and excellent distribution maps (for at least the arborescent oaks), the reader is referred to "The Distribution of Forest Trees in California" (Griffin and Critchfield 1972).

Table 1. Morphological Differences Between the 3 Subgenera of New World Oaks

Morphological Character	White oaks (Subgenus *Quercus*)	Black, or Red Oaks (Subgenus *Erythrobalanus*)	"Intermediate" Oaks (Subgenus *Protobalanus*)
trunk bark of mature trees	usually light gray or brown	usually dark brown or blackish	light grayish-brown
wood			
heartwood	light brown or yellowish brown	reddish-brown	light brown
tyloses in vessels	tyloses present in the summer wood vessels	tyloses usually absent in summer wood vessels	tyloses present
leaves	lobes or teeth usually rounded, and without bristle tips	lobes or teeth usually pointed, and often bristle-tipped	teeth pointed, not bristle-tipped but spinose to mucronate
♀ flowers	styles short, with broad stigmas	styles elongated, narrow	styles short, with broad stigmas
♂ flowers	perianth deeply parted; stamens ca. 6-9; anthers notched at apex	perianth cup-shaped, with united parts; stamens ca. 6; anthers usually mucronate at tip	perianth deeply lobed; stamens ca. 8-10; anthers pointed at tip
acorns			
acorn shell	glabrous on inner surface	densely tomentose on inner surface	from densely tomentose to almost glabrous (depending on the species)
abortive ovules	at the base of the mature seed (within the acorn)	apical (rarely lateral, or even basal)	lateral
maturation	annual	mostly biennial	biennial
cup scales	corky-thickened at base (to some degree)	thin and flat	mostly thickened to some degree

HYBRIDIZATION IN CALIFORNIA

Infrequent hybrids

People familiar with the oaks are aware that natural hybrids, between certain species at least, are fairly common. Nevertheless, only species in the same subgenus are involved in natural crosses. No authentic instances are known of natural crosses between members of different subgenera. Thus, they are clearly three distinct groups genetically.

Over the country in general, many different natural hybrids are known -- sometimes between very different species (but always members of the same subgenus). The hybrids are usually quite infrequent and occur as single, isolated trees growing with the parent species. In California, also, this is the usual pattern. Several examples could be cited; the most widely distributed, and probably the most widely known is the oracle oak (*Q.* X *morehus*), a cross between the California black oak (*Q. kelloggii*) and interior live oak (*Q. wislizenii*). It has been known the longest of any of the Californian hybrids, having been first described and named in 1863. Other hybrids known only as rare, isolated individuals are the following:

- California black oak (*Q. kelloggii*) X coast live oak (*Q. agrifolia*)
- valley oak (*Q. lobata*) X Engelmann oak (*Q. engelmannii*)
- valley oak (*Q. lobata*) X Oregon oak (*Q. garryana*)
- valley oak (*Q. lobata*) X desert scrub oak (*Q. turbinella* subsp. *californica*)
- Oregon oak (*Q. garryana*) X scrub oak (*Q. dumosa*)
- Oregon oak (*Q. garryana*) X leather oak (*Q. durata*)
- Brewer oak (*Q. garryana* var. *breweri*) X deer oak (*Q. sadleriana*)

These are usually found growing with the parental species, and, to the critical eye, are morphologically intermediate. They are often demonstrably fertile, setting sizeable crops of viable acorns. Nevertheless, back-crosses or F_2's are not commonly found. Usually it is just the single, isolated first-generation (F_1) hybrid. They are often puzzling to the non-taxonomist, however, because of their unusual characteristics and their rarity. But once they have been critically compared with the species with which they are growing -- and perhaps others in the area -- their true identity can usually be determined. Beyond this initial question of their identity, therefore, they ordinarily pose no real taxonomic problems.

Examples of extensive regional hybridization

Another series of hybrids do, however, pose a more important taxonomic problem. These are cases at the other extreme in which hybridization has been so extensive that over sizeable areas the populations consist mainly of highly variable intermediate types, with only an occasional individual identifiable as one or the other parental species. When the differences between the species are "blurred" in this way, botanists have sometimes classified them as mere varieties of a single species -- especially when the species involved are quite similar anyhow. *Quercus dumosa* and *Q. turbinella* provide an example of this sort.

One botanist has coined the term "semispecies" for groups of this sort. Unfortunately, there is no simple taxonomic solution for all such cases. The degree of difference between the species involved, and the extent of hybridization between them, can vary considerably from one example to another.

1. *Quercus douglasii* X *Q. turbinella* subsp. *californica*

The most extensive hybrid complex in California, *Quercus* X *alvordiana*, involves the blue oak (*Q. douglasii*) and desert scrub oak (*Q. turbinella* subsp. *californica*). These oaks are quite different morphologically and ecologically, and in large part have different geographical ranges.

The blue oak is a small to medium-sized deciduous tree, 20-30 ft. (6-10 m.) in height. The leaves are dull bluish-green, 1-2 1/2 in. (2.5-6 cm.) long, shallowly lobed or coarsely toothed (or entire), with rounded or obtuse lobes or teeth. It is common on dry interior foothills and lower mountain slopes from the Tehachapi Mountains northward, forming an open woodland sometimes in pure stands, but commonly associated with digger pine (*Pinus sabiniana*) and often with interior live oak (*Q. wislizenii*).

The desert scrub oak is commonly a shrub, 6-15 ft. (2-5 m.) in height, or sometimes a small shrubby tree. Evergreen in habit, the small grayish-green leaves are 1/2-1 1/2 in. (1.5-4 cm.) long, with spinose or mucronate teeth on the margins. It occurs in pinyon-juniper woodland or in pure stands forming an open chaparral on arid mountain slopes along the southwestern border of the Mohave Desert, and northwestward to northern Ventura and Santa Barbara counties and southeastern San Luis Obispo County.

Quercus turbinella, in common with a number of other Mohavean species, extends northwestward through the very dry Inner South Coast Ranges as far as southern San Benito County. Throughout this region it hybridizes freely with blue oak, forming variable populations, with most individuals being intermediate in varying degrees between the parents. More localized hybridization has also occurred in areas on the west side of the upper Salinas Valley and in the northeastern Tehachapi's, e.g., along Oak Creek.

The well-known botanist of the early 1900's, Alice Eastwood, was the first to make collections from any of these variable populations. In 1894, in San Emigdio Canyon, Kern County, to the north of Mt. Pinos, she made a series of collections ranging from small-leaved shrubs to larger-leaved trees. And she may have surmised that the extreme local variation was the result of hybridization. Nevertheless, a few years later she described a "new species" based on one of her collections, naming it Quercus alvordiana (Eastwood 1905).

For many years afterward this name was a source of confusion to California botanists, doubtless because of the extreme variation at the type locality and elsewhere in that region. Every one of several manuals or floras in use prior to 1959 (when Munz published "A Flora of California") interpreted Quercus alvordiana differently. One treated it as a distinct species (Abrams, "Illustrated Flora of the Pacific States"); one reduced it to a variety of Q. dumosa (Jepson, "A Manual of the Flowering Plants of California"); a third was reluctant to express any opinion (Sudworth, "Trees of the Pacific Slope"); and a fourth felt it was not worthy of recognition at all (McMinn, "Illustrated Manual of California Shrubs"). McMinn noted, however, that blue oak hybridizes with scrub oak in the Inner South Coast Ranges. (He considered Q. turbinella merely a form of Q. dumosa).

I made a study of the "Quercus alvordiana problem", as a Ph.D. research project and concluded that this whole complex was the result of long-continued hybridization between Q. douglasii and Q. turbinella (Tucker 1950, 1952). And more recently, a very detailed study was made of a series of variable populations on hillslopes facing different directions at a single general location (Benson, et al. 1967). This showed that on the dry southwest-facing hillslope the population, although variable, was composed mainly of shrubby turbinella-like types, while on the more protected northeast-facing slope, types more similar to Q. douglasii predominated. Thus, each microsite was selecting in a very sensitive fashion the best adapted types from the genetically variable population.

2. Quercus lobata X Q. dumosa

The highly variable oak on the southern California islands called Quercus macdonaldii is generally recognized today as a complex derived from hybridization between the valley oak (Q. lobata) and scrub oak (Q. dumosa). It was originally described as a species, however, by E. L. Greene (1889), from Santa Cruz Island. It is also known from the neighboring Santa Rosa Island, and from Santa Catalina Island; also from several mainland localities, from Santa Barbara County (Smith 1976) to Orange County (Boughey 1968).

Quercus macdonaldii was described by Greene as "a small deciduous tree, from fifteen to thirty-five feet high", but later botanists noted that it sometimes intergraded with the shrubby evergreen scrub oak, common both on Santa Catalina and on the Northern Channel Islands. Accordingly, Jepson (1925) reduced Q. macdonaldii to a variety of Q. dumosa. Others (Sargent 1895, Sudworth 1908) had considered it merely a form of Q. dumosa, not worthy of taxonomic recognition.

On the other hand, the similarity of Q. macdonaldii to Q. lobata apparently went unnoticed until Hoffmann (1932), who botanized extensively on the islands off Santa Barbara, took exception to Jepson's treatment: "....if it [Q. macdonaldii] is not a distinct species, it seems to the writer to be much more closely related to Q. lobata than to Q. dumosa." With increased botanical interest in the southern California islands in recent years, the Q. macdonaldii complex has been brought into sharper focus: "Quercus lobata Née occurs on Santa Cruz and Santa Catalina islands and is genetically represented on Santa Rosa, Santa Cruz, and Santa Catalina where it has hybridized freely with Q. dumosa to produce a variable population to which Greene applied the name Q. macdonaldii" (Muller 1967).

One complicating factor is the fact that Q. douglasii also occurs in a few small groves on Santa Cruz and Santa Catalina islands (Muller, 1967), and a single tree of Q. engelmannii on Santa Catalina (Thorne 1967). These oaks apparently have also hybridized with Q. dumosa, and their backcrosses to the scrub oak may be difficult to distinguish from macdonaldii backcrosses.

The infrequent mainland occurrences of hybrids have usually been isolated F_1s. However, in at least one location known to the writer in the Santa Barbara area, an F_1 occurs with Q. dumosa and a number of variable dumosa-like intermediates. Interestingly enough, most of the known occurrences on the mainland are at -- or even beyond -- the southern limits of the range of Q. lobata.

3. Quercus engelmannii X Q. dumosa

In southern California (aside from the insular Q. X macdonaldii) the most frequent and conspicuous examples of hybridization are those involving Q. engelmannii and Q. dumosa. These are very different species: Q. engelmannii is a tree 25-35 ft. (7-10 m.) in height, with semipersistent leaves oblong to oblong-ovate, with margins entire or nearly so, bluish-green and often glaucous, up to about 2-2 1/2 in. (5-6 cm.) long. Quercus dumosa is an evergreen shrub with usually mucronate-dentate leaves quite variable in shape, but green and slightly to moderately glossy above, and mostly about 1/2-1 in. (1.5-2.5 cm.) long. Engelmann oak is a dominant tree in the southern oak woodland, occurring on deeper soils along the base of the San Gabriel Mountains in the Pasadena area, and extending southeastward into northern Baja California. The scrub oak is a wide-ranging chaparral shrub common on the drier, more shallow soils of lower mountain slopes.

Where stands of oak woodland occur adjacent to chaparral, the two oaks have hybridized freely, producing "hybrid swarms", the members of which show varying combinations of the parental characters. Also, in this general region stands of scrub oak often have leaves distinctly suggestive of Engelmann oak, i.e., somewhat larger and more oblong than usual, with more nearly entire margins, etc. In such stands one may see larger, more arborescent shrubs 10 to 15 ft. (3 to 5 m.) in height, rising above the surrounding chaparral. As Benson (1962) has pointed out, the trend toward a drier climate in southern California has favored chaparral species, and some former stands of oak woodland have disappeared. Thus, although Quercus engelmannii is no longer present, its genes remain in the remnants of hybrid swarms which are now being absorbed by repeated backcrossing to Q. dumosa.

As so often happens with oak hybrids, those between Q. engelmannii and Q. dumosa have been a source of some taxonomic confusion. The names, Quercus dumosa var. elegantula (Greene) Jepson and Quercus grandidentata Ewan, both apply to such hybrids. In each case, of course, the botanist who first published the name thought he had discovered a "new", previously unnamed, oak.

In the case of Q. dumosa var. elegantula (originally described by E. L. Greene as Q. macdonaldii var. elegantula), Greene realized his error when he re-visited his type locality (Temecula Canyon) at a later date. He noted that Q. engelmannii and Q. dumosa were abundant in the area and hybridizing freely, and acknowledged that he had described one of the hybrids. Quercus grandidentata, similarly, was described from a tree in a hybrid swarm -- this one in Monrovia Canyon -- although this fact was not realized originally. However, later study by Prof. Lyman Benson and his students, of Pomona College, demonstrated this beyond any doubt. In 1949, and again in 1951, students planted acorns from the type tree. In both groups of seedlings scarcely any two were alike, and individuals ranged in leaf characters from those resembling Q. engelmannii to those resembling Q. dumosa (Benson, 1962).

ANNOTATED LIST OF SPECIES AND HYBRIDS

The following list includes the species of Quercus native to California, and their natural hybrids. When a hybrid has been formally named with a binomial, this is also listed. Synonyms are included, and occasional nomenclatural notes in an attempt to clarify obscure or questionable names.

White Oaks (Subgenus Quercus)

1. Quercus douglasii Hook. & Arn. (Q. ransomi Kell.; Q. oblongifolia brevilobata Torr.)

   Blue Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. douglasii X Q. dumosa
- Q. douglasii X Q. garryana : Quercus X eplingi C.H. Muller
- Q. douglasii X Q. lobata : Quercus X jolonensis Sarg.
- Q. douglasii X Q. turbinella ssp. californica : Quercus X alvordiana Eastwood (Q. dumosa var. alvordiana (Eastw.) Jeps.) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)

2. Quercus dumosa Nutt. (Q. berberidifolia Liebm.; Q. acutidens Torr.; Q. dumosa var acutidens S. Wats.)

Scrub Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. dumosa X Q. douglasii
- Q. dumosa X Q. durata
- Q. dumosa X Q. engelmannii : Quercus X grandidentata Ewan (Q. macdonaldii var. elegantula Greene; Q. dumosa var. elegantula (Greene) Jeps.) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)
- Q. dumosa X Q. garryana : Quercus X howellii Tucker
- Q. dumosa X Q. lobata : Quercus X macdonaldii Greene (Q. X townei Palmer; Q. dumosa var. kinselae C.H. Muller) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)
- Q. dumosa X Q. turbinella spp. californica

3. Quercus durata Jeps. (Q. dumosa var. bullata Engelm.; Q. dumosa var. revoluta Sarg.)

Leather Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. durata X Q. dumosa
- Q. durata X Q. garryana : Quercus X subconvexa Tucker

4. Quercus engelmannii Greene

Mesa Oak, Engelmann Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. engelmannii X Q. dumosa : Quercus X grandidentata Ewan (Q. macdonaldii var. elegantula Greene; Q. dumosa var. elegantula (Greene) Jeps.) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)
- Q. engelmannii X Q. lobata

5. Quercus garryana Dougl. (Q. neaei Liebm.)

Oregon Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. garryana X Q. douglasii : Quercus X eplingi C.H. Muller
- Q. garryana X Q. dumosa : Quercus X howellii Tucker
- Q. garryana X Q. durata : Quercus X subconvexa Tucker
- Q. garryana X Q. lobata

Varieties:

var. breweri (Engelm. in Wats.) Jeps. (Q. breweri Engelm.; Q. lobata fruticosa Engelm.; Q. oerstediana R. Br. Campst.; Q. garryana var. semota Jeps.)

Brewer Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. garryana var. breweri X Q. sadleriana

The shrubby forms of Q. garryana of the southern Sierra Nevada, Greenhorn Range, and the Tehachapi's, were called var. semota by Jepson, supposedly having less tuberculate cup scales than in typical var. breweri of the high North Coast Ranges. However, there seems to be no significant morphological difference between the populations of these different regions.

6. Quercus lobata Née (Q. hindsii Benth.; Q. longiglanda Torr. & Frem.)

Valley Oak

Hybrids:

- Q. lobata X douglasii : Quercus X jolonensis Sargent

Q. lobata X dumosa : Quercus X macdonaldii Greene (Q. X townei Palmer; Q. dumosa var. kinselae C.H. Muller) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)
Q. lobata X Q. engelmannii
Q. lobata X Q. garryana
Q. lobata X Q. turbinella ssp. californica : Quercus X munzii Tucker

7. Quercus sadleriana R. Br. Campst.

Deer Oak

Hybrids:

Q. sadleriana X Q. garryana var. breweri

8. Quercus turbinella Greene (Q. dumosa var. turbinella (Greene) Jeps; Q. subturbinella Trel.)

Desert Scrub Oak

subsp. californica Tucker

Hybrids:

Q. t. californica X Q. douglasii : Quercus X alvordiana Eastwood (Q. dumosa var. alvordiana (Eastw.) Jeps.) (See detailed discussion in preceding section.)
Q. t. californica X Q. dumosa
Q. t. californica X Q. lobata : Quercus X munzii Tucker

Intermediate Oaks (Subgenus Protobalanus)

9. Quercus chrysolepis Liebm. (Q. fulvescens Kell.; Q. crassipocula Torr.)
Canyon Live Oak, Maul Oak

Jepson named a number of forms (later elevating them to varieties) that supposedly differ in one way or another from typical Q. chrysolepis: forma grandis (var. grandis), forma hansenii (var. hansenii), forma nana (var. nana), forma pendula (var. pendula). Aside from the var. nana, however, these are scarcely worthy of taxonomic recognition.

Hybrids:

Q. chrysolepis X Q. tomentella

Q. chrysolepis X Q. vaccinifolia

In the mountains of central and southeastern Arizona, Q. chrysolepis hybridizes freely with Q. dunnii. In California, however, they are completely isolated ecologically.

Varieties:

var. nana Jeps.

This name has been applied to almost any shrubby form of Q. chrysolepis throughout its range. Munz' (1959) suggestion that this variety is "possibly a hybrid with Q. vaccinifolia" may well apply to shrubby forms found at higher elevations in the Sierra Nevada, but not to the numerous chaparral forms throughout the Coast Ranges and the mountains of southern California (Myatt 1975).

10. Quercus dunnii Kell. (Q. chrysolepis subsp. palmeri Engelm.; Q. palmeri Engelm.)

Dunn Oak (Palmer Oak)

Hybrids: See comment under Q. chrysolepis.

The name Quercus palmeri Engelm. is used for this oak by some authors; however, strict adherence to the rule of priority (Article 11, International Code of Botanical Nomenclature, 1972) dictates the use of the name Quercus dunnii Kell.

Kellogg published the name and original description of Q. dunnii in the Pacific Rural Press (a weekly farm newspaper!) in June, 1879. Engelmann, however, had previously named another collection of this oak Quercus palmeri in 1877; but in doing so, he designated it a subspecies of Q. chrysolepis -- not a distinct species. Although he did elevate it to full specific rank in a later publication (October, 1879), this was 4 months after Kellogg published Q. dunnii.

11. Quercus tomentella Engelm.

Island Oak

Hybrids:

Q. tomentella X Q. chrysolepis

12. Quercus vaccinifolia Kell. (Q. chrysolepis subsp. vaccinifolia Engelm.) Huckleberry Oak

Hybrids: Q. vaccinifolia X Q. chrysolepis

Black or Red Oaks (Subgenus Erythrobalanus)

13. Quercus agrifolia Née (Q. acutiglandis Kell.; Q. pricei Sudw.) Coast Live Oak

The name Quercus pricei Sudworth has long been a source of confusion to Californian botanists. In my judgment it is best considered a synonym of Q. agrifolia.

The type specimen of Quercus pricei (Geo. B. Sudworth Aug. 20, 1904, U.S. National Herbarium No. 1583367) is clearly Q. agrifolia in most characteristics: the acorns are annual in maturation -- not biennial, as stated by Sudworth (1907, 1908), the leaves are slightly to moderately convex above, and on the under side usually bear tufts of pubescence in the axils of the secondary veins. Some of the leaves, however, are slightly more pointed apically than is typical for Q. agrifolia -- in this character they are slightly suggestive of Q. wislizenii.

A series of 4 collections recently made at the type locality, Dani's Ranch, Monterey County (N.H. Cheatham, 29 Sept., 1978) are all Q. agrifolia. None of them showed any indication of hybridity with Q. wislizenii, although Cheatham reported that the latter species was in the general area.

Hybrids:

Q. agrifolia X Q. kelloggii: Quercus X chasei McMinn, Babcock, & Righter
Q. agrifolia X Q. wislizenii

Varieties:

var. frutescens Engelm.
var. oxyadenia (Torr.) J. T. Howell

Hybrids:

Q. agrifolia. var. oxyadenia X Q. kelloggii: Quercus X ganderi C. B. Wolf

14. Quercus kelloggii Newb. (Q. tinctoria var. californica Torr.; Q. californica Cooper; Q. sonomensis Benth.)

California Black Oak

Shrubby forms, mostly at higher elevations, were named forma cibata by Jepson.

Hybrids:

Q. kelloggii X Q. agrifolia: Quercus X chasei McMinn, Babcock & Righter
Q. kelloggii X Q. agrifolia var. oxyadenia: Quercus X ganderi C. B. Wolf
Q. kelloggii X Q. wislizenii: Quercus X morehus Kell.

15. Quercus wislizenii A. DC. (Q. parvula Greene; Q. shrevei C. H. Muller) Interior Live Oak

Quercus wislizenii is characteristic of the woodland association of interior foothills and lower mountain slopes in California, as its common name implies. The species as a whole is rather diverse ecologically, however, and several generally recognizable forms, noted below, are often correlated with specific habitats. These may merit taxonomic recognition, as varieties or subspecies; in fact, names have been applied to some of them.

1. The most prevalent form is the commonly spreading, round-headed tree of interior foothill woodland.

2. A shrubby form is common in chaparral areas and is the prevalent form in the mountains of southern California (var. *frutescens* Engelm.).

3. A form with unusually large, oblong leaves, which may be a tall tree on the borders of redwood groves, is frequent in the Santa Cruz and Santa Lucia Mountains. The name *Quercus shrevei* C. H. Muller was applied to a similar form of *Q. wislizenii* from the Santa Lucia's (Palo Colorado Canyon, Monterey Co., about four miles from the ocean) although it was described as a small tree 4-6 m. tall, with small, evergreen leaves growing scattered in the chaparral of ridgetops (Muller 1938).

4. A shrubby form on Santa Cruz Island was described as *Quercus parvula* Greene. Munz (1959) treated this name as a synonym of var. *frutescens* Engelm., the chaparral form of the mainland; but shrubs of this insular form, growing in the University of California Arboretum at Davis, seem distinctly different, having larger, less spiny leaves, larger and more pubescent buds, and more blunt and pubescent acorns. *Quercus parvula* probably merits recognition as a variety distinct from the var. *frutescens*.

Mr. Kevin C. Nixon, a graduate student at the University of California, Santa Barbara, is currently making a detailed study of *Quercus wislizenii* (sensu lato). His views are quite similar to those expressed above.

Hybrids:

Q. wislizenii X *Q. agrifolia*
Q. wislizenii X *Q. kelloggii*: *Quercus morehus* Kell.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my thanks to Mr. Tim R. Plumb and Dr. James R. Griffin for helpful suggestions in preparing this paper, and to them, and Mr. Kevin C. Nixon and Dr. Ralph N. Philbrick, for reviewing the manuscript.

My thanks are due, also, to the curator of the U.S. National Herbarium for the loan of the type specimen of *Quercus pricei*.

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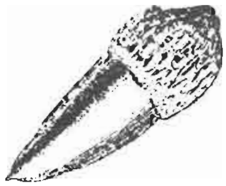

Quercus agrifolia

Natural Hybridization Between Two Evergreen Black Oaks in the North Central Coast Ranges of California[1]

Michael C. Vasey 2/

Abstract: Hybridization between coast and interior live oaks is recognized and appears to be concentrated in the northern portion of their overlapping ranges. A hybrid index analysis of selected populations of these species along a 175-mile north/south gradient confirms this observation, and an examination of the fossil record suggests a reason for this pattern of concentration. After a long period of isolation, ancestors of these two oaks converged during the Middle Pliocene and dramatic oscillations of climate in California since that time provided ample opportunity for hybrid establishment particularly at their range extremes in the north central Coast Ranges. It is suggested that this study could be improved by incorporating Quercus kelloggii into a computerized hybrid analysis of all three species.

INTRODUCTION

Although California's two evergreen black oaks, Quercus agrifolia Née and Q. wislizenii A. D.C., are well recognized species, the possibility of natural hybridization between the two has been minimally investigated and found to exist. Griffin and Critchfield (1972) reported that in Mendocino County, at the northern extreme of Q. agrifolia's distribution, this species seems to hybridize readily with Q. wislizenii so that it is difficult to tell where the coast live oak distribution ends. Well-documented evidence of hybridization between these two species was first published by Brophy and Parnell (1974). By means of a hybrid index analysis, they discovered significant degrees of hybrid activity between four sympatric populations of the two live oaks in Contra Costa County. Although Griffin and Critchfield (1972) mention a senior thesis which focuses on such hybridization in the Santa Cruz Mountains (Thomas 1970), I could not obtain a copy.

This study was motivated by the long-term observations of Dr. G. L. Stebbins, who noted the apparent extensive hybridization in Mendocino and was impressed by the lack of such hybridization in more southerly regions of the Coast Ranges where the two species are sympatric. As Visiting Professor at San Francisco State University, Dr. Stebbins conducted a graduate seminar in which he and nine students attempted to (1) analyse and document the extent of hybridization between selected populations of the two species along an approximate 175 mile transect from southern Mendocino Co. to the San Mateo/Santa Cruz Co. line and (2) investigate the possible causes for greater hybridization in the north than in the south.

METHOD OF STUDY

Two control populations were selected upon which the subsequent hybrid studies were based. The Q. agrifolia controls came from a presumably

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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pure population near San Bruno on the San Francisco Peninsula and the Q. wislizenii controls from a stand in the Sierra Nevada foothills near Ione. Two sympatric localities were sampled, Saratoga Gap and Phoenix Lake, and two less distinct sympatric populations near Hopland in Mendocino Co. were incorporated. These four sympatric populations covered as much of a north to south gradient as was possible within the scope of the survey. Finally, two additional allopatric populations were selected, Q. agrifolia from Hamilton Base and Q. wislizenii from Lake Co. Table 1 provides pertinent data regarding these eight populations.

We collected population samples in early February, 1978, removing one typical branch from ca. thirty mature trees per locality. These were labeled, sealed, and stored in large plastic bags in a cold storage chamber. We initially evaluated the control samples in terms of the best morphological distinctions between the two species and determined only thirteen characters of potential significance. Each member of our group then scored an equal share of specimens. Concerted efforts were made to unify the group's evaluation of each of the characters. Based upon the accumulated data, Dr. Stebbins selected eight of these characters that provided the most legitimate contrast between the two controls. In view of the small number of characters developed, we analysed the results by means of an Andersonian hybrid index. Three of the characters were deemed of sufficient distinction to merit weighting. Hence a total of eleven values were assigned to each specimen. Table 2 lists the final characters, those weighted, and the values involved in scoring each individual.

The question of geographically differential hybridization was approached by investigating the possibility of more effective reproductive isolation in the south due to different pollination timing mechanisms and by examining the evolutionary history of the two species. The efforts expended in exploring the former did not prove to be particularly fruitful. However, this possibility was not ruled out. Some evidence suggested that the timing of Q. wislizenii's pollination is cued by photoperiod response whereas Q. agrifolia's is not, and this may be a contributing factor in keeping the two species apart in the south where Q. agrifolia may bloom earlier due to thermal response.

Table 1--Population locality data.

Population	Location	Elevation	Plant Associations[1/]	Habit
San Bruno	Junipero Serra Co. Park, off I-280, San Bruno, San Mateo Co.	60 m	Mixed Hardwood F., Q. agrifolia-Arbutus	spreading trees, 10-16 m high
Ione	Off Hwy 88 ca. .8 km east of junction Rte 124, Amador Co.	90 m	Foothill Woodland	small trees, ca. 10 m high
Saratoga Gap	Along Hwy 9, .3-1.8 km SW of Hwy 35, San Mateo/Santa Cruz Co. line	670 m	Mixed Hardwood F., Arbutus-Lithocarpus	varied trees, 3-12 m high
Phoenix Lake	Along Phoenix & Crown Rds., .8 km SE of Phoenix Lake, Marin Co.	180 m	Mixed Hardwood F., Q. agrifolia-Arbutus & Chaparral	varied trees, 3-10 m high
Hamilton Base	Ca. .4 km SW of Hamilton AFB at entrance to Pacheco Valley Ave, Marin Co.	60 m	Mixed Hardwood F. Q. agrifolia-Arbutus	spreading trees, 10-14 m high
Lake County	Along Hwy 175 ca. 16 km E of U.S. 101, Lake Co.	720 m	Chaparral	shrubby trees, 2-4 m high
Hopland Entrance	Ca. .3 km from junction Hwy 175 & rd. to UCD Field Sta., Hopland, Mendocino Co.	240 m	Foothill Woodland/ Northern Oak Woodland	medium trees, 4-10 m high
Hopland Headquarters	Vicinity of Bunkhouse, UCD Field Sta., Hopland, Mendocino Co.	240 m	Foothill Woodland/ Northern Oak Woodland	spreading trees, 6-16 m high

[1/] Plant associations according to Barber and Major (1977).

Table 2--Index values of character states.

Character	Q. agrifolia Index Value (1)	Q. wislizenii Index Value (2)
1. Length to width leaf ratio	.57 - .79	.33 - .56
2. Number of secondary veins	6 - 11	12 - 22
3. Leaf concavity[1/]	+	+/- and -
4. Leaf concavity	+/- and +	-
5. Abaxial hairs[1/]	+	+/- and -
6. Abaxial hairs	+/- and +	-
7. Number of trichome rays	8 - 14	5 - 7
8. Max. width of lateral veins[1/]	.19 - .40 mm	.07 - .18 mm
9. Max. width of lateral veins	.27 - .40 mm	.07 - .26 mm
10. Mean size ultimate areoles	.020 - .046 mm	.047 - .080 mm
11. Length terminal bud scales	1 - 3.9 mm	4 - 7 mm
Maximum Hybrid Index Values	11	22

1/ Indicates the characters weighted to give double values.

The evolutionary analysis took place in three stages: (1) Dr. Stebbins visited Dr. D. I. Axelrod at U.C. Davis, who provided data regarding all known localities of the presumed fossil antecedents of the two subject species and the approximate dates of the fossil floras in which they were located; (2) all available literature regarding these fossils, their floras and their photographs was reviewed; and (3) Dr. Stebbins and I visited the Department of Paleontology at U.C. Berkeley and consulted with Dr. Howard Schorn and examined key fossils pertaining to the study.

RESULTS

The results of the hybridization analysis are graphically portrayed by histograms (fig. 1) which plot the frequency distribution of the total hybrid index values obtained for each individual sampled per population. The great majority of individuals from San Bruno (86 percent) scored between 11-13 and those from Ione (97 percent) scored from 20-22. These two sets of values were interpreted to represent, respectively, the ranges of variation for pure Q. agrifolia and pure Q. wislizenii. Individuals possessing scores midway between these two extremes (16-17) were construed to represent F_1 generation hybrid types. Finally, specimens which scored between the extreme and mean values (14-15 and 18-19) were interpreted to represent, respectively, introgressed Q. agrifolia types and introgressed Q. wislizenii types.

Briefly stated, introgression represents the repeated backcrossing of a natural hybrid to an ecologically dominant parent which results in the introduction of the germ plasm from the less adapted species into the gene pool of the most highly adapted species for the particular environment (Anderson 1949). This process results in progeny which favor the dominant species in a majority of characters but nevertheless reveal a small number of features characteristic of the other parent.

As anticipated, of the four sympatric populations, Saratoga Gap presented the fewest intermediates (16 percent), this number increased dramatically further north at Phoenix Lake (54 percent), and the Mendocino populations were nearly bereft of pure species, possessing 87 percent and 80 percent intermediates at, respectively, Hopland Entrance and Hopland H.Q. In reality, the Hopland H.Q. population did not consist of two sympatric species since none of the individuals scored as pure Q. agrifolia. On the other hand, the Hopland Entrance population, which was nearer to the large valley in which the town of Hopland is located, included sympatric individuals of both parental species and appeared to constitute a classic hybrid swarm with few pure species, a large percentage of introgressive types varying in each direction (47 percent) and a significant number (40 percent) of F_1 hybrid types. These findings correlated well with field observations and tend to confirm the suspected north to south hybridization gradient.

The findings with respect to the two allopatric populations (Hamilton Base and Lake Co.) were, on the contrary, quite surprising. Although the habitat and physiognomy of the trees at Hamilton Base strongly resembled the control population at San Bruno, only 33 percent of the population scored in the range of pure Q. agrifolia whereas 23 percent scored as introgressive Q. agrifolia types and a

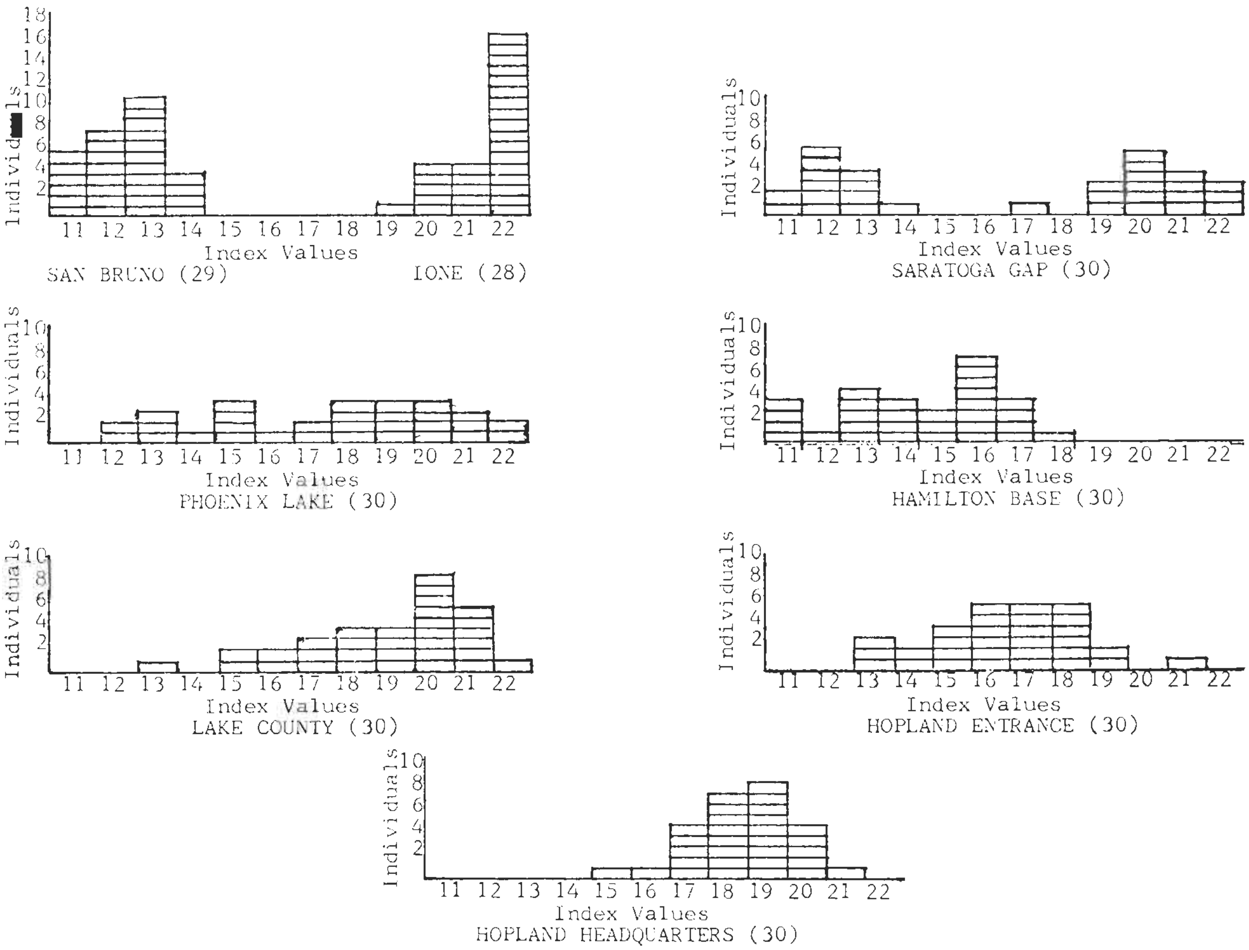

Figure 1--Frequency distribution of hybrid index values with extremes of 11 for Q. agrifolia and 22 for Q. wislizenii.

remarkable 40 percent appeared to represent F_1 hybrid types. Similary, although the Lake Co. population looked like the typical shrubby Q. wislizenii frequently associated with high chaparral throughout the Coast Ranges, the hybrid index values reveal that less than half of the population scored as pure. Since hybrid individuals occur in these populations in spite of the present absence of one of the putative parent species, either these trees represent progeny derived from ancestors which once existed in more sympatric populations and produced fertile hybrids, or some other factor not considered in the present study must account for these results. These two possibilities will be discussed below.

Although the fossil record of Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii is not extensive, it does provide certain key insights into the evolutionary history of the two species. A very ancient fossil, Q. distincta Lesq. from the Eocene Chalk Bluffs Flora, has been interpreted to represent an ancestor of Q. agrifolia (MacGinitie 1941). This fossil is ca. 55 million years (m.y.) old[3/] and, according to MacGinitie, was part of a humid, subtropical flora which now finds its closest modern counterpart in the tierra templada of the eastern Sierra Madre Mnts. of Mexico. Thus, a plausible ancestor to Q. agrifolia is documented in the early Tertiary of California, a distinction shared by few other modern elements of California's vegetation.

Over the next thirty-plus million years the fossil record is silent with respect to these species. When evidence of their existence resurfaces in the Miocene, a clear pattern emerges with respect to their status and distribution. The oldest known locality

3/ Personal communication, H. Schorn.

for Q. wislizenii's fossil antecedent, Q. wislizenoides, is the Middlegate Flora of western Nevada and the fossils found there clearly demonstrate that Q. wislizenii had completely differentiated by this time and superficially did not differ from the modern species. This fossil flora has been dated at ca. 18 m.y. of age and included many deciduous hardwoods, conifers, and other sclerophyllous trees typical of a mild continental climate. As is demonstrated by the west Sierra Nevadan Remington Hill Flora (ca. 9 m.y. old) and the central Coast Range Mulholland Flora (ca. 7 m.y. old), Q. wislizenoides and several of its Middlegate associates were forced to retreat from the interior west as a result of Sierran uplift and a warmer and drier climate. By the Middle Pliocene, this western migration resulted in Q. wislizenoides being well established in California's Coast Ranges.

Q. agrifolia's recent fossil record is less satisfactory but, as indicated by the reported existence of its fossil relative, Q. lakevillensis, in the 12 m.y. old Mint Canyon and the 7.5 m.y. old Mt. Eden Floras, it then apparently existed in a frostless, subhumid association which prevailed over much of southern California. Axelrod (1977) has compared this association, characterized by avocado, palm, laurel and other sclerophylls, to the so-called hammock flora of Florida. The fossil record suggests that this flora, and a contemporaneous coastal closed-cone conifer forest of which Q. lakevillensis was most likely a member, moved up along California's coast during the Lower Pliocene, reaching its most northerly distribution in the Middle Pliocene. By 6.5 m.y. ago, as is indicated by the Petaluma Flora, Q. lakevillensis was also present in the central Coast Range and, at least by this time, had the opportunity to exist in sympatric populations with Q. wislizenoides.

Hence, after an extended period of geographic isolation during which these two species differentiated into their modern forms, they came together by the Middle Pliocene as climatic and physiographic changes favored a convergence of their two respective vegetation types. Since that time, a gradual cooling and at least four major glacial advances and retreats have had a dramatic affect on the evolution of California's flora (Raven and Axelrod 1978) and, undoubtedly as well, on the opportunity for sucessful establishment of hybrids between these two live oaks.

DISCUSSION

This limited survey suggests that a substantial amount of hybridization has occurred between Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii, particularly in their northern sympatric range where approximately 65 percent of the individuals which were sampled from populations north of San Francisco Bay demonstrated some degree of hybridity. Muller (1952) proposed that speciation in Quercus is primarily a function of geographic isolation, paleoecology, contemporary ecology (accompanied by convergence) and hybridization. The evolutionary analysis described above follows this pattern and suggests that the underlying cause for the north/south hybridization gradient relates to the interaction of two ecologically dissimilar species capable of exchanging genes which came into contact at least 5 m.y. ago and which, in a region of mutual stress at range extremes, produced hybrid derivatives more highly adapted to habitats created by the vicissitudes of the recent Pleistocene than either of the parent species. Muller (1952) and Tucker (1952) also reached similar conclusions in studies involving hybridization in Quercus, and Nobs (1963) cites fossil evidence which suggests that a similar convergence of maritime and continental species of Ceanothus during the Middle Pliocene in the same geographic region, the north central Coast Ranges, resulted in an explosion of speciation in that genus.

This interpretation may account for the surprising percentage of hybrids found in the allopatric populations at Hamilton Base and Lake Co. An alternative explanation, however, relates to one of the drawbacks to this study - i.e., the fact that a third member of the black oak subgenus in California, Q. kelloggii Newb., was not considered in the hybridization analysis. Q. kelloggii is a deciduous oak of northern affinities with deeply lobed leaves which, because of its distinctiveness in contrast to the two evergreen black oaks, was soon recognized as a hybridizing parent in crosses with both Q. wislizenii (Q. X morehus Kell.) and Q. agrifolia (Q. X chaseii McMinn). Although this species was not observed at the Lake Co. site, there are several individuals in the Hamilton Base vicinity. Therefore, this species may have influenced the results from that locality as well as elsewhere by contributing genes to the individuals sampled.

Another drawback to this study was our inability to utilize fruiting characteristics because of the extremely poor acorn set in the populations sampled, possibly due to the two year drought preceding the study. Q. agrifolia is unique amongst all other black oaks in its ability to set mature acorns in one year, whereas the remainder of black oaks require two years, and consideration of this character would undoubtedly have helped in recognizing hybrids.

Jensen and Eshbaugh (1976) demonstrated the value of computerized cluster and principal component analysis in distinguishing the interrelations between three sympatric species of black oaks in the eastern U.S. and they were critical of studies in which all possible putative parents are not considered for the chief reason, as suggested above, that such studies preclude an evaluation of the impact of potential contributors to the gene systems of the individuals sampled. This computerized approach requires a large number of characters in order to be accurate and, if acorn characteristics and the distinctive features of Q. kelloggii were included, it is likely that the Jensen and Eshbaugh techniques could be successfully applied to a study of the precise relationships between the three California black oaks and such a study could conceivably be of great value in clarifying these relationships.

In the absence of such a study, however, the evidence of hybridization between Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii will presumably continue to accumulate and the question of according taxonomic status to their recognizable progeny must ultimately be considered. The chief argument in favor of such recognition is that the taxonomic identity is incorporated into regional floras and, thus, communicates the existence of recognizable hybrids to the greatest number of field observers. Perhaps the best argument against this alternative is that it may be literally impossible to provide an adequate description of a type hybrid and the attempt might actually create more confusion than vice versa. In any case, it is reasonably clear that further attention should be devoted to this subject.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Without the inspiration and dedication of Dr. G. L. Stebbins, this paper would not have been possible, and I would also like to thank Dr. Axelrod and Dr. Schorn for their contributions to the evolutionary analysis and Drs. J. R. Griffin and J. R. Sweeney for constructive comments regarding this presentation. The following graduate students at S.F. State were also instrumental in accomplishing this study: C. Bern, H. Chapot, K. Culligan, M. Elliott, E. Gerry, M. Hewlett, P. Sheldon, and D. Showers.

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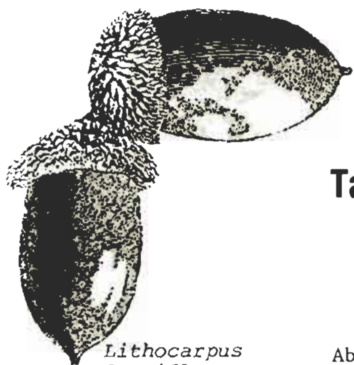

Lithocarpus densiflorus

Tanoak (*Lithocarpus densiflorus*) Leaf Surface Characteristics[1]

M.G. King and S.R. Radosevich[2]

Abstract: Abaxial (lower) and adaxial (upper) surfaces of mature and immature tanoak leaves were characterized. Three types of trichomes (stellate, glandular, and uniseriate) are found on each surface of both mature and immature leaves. Tanoak leaves have stomata only on lower surfaces and the stomatal complex lacks distinct subsidiary cells. Stomata morphology, wax ultrasturcture and cuticular membrane morphology are described.

INTRODUCTION

Tanoak (Lithocarpus densiflorus (H. & A.) Rehd.) is a hardwood, evergreen tree species. It attains a height of 65 to 130 ft. (20 to 40 m) but often occurs in a large shrub-like form as a result of sprouting (usually after fire or other disturbance) and subsequent growth of the dominant stems. It ranges from southwestern Oregon to Santa Barbara, California. Tanoak also occurs in the northern Sierra Nevada, principally between the Feather and American rivers (Fowells, 1965). In the Coast Ranges of California, tanoak is the most abundant hardwood present in timber stands. In Mendocino and Sonoma counties an estimated 169,000 ha (27 percent of the total commercial forest land) is occupied by tanoak (Oswald, 1972). Most (97 percent) of the hardwood type is on land capable of producing conifers (Oswald, 1972).

McDonald (1977) has described the potential economic uses of tanoak. However, in many areas tanoak is considered a problem weed tree. Tanoak can completely dominate a site after logging or fire. Vigorous sprouting, prolific seed production, and rapid early seedling growth enable tanoak to successfully compete with conifers such as Douglas-fir and redwood. Removing hardwood tree competition results in substantial increases in conifer stem enlargement (Radosevich et al., 1976). On heavily infested sites, tanoak control is considered necessary prior to establishing conifers.

Foliar herbicide applications are often limited in effectiveness on old tanoak growth, possibly because of poor absorption through the foliage. Leaf surface features influence wetting, retention, and absorption of foliar applied chemicals (Hull, 1970). King and Radosevich (1979) found that enhanced absorption of ^{14}C-triclopyr (a promising brush control herbicide) was associated with greater stomata densities, lesser amounts of surface wax, greater stellate trichome densities and thinner, more permeable cuticular membranes.

A knowledge of leaf surface characteristics has potential uses for taxonomic studies. Some leaf surface structures can be considered as adaptive plant responses to the environment. In this paper, we describe thoroughly both adaxial and abaxial surfaces of mature and immature tanoak leaves.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material

Tanoak acorns were collected in the North Coast Range, Mendocino County, California. After germination, the seedlings were grown in a lath house. To maintain active growth during the winter, all plants were moved to a controlled environment growth chamber. Leaf material was collected near Laytonville, California, and at the Blodgett Forest Research

[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Managment, and Utilization of California Oaks, Pomona, CA. June 25-27, 1979.

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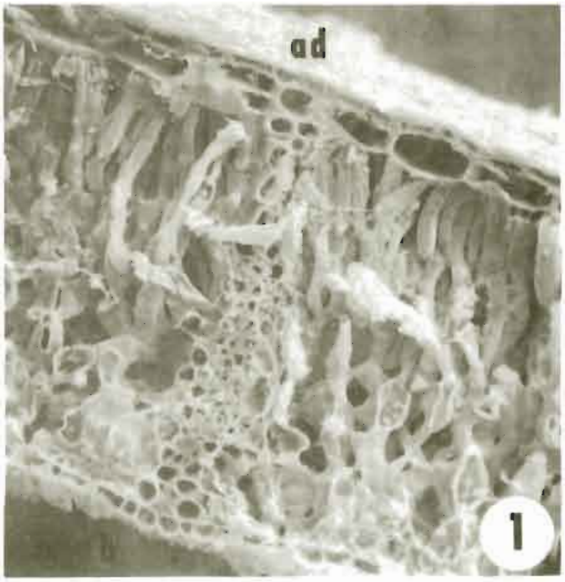


Figure 1. Scanning electron micrograph (SEM) of a cross section of a mature tanoak leaf (Blodgett), critical point dried, gold-coated. Adaxial surface (ad), and abaxial surface (ab). X300.

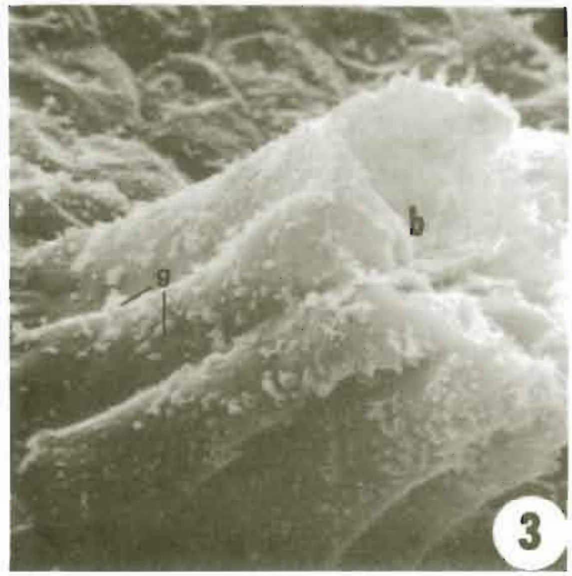


Figure 3. SEM of a base of stellate trichome on the adaxial surface of an immature tanoak leaf (growth chamber), gold-coated, critical point dried. Wax globules (g). X2480.

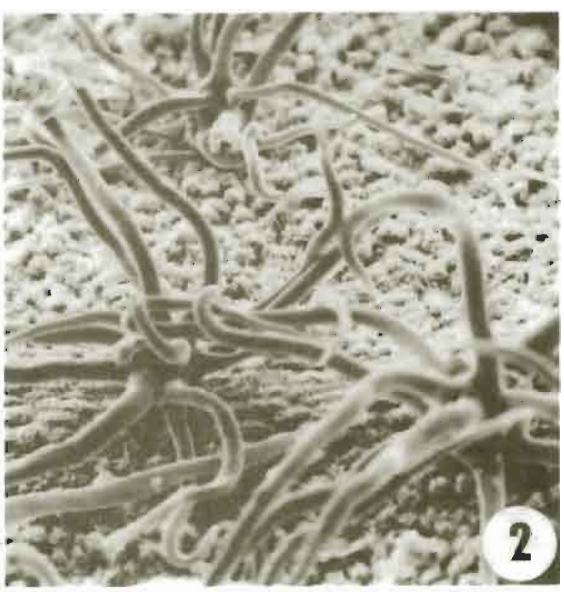


Figure 2. SEM of asymetrically-shaped stellate trichomes on the abaxial surface of a mature tanoak leaf (Laytonville), oven-dried, gold-coated. X230.

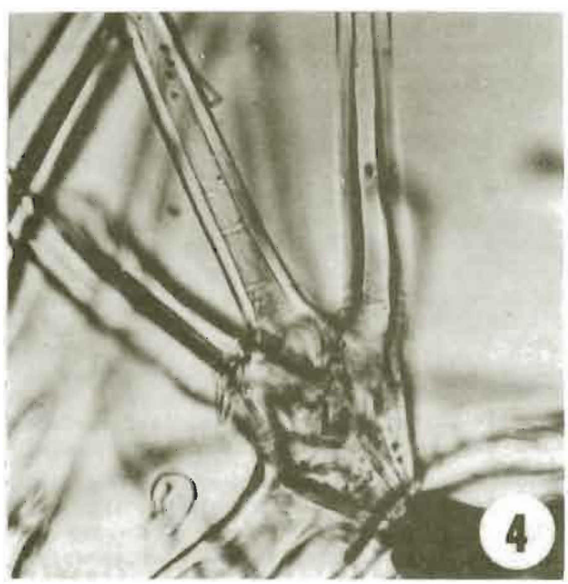


Figure 4. Light micrograph of a stellate trichome (lt). X310.

Station near Georgetown, California. The methods used to store and preserve both growth chamber and field collected material have been described by King (1978).

In all studies mature leaves were a dark green color, glabrate, fully expanded and averaged 2.4 in. (6.0 cm) in length. Immature leaves were a pale green color, densely pubescent, averaged .8 in (2.0 cm) in length and were neither fully expanded nor hardened.

Surface Investigation

The methods used for determining epicuticular wax quantities and ultrastructure, stomata densities, trichome types and distribution and cuticular membrane thickness and morphology have been described (King, 1978; King and Radosevich, 1979). Epidermal anatomy and stomatal morphology were investigated by viewing leaf cross sections under a scanning electron microscope (SEM). Cross sections were cut free-hand from fresh leaves from growth chamber grown plants. They were fixed in FAA (Sass, 1958), dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (50 to 100%), transferred to amyl acetate, critical point dried (Anderson, 1951), and gold-coated. Viability of the cells comprising the various trichome types was determined by staining fresh leaf cross sections with fluorescein diacetate (Widholm, 1972). Cells which were viable fluoresced a bright yellow-green color. Embedded waxes in the cuticular membrane were observed using the polarized light microscopic technique of Norris and Bukovac (1968).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Epidermis

An SEM micrograph of a mature tanoak leaf cross section is shown in figure 1. The upper epidermis is composed of two cell layers. The upper of these is composed of small rectangular shaped cells (in cross section) which are thick walled (see fig. 11 also). The lower cell layer is composed of much larger cells which also have thick walls. Abaxial epidermal cells have rounded outer periclinal cell walls which give the abaxial leaf surface a more undulating aspect than the adaxial surface.

Trichomes

Immature tanoak leaves are densely pubescent on both surfaces. Mature leaves are tough, leathery and nearly glabrous. Three distinct trichome types (stellate, glandular, and uniseriate simple) are found on both surfaces of tanoak leaves, regardless of age. In figures 2 and 4, the asymetrical stellate trichome is shown. Many specialized epidermal cells form a base upon which the stellate trichome sits (fig. 3). The arms of this trichome are thick walled and have no septa (fig. 4). Stellate trichome density is significantly greater on immature than mature leaves and on abaxial rather than adaxial surfaces (table 1). Neither cellular contents nor cytoplasmic streaming were observed in cells comprising stellate trichomes. None of the component cells gave a positive reaction (fluoresced) to fluorescein diacetate even on the youngest leaves observed.

Table 1. Surface characteristics of tanoak leaves.[1/]

Leaf Age	Leaf Surface	Stomata[2/] (No./mm^2)	Trichomes[3/] (No./mm^2)	Cuticular Membrane Thickness[3/] (um)
Immature	Abaxial	890	54.9a	1.2a
	Adaxial	---	33.5b	1.0a
Mature	Abaxial	555	12.1c	3.7b
	Adaxial	---	2.1d	4.4c

[1/] Taken from King and Radosevich (1979).

[2/] Means differ significantly at $t_{.05}$.

[3/] Means followed by the same letter do not differ significantly at the 5% level, Duncan's Multiple Range test.

Figure 5 shows the glandular trichome found on tanoak leaf surfaces. Glandular trichomes are more abundant on immature than mature leaves and on abaxial rather than adaxial surfaces. This type of trichome has a multicellular (more than eight cells), globose head on a uniseriate stalk composed of 3 to 4 cells. The cells comprising the head often contain a dense, red-brown material. One or more viable cells were found about 30 percent of the time in the glandular trichomes.

The simple, uniseriate trichome (fig. 6, 7a) is composed of 3 to 4 cells, is derived from a single epidermal cell, and frequently is bent horizontally on the leaf surface. The basal or apical cells of the uniseriate trichome fluoresced 56 percent of the time but seldom did all the component cells.

Little is known about the uniseriate and glandular trichome types. However, stellate trichomes may have many physiological functions (Uphof, 1962). Initially they may hold

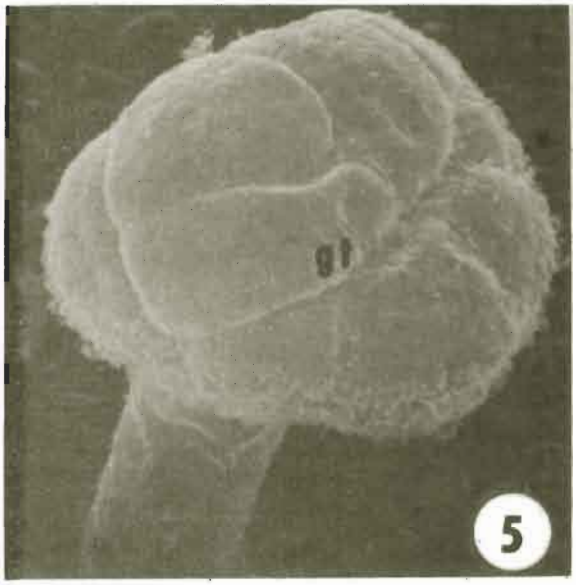


Figure 5. SEM of a glandular trichome (gt). Leaf was critical point dried, gold-coated. X1410.

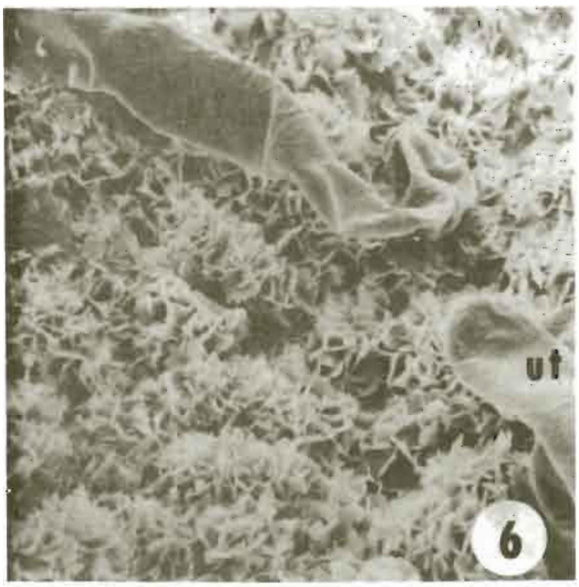
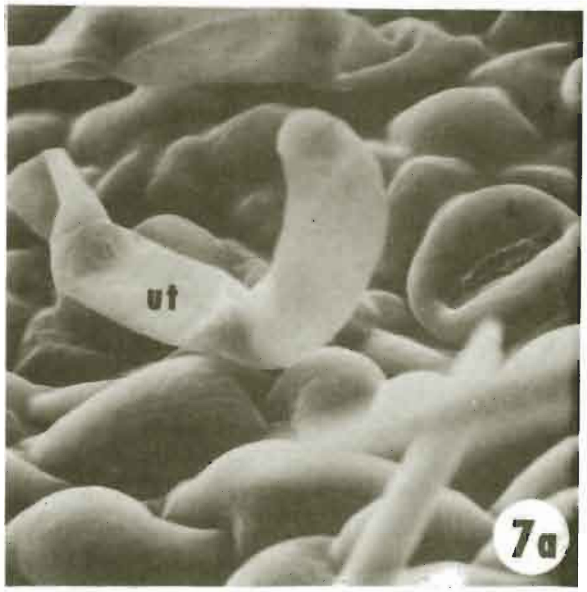


Figure 6. SEM of uniseriate trichomes, platelet wax on the abaxial surface of tanoak leaves (Blodgett), oven-dried, gold-coated. Uniseriate trichome (ut). X1150.



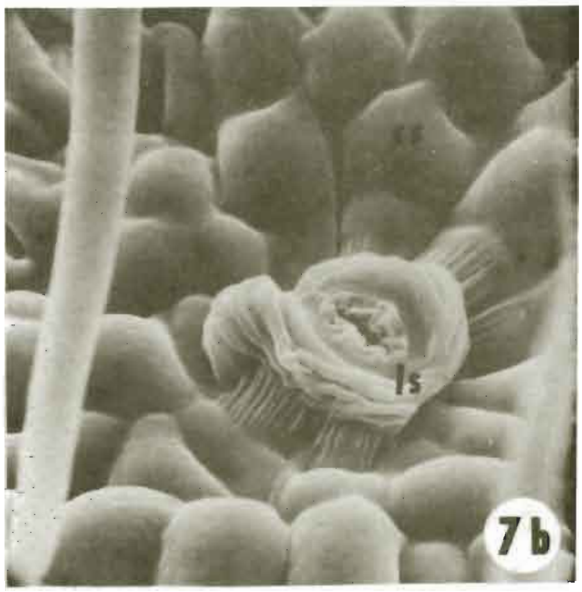


Figure 7. SEM of the abaxial surface (wax removed) of mature tanoak leaves (Blodgett). a) Oven-dried leaf, gold-coated. Uniseriate trichome (ut), normal stomata (s). X1260. b) Oven-dried leaf, gold-coated. Large stomata (ls), cuticular membrane surface (cs). X1164.

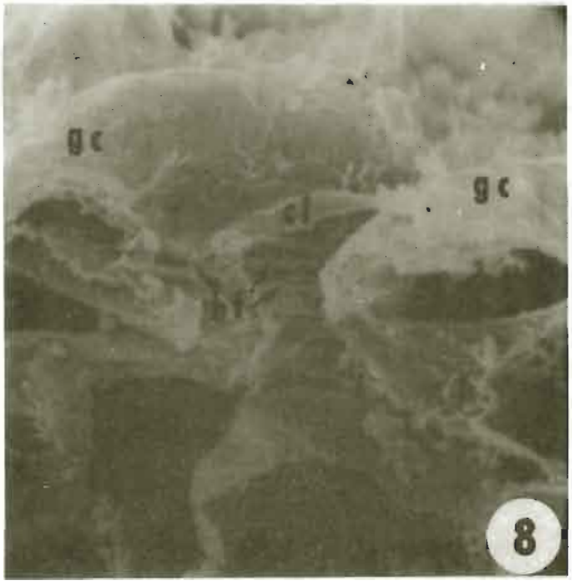


Figure 8. SEM of a cross section of a stomata on a mature tanoak leaf (Blodgett), critical point dried, gold-coated. Guard cells (gc), cuticular ledge (cl) and baffles (bf). X5020.

Figure 10. SEM of the adaxial surface of a mature tanoak leaf (Blodgett). Oven dried, gold-coated. Wax globules (g), base of stellate trichome (b). X780.

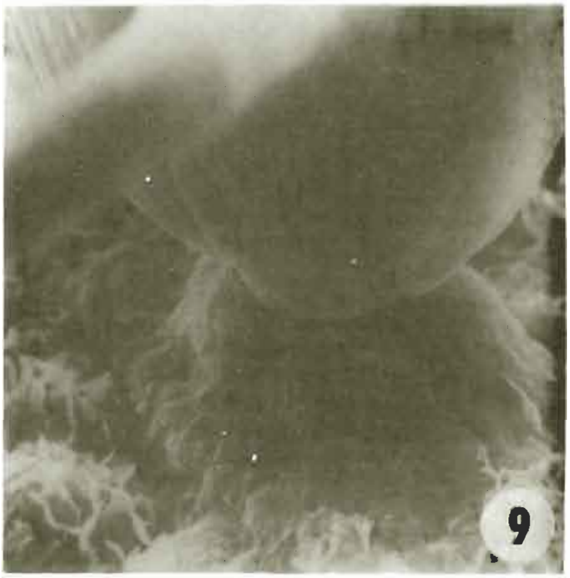


Figure 9. SEM of the abaxial surface of a mature tanoak leaf (Laytonville) showing attachment of the stellate trichome (lt) to its base (b). X1450.

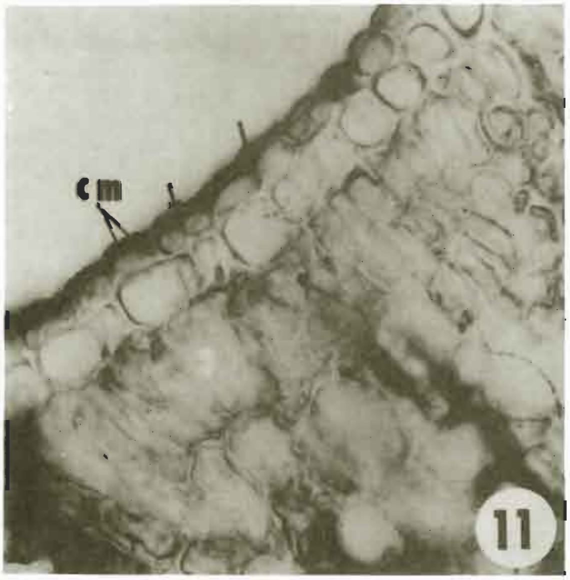


Figure 11. Light micrograph of a fresh, free-hand, cross section of the adaxial surface of a mature tanoak leaf (growth chamber), stained with a mixture of Sudan III and Sudan IV. Cuticular membrane (cm). Note cuticular pegs or flanges (arrows). X390.

the developing leaves together in the bud. After bud-break, they can protect the young leaves from dessication by increasing the vapor boundary layer thickness. A dense stellate trichome covering might also reduce the amount of insolation and help keep leaf temperatures from becoming excessive (Uphof, 1962).

Stomata

Tanoak leaves have no stomata on adaxial surfaces. Stomata are more dense on abaxial surfaces of immature than mature leaves (table 1). The stomatal complex has no distinct subsidiary cell (fig. 7a), which agrees with earlier descriptions of this species (Camus, 1954). Occasionally stomata which are morphologically different (fig. 7b) from the normal type (fig. 7a) were encountered on lower surfaces of mature and immature leaves. The guard cells of the "large" type (fig. 7b) have a convoluted surface aspect and the cuticular membrane surface of the surrounding epidermal cells is somewhat striated. Guard cells of the "normal" type have an unusual pear-shaped appearance in cross section. Baffles on the interior of the pore surface (fig. 8) and a cuticular ledge over the upper portion of the pore were observed. Both of these features reduce the effective pore diameter and increase diffusive resistance which may aid in water conservation.

Cuticle

Tanoak leaves are heavily waxed in comparison to many herbaceous species. Much greater amounts of wax were found on mature (200 ug/cm^2) than immature (82 ug/cm^2) tanoak leaves (King and Radosevich, 1979). The dried extracted waxes are a pale yellow-brown and are sometimes translucent. Wax ultrastructure on tanoak leaves has been previously described (King and Radosevich, 1979). Long thin wax ridges are found on the abaxial surfaces of immature tanoak leaves but cover little of the total surface area. Wax globules are scattered randomly over the adaxial surfaces of immature leaves (fig. 3). Dense formations of wax platelets superimposed on an amorphous wax sheet are found on the abaxial surfaces of mature leaves (fig. 6,9). However, wax platelets are seldom observed on stellate trichome bases on the abaxial surfaces of mature leaves (fig. 9). No platelets or wax ridges were seen on the adaxial surfaces of tanoak leaves regardless of age. A thick, amorphous sheet of wax completely covers the adaxial surfaces of mature leaves (fig. 10).

The cuticular membrane is significantly thicker on mature than immature tanoak leaves (table 1). A polarized light technique (Norris and Bukovac, 1968) indicated that embedded waxes are present in both adaxial and abaxial cuticular membranes of mature leaves. Extensions of the cuticular membrane over the anticlinal adaxial epidermal cell walls were noted on mature leaves (fig. 11).

SUMMARY

Tanoak leaves undergo marked changes as they mature. The stellate trichome density on mature leaves is 16 percent of that present on immature leaves (King, 1978). The frequency of the glandular and uniseriate trichome types also declines with age. Stomata density on mature leaves is 62 percent of that on immature leaves. Epicuticular wax quantities increase with age and the wax ultrastructure changes markedly on both surfaces. Mature leaves have a thicker, less permeable cuticular membrane than immature leaves.

Stellate trichomes on tanoak leaf surfaces may provide mechanical protection to young, developing leaves. By increasing the vapor boundary layer (thus increasing diffusive resistance) they may protect the leaf from excessive water loss. Dense formations of stellate trichomes decrease the amount of insolation, aid in maintaining optimal leaf temperatures, and provide physical protection against damage. Cuticular ledges over stomatal pores and baffles lining the pore may also aid in water conservation. Mature tanoak leaves are heavily waxed and have relatively thick cuticular membranes which can decrease the rate of water loss and provide mechanical protection against disease and physical abrasion.

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Quercus dumosa

Adaptations of Mediterranean-Climate Oaks to Environmental Stress[1]

Philip W. Rundel[2]

Abstract: Plant growth-form and leaf duration are structural traits which provide important adaptations of oaks to individual environments. Shrubby taxa of oaks dominate in areas with relatively severe environmental stresses of drought, short growing season, or nutrient deficiency. Water stress is a primary determinant of leaf duration in oaks.

INTRODUCTION

Species adaptations to gradients of environmental stress may take many forms in the oaks. The most significant environmental gradient in California is aridity, brought on by a mediterranean climate. During the winter when precipitation is present, mean temperatures are too low to allow favorable photosynthetic activity. When temperatures are favorable for growth during the summer months, precipitation is absent. For oaks, as well as for other elements of our flora today, the present assemblage of species represents the outcome of evolutionary selection of genotypes adapted to these climatic stresses.

In addition to aridity, mediterranean-climate conditions also promote a tendency toward frequent fire. Groups of adaptive characteristics have clearly evolved in many California oaks to promote species survival, particularly in chaparral and forest environments where fires are frequent.

With the existing degree of topographic diversity in California, significant temperature gradients are present. Both mean growing season temperatures as well as length of growing season vary along these gradients, providing a broad range of environmental conditions for selection to respond to. Since higher mean temperatures in California are generally correlated with lower annual precipitation, these two factors are interrelated.

A final major environmental stress influencing the evolution of oaks in California has been nutrient availability. The complex geological history of many parts of the state has produced mosaics of soil types which can again act as selective factors in the evolution of a variety of taxa including oaks. Since nutrient cycling in oaks is the subject of a specific review in this volume, it will not be considered here.

ADAPTATIONAL STRATEGIES

In looking at broad evolutionary patterns in oaks, two groups of structural traits can be recognized which have a great deal of significance in the adaptation of individual species to their environments. These traits are the plant growth form, whether a shrub or tree, and the leaf duration, whether evergreen or deciduous. The growth form which a plant takes is a function of the relative allocation of carbohydrates synthesized through photosynthesis to each of four compartments (fig. 1). For trees a very large part of this allocation goes to support tissues such as a trunk and branches to give a plant a large size. Height in plants may be selected for to outcompete plants shorter in stature, to avoid ground dwelling predators, to reach sunlight at the top of a forest canopy, or to evade light surface fires. In shrubs a main trunk is usually absent and much less

[1]Presented by Gail A. Baker at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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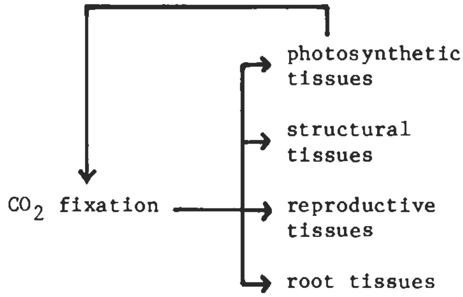

Figure 1—The pattern of carbon allocation to plant tissues.

relative allocation to support tissues is required. Root tissues in most shrub species are a very significant part of the total biomass and in some environments may be much greater in biomass than above-ground tissues. In general, shrubby growth and associated high root-to-shoot ratios are associated with conditions of high environmental stress. Common forms of stress which may promote dominance of shrub species are arid conditions, high fire frequency, cold temperatures with a short growing season, low nutrient availability, and heavy grazing. Finally, herbaceous species, not represented in the oaks, are characterized by allocating high proportions of their carbohydrates to photosynthetic and reproductive tissues. Minimal structural support and relatively small root biomasses are commonly present. In annual plants 15-30 percent of annual production may go to reproduction alone.

Selective pressures for evergreen or deciduous characteristics are a response to the seasonality of the environment. When a predictable drought or cold period is present in an environment so that no photosynthetic production can take place during a particular season, then natural selection should promote deciduous leaves if the metabolic costs of maintaining leaves during the stress period is greater than the cost of producing new leaves the following season. Where stress periods are variable in length and intensity so that favorable conditions for photosynthetic production may occur at any time during the year, evergreen leaves have the advantage of always being present to utilize such favorable conditions during normal stress periods. Since evergreen leaves commonly remain for two years or more, the metabolic expense of producing them maybe much less than for deciduous leaves. Other advantages of evergreen leaves accrue in nutrient-poor environments for several reasons. Long leaf duration allows greater net photosynthetic production per unit of leaf nutrient and thus a more efficient use of these nutrients. In addition, evergreen leaves are able to store nutrients during the winter for later growth, and further drop their old leaves slowly to allow a better return of nutrients to the soil through decomposition. Despite these advantages, evergreen leaves have the significant disadvantage of having a relatively low rate of maximum photosynthesis in comparison to thinner deciduous leaves.

In California the 15 species of native oaks can be arrayed into community types where they predominately occur for each of four growth categories (table 1). Montane forests contain all four types, but individual habitats commonly contain only a single species. Foothill woodland communities generally lack shrubby oaks, but both deciduous and evergreen trees are present. Chaparral and desert habitats usually support only a single growth-form of evergreen shrubs. This distribution pattern of growth-forms of oaks in California is very similar to that of the Mediterranean region of France where deciduous tree, evergreen tree, and evergreen shrub forms of oak are all present.

The adaptive significance of individual growth-forms of oak, as discussed below, can be seen in the differing ecological responses of shrubs and trees and of evergreen and deciduous-leaved plants. The diversification of California oaks into individual growth-forms clearly does not follow taxonomic lineages. The three species of black oaks in California include both deciduous (*Q. kelloggii*) and evergreen trees (*Q. wislizenii* and *Q. agrifolia*). Among the white oaks all four growth-forms are present. The closely related *Quercus chrysolepis* group includes this evergreen tree as well as three evergreen shrubs, *Q. dunnii*, *Q. vaccinifolia* and *Q. cedroensis* of Baja California. *Quercus salderiana*, an evergreen shrub in the northern part of the state, is most closely related to deciduous tree oaks of the eastern United States. *Quercus garrayana* may occur in its typical deciduous tree form or in taxonomically distinctive shrub forms. A similar pattern of change may occur in *Q. wislizenii*, normally an evergreen tree.

BIOMASS ALLOCATION

Patterns of biomass allocation in oaks differ considerably with shrub and tree growth-forms. Since shrubs typically lack a central trunk and have much smaller structural requirements for woody tissue than trees, it is not surprising to find that shrubs allocate a greater proportion of their above-ground biomass to leaves than do trees. Examples of literature

Table 1--Distribution of California oaks by community distribution and growth-form

Community	Growth Form			
	deciduous tree	deciduous tree	evergreen tree	evergreen shrub
montane forest	Q. kelloggii	Q. garrayana var. breweri	Q. chrysolepis	Q. vaccinifolia
				Q. salderiana
foothill woodland	Q. garrayana		Q. wislizenii	
	Q. lobata		Q. agrifolia	
	Q. engelmanii			
	Q. douglasii			
chaparral		Q. garrayana var. breweri		Q. dumosa
				Q. durata
				Q. dunnii
				Q. wislizenii var. frutescens
desert				Q. turbinella
island endemic			Q. tomentella	

data on those relative allocation patterns are shown for a series of oaks in table 2, using the four major categories of leaf duration and growth-form previously described. For evergreen and deciduous shrubs the range of relative leaf biomass ranges from 10-17 percent of above-ground biomass, while values for evergreen and deciduous trees range from 2-7 percent. For most shrubs species the remaining biomass is completely allocated to branch tissues, although a significant trunk may form in Q. ilicifolia, an eastern scrub oak.

SHOOT AND ROOT CHARACTERISTICS

Comparative data on the ratio of root biomass to above-ground biomass (root-shoot ratios) in shrubby and tree oaks also show a fundamental difference in patterns of biomass allocation (table 2). Root-shoot ratios for four species of trees range from 0.18 to 0.91, indicating a large dry weight of shoot biomass. In shrubby species, however, root biomass far exceeds that of shoots with root shoot ratios of 3.17 to 6.28. Much of the relatively large proportion of root biomass is concentrated in a massive woody root crown which allows efficient resprouting following fires (Muller, 1951; Plumb, 1961, 1963). Most tree oaks sprout principally in an epicormic manner from above-ground tissue following fires, but some deciduous tree oaks such as Q. douglasii and Q. lobata may sprout poorly or not at all.

With repeated fires this root crown gradually enlarges and the number of resprouted stems present increases (Pond and Cable, 1960). The storage of energy reserves and possibly nutrients and water in the root crown makes continued resprouting possible. Even without the root crown biomass, it appears that the root-shoot ratio of shrub oaks is still significantly greater than that of tree oaks. Calculations of root-shoot ratio in Quercus turbinella ignoring root crown biomass still give a value of 1.9 (Davis, 1978).

For obvious reasons detailed studies of root distribution in oaks are relatively few. Early observations noting the correlation of Quercus lobata in California with deep alluvial soils suggested that this species has deep and well-developed root system reaching the water table (Jepson, 1910; Cannon, 1914). These same studies suggested that Q. douglasii was associated with shallow soils on exposed hillsides and thus root access to the water table was unlikely. Cannon (1914) hypothesized that Q. agrifolia has no deep roots, but instead developed an extensive shallow root system. Quercus kelloggii may have a single major tap root or numerous major vertical roots depending on its substrate.

Lewis and Burghy (1964, 1966) used tritiated water to obtain the first quantitative data on rooting depths in California tree oaks.

Their studies in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada indicate that *Q. lobata*, *Q. douglasii* and *Q. wislizenii* may all root to depths of 10-20 m under favorable conditions. On one of their plots they found *Q. douglasii* tapping water at 26 m depth. Studies of seasonal water stress patterns of three species of *Quercus* in the Santa Lucia Mountains of Monterey County indicate that both *Q. lobata* and *Q. agrifolia* have root systems which reach ground water, while *Q. douglasii* roots do not (Griffin, 1973). The only eastern deciduous oak for which good data are available, *Q. macrocarpa*, has a deep and ramifying root system with a tap root reaching 4 m depth and more than 30 large branch roots extending outward 6-20 m (Weaver and Kramer, 1932).

Shrubby evergreen oaks in Southern California and Arizona have surprisingly deep root systems. Hellmers et al. (1955) reported roots of *Q. dumosa* in the San Gabriel Mountains at a depth of nearly 9 m, the deepest of any of the chaparral plants they observed. They noted few feeder roots in the top 15 cm of soil. More detailed excavations of *Q. turbinella* in Arizona chaparral found a tap root penetrating through cracks and fissures to bedrock at a depth of nearly 7 m (Davis, 1978; Saunier and Wagle, 1967). Even at this depth individual roots still reached 5 mm diameter. A dense mat of fine surface roots, most less than 2 mm diameter, extend out radially from the center of the shrub through the upper 30 cm of soil. Major laterals are joined beneath the canopy to a massive woody root crown similar to those characteristic of many chaparral shrubs which resprout following fire.

LEAF CHARACTERISTICS

Evergreen and deciduous leaves of oaks, as with other plant groups, have differences in leaf characteristics which influence their physiological behavior. Evergreen leaves in temperate latitudes are characteristically sclerophyllous in texture with a relatively thick and leathery feel. These leaves typically remain on oaks for two growing seasons but occasionally longer. Deciduous leaves which are much thinner and less leathery in texture are much less resistant to environmental extremes and are present on the shrubs only during favorable growing periods.

The greater sclerophylly of evergreen oak leaves can be seen in data on leaf specific weight shown in table 3. Evergreen shrubs and trees have values from 12-18 g cm^{-2} while deciduous trees range from 7-10 g cm^{-2}. One species of deciduous shrub, *Q. ilicifolia* from arid sandy habitats on the East Coast, has an intermediate value which is quite high for a deciduous leaf.

Table 2--Above-ground biomass and relative allocation of biomass in the genus *Quercus*. Data from Mooney et al., 1977; Whittaker and Woodwell, 1963; Lossaint, 1973; Whittaker and Niering, 1975; Whittaker, 1966; Johnson and Risser, 1974; Duvigneaud and Denaeyer-De Smet, 1970; Davis, 1978.

	location	Above-ground biomass	Biomass Distribution				
			leaves	branches	trunk	reproductive tissues	root-shoot ratio
		($g\ m^{-2}$)	percent				
Evergreen shrubs							
Q. dumosa	California	2046	17.1	82.9	-	-	
Q. agrifolia	California	4607	10.0	90.9	-	-	
Q. coccifera	France	2350	17.0	83.0	-	-	4.17
Q. turbinella	Arizona	1811	-	-	-	-	3.17
Deciduous shrubs							
Q. ilicifolia	New York		16.5	31.4	52.1	-	6.28
Evergreen trees							
Q. ilex	France	26900	2.6	10.0	87.4	-	0.18
Q. hypoleucoides	Arizona		12.5[1/]	24.3	63.3	-	
Deciduous trees							
Q. coccinea	New York		7.5	27.5	64.8	0.2	0.47
Q. alba	New York		6.9	21.2	71.4	0.5	0.91
			1.7	27.3	71.0	0.02	
Q. stellata	Oklahoma	14217	2.4	38.9	58.7	-	
Q. marilandica	Oklahoma	3556	3.6	27.1	73.2	-	
Q. robur	Belgium	4290	2.4	32.2	65.4	-	

1/current twigs and leaves included

Table 3--Comparative leaf characteristics in the genus Quercus. Sclerophyll index is calculated as (percent lignin and cellulose x 100)/crude protein content. Data from Mooney et al, 1977; Lossaint, 1973; Whittaker and Woodwell, 1968; Whittaker, 1966; Johnson and Risser, 1974; Duvigneaud and Denaeyer-De Smet, 1970; Cromack and Mark, 1977; Loveless, 1962.

	location	specific weight	nitrogen	cellulose	lignin	crude fiber	sclerophyll index
		($mg\ cm^{-2}$)	percent	percent	percent	percent	
Evergreen shrub							
Q. dumosa	California	14.0	1.30	18.2	11.7	29.9	236
Q. coccifera	France		1.74	18.1	10.3	28.4	261
Q. chapmanii	Florida	12.0	1.97	21.8	13.2	35.0	284
Q. myrtifolia	Florida	13.4	1.77	25.3	13.0	38.3	346
Q. breviloba	Texas					25.2	261
Evergreen trees							
Q. agrifolia	California	13.0	1.15	20.4	10.5	30.9	275
Q. virginiana	Florida	17.0	1.67	32.6	14.4	47.0	450
	Texas					28.7	268
Q. wislizenii	California	13.8					
Q. chrysolepis	California	18.5					
Deciduous shrubs							
Q. ilicifolia	New York	13.4	1.40				
Deciduous trees							
Q. douglasii	California					13.6	69
Q. coccinea	New York	9.8	0.79				
Q. alba	New York	8.3	0.79				
	Tennessee	9.2	1.40				
Q. pubescens	France	7.0					
Q. kelloggii	California	9.2					
Q. stellata	Oklahoma		4.10				
Q. marilandica	Oklahoma						
Q. robur	Belgium		2.4				
Q. prinus	S.E. U.S.		2.0	20.2	12.6	32.8	168
Q. coccinea	S.E. U.S.		1.8	15.5	15.5	31.0	177
Q. prinus	S.E. U.S.		2.0	14.9	9.1	26.0	132

Another measure of the comparative sclerophylly of evergreen and deciduous oak leaves is the sclerophyll index (table 3). This index is the ratio of crude fiber content (cellulose and lignin) to crude protein content for a leaf (Loveless 1961, 1962). Evergreen shrubs and trees have sclerophyll indices of 236-450, values typical of evergreen chaparral shrubs. Values for deciduous trees range from 69-177. A comparison of the individual components of this sclerophyll index (table 3) indicate that nitrogen levels (the major limiting component of proteins) are not significantly different in evergreen and deciduous leaves of oaks, with the exception of the high nitrogen levels reported for *Q. stellata* and *Q. marilandica* in Oklahoma. Among the evergreen shrubs oak leaf nitrogen levels are generally higher than those of other evergreen shrubs in the same habitats, indicating a relatively high nitrogen requirement. The major basis for the high values of sclerophyll index in evergreen species is the high level of both cellulose and lignin in the leaves. Together these structural components comprise 28-47 percent of the leaf dry weight of evergreen species. Less than 14 percent of the dry weight of deciduous leaves of *Q. douglasii* are cellulose and lignin.

PRODUCTIVITY

When productivity of oaks is calculated on the basis of some measure of available photosynthetic tissue, the significance of evergreen and deciduous leaves can be seen. The general pattern expected is that sclerophyllous evergreen leaves with thick cuticles are slow at taking up CO_2 and therefore photosynthesize at much lower maximum rates than deciduous leaves where gas exchange is rapid. Evergreen leaves are present all twelve months of the year, however, and may therefore be able to photosynthesize during favorable conditions when deciduous plants may be leafless.

Net annual above-ground productivity calculated per unit of leaf dry weight varies from 0.85-1.50 $g\ g^{-1}$ for evergreen shrubs and trees, and from 2.23-3.66 $g\ g^{-1}$ for deciduous trees (table 4). Deciduous trees, therefore, are much more efficient at utilizing photosynthetic tissues for production. This pattern of relative efficiency between evergreen and deciduous leaves is less apparent on a leaf area basis where evergreen leaves have a productivity of 160-210 $g\ m^{-2}$, and deciduous trees have a range of 216-345 $g\ m^{-2}$. This more similar pattern of productivity per unit

Table 4--Above-ground net productivity and allocation of new growth in the genus Quercus. Data from Mooney et al., 1977; Whittaker and Woodwell, 1968; Lossaint, 1973; Whittaker and Niering, 1975; Whittaker, 1966; Johnson and Risser, 1974; Duvigneaud and Denaeyer-De Smet, 1970.

	location	above-ground productivity	relative allocation of growth: leaves	branches	trunk	reproductive tissues	productivity		
		($gm^{-2}yr^{-1}$)	percent	percent	percent	percent	($g\ g^{-1}$ leaf)	($g\ m^{-2}$ leaf)	($g\ g^{-1}$ leaf N)
Evergreen shrubs									
Q. dumosa	California	425	87.4	11.3		1.3	1.50	210	115
Q. agrifolia[1]	California	338	87.6	7.5		4.9	1.23	160	107
Q. coccifera	France	340					0.85		49
Deciduous shrubs									
Q. ilicifolia	New York		6.2	25.8	11.7	0.3	1.61	254	115
Evergreen trees									
Q. ilex	France	675					1.04		73
Q. hypoleucoides	Arizona		47.6[2]	27.9	24.5				
Deciduous trees									
Q. coccinea	New York		43.8	29.6	24.5	2.1	2.23	304	282
Q. alba	New York		44.9	31.1	20.2	3.8	2.24	216	284
	Tennessee		26.6	35.3	37.8	0.3	3.66	345	261
Q. stellata	Oklahoma	874	39.7	36.2	24.0		2.51		61
Q. marilandica	Oklahoma	387	33.3	25.6	41.1		3.00		73
Q. robur	Belgium	282	36.5	40.4	23.0		2.73		113

1/shrub form
2/current twigs and leaves included

leaf area is due not to the equal photosynthetic rates of the two leaf forms but rather to the longer period of productivity in evergreen species.

Since nitrogen may be limiting to productivity in many environments, productivity can also be calculated per unit of leaf nitrogen. On this basis evergreen leaves range in productivity from 49-107 g g^{-1} leaf nitrogen. Deciduous leaves are much more variable on this basis. Quercus coccinea and Q. alba which have low concentrations of leaf nitrogen have values of 261-284 g g^{-1} leaf nitrogen, while the other four deciduous species for which data are available have values almost identical to those of the evergreen species.

Differences in productivity patterns are not restricted to evergreen versus deciduous leaves in oaks, but occur in shrubs versus tree growth-forms as well. As with biomass distribution, the above-ground productivity and relative allocation of new growth in shrub and tree growth-forms of oak differ significantly (table 4). In the two California evergreen shrubs for which data is available, Q. dumosa and Q. agrifolia (shrubby form), over 87 percent of new growth is allocated to leaves. Leaf allocation in the five species of deciduous oak trees for which data are available range from 26-45 percent Quercus ilicifolia, a deciduous shrub, has a intermediate value.

Allocation of net productivity to reproductive structures in oaks appears to be relatively low, although data are limited. Values for six species range from 0.3-4.9 percent (table 4), but careful measurements in years of good acorn production would likely produce greater allocations. Griffin[3] has found that production of viable acorns by Quercus lobata in the Carmel Valley (Monterey County, California) is directly related to total precipitation of the previous growing season (fig. 2).

WATER RELATIONS

In addition to the photosynthetic differences between evergreen and deciduous leaves, the greater sclerophylly of evergreen leaves makes them considerably more drought resistant. Leaves of deciduous oaks are highly sensitive to decreases in leaf water content. Both Quercus pubescens and Q. robur, deciduous trees in central Europe, initiate stomatal

3/Unpublished data. James R. Griffin, Univ. of Calif., Hastings Nat. History Reservation, Carmel Valley, Cal.

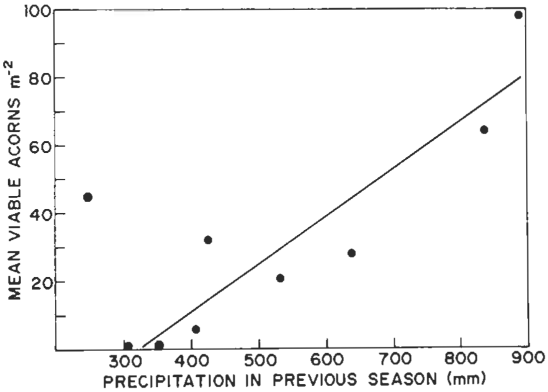

Figure 2--Collection of viable acorns of Quercus lobata at ground level in relation to precipitation during the previous growing season at the Hastings Natural History Reservation, Carmel Valley. Unpublished data of James R. Griffin.

closure when relative leaf water content drops to 90 percent of its saturated level (Larcher, 1960; Pisek and Winkler, 1953; Arvidsson, 1951). As leaf relative water content drops below 70%, stomatal closure is complete in Q. pubescens and positive net photosynthesis ceases (fig. 3). In Q. robur, a more shade-adapted species, stomatal closure occurs more rapidly (Pisek and Winkler, 1953). Because of the thin cuticle of deciduous leaves, cuticular transpiration continues at this stage at a level 30-50 percent of the maximum rate of transpirational water loss with fully open stomata (Pisek and Berger, 1938; Larcher, 1960). As leaf water loss

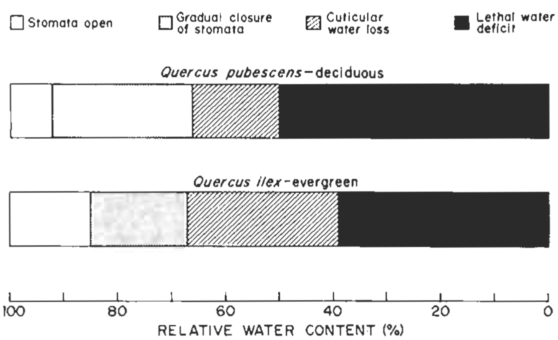

Figure 3--Comparative water relations of Quercus pubescens (deciduous) and Quercus ilex (evergreen) in the Mediterranean region of Europe. See text for discussion.

continues, the first symptoms of desiccation injury appear at relative water contents of about 50 percent in Q. pubescens (Larcher, 1960).

In the evergreen Q. ilex of the mediterranean region of Europe, stomatal closure does not begin until the leaves reach a relative water content of 85 percent of their saturated level. Stomatal closure is fairly rapid, however, and occurs at a similar relative water content to that of the deciduous oak species. The most signficant difference between the two types of leaves is that cuticular transpiration is negligible (less than 3 percent maximum transpiration rates) in the evergreen leaves because of their thick cuticle. As a result Q. ilex is able to limit its transpirational water loss ten times more effectively than the deciduous species by closing its stomata. Furthermore, desiccation injury in Q. ilex does not occur until relative water contents of 40 percent are reached.

The characteristic pattern of the replacement of deciduous oaks by evergreen oaks along a gradient of increasing aridity in both California and Europe results to a large part from the physiological characteristics of each leaf type as described above. Both deciduous and evergreen oaks in California may experience midday stomatal closure late in the growing season as water stress increases. Evergreen leaves limit their water loss under drought conditions by rapidly closing their stomata and restricting cuticular transpiration to very low levels. Since the relative water content of evergreen leaves can reach much lower levels without desiccation injury than that of deciduous leaves, they are able to endure much longer drought periods. Experimental studies have indicated that the evergreen Q. ilex can endure drought periods 15 times longer than the deciduous Q. pubescens (Larcher, 1960).

Few data are available on field measurements of the relative drought tolerance of ecological groups of oaks. Griffin (1973) made intensive studies of water relations of Quercus douglasii, Q. lobata, and Q. agrifolia in the coast ranges of Monterey County over a three year period. The maximum dawn water stress he recorded in mature trees was 40 bars in Q. douglasii in late summer. Under stressful conditions, midday water stresses in Q. douglasii always exceeded values for Q. agrifolia by 5-10 bars, indicating that the latter species was able to tap ground water supplies unavailable to Q. douglasii. Bottomland stands of Quercus lobata and Q. agrifolia showed little difference in maximum stress between very dry and wet years, again

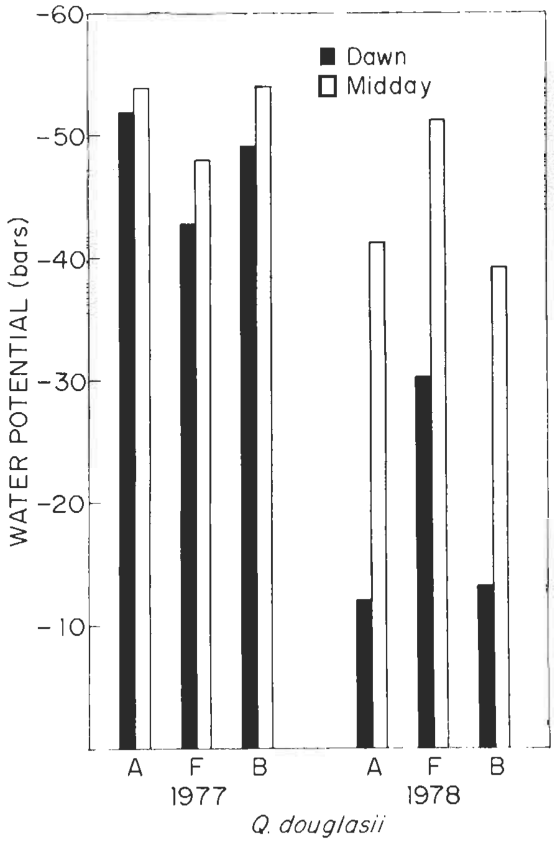

Figure 4--Comparative water potentials of Quercus douglasii at dawn and midday for maximum seasonal stresses of 1977 and 1978 at three sites in the foothill zone of Sequoia National Park, California.

indicating their ability to utilize ground water. In these bottomland stands density of trees is unrelated to water stress. On slopes where Q. douglasii occurs on shallower soils, however, density of trees is strongly related to water stress as water is a limiting resource (Griffin, 1973). Under these conditions denser stands of vegetation on more "mesic" north-facing slopes may actually undergo drought stress earlier than more open stands of vegetation on the "xeric" south-facing slopes.

Field measurements of water stress of Quercus agrifolia in the Puente Hills of Southern California indicated that drought stress never exceeded 20 bars in August of 1972, an unusually dry year (Syvertson, 1974). These stress levels were greater than those reached in adjacent individuals of Juglans californica but less than those in Heteromeles arbutifolia.

In comparison to California oaks, eastern deciduous oaks do not develop extreme water stress. Studies of three species of Quercus in New England indicated maximum summer water stresses of only 25 bars (Federer, 1978).

Recent comparative studies of the water relations of four species of oaks in the foothill zone of Sequoia National Park, California, during the very dry winter of 1977 and the subsequent moist winter of 1978 allow an interpretation of the response of oaks species to environmental drought. Midday water stresses of over 50 bars were present in Q. douglasii and Q. chrysolepis in the fall of 1977, with stresses close to 50 bars also present in Q. wislizenii (fig. 4 and 5). The severe nature of this drought is indicated by the minimal level of recovery from water stress overnight in the lowered dawn readings. Maximum stesses for the same oaks in 1978 were considerably lower in all species (fig. 4 and 5). Dawn levels of water stress were 10-30 bars lower for the four species, indicating considerable overnight recovery of plant water status.

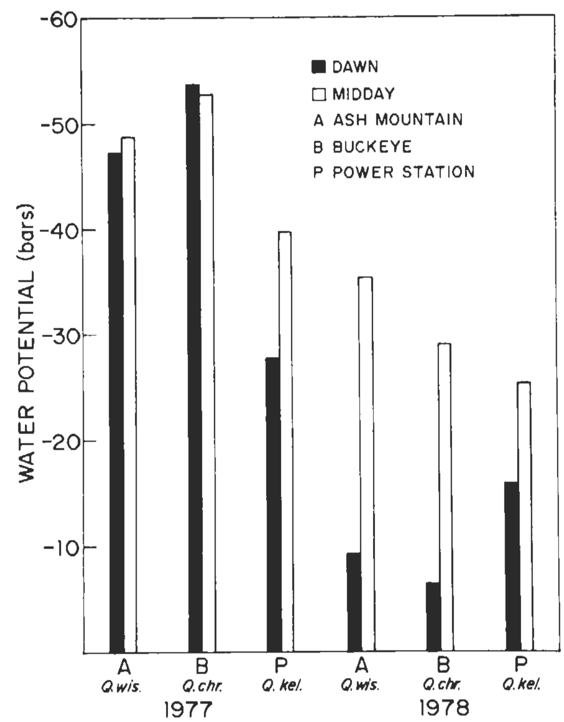

Figure 5--Comparative water potentials of Quercus wislizenii, Q. chrysolepis and Q. kelloggii at dawn and midday for maximum seasonal stresses of 1977 and 1978 in the foothill zone of Sequoia National Park, California.

Even with the heavy spring rains of 1978, however, one population of Q. douglasii still developed water stress in excess of 50 bars at midday.

COLD RESISTANCE

Detailed data on the relative cold tolerance of California oak species have not been collected, but some indication of the expected response of our mediterranean-climate species can be gained from studies of cold resistance in species of Quercus from the Mediterranean region of Europe. These studies have shown that cold resistance varies considerably with the age of the plant and the nature of the tissue.

For stands of Quercus ilex, an evergreen tree comparable to Q. agrifolia, mature trees survive temperatures as low as -20° to -25°C so long as cold periods do not last long enough to freeze the thick trunks (Larcher and Mair, 1969). Winter soil surface temperatures of only -4°C are sufficient to kill seedlings, however.

The ability to resist cold in shoots of Quercus ilex follows a cyclical pattern of increasing frost-hardening over the first five years of growth (fig. 6). Seasonal tolerance of frost is also quite variable. Shoots of mature plants which survive -25°C in winter may be killed by -5°C in summer. Mature leaves tolerate -15°C in winter but only -6°C in summer. Roots show a pattern of little seasonal change in cold resistance and no change with plant age (Larcher, 1969).

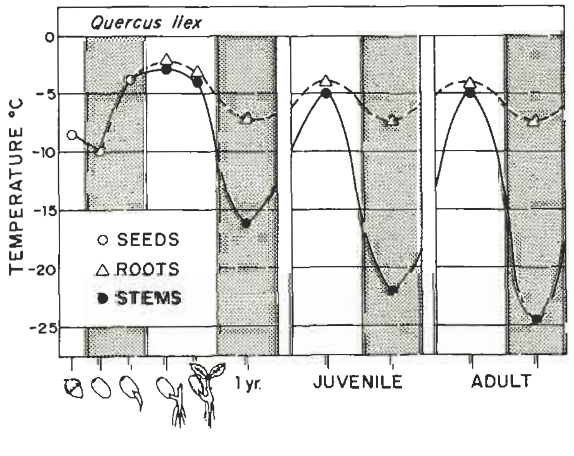

Figure 6--Cold tolerances of Quercus ilex in the Mediterranean region of Europe. The open area indicates summer responses, while the shaded areas are winter responses. Redrawn from Larcher (1969).

Two other evergreen oaks from the Mediterranean region, Q. suber (cork oak) and the shrubby Q. coccifera are slightly less cold resistant than Q. ilex. Quercus pubescens, a deciduous tree from the same region tolerates temperatures below -35°C (Larcher and Mair, 1969).

HERBIVORY

Herbivory by both insects and vertebrates on oaks may be very great. This herbivory is clearly related to the relatively high nutrient content of oak foliage and the abundant resources oaks represent in many ecological communities. Insect feeding on oaks is generally concentrated in the early spring, coinciding with a period of maximum leaf growth. Insect damage studied in three species of oaks in New York accounts for a 7.0-15.6 percent loss in leaf area (Whittaker and Woodwell, 1968).

The intensity of feeding by lepidopteran larvae on leaves on Quercus robur has been shown to be related to chemical and textural changes in the composition of leaves (Feeney, 1970). As leaves mature, tannin content increases from less than 1 percent in the early spring to over 5 percent by the end of the summer (fig. 7) over the same period leaf nitrogen content drops from over 4 percent to about 2 percent. These tannins, concentrated in vacuoles in the palisade parenchyma, have the ability to form complexes with proteins and thereby reduce the availability of nitrogen for insect growth. As a result, summer insect damage to oak leave is greatly reduced from

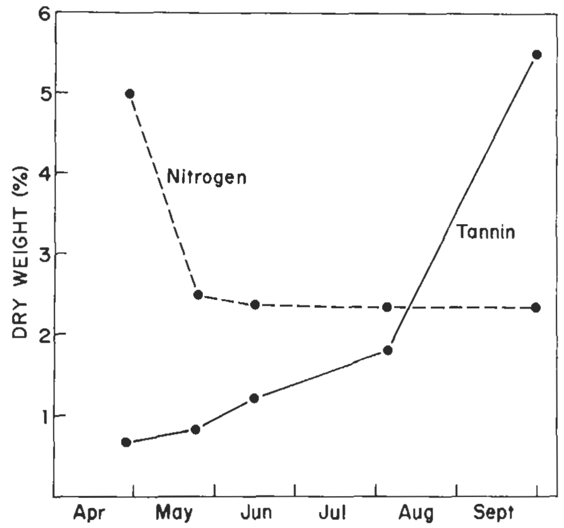

Figure 7--Seasonal progression of concentration (% dry weight) of nitrogen and tannins in the deciduous leaves of Quercus robur. Redrawn from Feeney (1970).

what it potentially might be. Parallel studies of predation in relation to leaf characteristics have not been carried out with California oaks. It is interesting to note that damage by leaf miners is proportionally greater in summer than in spring for oak leaves. These insects are able to avoid tannins by feeding in spongy parenchyma tissue and ignoring palisade cells where tannins are concentrated (Feeney, 1970).

Tannins may also be toxic to many grazing vertebrates if large quantities of oak foliage are consumed. Oak toxicity has been a major economic problem in many rangeland areas where cattle, sheep or goats may preferentially consume an almost exclusive diet of young oak leaves, buds and acorns (Kingsbury, 1964).

CONCLUSIONS

Plant growth-form and leaf duration are structural traits which provide important adaptive value for oak species in individual environments. Shrubby growth-forms of oaks are characteristic of habitats where environmental stress is relatively great. These include arid regions (chaparral and desert areas) regions with short growing season (high mountain areas) and nutrient-deficient sites (e.g. as serpentine soils). Tree growth-forms dominate where drought periods are shorter or absent and neither temperature or nutrients are strongly limiting to growth.

Where ground water supplies are available to reduce periods of summer drought stress as in valley or foothill regions, deciduous oaks dominate in California. They are also dominant on more xeric habitats at higher elevations where growing seasons are relatively short. Evergreen leaves, characteristic of the shrubby oaks in chaparral and desert areas, have adaptive value over deciduous leave because of their greater drought tolerance. Since such habitats are commonly low in nutrients, an additional value of evergreen leaves is their greater nutrient use efficiency. This greater nutrient use efficiency also explains evergreeness in serpentine oaks such as Q. durata. The adaptive values present in evergreen trees are more difficult to explain since evergreen and deciduous oaks may occur side by side and water does not appear to be strongly limiting. More detailed physiological studies are needed to resolve this question but the basic environmental stresses of water and nutrient availability are clearly still important.

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Quercus chrysolepis

Wildfire and the Geographic Relationships Between Canyon Live Oak, Coulter Pine, and Bigcone Douglas-fir Forests[1]

Richard A. Minnich[2]

Abstract: Analysis of vegetation changes in the eastern Transverse Ranges between 1938 and 1975 reveal contrasting burning regimes in bigcone Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga macrocarpa) and Coulter pine (Pinus coulteri) Forests. Differences in the flammability of these types result from the variable physiognomic and fuel characteristics of associated canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis), and strongly influence geographic and sympatric relationships between these species.

INTRODUCTION

Wildland fire does not have a uniform impact on the landscape geographically because the combustibility of vegetation changes spatially with the total habitat. It follows that the geography of some plant species and plant communities may be related to the changing selective role of wildland fire.

A biogeography of conifer forests was evaluated in the eastern Transverse Ranges (east San Gabriel and San Bernardino Mountains), an area of impressive topographic, elevational, and habitat differences (Minnich 1978). Recent vegetation changes due to fire were reconstructed from aerial photography (color infrared, color, black and white) flown between 1938 and 1975 emphasizing the nature of combustion and post-fire recovery for seven conifer forest types.

One finding was that many tree species with divergent adaptations and fire responses live together as plant communities because they are compatible with the fire regime they create. Other species have no range overlap because the fire regime of one is inimical to the other. This paper addresses the relationship between canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis), bigcone Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga macrocarpa) and Coulter pine (Pinus coulteri) which live at intermediate elevations between lowland chaparral and mixed conifer forests above. The distribution of the two conifers broadly overlap with canyon live oak but not to one another.

ECOLOGY OF CANYON LIVE OAK, COULTER PINE AND BIGCONE DOUGLAS FIR

Canyon live oak is associated with many conifer forest communities in southern California including Coulter pine, bigcone Douglas fir, mixed conifer forest, and pinyon forest (Minnich 1978; Thorne 1977; Vasek and Thorne 1977). The oak's growth form is quite variable, ranging from shrub to tree, depending on habitat (Sawyer et al., 1977). The shrub form is typically multiple-trunked with crown bases contiguous with the ground surface. Under favorable circumstances it is also a spreading single-trunked tree. A thin-barked species for its size, it sprouts mostly from a subsurface root crown even if the upper canopy is only marginally defoliated by burning or scorching. Horton (1960) and Kittredge (1948) suggest that repeated burning reduces canyon live oak to a shrub physiognomy. Horton also observed that it grows more rapidly to tree physiognomy in mesic habitats where there is also greater chance individuals will withstand passing conflagrations. Where stands are destroyed, however, the area becomes infested with dense chaparral until the oak sprouts mature enough to crowd them out (Horton 1960).

Coulter pine is a medium-sized tree with a spreading pyramidal crown and relatively

[1]Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, CA, June 25-27, 1979.

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thick bark. It self-prunes poorly, the crowns of even mature trees normally extending to the ground surface or vegetal understory. It supports massive cones with prominent flattened spurs, mostly at the summit of the tree or the ends of major branches. The cones require two years to mature. Cone opening occurs in midwinter (Critchfield personal communication). Seeds are hard, heavy, and capable of only limited dispersal unless transferred downslope by rolling cones. Seedlings develop best on open mineral soils and are remarkably drought-tolerant, having coarse cotyledons, rapid early photosynthesis, and deep root penetration during the first year (Wright 1966, 1968). It matures rapidly to tree size within several decades and begins bearing cones within 10 to 15 years. Southern California populations are associated with chamise chaparral as well as canyon live oak (Wright 1966, 1968; Wilson and Vogl 1965; Vogl 1976; Hanes 1976; Minnich 1976; Thorne 1977).

Bigcone Douglas fir is considered a long-lived species found mostly in stable fire-resistant habitats (Gause 1966; Bolton and Vogl 1969; Vogl 1968; McDonald and Littrell 1976). A southern California endemic, this tall conifer has thick bark and long, graceful lenticular branches. Saplings rarely bear cones before 40 years. Pollination occurs in late spring and cones open in August or September. Seed are heavy and only locally dispersed except during strong winds. Canyon live oak is an important associate throughout its range and also occurs as large robust trees with little brush understory (McDonald and Littrell 1976). Although bigcone Douglas fir seedlings are large and coarse, capable of enduring heat stress, reproduction is most successful in the shade of canyon live oak overstory. Growth may be suppressed by shade stress until polesize stage when trees emerge through the canyon live oak layer (Gause 1966). Bigcone Douglas fir is the only southern California conifer capable of sprouting after complete defoliation by fire or other disturbance. Sprouts develop from epicormic buds within the bark layer in the larger branches and along the main trunk. Sprouting success is apparently dependent on the size of the tree (Bolton and Vogl 1969).

PRESENT DISTRIBUTION AND STAND PHYSIOGNOMY

Canyon live oak (W) occurs on steep, shallow soiled terrain over a wide range of elevation from 2000 to 8500 ft. (600-2600 m). It is confined to canyons and north-facing slopes at lower elevations. Above 5000 ft. (1500 m) stands broaden out into a continuous belt which nearly encircles the mountains above lowland chaparral. Canyon live oak cover is open to broken when embedded in chamise chaparral and Coulter pine. It is normally contiguous where associated with bigcone Douglas fir. Coulter pine stands ($\overline{C}$) occur on dry rocky slopes and ridgelines. On the Pacific slope it forms a fragmented distribution from west City Creek eastward to San Gorgonio Pass. On desert drainages, more continuous stands occur on mesic headwaters of the East Fork Mojave River from Lake Arrowhead east to Shay Mountain. Most stands are immature and even-aged in appearance (Table 1). Canyon live oak is an oversized shrub admixed with chamise chaparral dominated by Quercus dumosa, Q. wislizenii, Arctostaphylos glandulosa, Ceanothus leucodermis and Adenostoma fasciculatum. Total cover is usually close to 100 percent. Brush and canyon live oak understory on desert slopes is more open and mature as evidenced in data developed from VTM field plots.[3/] Few fires have occurred in this region since Forest Service records begin in 1911. VTM diameter class data show that Coulter pines are apparently short lived with only 16 per cent of individuals having a d.b.h. of 24" (0.6 m). Most Coulter pine forests are vertically contiguous with shrub and woodland understory.

Bigcone Douglas fir stands (Bs) are sympatric with canyon live oak throughout its distribution. Forests are long lived. Half of bigcone Douglas fir individuals sampled by VTM workers had a d.b.h. greater than 24" (0.6 m). One third of canyon live oak individuals had a d.b.h. of 12" (0.3 m). Most are tall and single-trunked rather than multiple-stemmed shrubs. Brush cover is minimal and consists mostly of Ceanothus integerrimus and Cercocarpus betuloides. Bigcone Douglas fir has a highly fragmented distribution along the mesic coastal front of the eastern Transverse Ranges from the San Dimas Experimental Forest eastward into San Gorgonio Pass. Most populations occupy precipitous slopes and sheltered canyons. Above 5000 ft. (1500 m) stands broaden out with canyon live oak as understory to cover large areas of mostly steep complex slopes transected with cliffs or avalanche shoots, especially in the San Gabriel Mountains and southeastern San Bernardino Mountains.

FIRE HISTORY

The eastern Transverse Ranges have experienced many fires since the original aerial photography was flown in 1938. Recent vegetation

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[3/] Vegetation Type Map Survey (VTM). On file, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station. Berkeley, CA. In care of Dr. William B. Critchfield.

TABLE 1 — VEGETATION SUMMARY

VEGETATION TYPE	AERIAL PHOTO DATA					VTM DATA[3]		
	1975[1] AREA	MEAN COVER[2]				SHRUB[4] COVER	PERCENT STEM DIAMETERS >24"[5]	
		OAK	CONIFER	SHRUB	TOTAL		OAK	CONIFER
CANYON LIVE OAK (W)	423.2	45	*	35	75	98	1	*
BIGCONE DOUGLAS FIR-CANYON LIVE OAK (BsW)	111.8	56	40	5	85	13	30	48
COULTER PINE-CANYON LIVE OAK ($\overline{C}$W)	32.4	35	25	40	80	22	14	16

1/ Total area of vegetation type (in hundreds of hectares)

2/ Percent

3/ Brush plot data of the vegetation type Map Survey. On file, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Berkeley, CA

4/ Percent

5/ Tree tally data; see 3/ above.

TABLE 2 — WILDLAND FIRE DAMAGE[1]

VEGE-TATION TYPE	1938 AREA[2,3]	TOTAL[3] FIRE AREA IN TYPE	DEFOR-ESTATION[3]	DEFOR-ESTATION RATE[4]	RECENT VEGETATION DAMAGE DEFORESTATION RATE (percent of stand)							
					EXPOSURE			SLOPE CLASS (degrees)				
					N	S	T	0-9	10-19	20-29	30-39	40
W	-	-	-	-	73	90	80	-	73	74	83	70
BsW	136.5	91.6	24.7	27	42	40	41	-	63	61	36	10
$\overline{C}$W	48.2	18.6	15.0	81	86	91	90	-	67	92	91	100

1/ Minnich 1978

2/ Computed from 1938 vegetation map.

3/ In hundreds of hectares

4/ Deforestation/Total fire area in type.

history up to the 1975 aerial coverage shows divergent burning regimes in bigcone Douglas fir and Coulter pine forests and the combustion of associated canyon live oak understory (Table 2).

Canyon live oak stands were very sensitive to fire, even low-intensity ground fires. Its defoliation rate either by char or scorch was a high 78% of stands (by area) in recent fires covered by color infrared aerial photography. The most resistant stands were those which assume tree size proportions in canyon bottoms, north facing slopes, and as open cover at higher elevations (Fig. 1). Shrub-like stands were destroyed in the same manner as chaparral because of the horizontal and vertical contiguity of fuels. There were also numerous islands of yellow-foliaged oak canopies on color infrared photography (CIR) surrounded by burned chaparral indicating that ground fires were able to scorch the overstory without burning them.

The partial fire-retardant character of tree-size oak woodlands appears to stem from several factors, including the large living biomass of individual trees, low dead fuel content of crowns owing to leaf fall in early summer and most importantly, the distance between the crown undercanopy and the ground surface fuels, which may be as much as 15 to 30 ft. (5 to 10 m).

Nearly 60 percent of bigcone Douglas fir forests escaped defoliation in recent fires. Fifteen percent resprouted later, giving a total survival rate of about 75 percent, approximating the long-term survival rate for all fires since 1938. Although this species has the advantage of height over other chaparral trees, its success in avoiding combustion may be better related to its general sympatry with

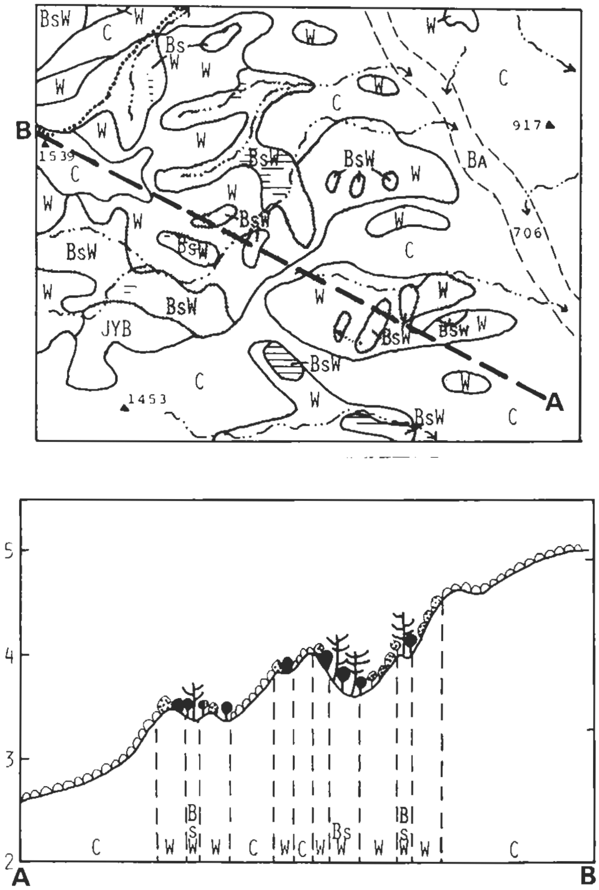

Figure 1. Fire map and profile of Lytle Creek Canyon burned in 1970. Surviving bigcone Douglas fir and tree-sized canyon live oak (BsW) in canyon bottoms (solid line work on profile, stipple on map) are surrounded by destroyed chamise chaparral and canyon live oak scrub on exposed slopes and ridges. Some bigcone Douglas fir resprouted later (slash on map). Elevation (y axis) in thousands of feet. Scale, 1:12,000.

tree-sized canyon live oak woodlands (Fig. 1). These oaks seem to act as a buffer against severe combustion characteristic of nearby chaparral. Analysis of CIR photography shows that the degree of fire injury sustained by bigcone Douglas fir is spatially congruent with the extent of fire damage to the canyon live oak; i.e., areas of surviving bigcone Douglas fir are underlain by either unburned or scorched oak. In all defoliated stands of bigcone Douglas fir, the oak was also burned.

The survival of bigcone Douglas fir was also enhanced by terrain roughness, especially where stands occupy vegetation-free cliffs, talus gullies and rugged canyons. These invariably impeded the momentum and intensity of the spreading conflagration. Survival of bigcone Douglas fir increases dramatically with increasing slope class from 37 percent on slopes less than 20° to more than 90 percent survival on slopes greater than 40°.

In contrast, most Coulter pine-canyon live oak stands involved in fire since 1938 were killed (81 percent, Fig. 2). The deforestation rate is also high for all slope classes. The physiognomy of this vegetation type virtually guarantees its destruction. The chaparral and oak understory normally burned completely and intensely, leaving little above-ground biomass except for largest fuels. Lacking shade stress, Coulter pine crowns extend downward to the

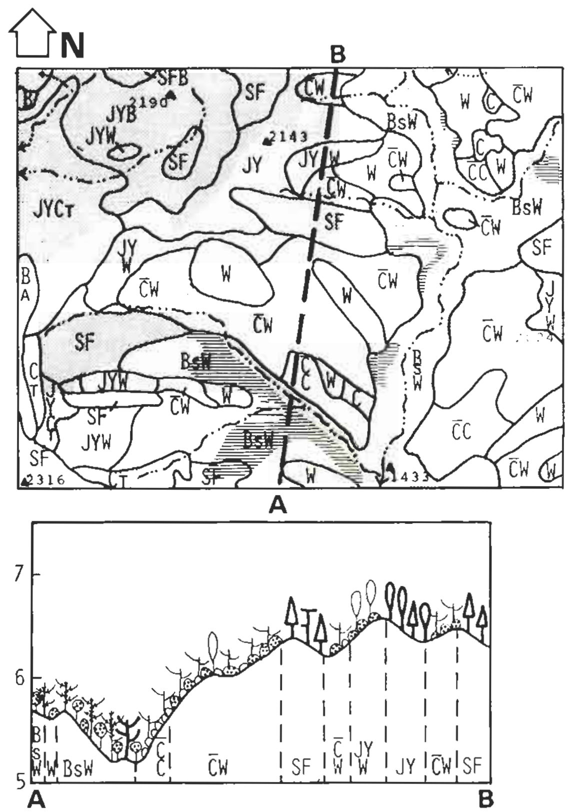

Figure 2. Fire map and profile of Bear Canyon burned in 1970. Sequence of burned Coulter Pine ($\bar{C}$) and unburned mixed conifer forests (Yellow pine, JY; Sugar Pine-White Fir, SF) on south and north facing slopes, respectively. Coulter pine was destroyed more completely because of the greater abundance of canyon live oak scrub and chamise chaparral understory ($\bar{C}$W, $\bar{C}$C). Bigcone Douglas fir groves on cliffs at the bottom of Bear Canyon escaped the burn or resprouted. For explanation of linework, toning, and scale, see Figure 1.

TABLE 3 — POST-FIRE VEGETATION RECOVERY[1/]

VEGETATION TYPE	AGE CLASS (yr.)	TRANSECTS (no.)	MEAN STAND AGE (yr.)	TOTAL SHRUB, WOODLAND COVER (percent)	CANYON LIVE OAK COVER (percent)	CONIFER REPRO. FREQUENCY/ 100 m	PERCENT CONIFER SAPLINGS >15 ft (5 m) TALL
C̄W	0-9	9	4	71	29	3.2	0
	30+	2	43	89	26	7.4	50
BsW	0-9	13	4	63	27	0	0
	10-19	11	18	85	30	0.1	0
	20-29	7	23	75	32	0.6	-
	30+	3	54+	77	75	1.1	50

1/ Compiled from field transects (Minnich 1978).

burning vegetal understory and easily ignite. Many stands also occur on smooth undissected slopes where conflagrations may sustain great intensities without topographic interruptions.

POST-FIRE VEGETATION SUCCESSION

The distribution of canyon live oak changed little between 1938-75 because it sprouts vigorously and stand turnover is minimal. After fire, most individuals sent up numerous stems from a basal woody mass which later developed into a large spherically shaped shrub. Root sprouting was characteristic not only for incinerated individuals, but also for those merely scorched. A few individuals crown-sprouted but only if they were quite large, having adequate bark thickness to prevent cambium damage, and only marginally singed. 1938 and 1975 aerial photographs indicate that the stature of most canyon live oak stands experiencing fire disturbance since 1938 was markedly reduced and in some cases, tree-size assemblages were reduced to shrubs. Cross comparison of stands of different age class show a pattern of rapid early growth, then continuous height extension thereafter, reaching 10 to 20 ft. (3-6 m) after ca. 50 years.

Early post-fire recovery of destroyed Coulter pine forests is visually dominated by rapid redevelopment of sclerophyllous shrub vegetation (table 3). Dominant species were chiefly sprouters including Adenostoma fasciculatum, Arctostaphylos glandulosa, Quercus wislizenii and canyon live oak. There were lesser quantities of shrub seedlings, mostly Ceanothus integerrimus, C. leucodermis, C. greggii vestitus, and Adenostoma fasciculatum. Sprouting canyon live oak were 3 to 6 ft. (1-2 m) tall in 4-year-old burns and 5 to 15 ft. (2-5 m) tall in 10 to 20-year-old burns.

There was an abundance of Coulter pine seedlings in nearly every transect covering recent burns including the large Bear fire 50,000 acres (20,000 hectares) which occurred 4 years before field work. Most individuals in this burn were 6-18 inches (10-30 cm) tall and contained 2 or 3 branch whorls suggesting they germinated either 1 or 2 years after the fire. The offspring germinated from seed stored in cones persistent on nearby adults killed by the fire. Abundant slightly scorched open cones were observed on the ground at the top of killed trees. Coulter pine is not a closed cone pine, yet its reproductive strategy appears similar to Knobcone pine (Pinus attenuata) which is truly serotinous (Vogl 1968). Because cones appear to open in mid-winter, they were apparently closed at the time of the fire (November). Because cones and seed are heavy, long-range seed dispersal from nearest living populations several miles distant is unlikely. Reproduction was most abundant along roads and trails where soil compaction and surface erosion from subsequent winter rains may have improved seed bed preparation.

Comparison of stands by age class indicates that the pine develops height advantage over associated shrub and woodland species. Individuals averaged 5 to 15 ft. (2-5 m) height after 20 years and 25 to 50 ft. (8-15 m) after 45 years. Cones were produced within 10 years. Second generation saplings beneath mature trees and brush, however, were consistently in poor condition in heavy shade. It appears that, like most yellow pines, this species' regeneration is enhanced by disturbance.

Post-fire crown sprouting of bigcone Douglas fir after the 1970 Meyer and Bear fires became detectable in subsequent aerial photography flown 2 to 3 years afterwards. Sprouting success appears dependent primarily on site severity of combustion rather than tree-size class. As a rule, scorched stands with persistent dead foliage resprouted, but severely burned stands were killed. Moreover, field reconnaissance of stands burned recently by the 1975 "Village" fire near Mt. Baldy, revealed a striking sprouting success among polesize trees and saplings as small as 10 ft. (3 m) in height. In a number of individuals, sprouting proved to be abortive after one season, but others recovered rapidly to full crown within 2 to 3 years.

Areas of bigcone Douglas fir deforested since 1938 were converted into canyon live oak ranging from an open stand of root sprout rosettes mixed with chaparral in recent burns to contiguous woodlands in stands older than 30 years (table 3). Four years after the 1970 Bear and Meyer fires, destroyed stands were dominated by the carcasses of bigcone Douglas fir and canyon live oak. Living biomass consisted of canyon live oak sprouts 3 to 6 ft. (1-2 m) in height and seedlings of *Ceanothus integerrimus* and *C. leucodermis*. In older stands 15 to 30 years of age, shrubs and canyon live oak formed a relatively impenetrable chaparral 3 to 10 ft. (1-3 m) in height with emergent oaks as tall as 15 ft. (5 m). In stands older than 30 years, robust canyon live oak trees, still multi-stemmed and shrub-like, formed a closed canopy 15 to 30 ft. (5-10 m) tall. Chaparral understory was not present except for carcasses of *Ceanothus* spp. which died *en masse* at about 30 years of age.

In contrast with disturbed Coulter pine forests, bigcone Douglas fir reproduction in deforested stands was practically non-existent. No offspring was found in stands less than 19 years old (24 transects covering 2995 m). A few seedlings and saplings were found in stands at least 55 years old. The reasons for this are unclear. Cones and seed are killed by fire. Long-distance seed dispersal from living populations by wind may be inefficient because the seed is heavy. Reproduction may also be inhibited by the lack of shade due to the combustion of canyon live oak, a time-consuming condition for shade-tolerant bigcone Douglas fir which must await the redevelopment of oak overstory. Field reconnaissance elsewhere in the study area suggest that reproduction was most conspicuous in the least disturbed habitats free of fire for 50 years.

DISCUSSION

Analysis of the vegetation history of the eastern Transverse Ranges for the period 1938-75 suggests that the rate of deforestation and recovery of bigcone Douglas fir and Coulter pine forest is different. This is explained by the variable physiognomic and fuel characteristics of canyon live oak in promoting contrasting fire regimes. Coulter pine is usually sympatric with shrub canyon live oak admixed with chamise chaparral and effectively adapts to frequent severe fire through its closed cone tendency during the fire season, drought tolerance, and vigorous regeneration to reproductive stage within two or three decades. The life span of shrub species is greater than the interval between fires; shrubs and therefore a permanent part of the vegetation which actually contribute to the deforestation of Coulter pine overstory. Frequent intense disturbance, therefore, appears to be compatible with this species.

Bigcone Douglas fir occupies steep slopes with relatively non-flammable tree-sized canyon live oak woodlands. It frequently escapes fire or sprouts after moderately intense fires. The interval between defoliating fires is long enough for the maturation of slow growing saplings and concomitant development of tree-sized canyon live oak which root sprout. Shrub seedlings which germinate after fire disturbance, mostly *Ceanothus*, are short-lived and do not contribute as fuels to the next fire. Bigcone Douglas fir reproduces best in the shade of the oak canopy. Because of its poor reproductive capacity, it cannot compete with highly flammable chamise chaparral where the frequency of lethal fire events exceeds its regeneration time. Instead, bigcone Douglas fir refuges in canyons with canyon live oak, especially at lower elevations.

In spite of their common distribution by elevation and association with canyon live oak, bigcone Douglas fir and Coulter pine are seldom found together. The stability of bigcone Douglas fir canyon live oak forests would appear to be adverse to Coulter pine. Clearly, if stands normally escape fire, then shady undisturbed conditions would not be conducive for the regeneration of Coulter pine which reproduces and grows best under disturbed mineral soil conditions in full sun. Moreover, the occasional circumstances of stand defoliation would select in favor of bigcone Douglas fir because of its sprouting habit when Coulter pine would be killed. Conversely, the intense disturbance pattern associated with chaparral or canyon live oak scrub would select for Coulter pine because it is a good pioneer compared to bigcone Douglas fir.

This is seen where their distributions overlap and their sympatry with canyon live oak. Bigcone Douglas fir tends to occupy the most sheltered, interrupted slope surfaces where canyon live oak is relatively non-flammable owing to its size. On exposed smooth brush-covered slopes where Coulter pine is found, canyon live oak is a fuel contributing to the disturbance necessary for the pine.

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Quercus agrifolia

The Fire Resistance of Engelmann and Coast Live Oak Seedlings[1]

Gerald E. Snow[2/]

Abstract: Southern oak woodlands have probably experienced more frequent fires in the past than during the last 30-50 years. Mature Engelmann (Quercus engelmanni) and coast live oaks (Q. agrifolia) appear to survive most fires except the hottest brush fires. However, differential seedling and sapling resistance to fire may have an influence on where these species grow. Seedlings of both species were burned under controlled conditions. Buds of Engelmann oak are better protected and/or more resistant to fire and heat than those of coast live oak. An analysis of 15 Vegetation Type Map survey profiles in southern California of stands containing either or both of these species would tend to indicate Engelmann oak grows more frequently in or next to more fire prone habitats. Woodlands with Engelmann oak are quite rare and many have already been and are continuing to be lost to agricultural and urban development.

INTRODUCTION

Southern oak woodland (Griffin 1977) occurs in patches surrounded by an almost continuous sea of brush (chaparral) while to the north the chaparral occurs primarily as islands surrounded by oak woodland (Benson 1957). Since chaparral has had such a long history with fire (Aschmann 1976 and Hanes 1977) one might expect oak woodlands to be influenced in composition and between-species distribution by fires also. Up until the last 30-50 years fires were more frequent, resulting in less fuel to carry hot destructive fires into woodlands (Aschmann 1976 and Dodge 1975). Due to fire supression with resulting fuel buildup, we have recently experienced fires in southern California which have destroyed half of the oaks in some woodlands (Dodge 1975).

1/ Presented at the symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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The 2 major oak species in southern oak woodlands are Engelmann oak (Quercus engelmanni Greene) and coast live oak (Q. agrifolia Nee) the former often growing in open savannas called the "Engelmann oak phase" and the later growing in denser more widespread woodlands termed the "coast live oak phase" (Griffin 1977). Some of the factors influencing the reproduction and distribution of these 2 species on the Santa Rosa plateau in the Santa Ana Mts. were inhibition of seedling establishment by cattle in open areas (especially Engelmann) and the consentration of coast live oak around rock outcrops (especially in cracks and the north side) due to ground squirrel transport and high moisture requirements for germination (Snow 1973).

This paper presents some evidence that the differential response of these 2 species to fire during establishment may be an additional factor influencing their distribution on the Santa Rosa plateau and in woodland communities in southern California.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

As an index to the resistance of the 2 oak species to fire, greenhouse grown seedlings were observed for resprouting following 2 intensities of burning. Three wooden boxes were filled with vermiculite and 10 acorns of each species per box were planted alternately 1.5 cm below the surface in January 1971. After germination was completed in the laboratory at 20°C the seedlings were transferred to the greenhouse under controlled day temperatures of 21 to 24°C and a night temperature of 16°C. The seedlings were watered to field capacity twice each week with 1 of the waterings made with a nutrient solution.

After the seedlings were 4 months old, the vermiculite in the boxes had settled about 1.5 cm. About 1.5 cm of field-collected soil was added to the top of the boxes, watered and smoothed out and allowed to dry in order to provide a more realistic soil surface for the burn treatment. In order not to disturb the dry soil surface, the boxes were subirrigated once a week.

After the seedlings were 5 months old (up to 15 cm tall) they were prepared for the burn treatment. All of the seedlings stems were clipped from between 1.5 and 2.5 cm above the soil surface thereby removing all the leaves. This was done to provide an even exposure of the stems and soil surface to the burner heat and flame. One of the 3 seedling boxes was not burned in order to provide a control for the clipping treatment. Of the 2 remaining burn treatment seedling boxes, 1 was treated to simulate a light grass fire and the other a more intense grass fire.

The intensity of the burn treatments was monitored using 3 thermocouples 20 cm apart at the soil surface in each box. The thermocouples were positioned so that 1 side was exposed to the air and the other in contact with the soil. The temperatures were continuously recorded using a Sanborn 350 multiple channel recorder.

To effect the burn treatments a seedling box was placed in a gravel bed over which a propane burner was pulled on a track at an adjustable constant rate of speed. The burner was a one-twelfth scale model of the burner box described by Bonlie and Kirk (1971). For the light burn treatment the burner was passed over the seedlings 10 cm above the soil surface at a rate of 10 cm per second resulting in an average peak soil surface temperature of 85°C and 4 seconds above 65°C. For the more intense burn treatment the burner was passed over the seedlings at the same height but with more flame and half the speed of the light burn treatment. This resulted in an average peak soil surface temperature of 175°C and 20 seconds above 65°C.

After the clipping and burn treatments the seedlings were maintained for 2 months under the greenhouse conditions described above. At weekly intervals any new shoots were noted at or above the soil surface and the distance in millimeters from the soil surface to the new shoot base above or below the soil surface was recorded.

The occurrence of the 2 oak species in different woodland types in southern California and the immediately adjacent habitats was tabulated from 15 profiles of California vegetation based on "Vegetative Type Maps" (VTM) surveyed between 1928 and 1934 (Critchfield 1971 and U.S. Forest Service 1934).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The resprouting curves for the clipping and burn treatments are presented in figure 1. Engelmann oak resprouted more rapidly after clipping (100 percent after 1 week) than did coast live oak (50 percent after 1 week; 100 percent after 2 weeks). Engelmann resprouted more quickly and completely after the burn treatments (100 percent after 3 weeks) than did coast live oak (80 percent after 6 weeks). The largest difference between species and treatment occurred 2 weeks following the burn treatments. Then Engelmann and coast live oak had 90 percent and 10 percent resprouting respectively following the light burn while after the more intense burn they had 60 percent and 10 percent resprouting respectively.

In the control seedlings all the resprouts were well above the soil surface from the highest buds remaining on the clipped stems. In the light burn treatment the mean distance from the soil surface to the new shoot base was 2.2 mm below the surface for Engelmann oak (ranging from 4 mm above to 8 mm below) and 5.4 mm below the surface for coast live oak (ranging from 3 mm above to 14 mm below). In the more intense burn treatment this mean distance was 5.2 mm below the surface for Engelmann oak (ranging from the soil surface to 10 mm below) and 7.8 below the surface for coast live oak (ranging from 4 mm below to 11 mm below). Although Engelmann oak tended to have buds resprouting closer to the surface than coast live oak, in the burn treatments the means were not significantly different at the 0.05 level.

Tothill and Shaw (1968) recorded soil surface temperatures under fire in grass pastures in Australia. They found that these temperatures varied considerably according to the fuel supply and environmental conditions. The temperatures they recorded ran from 75°C to well over 220°C but peak temperatures above 100°C had a duration of a minute or less. Temperatures they recorded 12 mm below the surface seldom exceeded 65 to

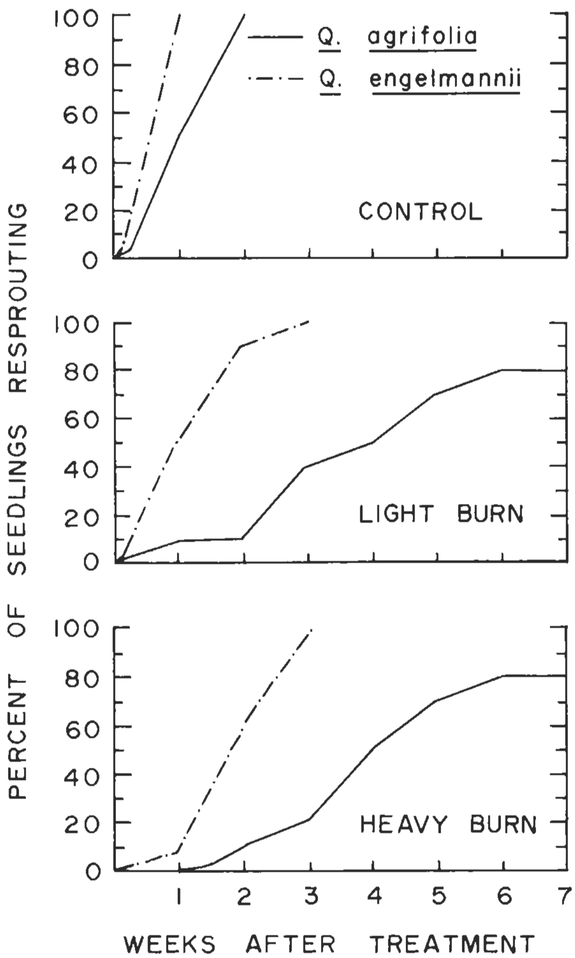

Figure 1--The resprouting curves of coast live oak (Quercus agrifolia) and Engelmann oak (Q. engelmannii) after being treated by clipping (control), light burning, and heavy burning.

70°C. Heyward (1938) recorded surface and below-surface temperatures in an open pine forest burn with grass understory. At 12 mm depth there was very little rise in temperature. With drier soils there were higher surface temperatures recorded but less heat conducted downward. Bentley and Fenner (1958) recorded a maximum of 121°C at the soil surface in a woodland range fire. Lawrence (1966) recorded 280°C "on a grassy surface" in a California chaparral fire. Based on these previous studies the peak surface temperature of 85°C used in the light burn in this study would be considered quite cool for a grass fire. The 175°C peak used in the more intense burn might be considered a moderate or hot surface temperature for a grass fire.

In this study the two intensities of burning had little effect on the completeness of recovery; mainly an effect on the speed of recovery which would be related to the depth from which a shoot might come from below the surface until it was noted at the surface. Even though the distances measured from the soil surface to the base of the new shoots were not significantly different between the 2 species due to the wide range of values, only half of the Engelmann oak buds above the soil surface were killed with the light burn treatment while 80 percent of the above surface buds on coast live oak were killed with this treatment. In the more intense burn treatment the coast live oak buds 4 mm below the surface were the highest buds on the stem to resprout while 40 percent of the Engelmann oak buds resprouting were between this level and the soil surface. Apparently the buds of Engelmann oak are better protected and/or more resistant to fire and heat than those of coast live oak. Also the buds of the cotyledonary node (the lowest point on the stem from which new shoots normally arise) of Engelmann oak are about 14 mm below those of coast live oak due to the self-planting mechanism of Engelmann oak (Snow 1973). With a dry soil surface for insulation I would expect Engelmann oak seedlings to survive rather intense grass fires.

While mature trees of both species probably survive most fires (Lawrence, 1966; Wells, 1962), saplings may be more vulnerable. On some saplings of both species that I cut off near the ground (4.0-7.5 cm diameter and 15 to 23 years old), the bark (live and dead) of Engelmann oak was more than twice as thick (5.7 mm) as the bark of coast live oak (2-3 mm). I would expect that the thicker bark of Engelmann oak saplings would afford them more protection from fire than coast live oak saplings. Lawrence (1966), studying the effect of chaparral fires in the foothills of the Sierra Nevada in California, found that the insulating effect of cracked and fractured granite boulder outcrops was sufficient to protect several woody species that would otherwise have been destroyed. The protection from fire afforded to coast live oak by being associated with granite rock outcrops especially in cracks or fractures within outcrops may be another explanation for their occurrence in these locations on the Santa Rosa plateau.

From the southern California VTM survey profiles (478 km total length) only 13 stands of woodland containing Engelmann oak occurred while 111 stands of coast live oak below 1,000 meters elevation were noted. The percent occurrence of each species in 4 woodland types ranked from the highest fire frequency (historically) to the least were:

	Engelmann Oak	Coast Live Oak
Mixture or mosaic of grass or coastal sage	23	23
Mixture or mosaic of chaparral	8	2
Largely closed canopy	62	37
Riparian	8	39

Both species may be excluded from chaparral due to the more intense heat generated in chaparral fires. Debano and Conrad (1978) recorded soil surface temperatures in chaparral fires more than twice that used in this study simulating a moderately hot grass fire. Fires in closed canopy woodlands would usually be ground fires similar to grass fires.

I created the riparian woodland type out of the closed canopy woodland of the VTM survey when either species of oak was in a canyon bottom and associated with a typical riparian species such as cottonwood, sycamore, alder or willow. It is in this woodland type where the greatest difference between these oaks is seen. This occurrence of coast live oak in wetter sites and Engelmann oak in drier has also been noted for all of the Santa Ana Mountains (Lathrop and Thorne 1978). Because of Engelmann oak occurrence in more dry habitats it would more likely be exposed to fire. Plumb (1979) has noted however that mature coast live oaks are the most fire resistant of all other southern California oak species (mature Engelmann have not been evaluated).

A tabulation of the vegetation types (from the VTM survey profiles) next to oak woodlands indicated 65 percent were chamise chaparral for woodlands with Engelmann oak present but only 37 percent when coast live oak was present. Coast live oaks were associated with 6 other vegetation types while Engelmann was associated with only 3. The other vegetation types adjacent to Engelmann containing woodlands were grassland, coastal sage and agricultural or residential. Most of these woodlands have been or are being lost to agricultural and urban development. Protection of the few remaining "Engelmann oak phase" woodlands should be a high priority item for oak management in southern California.

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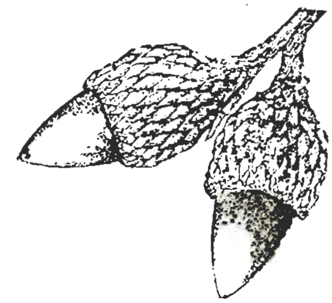

Quercus wislizenii

Inventory and Distribution Records of Oaks in California[1]

Timothy E. Paysen[2]

Abstract: Inventory and distribution records for California's oaks are poor. Our requirements for information about California oaks have been evolving, but classification systems and related inventory systems have not kept pace. Unless we understand and promote the interactive data communication process, the inventory and distribution records on California's oaks will not improve. Once we have clearly established our information requirements, as by developing inventory models, we can use existing technology to fill the gaps in our knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

Our knowledge about the distribution of California's oaks is clearly inadequate. We have a general idea of where we may find the various species of oaks that grow in the State of California; we don't know how many of each species we will find, nor do we know very much about their condition and physical characteristics.

Why is this true? I believe it is because our knowledge of oaks, like that of any resource, results from the interaction between our information requirements and the response that is made to them. We do not know enough because we have not properly determined what we need to know.

In this paper, I will show how our failure to define our needs has affected the inventory and distribution records of oaks in California. The relations between information needs and the activities that lead to development of a data base are diagrammed in figure 1. All these activities reflect a set of requirements. Exploring the relationships shown, in terms of oak distribution, will help us to see how future efforts to improve our knowledge should be directed.

1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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INVENTORIES AND INFORMATION NEEDS

Current Information

An understanding of oak distribution begins with species range. The ranges of California's oaks are well documented. We can follow historical references from the expedition records of early California travelers,[3] through the time of Kellogg and Greene (1889) and Cooper (1922), to current "discoveries" of investigators who encounter oaks in the field. Together, these form a pattern of oak distribution in the State of California that is controversial only in minor points. The information has been well summarized for the tree species of oaks by Griffin and Critchfield (1972).

Information on the specific areal distribution of individual oak species within their ranges is less easily available and our needs are less clearly defined. Are we interested only in extensive, dense stands of oak trees, or also in sparsely scattered stands, or even in scattered individuals within a matrix of other species? Until we can answer this question, our knowledge of oak distribution will be rather shallow. Isolated inventories provide us with some answers (see, for example, Bolsinger 1980 and McBride 1973), but a comprehensive account of oak distribution does not exist.

3/Extracts of these records are in the files of A. E. Wieslander, available at the Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Berkeley, Calif.

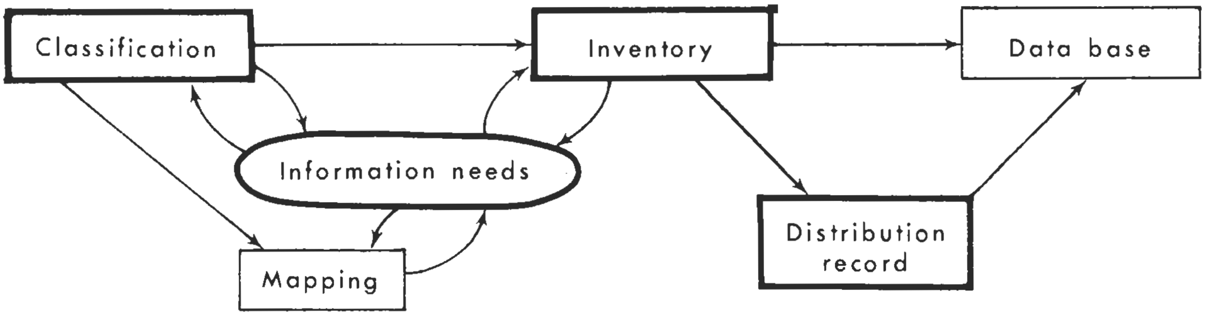

Figure 1--Our knowledge about any given resource is the result of an interactive process. The definition of information requirements is a key element, linking the abstract (classification) to the tangible (data acquisition, storage, and retrieval). This paper is primarily concerned with the elements emphasized.

When anyone asks how many oaks we have in California, or wants more technical details about their numbers, we have little choice than to turn to a 1946 Forest Survey release (Wieslander and Jensen 1946) and quote the number of acres covered by the Woodland (hardwoods) vegetation type. We may then add some qualifying statement that reflects our guess as to the questioner's reason for asking. We can only assume that some proportion of this Woodland type is oak. Furthermore, we must assume that an unknown proportion of other vegetation types mentioned in the publication, such as Woodland-grass, Pine, and Chaparral, contain oak. And, of course, we don't know the density of oaks in any of these types, nor do we know anything about the type structure in general.

Classification and Inventory

If we reconsider the information diagram (fig. 1), we see that classification is the first step in the process. General information requirements usually stem from an ill-defined classification system, based on recognition of primitive traits. Once these requirements have been specified, a formal classification emerges. More definite information requirements then generate inventories, with the target of each inventory directly defined by a specific information requirement. The framework of these inventories is defined by the classification system. The arrows in the diagram point up the two-way process.

A classification system is simply the embodiment of our concept of a particular set of things, and it provides a language for communicating this concept. The very basic unit that we call an oak community, a stand of oaks, or an element of an oak vegetation type, is defined and limited by the classification system we use. If we work with a formally defined system, our concept is formally defined, and we can test its adequacy. If we work with a loosely defined system, our concept is loosely defined, and we really don't know where we are.

To see how our dearth of knowledge is related to classification, consider the major categories used in a number of prominent classification systems to directly or indirectly address California's oaks (table 1). Each system represents the perspective of a particular resource management function, organization, or discipline. Consider also the selected lists (table 2) of formally recognized oak species; these lists are associated with the classification systems in Table 1, or, more generally, with the functions, organizations, and disciplines represented by those systems.

An interesting picture emerges. Table 1 reveals that the concept of oak "types" or oak "communities" is viewed from a number of different perspectives by resource management professionals. Of the classification systems in Table 1, four come from a single organization, the Forest Service, but each represents a different viewpoint. Each breaks down the broad vegetation categories with a different degree of precision. The names of the classes that could include oak as a component represent unique functional perspectives: (1) commercial timber value, (2) range habitat, (3) a global synthesis of each, and (4) a structural breakdown of vegetation using physiognomic criteria. Formal recognition of specific oak communities or vegetation types (those identified by a given species of oak) is limited to a small number of geographic "types" within the Forest Survey system. These are categories included for completeness; however, no commercial timber value is implied for these oak species.

The Society of American Foresters (S.A.F.) system is not directly represented by a species list in Table 2, but it represents the perspective of a national forestry society, and

Table 1--Categories in vegetation classification systems that specify or include California's oaks.

Forest Survey Handbook (U.S. Dep. Agric., For. Serv. 1975)			Range Analysis Handbook (Forest Serv. 1969)	RPA Assessment (Forest Serv. 1975)		VTM Survey (Critchfield 1971)	Society of American Foresters (1954)	California Plant Communities Munz (1963)	
Geographic Forest Type (GFT)	Oak reference in GFT	Local types (GFT)	Vegetation type	Category	Classification	Vegetation types	Cover types	Vegetation type	Plant community
Redwood	Tanoak	---	Broadleaf trees	Forest types	Commercial timber	Chaparral	Oak-madrone	Coniferous forest	Redwood forest
Hardwoods	Other western hardwoods	California black oak	Woodland-chaparral	Nonforest type	Western hardwoods	Timberland-chaparral	California black oak		Douglas-fir forest
		Canyon live oak				Woodland-chaparral	Canyon live oak		Yellow pine forest
		Oak-madrone				Woodland-sagebrush	Digger pine-oak		
		Chaparral							
Noncommercial types	Chaparral	Chaparral (with <u>Quercus</u> spp.)				Woodland-grass		Mixed evergreen forest	Mixed evergreen forest
						Woodland			
						Pine and pine/Douglas-fir		Woodland savannah	Northern oak woodland
									Southern oak woodland
									Foothill woodland
								Chaparral	Chaparral
								Desert woodland	Pinyon-juniper woodland

Table 2--Species of California's oaks recognized in major source documents relating to the distribution or inventory of oaks and other flora. These lists can be associated directly or indirectly with the classification systems in table 1.

Quercus species	Physical characterisics				Forest Survey Handbook (1975)	Range Analysis Handbook (1969)	Wieslander and Jensen (1946)	Munz (1963)	Griffin and Critchfield (1972)	Little (1971, 1976)
	Ever-green	Decid-uous	Tree	Shrub						
agrifolia	X		X		X		X	X	X	X
x alvordiana	X		2/	2/			X	X	X	
chrysolepis	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
douglasii		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
dumosa	X			X		X	X	X		
dunnii1/	X			X				X		X
durata	X			X		X	X	X		
engelmanii	2/	2/	X		X		X	X	X	X
garryana		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
kelloggii		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
lobata		X	X		X		X	X	X	X
macdonaldii		X	X					X		X
x morehus	X		X					X	X	
sadleriana	X			X				X		
tomentella	X		X					X	X	X
turbinella	X			X				X		X
vaccinifolia	X			X		X	X	X		
wislizenii	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X

1/Recognized as *Q. palmeri* in Munz (1963).

2/Listed in either category, depending on source.

serves as a point of reference. In its treatment of oak vegetation classes, the S.A.F. system offers little more than the Forest Survey system does. The reasons for this are not obvious since the S.A.F. perspective is not limited to timber production. The system was designed, however, to characterize major forest types that occupy "large areas in the aggregate" (Soc. Amer. For. 1954), which explains why its treatment of western oak types or oak communities differs little from that of the economics-oriented timber survey system. Both systems must take on a somewhat global perspective, and individual western oak species do not dominate extensive land masses.

The one "neutral" plant community system—that of Munz (1963)—hints at the importance of oaks, but does not address them by species. Munz did not intend to be more precise than this; he wanted to provide a plant community classification system at a very general level.

It is interesting that none of the classification systems identifies communities or types specific to the oak species recognized in the species list associated with it (except for Quercus kelloggii and Q. chrysolepis, both represented in the Forest Survey system and the S.A.F. system). For some species, this is probably reasonable, since not all oaks dominate the stands in which they grow.

A functional and organizational disagreement on the significance of the various species is evident from Table 2, but there is inconsistency between the lists that can't be entirely explained by such perspectives. For example, the Range Analysis Handbook does not recognize Quercus lobata nor Q. agrifolia even though they are important components of oak-grass communities in many parts of the State. These two species are more characteristic of rangelands than are many of the other species listed in the Handbook.

Together, Tables 1 and 2 show that in broad-scaled inventories, California's oaks are relegated to a nebulous "other" category. They do not fit into the classical commercial timber pattern, and therefore do not appear in timber-oriented classification systems. Oaks often appear as elements of range ecosystems, but their treatment in range-oriented classification systems is little better than that in the timber systems.

Although these conclusions are not surprising, their implications may not be fully appreciated. What we as individuals and as professionals see when we survey vegetation depends strictly on the classification system that we use. The framework used for data collection, and the categories used for data storage, are directly linked to classification.

Masking in Inventories

Some of us may not like to admit that we inventory what we think is there--it sounds unscientific; but there is no other way.[4/] The focus of an inventory, the way sampling is designed, and often what we do and do not measure, are all related to concepts embodied in the classification system that we use. If we do not recognize an oak community, we are not going to inventory it. We may measure oak trees, but the information that defines a community will often be masked. This brings us to another relation between inventories and information needs: we must be able to single out communities that, while dominated by species other than oaks, have oaks as integral components.

An interesting example is found in a recent sampling study (Paysen 1978). The study area was in a portion of the San Bernardino Mountains, and covered a variety of vegetation types (fig. 2). The area is commonly described as one containing distinct zones of soft chaparral or coastal sage, chaparral, and conifer forest or mixed conifer-hardwood forest. It is not an area that we would normally describe as an "oak area"--a place that is dominated by the genus Quercus. Yet, the data reveal an overwhelming occurrence of oaks--not only in numbers, but in the biomass that may be assumed to be present, that is, potential biomass.

If we consider all of the major species found in the area (excluding annuals that were unavailable during the time of sampling), and look at the live oaks as a group, we see that the presence of the live oaks is greater than that of any other species (fig. 3). Grouping the different species of live oaks in this manner may seem a bit unfair, but as I am addressing the presence of oaks in general, the grouping is valid. Black oak (Q. kelloggii) has been charted as a distinct species. Furthermore, the presence of black oak compares admirably with that of each of the other species; as a matter of fact, the data imply that it is the most ubiquitous tree species in the area. If the volume of space occupied by the plants is used as a relative indication,

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[4/]Exceptions are exploratory activities such as "botanizing," which differ from the formally defined inventory process, but are probably the best source of our information on species ranges.

the live oaks have more potential biomass than any other species in the study area (fig. 4), and black oak again holds its own quite well when compared to the other species.

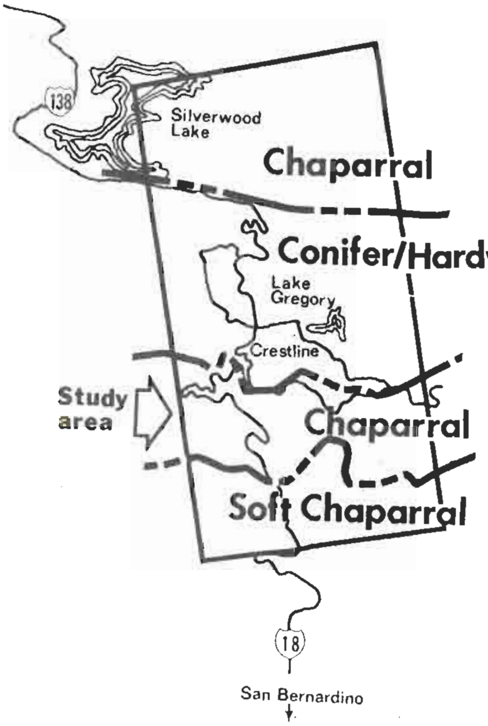

Figure 2--Vegetation zones in the San Bernardino Mountains study area were found to contain large numbers of oaks.

Looking at these results, we realize that a review of maps, classification systems applied to the area, and distribution records would not give a clue to the importance of oaks in this area. The oaks are masked in the record by such terms as "chaparral" and "conifer forest." There is nothing that would provoke a request for inventory data on oaks in that portion of the San Bernardino Mountains. Such a request could only come from someone who has firsthand knowledge of their importance as components of the vegetation cover.

The Inventory Model

The relation between inventories and information needs raises another question: How are we going to get the information we need about oaks? Assuming that we can recognize oak communities and communities wherein oak is an important associate, we can go out and count oaks. But, what if we want productivity information? What if we want information on suitability for a particular management objective? We cannot get these kinds of information without the appropriate inventory models and the appropriate identification criteria.

Inventory models allow us to determine the amounts of a particular resource, or more commonly of a particular resource value, from a functional perspective, by measuring easily obtained parameters in the field. The required information might be board feet of timber, pounds of forage, or acres of multiple-stemmed trees suitable for a particular recreation activity. Until our information requirements clearly state the kind of productivity that is needed, and the viewpoint for assessing suitability (say, recreation use or fuelwood use), we will not be able to develop identification criteria and inventory models. And we will not have our inventories.

After living so long with timber-oriented inventory models, we are shocked when we realize that we have to start from first principles in developing site index curves, and productivity tables for trees that we have been looking at all of our lives. Work in these areas is just beginning (Pillsbury and Stephens 1978, Powers 1972). One thing is clear: we will have to define such concepts as growing site and productivity for oaks in other than timber production terms. The relation between board feet of merchantable timber and cubic feet of fuelwood, for example, is not direct. Neither are the number of trees per acre on good timber site and the number of trees per acre on good recreation site equivalent measures. Our current interest in oaks, in itself, is not enough to generate inventory data and complete distribution records as I have defined them here. We must develop appropriate systems by which to recognize oak communities, and communities with strong oak associations. We must then proceed to develop inventory models that will address our specific requirements. We then have to adjust our management focus in a way that will allow oak inventory requirements to receive an appropriate priority. Only then can an adequate inventory of California's oaks proceed.

Available Tools

Once we have developed inventory techniques and inventory rationale, the job of collecting data should be straightforward. California's oaks have a distinct inventory advantage over many other species--they are easy to find. Remote sensing products that are readily available provide an easy means of identifying stands of oaks. Infrared photography, in particular, is a useful tool. By virtue of their structure and leaf

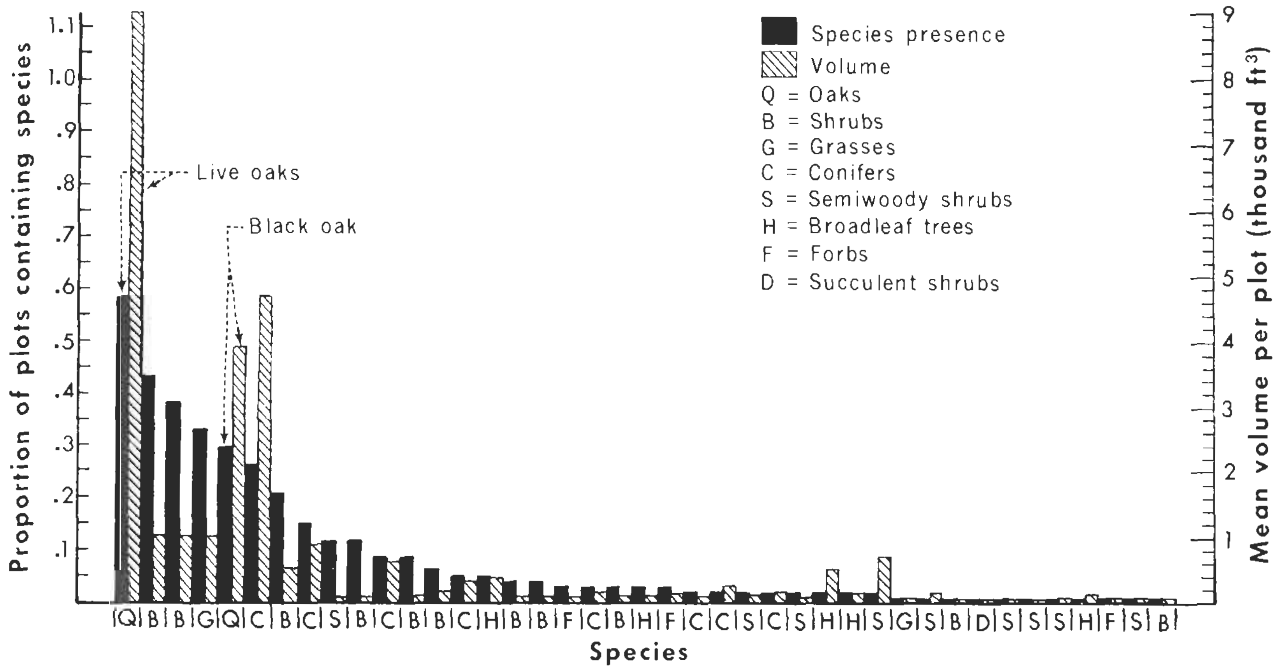

Figure 3--The importance of oak species in the San Bernardino Mountains study area is evident from their presence in relation to other plants, and from their mean volume, which can be viewed as a relative indicator of biomass. Each set of bars represents a different species, except that live-oaks include Quercus agrifolia, Q. chrysolepis, Q. dumosa, and Q. wislizenii.

configuration, oak trees stand out clearly within stands of conifers, within chaparral, and in grasslands. We can take advantage of small-scale imagery for sample layout work and rough estimation, and use large-scale imagery for detailed inventory work.

EVOLVING INFORMATION NEEDS

The relation of information requirements to classification systems is a continuing one. Slowly, as inventories proceed, and as we begin to look at resource systems in greater depth, our information requirements change, eventually reaching a point at which they no longer call for additional inventories driven by the original formal classification systems. Then these systems are modified, or even replaced, to accommodate the new set of information requirements.

This does not always proceed at a steady rate. We sometimes let existing classification systems--and their secondary products, such as maps and inventoried data--define our information requirements. The result is a kind of holding pattern, which inhibits recognition of new or emerging lines of investigation of the resource.

We can identify the evolutionary process in the development of oak inventory. Organizations that deal with large-scale resource inventory are just beginning to adopt classification systems that allow recognition of oak communities to some degree of depth[5] (Paysen and others 1980, Browne and Lowe 1974). These systems will provide the appropriate framework for collecting data, and "pigeon holes" for storing data; they will encourage others to begin to ask questions about the oak communities that are being recognized; resource inventories will be able to take on a new dimension.

In summary, although the present state of our knowledge regarding the inventory and distribution of California's oaks is perceived as being poor, this cannot be established as fact until our information requirements are clearly stated. Only then will we be able to evaluate the state of our knowledge, and establish the links in the information process. Adequate classification systems, and responsive inventory systems and techniques will provide

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[5] Driscoll, Richard S., J. W. Russel, and M. C. Meier. Recommended national land classification system for renewable resource assessments. Unpublished report on file, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Exp. Stn., Forest Serv., U.S. Dep. Agric., Ft. Collins, Colo.

the inventory and distribution records that are needed.

We have the tools and technology needed to fill the gaps in our knowledge; all we have to do then is identify the gaps.

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Quercus sadleriana

Quercus sadleriana R. Br. Campst., Its Distribution, Ecology, and Relationships to Other Oaks[1]

Gilbert Jerome Muth[2]

Abstract: *Quercus sadleriana* R. Br. Campst. is a relict endemic of the Klamath Ranges of northern California and southern Oregon that is a dominant member of the shrub layer of the more mesic forests as well as the more xeric Montane Scrub Community of the middle to upper elevations. Its closest relatives are in the temperate deciduous forests of eastern North America and East Asia, giving it an anomalous distribution. *Quercus sadleriana* grows in soils with a wide range of pH and soil nutrients including low to high levels of magnesium, suggesting the possibility of serpentine races. The major form of reproduction appears to be vegetative by layering.

CHESTNUT OAKS

Chestnut oaks have been generally recognized but have not previously been formally defined in the taxonomic literature. The leaves very strongly resemble chestnut (*Castanea*) leaves having elliptic shape and dentate to shallowly lobed margins with regularly spaced secondary veins running through each tooth to the margin. These oaks comprise the North American series *Prinoideae* and *Sadlerianae* (Trelease, 1924; treated as subsection *Sadlerianae* by Camus, 1934-1954), and the Asiatic subsection *Diversipilosae* (Camus, 1934-1954). Included under the subheading chestnut oaks are five species in eastern North America and eight species in East Asia. It is not surprising that chestnut oaks are found both in East Asia and eastern North America considering the floristic similarities between these two regions. However, a paradox arises when we examine the forests of western North America, for there we find a shrub form of the chestnut oaks, *Quercus sadleriana* R. Br. Campst., in a considerably different forest type and climatic regime. What makes the western North American distribution more interesting is that *Q. sadleriana* occurs as a relict endemic in an area which Whittaker (1961) and others (Stebbins & Major, 1965; Wood, 1970; Wolfe, 1969) define as a major center of floristic diversity and endemism. The southern Appalachian region of eastern North America, from where most of the eastern North American chestnuts seem to emanate, is also known for these attributes.

The purpose of this paper is to (1) define the chestnut oaks, (2) give their salient characters, (3) discuss their distribution in general and give the distribution of *Q. sadleriana* in particular, and (4) discuss the ecology of the chestnut oaks and *Q. sadleriana*.

Definition of the Chestnut Oaks

The chestnut oaks have been defined as belonging to the section *Quercus* (white oaks) of the genus *Quercus*.[3] Three subsections in

[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

[2] Associate Professor of Biology, Pacific Union College, Angwin, California

[3] Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, G.J. Muth, 1976, The taxonomic and floristic relationships of *Quercus sadleriana* R. Br. Campst. to other chestnut oaks, University of California, Davis, California.

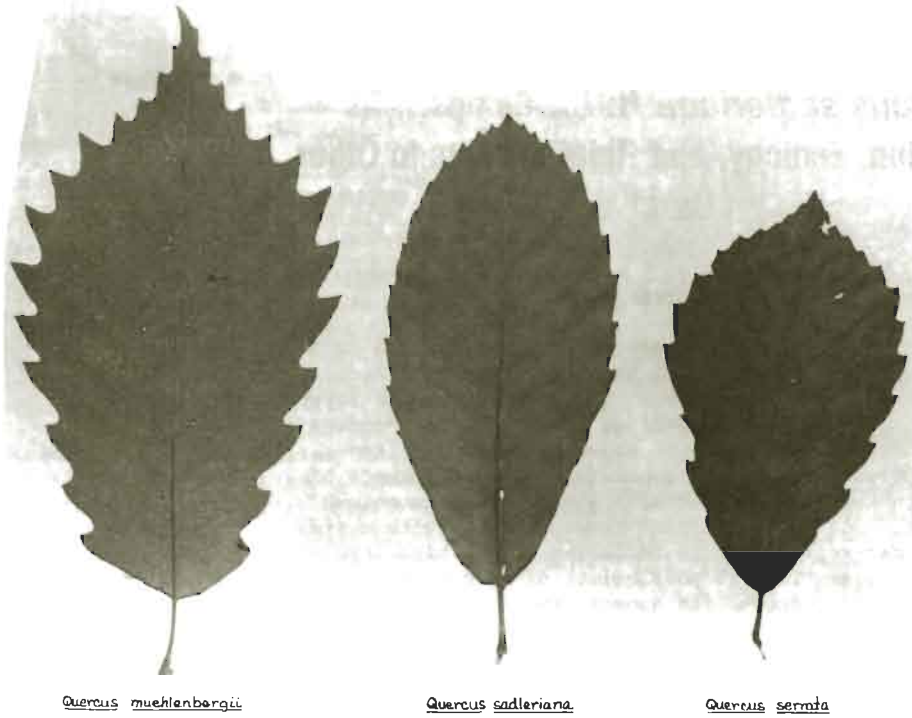

Figure 1-- Comparison of *Quercus sadleriana* with its two closest relatives.

section *Quercus* contain all of the chestnut oaks as follows (fig. 1):

A. Subsection *Diversipilosae* Schneider
   1. *Q. crispula* Blume, NE Asia, Japan, Korea
   2. *Q. serrata* Thunb., China, Japan, Korea
   3. *Q. griffithii* Hook. f. and Th., Bhutan, Burma, China, India, Laos, Sikkim
   4. *Q. malacothricha* A. Camus, China
   5. *Q. aliena* Bl., China, Japan, Korea
   6. *Q. mongolica* Fischer, China, Japan, Korea, S. Kuriles, Manchuria, Mongolia, Sakhalin, E. Siberia
   7. *Q. fabri* Hance, China, Korea
   8. *Q. liaotungensis* Koidz., China, Korea, Manchuria, Mongolia.

B. Subsection *Sadlerianae* Trelease
   1. *Q. sadleriana* R. Br. Campst., western North America.

C. Subsection *Prinoideae* Trelease
   1. *Q. bicolor* Willd., eastern North America
   2. *Q. prinus* L., eastern North America
   3. *Q. muehlenbergii* Engelm., eastern North America, New Mexico
   4. *Q. montana* Willd., eastern North America
   5. *Q. prinoides* Willd., eastern North America.

Characters Distinguishing Chestnut Oaks

The following is a list of the more salient external morphological features distinguishing the chestnut oaks:

1. Evergreen to deciduous leaves
2. Generally large leaves with mean widths of 3.2 inches and mean lengths of 6.4 inches
3. Cupule, generally rather large, approximately 0.2-0.8 inches in diameter
4. Leaves chestnut-shaped; more or less oval with a serrate to dentate margin
5. Teeth small to more or less deep, acuminate to obtuse, with or without small mucros at the tip of the teeth
6. Leaves with numerous, straight, unbranched secondary veins somewhat regularly spaced, at an angle of 45°-60° to the midvein, and extending to the apex of each tooth
7. Trichomes may or may not be present on the upper leaf surface, however, if they are present, they are generally quite sparse and simple or stellate or both
8. When mature, most species are trees. However, *Q. sadleriana* and *Q. prinoides* are both shrubs.

All species of chestnut oaks in North America occupy relatively mesic habitats. As far as I can determine, this is also the case for the eight East Asian species.

DISTRIBUTION OF QUERCUS SADLERIANA

As was previously indicated, Diversipilosae is generally distributed throughout eastern Asia, Prinoideae ranges through eastern North America, and Sadlerianae is located through northern California and southern Oregon. Maps showing the distribution of each of the chestnut oak species are in my doctoral dissertation.[3]

Quercus sadleriana occurs in Josephine, Curry, Douglas, and Coos counties of Oregon, and Humboldt, Trinity, Siskiyou, Shasta and Del Norte counties of California. The type locality is on the Crescent City Trail between Sailor's Diggings, Oregon, and Smith Creek, California. The elevational extremes are from 2000 to 7260 feet. The following information, from the accumulated data of 187 collections, shows these extremes:

A. Distribution extremes
   1. North---Wooden Rock Creek, near Agness, Coos County, Oregon, on the Bone Mountain Quadrangle, 42° 48' north latitude, 123° 55' west longitude
   2. South---Kerlin Creek, near Hyampom, Trinity County, California, in the Pilot Creek Quadrangle, 40° 36' north latitude, 123° 55' west longitude
   3. East----Sweetbrier Ridge, near Castella, Shasta County, California, Dunsmuir Quadrangle, 41° 4' north latitude, 122° 21' west longitude
   4. West----Snow Camp Mountain, near Gold Beach, Curry County, Oregon, Collier Butte Quadrangle, 42° 20' north latitude, 124° 9' west longitude.

B. Elevational extremes
   1. Highest---7260 feet, Preston Peak, near Happy Camp, Siskiyou County, Oregon, Preston Peak Quadrangle, 41° 50' north latitude, 123° 37' west longitude.

ECOLOGY OF QUERCUS SADLERIANA

The chestnut oaks are generally found in the temperate deciduous forests of Asia and North America that receive summer rainfall. The individual taxa of Diversipilosae and Prinoideae occupy a spectrum of habitats from relatively dry rocky conditions on limestone outcrops (Q. aliena and Q. muehlenbergii) to relatively mesic conditions (Q. montana and Q. serrata) to relatively wet lowland conditions (Q. prinus). No one species is found at all elevational levels but the group as a whole may be found at all elevational levels from timberline to wet lowlands at or near sea level. Quercus sadleriana, on the other hand, is distributed through an evergreen conifer forest under essentially summer-dry conditions. Comparing it with the range of habitats described for Prinoideae and Diversipilosae, Q. sadleriana inhabits the dry to mesic habitats in the middle to upper elevations. Siemens[4] and Kimbrough[5] both did ecological studies of the general area inhabited by Q. sadleriana. Siemens' work was an ecological analysis of the Preston Peak Area while Kimbrough compared the Montane Scrub Communities of the Trinity Alps, Marble Mountains and Preston Peak. Quercus sadleriana is a dominant member of the Montane Scrub Community on the more xeric south- and west-facing slopes and is dominant in the shrub layer of the more mesic Red Fir and Mixed Evergreen Forests. On the top of Preston Peak, it is a low shrub occupying somewhat protected areas.

On Preston Peak, where Q. sadleriana extends to its highest elevation, Siemens[4] recognized three major associations: Mixed Evergreen Association, Montane Forest Association and Subalpine Forest Association. He further subdivides them as follows:

A. Mixed Evergreen Forest Association
   1. 2085 to 3230 feet elevation
   2. Includes the following forest subtypes
      a. Black Oak Woodland
      b. Madrone-Tan Oak Woodland
      c. Douglas Fir Forest.

B. Montane Forest Association
   1. 3230-5375 feet elevation

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[4]Unpublished Masters Thesis, L.A. Siemens, 1972, A survey of the montane forest of the Preston Peak Study Area, Siskiyou County, California, Pacific Union College, Angwin, Calif.

[5]Unpublished Masters Thesis, D.J. Kimbrough, 1975, An ecological analysis of montane scrub in the Siskiyou Mountains, Trinity Alps, and Marble Mountains, Pacific Union College, Angwin, California.

2. Includes the following forest subtypes
    a. Douglas Fir
    b. Sugar Pine
    c. Ponderosa Pine
    d. Knobcone Pine
    e. Lodgepole Pine
    f. Port Orford Cedar.

C. Subalpine Forest Association
  1. 5735 feet and higher elevation in isolated stands on peaks and ridges
  2. Includes the following forest subtypes
     a. Noble Fir
     b. Weeping Spruce
     c. Mountain Hemlock
     d. Alaskan Yellow Cedar
     e. Jeffrey Pine-White Pine Woodland.

Siemens further indicates that the winters are long in this region with the first snows coming as early as September and lasting till as late as June or the first of July. All the significant precipitation comes during the winter with little or none during the summer.

He describes the topography as being rugged and steep. The direction of the slope generally determines the forest type. On the steepest upper slopes where soil does not collect, Alaskan yellow cedar (Chamaecyparis nootkatensis (D. Don) Spach.) is the only woody plant clinging to the rocks wherever it can find sufficient moisture.

Edaphically, this area contains many special areas such as acid bogs, seepages, etc. with small "islands" of relict and uncommon plants. Siemens includes Port Orford cedar (Chamaecyparis lawsoniana (A. Murr.) Parl.) and Alaskan yellow cedar among a number of species occurring in these relict populations.

According to Siemens, Q. sadleriana is a prominent member of the Sugar Pine Forest of the Montane Forest Association and of the Noble Fir and Weeping Spruce Forests of the Subalpine Forest Association. Quercus sadleriana appears in nearly all his transects except the Black Oak Woodland and Madrone-Tan Oak Forest of the Mixed Evergreen Forest Association. In addition to transect data, he did some soil analyses that included such factors as moisture, texture, color, pH, nitrates, calcium, phosphorus and magnesium on a total of 41 transects.

Number of Transects

With Q. sadleriana	32	
With soil moisture data.	17	dry
	5	moist
	2	wet
With soil texture data	23	rocky
	4	gravel
	1	deep humus
With soil color data	14	black
	12	yellow
	8	gray
	7	red

Soil Nutrients

pH	4.7	low
	5.2	mean
	5.7	high
Nitrates in ppm.	0.0	low
	1.0	mean
	8.0	high
Calcium in ppm	0.0	low
	527.0	mean
	2800.0	high
Phosphorus in ppm.	5.0	low
	36.0	mean
	100.0	high
Magnesium in number of transects	1	very high
	2	high
	2	medium
	6	low
	18	very low
	2	not present

Although Siemens doesn't recognize Montane Scrub in his study of the Preston Peak area, Kimbrough[5] sees this as a valid vegetation type along with the three types listed by Siemens. Thus, four vegetation types can be said to occur on Preston Peak: (1) Mixed Evergreen Forest, (2) Montane Forest, (3) Subalpine Forest and (4) Montane Scrub.

Kimbrough divides the Montane Scrub into three subtypes for the Preston Peak Area: "Typical" Montane Scrub, Woodland Scrub and Lowland Scrub. "Typical" Montane Scrub and Woodland both occur above 5200 feet as part of the Canadian Life Zone. Lowland Scrub occurs below 4300 feet in the Humid Transition Life Zone.

"Typical" Montane Scrub has four dominants in this area: greenleaf manzanita (Arctostaphylos patula Greene), huckleberry oak (Quercus vaccinifolia Kell.), deer oak (Quercus sadleriana R. Br. Campst.), and silk tassel bush (Garrya fremontii Torr.). Kimbrough indicates that it appears to be a successional stage to forest associations because of the broad ecotones between it and the forest associations maintained as a subclimax. This is due to lack of soil, soil moisture and soil build-up resulting from steepness of slopes and frequent fires.

Woodland Scrub is typified by Jeffrey pine (Pinus jeffreyi Grev. and Balf. in A. Murr.) and western white pine (Pinus monticola Dougl.) as major dominants with smaller amounts of incense cedar (Calocedrus decurrens (Torr.) Florin) and Douglas fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirb.) Franco.) in a very open woodland as the canopy layer. The greatest cover in this association is composed of a shrub layer of scrub species from the "Typical" Montane Scrub except for the subdominant pinemat manzanita (Arctostaphylos nevadensis Gray). This association is normally at elevations above 4850 feet and appears to be closely related to serpentine soils. Kimbrough feels that this community is climax on serpentine soils.

Lowland Scrub, occurring on the hillsides of the lower elevations, is associated with Mixed Evergreen Forest. Except for the dominant white-leaf manzanita (Arctostaphylos viscida Parry) and two incidental shrubs, buckbrush (Ceanothus cuneatus (Hook.) Nutt.) and red huckleberry (Vaccinium parvifolium Sm. in Rees.), the associates of this community are essentially the same as those of the "Typical" Montane Scrub.

The Preston Peak Montane Scrub patterns and those in the Trinity Alps are floristically similar except that greenleaf manzanita, huckleberry oak and sticky laurel (Ceanothus velutinus Dougl. ex Hook.) are the major dominants. Western service berry (Amelanchier pallida Greene) and pinemat manzanita,which occur as subdominants in the Preston Peak area, are dominants in the Trinity Alps. Quercus sadleriana, not being a member of the flora in the Trinity Alps, is not found in the Montane Scrub Association.

The Marble Mountain Montane Scrub dominants are greenleaf manzanita, huckleberry oak, sticky laurel, silk tassel bush (Garrya fremontii Torr.) and bitter cherry (Prunus emarginata (Dougl.) Walp.). These last two species are subdominants around Preston Peak and the Trinity Alps. Brewer's oak (Quercus garryana Dougl. var. breweri (Engelm. in Wats.) Jeps.) is dominant in the Marble Mountains, and subdominant on Preston Peak and the Trinity Alps, while Quercus sadleriana is dominant in the Marble Mountains and Preston Peak, and totally absent in the Trinity Alps.

In areas of relatively high abundance, it is difficult to distinguish between individual clones of Q. sadleriana, because the variation in many of the vegetative characters is very narrow from one clone to another. Although sexual reproduction seems to be good, with many acorns being produced, I am not aware of any significant studies documenting germination percentages and conditions for germination. I and my colleagues have, with great difficulty, tried to germinate acorns. Therefore, from the scanty evidence available, it appears that the major form of reproduction is by rhizomes and/or rooting at the nodes. I have personally observed node rooting in Q. sadleriana.

Summarizing the ecology of Q. sadleriana, it is possible to say that it occupies a spectrum of habitats from the cool, damp, moderately lighted forest shrub layer to the hot, dry, brilliantly lighted south slopes of the higher mountains. The soil in which it grows is usually rocky and generally black or yellow. The soil pH is always acid and occasionally very acidic while the nitrates are usually quite low with a substantial range of calcium (from 0-2800 ppm). The range of phosphorus as well as magnesium is also quite wide. It appears that Q. sadleriana is adapted to serpentine soils, with possibly even some serpentine races. By observation only, the major form of reproduction seems to be vegetative.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The chestnut oaks were defined as belonging to subsections Prinoideae, the five eastern North American chestnut oaks; Sadlerianae, the western North American chestnut oak, Quercus sadleriana R. Br. Campst.; and Diversipilosae the eight East Asian chestnut oaks. The three subsections are within the subgenus Leucobalanus, the white oaks. They typically have elliptic leaves with dentate to shallowly lobed margins showing regularly spaced secondary veins running out through each tooth to the margin, very strongly resembling Castanea leaves.

Quercus sadleriana is distributed through the Klamath Ranges of northern California and southern Oregon in Josephine, Curry, Douglas, Coos, Del Norte, Siskiyou, Humboldt, Trinity and Shasta counties. It occurs as a dominant member of the shrub layer in the more mesic forests under shaded conditions, as well as a dominant member of the Montane Scrub Community under dry and hot conditions. It is exposed to full sunlight on the southern slopes, and occasionally extends up into subalpine areas. It grows in a wide range of pH and soil nutrients including high to low levels of magnesium. The data reported by Siemens[4/] shows Q. sadleriana growing on serpentine soils suggesting that there may be some serpentine races of this species. The majority of reproduction seems to be vegetative.

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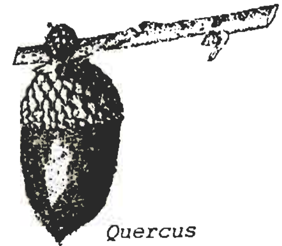

Quercus engelmannii

Change in Vegetative Cover of Oak Stands in Southern San Diego County: 1928-1970[1]

Carla R. Scheidlinger and Paul H. Zedler[2/]

Abstract: The change in vegetative cover of thirty oak stands in southern San Diego County was estimated by comparing aerial photographs from 1928 and 1970. Point cover data showed a 13-percent decline in oak cover during the interval, with oak woodland declining at the expense of grassland and chaparral. Extrapolation of the 42-year transitions by use of Markov chain methods indicated a hypothetical equilibrium not far from present conditions. It is concluded that if the effects of land development are ignored, the cover of oak trees has not changed much in the last 50 years, but that this is not inconsistent with the view that many oak stands are senescent.

INTRODUCTION

There is good reason to suspect that the oak forests of Southern California are declining under the combined pressures of livestock grazing, recreational use, and urban and rural development (Hanes 1974, White 1966). But because oaks are long-lived trees, it is difficult to know just how rapid these changes are, and if the decline is general or confined to only a few stands. Aerial photographs are a potentially valuable source of information on rates of change in oak forests, and in this paper we report the results of a preliminary study using two sets of aerial photos to estimate change in the tree cover of thirty oak stands in southern San Diego County between 1928 and 1970.

In this paper we consider only changes in total tree cover, and not changes in stand perimeter. We also exclude those stands that were obviously disturbed by urban development or clearing in either 1928 or 1970. The changes we determine, then, do not include losses due to urban expansion; and represent what occurred in stands that remained in a more or less natural state for the 42-year period.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Two sets of photographs from the Map Records Section in the Office of the San Diego County Engineer were used. The 1928 photographs were black and white vertical photographs of excellent quality at a scale of about 1:12500. The 1970 photographs, the only recent complete set available, are vertical aerial color photographs taken after the

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1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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Kitchen Creek fire in 1970. These had a scale of about 1:33,333.

It was decided to restrict the area to be examined to the south central portion of San Diego County, a rough quadrangle bounded by El Cajon to the northwest, Pine Valley and Laguna Junction to the northeast, the Otay Reservoir to the southwest, and Cameron Corners on the southeast. The 1928 photographs covering this region were scanned for oak forests. Stands large enough to provide some sample hits were subjectively selected and located on USGS topographic maps. The same forests were then located on the 1970 photographs. Stands that had disappeared or been extensively altered by development between 1928 and 1970 were not considered.

Determination of the exact scale of each oak stand was made by use of permanent topographic or manmade features that could be located on both sets of photographs and on the USGS maps. Distance between two such points was measured on the USGS map, and calculations made to determine the actual ground distance spanned, and hence the scale of the two photos.

A proportional divider was used to mark off a straight row of eleven points or dots in a sheet of acetate, spaced to represent for each interval exactly 100 meters on the scale of the 1928 photograph. The first dot served as an intercept for a pencil line drawn on the acetate perpendicular to the line of the dots. When a ruler marked in increments of 0.5 mm was laid across the photograph, connecting two permanent topographic or man-made features, the dot line could be oriented over the photograph perpendicular to the ruler along the pencil line. Land cover type was recorded on data sheets for each dot along the line - a distance of 1 km in the photograph. The line was then moved along the ruler for the same distance that separated the dots on the acetate, and another ten points of land cover were recorded. This procedure continued for ten increments, or until well beyond the limits of the oak stand, whichever came first. This meant that most stands were sampled with 100 points, and all with at least 50 points.

The identical procedure,modified for differences in scale, was used to assess land cover of the same areas on 1970 photographs, which could be located by reference to permanent features. In this fashion, the same ground points could be evaluated for land cover in both 1928 and in 1970, and the same density of points, measured in actual ground distance, was used for both photos. Thirty oak stands were sampled giving a total of 2579 individual points.

The sampling amounted to a point method applied to photographs. The number of points which fell on each of eight cover types was recorded and a few of the smaller groups combined into the categories which are given in Tables 1 and 2 to give estimates of percent cover. We feel that the method is relatively accurate, and few ambiguities were encountered. However, it is clearly possible that small oak trees might be missed, especially when these occur in or near chaparral cover. It is also possible that some sycamores, willows, and cottonwoods might have been included in the oak category, especially in cases where these might have crowns contiguous with oaks. It was not possible to separate Quercus agrifolia (coast li e oak) from Quercus engelmannii (Engelmann oak) and since both occur in the area surveyed, the oak category is a composite of these two species. However, Q. agrifolia is by far the more abundant species.

RESULTS

The overall results of the study are summarized in tabular form (table 1) where

TABLE 1 COMBINED COVER DATA FOR ALL STANDS AND ALL CATEGORIES GIVING TOTALS IN THE LAST ROW AND LAST COLUMN AND THE NUMBERS OF POINTS THAT CHANGED CATEGORY OR REMAINED IN A CATEGORY IN THE REMAINDER OF THE TABLE THE UPPER VALUES IN EACH CELL ARE THE ABSOLUTE NUMBER OF POINTS, AND THE LOWER NUMBER THE PROPORTIONS FOR FURTHER EXPLANATION, SEE THE TEXT

CLASSIFICATION IN 1928 \ CLASSIFICATION IN 1970	OAK	GRASS	CHAPARRAL	ROCK	STREAM	DEVELOPED	1928 TOTAL
OAK	152 3535	92 2140	156 3628	11 0256	2 0047	17 0395	430 1667
GRASS	75 1875	173 4325	109 2725	9 0225	1 0025	33 0825	400 1551
CHAPARRAL	132 0926	161 1129	1052 7377	43 0302	3 0021	35 0245	1426 5529
ROCK	4 0146	7 0255	37 1351	221 8067	1 0036	4 0146	274 1062
STREAM	4 3636	2 1818	2 1818	1 0909	2 1818	0 0000	11 0043
DEVELOPED	6 1579	14 3684	4 1053	0 0000	0 0000	14 3684	38 0147
1970 TOTAL	373 1446	449 1741	1360 5273	285 1105	9 0035	103 0399	2579

the combined data for all 30 stands and 2579 points are given. The total number of points recorded in each of the categories in 1928 and 1970 are in the final column and row of the table respectively. The remainder of the table is a transition matrix which gives the number of points which changed category or remained the same between the two periods. The integer values along the diagonal, such as 152 for oak, represent the number of points which did not change classification, while the off-diagonal elements, such as the 75 for grass to oak and 92 for oak to grass, represent the number of points which changed categories. These values are interpreted by remembering that the row categories represent the 1928 state, and the column categories the 1970 state. Thus 75 grass points in the 1928 photos became oak points in the 1970 photos, while 92 oak points in the 1928 photos became grass points in the 1970 photos.

The fractional values in italics beneath the numbers in the last column and last row represent the proportion of each category present in 1928 and 1970 respectively, while the italicized fractional values in the remainder of the table are the proportions of the 1928 stands that changed, or did not change, to another category. These proportions, which sum to one across the row, may be taken as estimates of the probability of a transition from one state to another. Thus 21 percent of the 430 1928 oak points became grass points.

The rock category gives an estimate of the reproducibility of the sample points. Since the rocks which were recorded were mostly relatively large, a perfectly accurate placement of points would lead to little change in the proportion of rock cover, and most points recorded in this category in 1928 would remain in that category, excluding those cases where the crowns of trees or large shrubs might overgrow them. Thus the majority of the 274 points recorded as rock in 1928 should remain as rock, which is verified by noting that there are 221 points in the rock - rock category, indicating that 81 percent of the points did not change, and that therefore there is an acceptable margin of error in the relocation of points. While the ideal would be exact relocation of points, there is no reason to suppose that minor displacements would lead to significant biases in estimating change in cover of the various cover types.

From table 2 we can see that there has

TABLE 2. AREA IN SQUARE KILOMETERS OF LAND COVER TYPE, AND PERCENT CHANGE OF EACH TYPE FROM 1928 TO 1970. CHANGES WITH AN ASTERISK ARE SIGNIFICANT WITH P<0.05 USING THE NORMAL APPROXIMATION TO TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN PROPORTIONS.

	OAK	GRASS	CHAPARRAL	ROCK	DEVELOPED
AREA IN 1928	4.30	4.00	14.3	2.74	0.38
AREA IN 1970	3.73	4.49	13.6	2.85	1.03
PERCENT CHANGE	-13.3*	+12.3	-4.6	+4.0	+171.1*

been, overall, a statistically significant but not drastic decline in the abundance of oaks, from 4.30 Km^2 to 3.73 Km^2 over the entire area surveyed. At the same time, grass and developed areas increased slightly, while chaparral also showed a slight decrease. These data, as well as the subjective impressions gained from the photos seem to indicate that oak forests are becoming more open and losing out to grass, which would be expected if decline was a result of failure of reproduction within stands rather than encroachment by chaparral. An additional factor that probably contributed to the observed decline of oaks is fire. The 1970 set of photographs, the only complete set available for the area, had been made shortly following a fire, the range of which had encompassed many of the stands surveyed. This fact did not affect the accuracy of the ground cover estimates, but a cursory review of photographs taken from 1 to 6 years previous to the burn suggested that there had been some loss of cover attributable to the fire.

The same data can be expressed on an area basis, to give a better feeling for the sample sizes and the areas involved. In table 2 the decline in oak cover is estimated to be 13.13 percent while grass increased by 12.3 percent, these changes all expressed relative to the cover in 1928. Not surprisingly, the largest percentage change was in the developed area, which increased by over 17 percent.

While the evidence is against any catastrophic decline, it is sufficiently large to justify concern over the future of the oak forests. In interpreting our data, it must be remembered that individual tree size was not measured, and it is an important piece of information in interpreting rates of decline. On the one hand, a woodland with a lower cover in 1970 than in 1928 might nevertheless be on the increase if in the interim fewer large trees were replaced with a larger number of small vigorous trees. On the other hand, a forest which in 1970 showed an increase in coverage might nonetheless still be on a downward trend if the increase in cover was due solely to the increase in crown cover of old trees with no new trees having become established. A more detailed examination of the photos could provide some quantitative information to characterize better the nature of the change, but it is our subjective opinion that the declines are a combination of a loss both of cover and of individuals, and may indicate a long term but gradual downward trend which may accelerate as the large old trees which seem to be the most abundant individuals in many oak forests begin to die off.

To this point, we have considered only the overall summary which combined all data points for all 30 oak stands. A somewhat different perspective is given by looking at the degree of decline on an individual stand basis. In figure 1 the percent of cover of

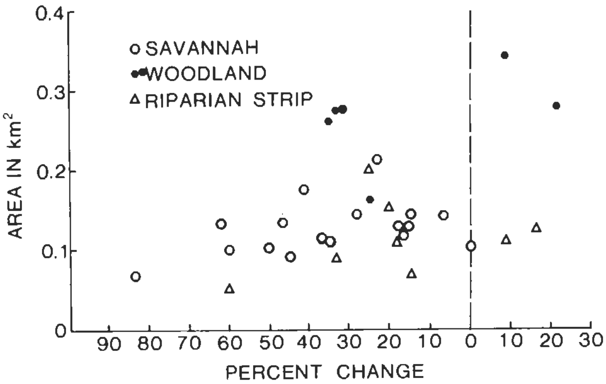

Figure 1--Percent change in oak cover between 1928 and 1970, plotted against the area of the stands in 1928. See text for a definition of terms used.

oaks lost or gained between 1928 and 1970 is plotted against the area of the oak stands in square kilometers. In addition, the stands are classified into three types - savannah, where the oaks were dotted fairly sparsely across chaparral or grassland; woodland, where the oaks presented a dense, more or less unbroken, canopy to the aerial view; and riparian strips, in which dense narrow bands of oaks lined the sides of a streambed.

It is clear from figure 1 that the decline in oak forests is not general, since four out of thirty forests showed increases. As mentioned above, this does not necessarily mean that these stands are "recovering" since the increase in cover could be merely due to established trees become larger. Most of the stands, though, are on the negative side, with one third of the stands showing a loss of one third or more of their 1928 cover value. For the graph as a whole, there is a hint of a correlation between the total cover of the woodlands in 1928 and their degree of decline, with the smaller stands tending to show greater decline. While plausible explanations for this pattern might be suggested, we feel that more data are necessary before firm conclusions can be drawn. This is especially true because the 1970 photos include the effects of the Laguna fire.

We pointed out earlier that the data in the body of table 1, excluding the last row and column, could be taken as estimates of the probability that a point in one of the categories will transform to any of the other categories in the 42 year period. Thus the probability that an oak point on the 1928 photos will be recorded as a grass in the 1970 photos is estimated at .21 while the probability that a grass point will be recorded as an oak point is .19.

If the assumption is made that the probabilities of transition will be the same for all 42-year periods in the future; that is, if they are held constant, the matrix may be used to project the future proportions of cover types. This is a simple application of Markov chains which was suggested by Anderson (1966) and which has been used by Stephens and Waggoner (1970). The particular matrix of probabilities obtained here predicts that an equilibrium will eventually be reached, and in accordance with the properties of Markov chains, this equilibrium is independent of the initial conditions. The predicted equilibrium proportions are:

Oak	Grass	Chaparral	Rock	Stream	Developed
.14	.19	.49	.12	<.01	.05

At the hypothetical stable point oak is close to the observed 1970 value, grassland is somewhat higher, chaparral lower, and developed land considerably increased. This would seem to indicate that a continuation of the present trends will lead to relatively little change from the present state of the oak forests. But it is of course debatable if present trends will hold, and the projection must be taken only as an indication that there is nothing in our numerical results that would predict a drastic decline.

DISCUSSION

Since very few field studies have been conducted on the oak communities in southern California, our interpretations can only be compared to work done in the northern or central parts of the state (Sampson 144, and White 1966). The general overall losses of both chaparral and oak to grass are not too surprising, especially in areas where livestock grazing or browsing by deer is heavy. Sampson (1944) reported that grassland is favored in areas where chaparral is experiencing a general decadence following a long fire-free period. The conclusion that oak declines are a combination of loss both of cover and of individuals is consistent with White's (1966) observation that grazing can severely restrict recruitment of new individuals due to failure of seedlings to successfully establish. The generally favorable showing of denser woodlands in Figure 1 echoes Griffin's (1977) reports that oaks may be increasing in density but not in range.

There are good reasons to suppose that oak woodlands are declining, and yet we did not find a very large decrease between 1928 and 1970. Moreover a large part of the change observed may be the result of the 1970 fire, and it seems likely that the same analysis, using photos taken either just before the 1970 fire or long enough after it to include the recovery of crowns, would indicate an even smaller negative change. While our study seems to show that the decline in oaks is not critical, it does not allow us to conclude that there is no problem. More detailed studies are needed to determine if the gross trends we observed indicate a stable population of oaks or an accumulation of large but senescent individuals.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank the San Diego County Engineer's office for permission to use the aerial photographs, and C. Cooper, T. Plumb, and J. Griffin for reading the manuscript and making helpful suggestions. This work was partially supported by NSF grant DEB 76-19742.

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Quercus chrysolepis

Canyon Live Oak Vegetation in the Sierra Nevada[1]

Rodney G. Myatt 2/

Abstract: In the northern Sierra Nevada, data from stand surveys were used to categorize the phases in the canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis) dominated oak-hardwood forest and relate them to the environmental gradients of soil moisture and elevation. The soil moisture gradient was determined primarily from indicator species. Canyon live oak is the major species bridging the Foothill Woodland, Mixed Conifer and Mixed Evergreen associations. The overlapping nature of canyon live oak vegetation is an important factor in the species' morphological variation.

INTRODUCTION

Canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis) is considered one of the most variable, ecologically and morphologically, of the California oaks (Jepson 1925, Munz and Keck 1959, Myatt 1975). It is certainly the most widespread (Griffin and Critchfield 1972). Its many common names reflect also the diversity of outlooks botanists and laymen have had with the species: canyon live oak, maul oak, gold-cup oak, laurel oak, pin oak, mountain live oak, white live oak, hickory oak, and drooping live oak.

Canyon live oak occurs in the general assemblage of vegetation types occupying the zone between the oak woodlands and the montane forests. This makes it a central member of the Mixed Evergreen forests of the north coastal region and the related oak-hardwood forests of the Sierra Nevada and southern California (Sawyer, Thornburgh, and Griffin 1977, Griffin 1977, Whittaker 1960). These associations, especially the Mixed Evergreen, represent a highly variable vegetation with a long history of transitional relationships between elements of the Arcto-Tertiary and Madro-Tertiary Geofloras and their derivatives (Axelrod 1958, 1959, 1977, Raven and Axelrod 1978, Whittaker 1961).

Because of its widespread geographic distribution and elevational range, canyon live oak overlaps into a number of climatic zones, vegetation types, and floristic regions. It occurs in twelve of the seventeen forest communities described by Munz and Keck (1949, 1959). Within a given region, the terrain associated with mountains and canyons results in a close juxtaposition of varying slopes, aspects, soils, and microclimates. The passage of rivers through several zones and the climatic vagaries of canyons contribute to the opportunity for such species as canyon live oak to occur in many habitats.

The purpose of this study was to categorize the community types and phases in which canyon live oak occurs within one region, the northern Sierra Nevada, and to relate these to the major environmental gradients, namely soil moisture and elevation (temperature).

STAND SURVEYS

The northern portion traversed by the Yuba River has a relatively high annual precipitation of about 60 inches (1500+ mm) and a well developed oak-hardwood association equivalent to the Mixed Evergreen. The Stanislaus River region to south has less precipitation, 40+ inches (1100 mm) and lacks many of the Mixed Evergreen con-

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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stituents. Douglas-Fir (Pseudotsuga menziesii) and madrone (Arbutus menziesii) are only occasionally found together here.

Forty-one stands were sampled and data obtained on species composition, abundance, cover and habitat characteristics (table 1, figure 1). The stands were subsequently grouped into eight vegetation classes, based primarily on the woody perennials. The stands' placement along a soil moisture gradient was determined by calculating the Vegetation Moisture Index (VMI) for each stand. This is done by compiling a list of indicator species of known soil moisture preferences. Each indicator species is assigned to a soil moisture class, with its respective Drought Index number. The VMI for a stand is the mean of the Drought Index numbers of the indicator species present. The list of indicator species was taken primarily from work by Griffin (1967) and Waring (1969, Waring and Major 1964), with some species from my own data. Soil moisture conditions were also determined for a few sites by measuring the pre-dawn xylem sap tensions of canyon live oak specimens during late summer. A pressure chamber (Schollander bomb) was used for this.

Table 1--Stands and data from the Yuba River and Stanislaus River regions, Sierra Nevada

Stand	Elev. m.	Slope °	Asp.	Vegetation	Type	VMI
(Yuba)						
40	245	23°	S	Oak Woodl.	I	7.0
41	245	27	N	Mix Oak F.	III	5.9
42A	350	30	S	Oak Woodl.	I	6.4
42B	350	30	N	Mix Oak F.	III	5.5
43	550	5-30	N-S	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	4.8
44	600	36	WSW	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	5.0
45	640	35	N	Mix Evrgn.	V	4.3
17	640	25	SE	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	5.2
18	610	25	SE	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	5.5
19	610	33	ESE	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	5.1
20	610	35	SE	Mix Oak W.	II	5.1
21	850	5	N-S	Mix Conif.	VIII	5.0
22	850	5-10	S	Oak Woodl.	I	6.1
23	700	25	N	Mix Evrgn.	V	4.4
46	900	35	S	Canyon Oak	VI	4.7
47	1200	30	S	Oak-Conif.	VII	5.3
24A	1250	20	S	Canyon Oak	VI	4.7
24B	1250	15	S	Mix Conif.	VIII	4.9
48	1210	5-20	S-E	Mix Conif.	VIII	---
49A	1100	38	S	Canyon Oak	VI	4.8
49B	1100	30	W	Mix Conif.	VIII	4.1
51	1000	40	ENE	Mix Conif.	VIII	4.4
(Stanislaus)						
11	365	25	ENE	Mix Oak W.	II	6.5
28	335	35	SE	Oak Woodl.	I	7.4
29	335	30	NE	Mix Oak W.	II	7.0
30	330	30	NW	Mix Oak F.	III	6.35
36	610	30	N	Mix Oak F.	III	5.7
10	670	32	WNW	Canyon Oak	VI	6.4
26	670	30	W	Mix Oak F.	III	5.25
27	670	30	SE	Mix Oak W.	II	5.8
7	950	10	N	Oak-Conif.	VII	5.5
8	910	30	N	Oak-Conif.	VII	5.4
9A	760	37	NE	Oak-Conif.	VII	5.9
9B	700	40	NE	Canyon Oak	VI	7.7
5	850	33	E	Oak-Conif.	VII	5.9
4	730	30	E	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	6.3
6	1600	18	SE	Mix Conif.	VIII	5.0
1	1400	30	SE	Oak-Conif.	VII	4.6
2	1400	40	SE	Canyon Oak	VI	5.25
3	1350	35	ESE	Canyon Oak	VI	5.25
58	370	15	N-S	Oak-Evrgn.	IV	5.2

VEGETATION TYPES

I have recognized eight phases, or dominance types, of canyon live oak vegetation, based on the relative abundance of the major woody species. These represent recognizable units in the transitions between the three basic vegetation types. They are described as follows:

Oak Woodland

I. Oak - Digger Pine (Q. wislizenii - Q. douglasii - P. sabiniana).

This is the Foothill Woodland of most classifications, especially the interior live oak phase (Griffin 1977). Canyon live oak is only an occasional associate on north-facing slopes of ravines.

II. Mixed Live Oak Woodland (Q. wislizenii - Q. chrysolepis).

This is a slightly more closed woodland than "I", tending towards forest. Both live oaks occur on steeper slopes within the Foothill Woodland where blue oak is absent. There is a prominent understory of shrubs: Rhus (Toxicodendron), Arctostaphylos, Heteromeles.

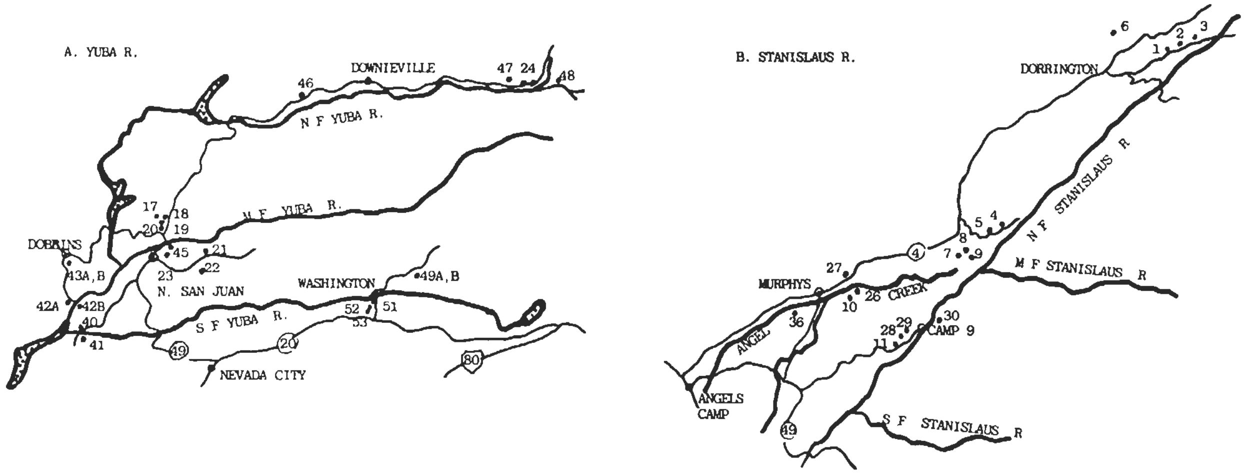
Mixed Evergreen

III. Mixed Oak Forest (Q. wislizenii - Q. chrysolepis - Q. kelloggii).

This occurs on north-facing slopes and extends into riparian forests along summer-wet creeks through the upper Mixed Oak Woodland. It is more mesic than "II", with Acer, Vitis, and Umbellularia. It grades into Foothill Woodland on south-facing slopes and Oak-Pine on the north-facing and upper slopes.

IV. Mixed Oak - Evergreen Forest (Q. chrysolepis - Q. kelloggii - P. ponderosa - Pseudotsuga menziesii).

Figure 1-- Locations of stands in the Yuba River (A) and Stanislaus River (B) regions.



This type occurs on all slopes at mid-to-lower elevations in more mesic climates, above the Oak Woodland. It includes *Arbutus*, *Aesculus*, *Calocedrus*, and *Rhus diversiloba*. It is the more xeric phase of the Mixed Evergreen Association and consists of two subphases itself: 1) *Quercus chrysolepis* - *Umbellularia* on steep slopes within the Mixed Evergreen and 2) *Q. kelloggii* - *Arbutus* on the flatter, south-facing slopes in the Yuba River region and on north-facing slopes in parts of the Stanislaus River region.

V. Mixed Conifer - Evergreen Forest (*Pseudotsuga menziesii* - *Q. kelloggii* - *P. ponderosa* - *Q. chrysolepis*).

This occurs along north-facing slopes opposite and along creeks and draws through "IV". There usually are more shrubs and less herbs, and includes *Acer*, *Cornus*, *Corylus*, and *Calycanthus*.

Types IV and V make up the typical Mixed Evergreen Forest and represent the two ends of the hardwood to conifer phases. Neither type is represented well in the Stanislaus River region. In the Yuba River region a *Lithocarpus* - *Arbutus*-*Pseudotsuga* phase occurs, lacking canyon live oak.

VI. Canyon Live Oak Forest (*Q. chrysolepis*

Canyon live oak groves and small forests occur within the Mixed Conifer zone especially. There are few associates, but usually some *R. diversiloba* and *Polystichum munitum*. This type occurs also as depauperate patches of oak-hardwood forest on rocky points and steep slopes within the Yuba River region.

Mixed Conifer

VII. Mixed Oak - Conifer Forest (*Q. chrysolepis* - *Q. kelloggii*).

This occurs as groves of mixed oak forest within the Mixed Conifer zone. It usually occurs on southerly exposures or less favorable sites than the conifer forest, and represents a phase between the canyon live oak and the conifer forests.

VIII. Mixed Conifer - Oak Forest (*P. ponderosa* - *Ps. menziesii* - *Q. kelloggii* - *Q. chrysolepis*).

Canyon live oak overlaps into the Mixed Conifer Forest as an understory element. Also included are *Abies*, *Calocedrus*, *P. lambertiana*, *Ceanothus*, *Arctostaphylos*, and *Chamabatia*. *Pseudotsuga* is less common in the Stanislaus River region. In the Yuba River region it is more prominent on north-facing slopes and ridges above the canyon live oak.

In the above vegetation types, canyon live oak occurs in its typical tree form. In addition it may occur in chaparral vegetation as a result of being able to stump-sprout and exist as a shrub and also to hybridize with the shrubby huckleberry oak (*Q. vaccinifolia*).

MOISTURE GRADIENT

The above placement of stands into dominance types roughly relates to their placement along a moisture gradient. A temperature gradient and varying soil conditions also enter in, owing to the elevational, topographic, and edaphic changes within the regions. Certain species are well known as indicators of given moisture or other habitat conditions. Using the Drought Index groups and indicator species as compiled by Griffin and Waring, I listed those which are associated with canyon live oak in one place or another (table 2). Not all of these, however, were present in the stands that I surveyed here, at least at the time. The starred (*,**) species are those that were used in computing the Vegetation Moisture Index for the stands I surveyed. The double starred (**) are those not on the lists of Griffin and Waring, but added here based on their close associations with the other species. In table 1 can be found the Vegetation Moisture Index (VMI) for each stand.

The stands were then graphed with the VMI plotted against the elevation (fig. 2). Stand 58, taken at Pine Grove, Amador County, is slightly to the north of the Stanislaus River region stands and is included here as a point of reference. It is the only stand sampled near the Stanislaus River with some semblance of a Mixed Evergreen Forest.

VEGETATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The general slope of the stand arrangement is positive (fig. 2) since the elevation gradient corresponds to a moisture gradient. The arrangement of the stands, particularly those in the Yuba River region, appear as a somewhat elongated triangle, with the Foothill Woodland in the lower left corner, the Mixed Evergreen in the lower right, and the Mixed Conifer in the upper right. Stands of predominantly canyon live oak (VI) seem out of place in a simple moisture gradient and instead represent phases of the major types in which other factors are important, such as steepness of slope, soil depth, and rockiness. Such stands occur mainly at the higher elevations within the Mixed Conifer zone where slope, aspect, and soil depth differences can result in marked contrasts in habitats. Thus separation of the more tolerant canyon oak from the conifers and black oak is possible. Within the Mixed Evergreen zone, particularly near the Yuba River, there is apparently enough moisture to support a number of associates on most sites where canyon oak can occur.

Table 2-- Soil moisture indicator species found occurring with canyon live oak and their respective Vegetation Drought Index groups (DI)

DI	Species	DI	Species	DI	Species
I	Taxus brevifolia		Ceanothus prostratus	VII	Agoseris retrosa
II	Acer macrophyllum**		Chamabatia foliolosa**		Arabis holboelii
	Chrysolepis sempervirens		Hieracium albiflorum		Brodiaea multiflora
	Calycanthus occidentalis**		Melica aristata		Ceanothus cuneatus*
	Smilacina racemosa		P. ponderosa*		C. lemmonii
			Polygala cornuta*		Cercis occidentalis*
III	Abies concolor*		Pteridium aquilinum*		Cercocarpus betuloides*
	Cornus nuttallii*		Rhamnus rubra**		Collinsia parviflora
	Galium triflorum		Sitanium hystrix		Dodecatheon hendersonii
	Corylus cornuta californica**		Viola lobata		Eriophyllum lanatum*
	Lithocarpus densiflorus**				Lonicera interrupta*
		VI	Amelanchier pallida*		Purshia tridentata
IV	Arbutus menziesii**		Arctostaphylos manzanita		Q. wislizenii**
	Ceanothus integerrimus*		A. viscida*		Ranunculus occidentalis
	Berberis piperiana		Castileja applegatei		Rhamnus californica*
	Carex rossii		Clarkia rhomboidea		Rhus diversiloba*
	Festuca occidentalis		Collomia grandiflora		
	Pinus lambertiana*		Comandra pallida	VIII	Bromus tectorum
	Pseudotsuga menziesii*		Galium bolanderi		Penstemon deustus
	Ribes roezlii		Lathryus sulphureus		
	Rosa gymnocarpa*		Pedicularis densiflora	IX	Adenostema fasciculatum**
	Symphoricarpos acutus*		Prunus subcordata		Pinus sabiniana**
	Trientalis latifolia*		Quercus garryana		Q. douglasii**
			Q. kelloggii*		
V	Arctostaphylos patula		Sanicula bipinnata		
	Bromus orcuttianus		Stipa lemmonii		
	Calocedrus decurrens*		Wyethia mollis		

Figure 2-- Relationships of stands to elevation and Vegetation Moisture Index.

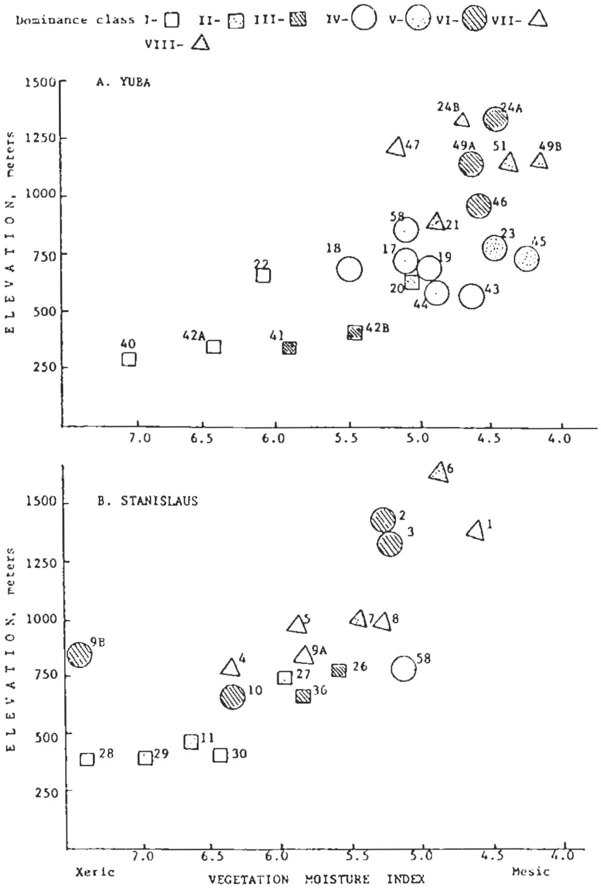
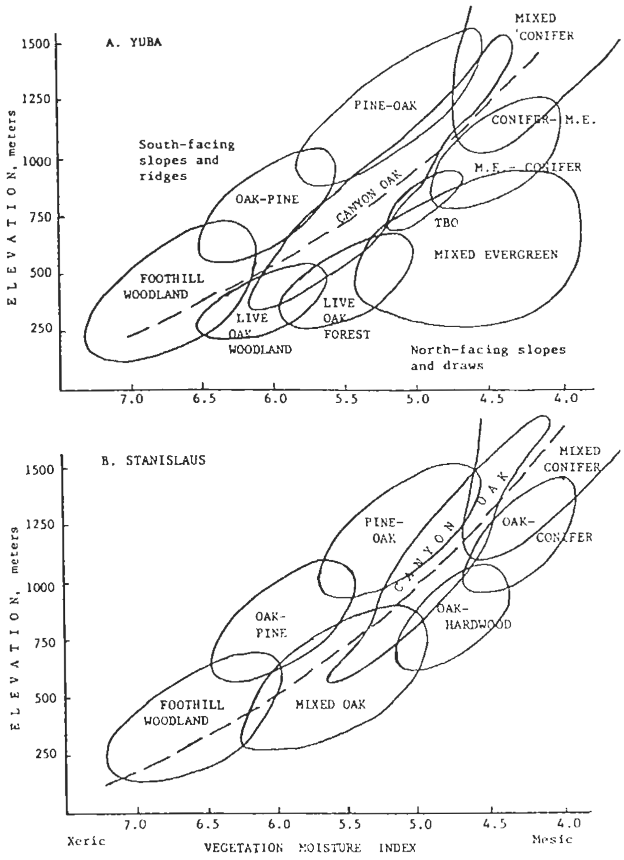


Figure 3-- Vegetation relationships in the Yuba River and Stanislaus River regions.



From the plotting of stands in figure 2, and from other observations, I have come up with a graphical representation of the relationships of canyon live oak vegetation in the northern Sierra Nevada (fig. 3). The dashed line in the middle of each graphically represents the canyon slopes near the river, excluding the strictly riparian vegetation. To the right are the north-facing slopes and relatively more mesic habitats. To the left are the exposed ridges and south-facing slopes. The limits of the vegetation groups are of course arbitrary, reflecting the gradual transitions.

The three basic vegetation types are shown, with the Mixed Evergreen considerably shrunk or eliminated in the Stanislaus River region. Canyon live oak generally occupies intermediate associations between the three basic types and is the primary species bridging all three. The Live Oak Woodland and Live Oak Forest are combined in the Stanislaus graph. The oak forests have become mostly canyon oak forests.

Even with its broad distribution throughout several communities, the compensation of moisture related factors results in a relative site constancy for canyon live oak with regard to the moisture gradient. Most of the measures of minimum xylem sap tensions were similar (-5 to -10 atm) and indicative of root systems probably reaching ground water. Some higher stresses (to -22 atm) from some exposed xeric sites also indicate some amount of variability here and may account for the species' abilities to intrude into chaparral habitats within the forest. Likewise, its noted tolerance for poor soils (e.g. serpentine) and infrequent burning has apparently resulted in its prominence in such azonal habitats where there is less competition from the faster growing conifers and other hardwoods. There seems to be a relationship between widespread adaptability and lack of competitiveness, where a species is either able to utilize many habitats to some extent or to utilize one or a few effectively (Solbrig 1970).

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Lithocarpus densiflorus

Inventory and Quantification of Central Coast Hardwood Resources in California[1]

Norman H. Pillsbury[2/]

Abstract: A method for determining the volume and weight of standing hardwood trees has been developed and tested. Cubic volume and weight tables have been developed for coast live oak (*Quercus agrifolia* Née), blue oak (*Quercus douglasii* Hook. and Arn.), valley oak (*Quercus lobata* Née) and tanoak [*Lithocarpus densiflorus* (Hook. and Arn.) Rehd.]. Diameter at breast height and total tree height provided the best relationship for determining tree volume and weight. Hardwood stand characteristics are presented for volume, weight, basal area, and number of trees. Three stand density classes are defined by class average and range of values for volume, weight, and basal area. Current and future studies include the development of hardwood photo volume and weight tables, preparation of maps showing volume and weight distributions, and evaluation of growth, regeneration, and thinning data.

INTRODUCTION

Until recently a cubic foot volume or total fibre inventory of the central California hardwood species was not available to property owners or resource agencies responsible for their management. Consequently the Forestry Committee, Central Coast Resource Conservation and Development Area[3/] (CCRC&D), assisted by the California Department of Forestry, Soil Conservation Service, and U.S. Forest Service has sponsored this study to inventory and evaluate the hardwood resources in the Central Coast counties, California (fig. 1). Also, the Renewable Resources Evaluation Research Unit, Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Portland, Oregon is planning to include a hardwood inventory as part of the next forest resource assessment for the State of California.[4/]

[1/]Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

[2/]Associate Professor, Natural Resources Management Department, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo.

[3/]The Central Coast Resource Conservation and Development Area is composed of Resource Conservation Districts from the following Central Coast Counties: Santa Cruz, Monterey, San Benito, and San Luis Obispo, California.

As a commodity, hardwoods in central California are used mostly for fireplace fuel and seldom for other wood products. As other forms of energy decrease in availability and increase in cost, the use of these renewable hardwoods for fuel in power plants and fireplaces becomes more attractive and practical. As an amenity, hardwoods are recognized for recreation, esthetics, and watershed protection in the woodland environment, while shade and visual enhancement are important in the urban setting. Native hardwoods are often ignored or viewed as a nuisance. This opinion, although rapidly changing in many areas, is still shared by some landowners who prefer converting woodland to rangeland or agricultural fields.

The objectives of the study (fig. 2) are to provide property owners and resource managers with a method for estimating volume and weight for individual trees, small stands of trees, and large tracts of woodlands. Eventually, guidelines will be developed for regeneration and planting of hardwoods and for stand improvement and protection. The opportunity for local citizens to manage and market hardwood products through an oak-woodland cooperative will be explored. Species under study are coast live oak

[4/]Personal Communication, 1979, Charles Bolsinger, Renewable Resources Evaluation Research Unit, Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Portland, Oregon.

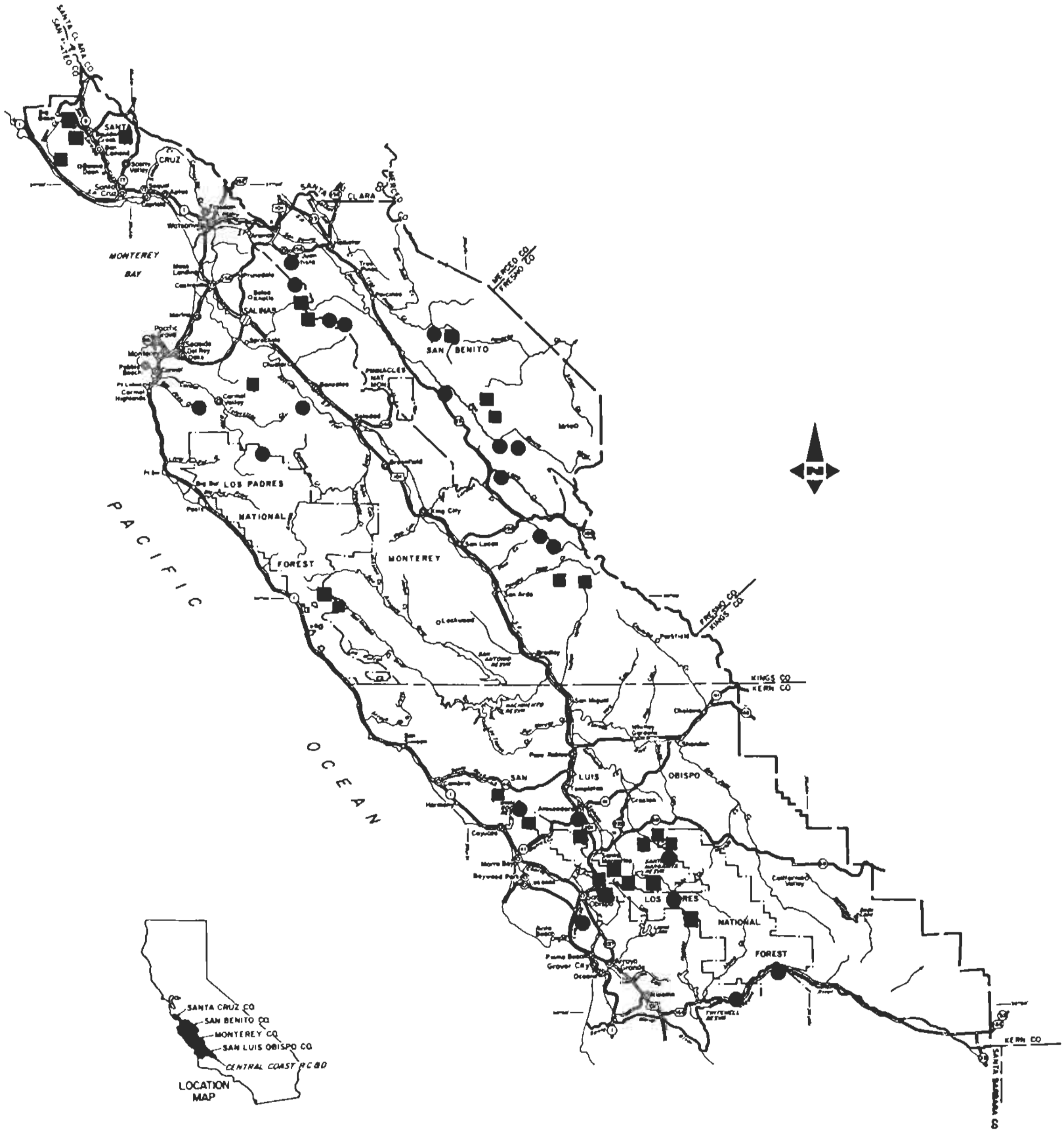

Figure 1--Sample plot locations in central coast counties, California. Squares are field plots, circles are photo plots.

PHASE I	PHASE II	PHASE III	PHASE IV	PHASE V
A. Feasibility study. Development of technique for a) Volume and density measurement methodology	A. Construct hardwood volume and weight tables for the Central Coast counties.	A. Develop photo-volume tables for Central Coast counties.	A. Determine hardwood site index and yield data for plots in the Central Coast counties.	A. To conduct a pulpwood and firewood market study for existing hardwoods in the Central Coast.
Status: Completed	Status: Completed	Status: In progress	Status: Proposed	Status: Conceptual
Report submitted: February 1978	Report published: April 1978	Completion date: Summer 1979	Duration: 1-2 years	Duration:
	B. Determine hardwood stand density characteristics for the Central Coast counties.	B. Construct fuel inventory maps for Central Coast counties.	B. Develop guidelines for regeneration stand improvements, protection, and rotation.	B. Development of an oak-woodland cooperative.
	Status: Completed	Status: In progress	Status: Conceptual	Status: Conceptual
	Report published: July 1978	Completion date: Summer 1980	Duration:	Duration:

Figure 2. Schedule for the inventory and quantification of Central Coast woodland resources in California.

(*Quercus agrifolia* Née), blue oak (*Quercus douglasii* Hook. and Arn.), valley oak (*Quercus lobata* Née), tanoak [*Lithocarpus densiflorus* (Hook. and Arn.) Rehd.], interior live oak (*Quercus wislizenii* A. DC.), and Pacific madrone (*Arbutus menziesii* Pursh).

The results from this study should aid woodland owners to objectively manage their land for hardwood products or for esthetics and other uses. The manager will now have a better information base from which to make his decisions.

METHODS AND RESULTS OF COMPLETED STUDIES

Hardwood Volume Tables

The hardwood species of the Central Coast tend to be characterized by rather short boles and branchy crowns. The number of segments and the complexity of the branching network makes volume measurement of hardwoods both difficult and time consuming. Measuring tree volume after a tree has been cut gives reliable data but is very time consuming. Consequently, an indirect procedure is needed that allows accurate measurements of the volumes of standing trees. This, of course, needs checking by direct measurement of fallen trees.

The problem of accurately measuring the volume of standing trees was solved as follows. Indirect measurements were obtained on standing trees with a Spiegel relascope (fig. 3); any equivalent upper stem dendrometer can be used. Each tree was divided into "stem and branch" segments (minimum diameter to 4 inches) and "terminal" segments. End diameters and the length of each stem and branch segment were measured and the volume was calculated from Smalian's formula (Husch *et al* 1972) as follows:

$$\text{Segment volume} = [(h/2)(A_b + A_u)] \text{ where}$$

A_b is the cross-sectional area at the large end of the segment
A_u is the cross-sectional area at the small end of each segment, and
h is the segment length.

The lengths of terminal segments 4 inches (10 cm) in diameter (at the large end) were averaged for each tree, and the segment volume was computed as a cone (fig. 3). Also, direct volume

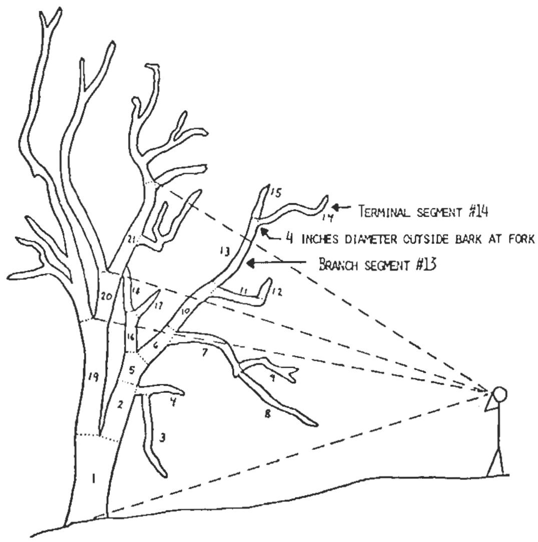

Figure 3--Volume determination of standing trees as determined by measuring segment diameters and lengths with a relascope. Segment volumes (numbered on sketch) are summed to obtain tree volume.

data was obtained by a tree caliper and cloth tape after each tree was cut. Cut segment volume was computed in the same manner as for standing trees (Pillsbury and Stephens 1978).

For both standing and cut trees, the sum of all segment volumes provides both an indirect and direct measurement of the total tree volume. Cut and standing measurements were obtained for a sample of 61 trees of different species located throughout the study area. The relationship between standing and cut tree volumes is shown in figure 4. This equation was used to adjust indirect volume measurements for the remaining 109 trees in the study.

Twenty-six sample plots (fig. 1) were randomly selected in hardwood stands at sites which appeared to be similar in size distribution and volume to the surrounding stand. A total of 170 trees, totalling 7,880 cubic feet (223 cubic meters) of wood, were measured by the technique shown in figure 3. Tree volume equations listed in table 1 were developed by multiple regression. Two independent variables, diameter at breast height and total tree height, provided the best correlation to tree volume. The addition of tree form, soil and site variables did not improve the correlation at the 5 percent level of significance and were eliminated from further consideration in the analysis.

Hardwood Weight Tables

Tree weights were obtained from 84 trees. Each tree was cut into firewood-size pieces 18 inches (45 cm) long and loaded on to a flatbed truck where each tree was weighed by a set of portable truck scales on loan from the California Highway Patrol. Merchantable tree weight is green weight, excluding foliage and branches less than 2 inches (5 cm) in diameter. A total of 250,000 pounds (113,000 kg) of wood was cut and weighed.

A strong correlation was found between volume and weight values (multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 = 0.904 or higher for individual species), and this relationship was used to estimate weight values for uncut trees. Tree weight equations shown in table 1 were developed using diameter at breast height and total tree height as independent variables.

Volume and weight tables for coast live oak, blue oak, tanoak, valley oak, and a general all-species table resulted (Pillsbury and Stephens 1978).

Stand Characteristics for Central Coast Hardwood Species

While individual tree measurements were required for volume and weight table development, total data from each plot were used to gather information about the stand itself. The computed stand characteristics are shown in Appendix A, Stand Variables. Data are expressed on a per acre basis, *e.g.*, individual tree volumes are summed to obtain plot volumes, and

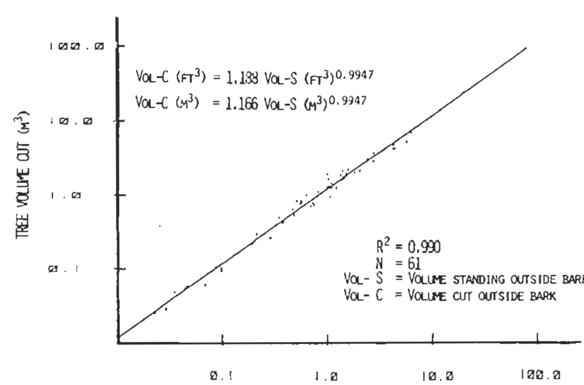

Figure 4--Relationship between tree volume standing and tree volume cut for 61 trees in the Central Coast counties, California.

Table 1. Tree volume and weight equations for Central Coast hardwoods.

Species	Equation	R^2	n
All species	VOL (ob) = 0.00469458 $(DBH^{2.2633})(HT^{0.7126})$	0.944	170
	VOL (ib) = 0.00371214 $(DBH^{2.1731})(HT^{0.7631})$	0.945	170
Coast Live Oak	VOL (ob) = 0.01632627 $(DBH^{1.6725})(HT^{0.8259})$	0.916	56
	VOL (ib) = 0.01045289 $(DBH^{1.6855})(HT^{0.8236})$	0.902	56
Blue Oak	VOL (ob) = 0.00105029 $(DBH^{2.3660})(HT^{1.0966})$	0.943	55
	VOL (ib) = 0.00072834 $(DBH^{2.3990})(HT^{1.1057})$	0.942	55
Tanoak	VOL (ob) = 0.00347878 $(DBH^{2.0397})(HT^{0.8802})$	0.989	20
	VOL (ib) = 0.00475941 $(DBH^{1.9333})(HT^{0.8190})$	0.989	20
Valley Oak	VOL (ob) = 0.00077572 $(DBH^{2.3348})(HT^{1.1298})$	0.989	20
All species	MWT = 0.81259 $(DBH^{1.9434})(HT^{0.6899})$	0.931	150
Coast Live Oak	MWT = 0.6464167 $(DBH^{1.8148})(HT^{0.8496})$	0.905	56
Blue Oak	MWT = 1.2193549 $(DBH^{2.1964})(HT^{0.4191})$	0.901	55
Tanoak	MWT = 0.1199063 $(DBH^{2.0287})(HT^{0.9821})$	0.982	20

Key:

VOL (ob) is total tree volume outside bark in cubic feet
VOL (ib) is total tree volume inside bark in cubic feet
MWT is merchantable green weight in pounds to a 2" stem
DBH is diameter at breast height in inches
HT is total height in feet
R^2 is multiple correlation coefficient
n is the number of observations

Table 2. Stand and yield characteristics for Central Coast hardwoods.

Variable Name	Units	Average	Range	Standard Deviation
Volume outside bark per acre	ft^3/ac	3012.34	630.0 - 9800.0	2454.60
Number of cords[1/] per acre	#/ac	37.70	7.9 - 122.5	30.70
Volume inside bark per acre	ft^3/ac	2287.87	519.0 - 7681.0	1960.21
Green weight per acre	tons/ac	96.03	16.92- 260.02	69.12
Number of trees per acre	#/ac	235.21	1.0 - 1718.0	358.38
Basal area per acre	ft^2/ac	113.93	17.0 - 261.0	74.45

1/Amount of wood stacked in a 4' x 4' x 8' space. Computation is based on a volume outside bark of 80 cubic feet (62.5%) of actual wood per cord.

extrapolated to obtain volumes per acre. Other stand variables are calculated in a similar manner. Results for species in the Central Coast counties are shown in table 2. Total stand volume (outside bark) and weight averaged 3010 cubic feet per acre (211 cubic meters per hectare) and 96 tons per acre (215 metric tons per hectare). Assuming that a standard cord (wood stacked in a 4' x 4' x 8' space) contains an actual volume of 80 cubic feet of wood, the average hardwood stand in the Central Coast counties contains about 37.5 cords per acre, and a cord weighs about 5100 pounds. A large variation exists for these and other variables measured because of the wide range of densities included in the sample design.

Stand Density Classes

Because hardwood stands were found to occur in a wide range of volume weight, number of trees/acre, and basal area densities, it is desirable to categorize hardwood stands by specific density classes. A correlation matrix was calculated to evaluate the degree of correlation among stand density variables. Variables with the highest correlation, measured by the correlation coefficient (R^2), that are easily measured or estimated were used to establish density class limits. The frequency of plots sampled and the range of stand volume and weight values were divided into stand density classes (I, II, III in table 3). The limits and averages used to define each class are shown in table 3.

Stand density classes may be used on maps to show relative distributions of hardwood volume and weight. A stand density class can be obtained by determining the volume per acre from a sample plot and referring to table 3. An easier method has been found based on the high correlation between basal area per acre and weight per acre ($R^2 = 0.90$). This method uses the variable plot sampling technique described by Dilworth and Bell (1971). The basal area is obtained by counting the number of trees observed from the center of each sample plot multiplied by the basal area factor stamped on an angle gage, wedge prism or relascope. This value is the basal area per acre. The density class and average volume and weight per acre can be obtained from table 3.

Summary

Based on this research, land and resource managers now are able to quantify hardwood

Table 3. Stand density class limits and averages[1/]

Density Class	Volume (ob) in cubic feet/acre		Green weight in tons/acre		Basal area in square feet/acre	
	Average	Range	Average	Range	Average	Range
I	974	1 - 1430	32	1 - 55	37.3	1 - 70
II	2335	1431 - 4300	80	56 - 135	105.9	71 - 155
III	6862	4310+	206	136+	220.7	156+

[1/]Averages are based on the average value measured per density class from plot data.

species and stands by:

1. Determining individual tree volume and weight.
2. Obtaining a general estimate of stand volume and weight per acre.
3. Compiling a detailed estimate of stand volume and weight per acre.

Specific examples and recommended techniques are discussed in Hardwood Stand Density Characteristics for Central Coast Counties in California (Pillsbury 1978).

CURRENT HARDWOOD STUDIES AND ANTICIPATED RESULTS

Aerial Photo Volume and Weight Tables

Other studies in progress include the development of hardwood photo volume and weight tables. Low altitude (scale of 1:5,000) color photographs have been taken and processed by the U.S. Forest Service.[5/] Tree height, crown diameter, and crown area measurements are being determined for 168 sample trees located on 21 plots in the Central Coast counties (fig. 1). Values are being obtained from two types of photo measuring equipment. The first type is a digitized Wild STK-1 stereocomparator and card-punch combination. This equipment provides high precision measurements; however, it is very expensive to purchase or lease. Secondly, the relatively common, less expensive parallax bar is used although it has lower precision. A comparison of measurements taken by these two types of equipment will allow us to determine the degree of variability that can be expected from low precision equipment. The relationship between tree measurements obtained from aerial photos and from volume and weight calculated from field measurements will be used to develop photo volume and weight tables as outlined by Paine (1978).

These tables will be used to determine volume and weight of individual trees from aerial photos. Volume and weights for small stands of hardwoods can be estimated by taking measurements from a series of photo sample plots. Photo volume and weight tables will be used for classifying homogeneous hardwood stands into volume and weight density classes for the fuel inventory mapping project.

Hardwood Fuel Inventory Maps

Determining hardwood volume and weight distributions for the Central Coast counties is the primary objective of this study. This will be accomplished by generating a set of hardwood fuel inventory maps. The U.S. Geological Survey, Land Use and Data Analysis (LUDA) Program has prepared vegetation cover maps (scale of 1: 24,000) for the Central Coast counties. These maps will be used as "base maps" for the fuel inventory project. Forest lands are divided into deciduous, evergreen, and mixed forest land (Anderson *et al* 1976). Volume and weight estimates from aerial photos will be used to obtain stand density classes (table 3) for the deciduous forest lands. Deciduous forest lands will be subdivided into stand density classes I, II or III and mapped on USGS topographic maps. Photo estimates will be checked in the field to assure correctness of classification.

Fuel inventory maps will provide regional estimates and distribution of hardwoods. Also, woodland owners, with assistance from resource agency personnel, will be able to identify their property on these maps and obtain volume and weight estimates for the hardwood portions.

[5/]U.S. Forest Service, State and Private Forestry, Region 5, San Francisco, California.

Thus, a hardwood volume and weight estimate will be obtained for the Central Coast counties for the first time.

OUTLINE OF FUTURE STUDIES FOR CENTRAL COAST HARDWOODS

Future studies planned for the Central Coast hardwoods include growth and yield evaluation and analysis of regeneration, thinning, and stand improvement techniques. This information is essential before management recommendations can be made. Further studies will analyze the percentage of harvest that will allow for proper soil and watershed protection.

Most woodland owners do not have retail outlets nearby and do not have the time to transport firewood to high demand metropolitan areas where prices are favorable. Studies are needed to evaluate how a local economy might benefit from an oak-woodland cooperative.

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APPENDIX A. Summary of tree and stand variables for Central Coast Counties in California.

Variable	Units	Measurement description
A. Tree Variables		
Species	code	1. coast live oak; 2. blue oak; 3. valley oak; 4. madrone; 5. tanoak; 6. interior live oak.
Diameter at breast height outside bark	in	Diameter of main stem at 4.5' (1.35 m) measured with a D-tape.
Total tree height	ft	Determined by relaskop.
Crown area	ft^2	Computed from average of maximum and minimum crown diameter (based on circle).
Volume outside bark (standing)	ft^3	Computed from segment end diameters and segment lengths by relaskop (fig. 3).
Volume outside bark (cut)	ft^3	Computed by tree calipers and cloth tape or figure 4.
Volume inside bark (cut)	ft^3	Volume outside bark (cut) minus volume lost due to bark.
Merchantable tree weight (green)	lbs	Green weight excluding foliage and growths less than 2 in (5 cm) in diameter, by truck scales.
B. Stand Variables		
Volume outside bark	ft^3/ac	Technique described by Dilworth and Bell (1971); data obtained from tree variable measurements (part A).
Volume inside bark	ft^3/ac	
Merchantable tree weight (green)	tons/ac	
Basal area	ft^2/ac	
Number of trees	#/ac	

Quercus kelloggii

Oaks in California's Commercial Forests—Volume, Stand Structure, and Defect Characteristics[1]

Charles L. Bolsinger[2]

Abstract: Information on area of hardwood types on commercial forest land in California, and volume and defects of oaks is summarized. Studies done in Trinity County and the southern Sierra Nevada show similar species, size, and defect characteristics. Black oak made up 60 percent of the volume. Most stands had less than 1,000 cubic feet per acre. Larger older trees were more defective than smaller, younger trees. About one-fourth of the trees under 11.0 inches in diameter had visible decay indicators, compared with 100 percent of the trees over 29 inches. About half of the black oaks over 29 inches in diameter were cull.

INTRODUCTION

California has 16.3 million acres of forest land, excluding Parks and Wilderness Areas, capable of growing 20 or more cubic feet of industrial wood per acre annually. All but about 50,000 acres of this "commercial forest land" is capable of growing conifers, though currently hardwood forest types cover 2.8 million acres. About 77 percent is on private lands, 15 percent is in National Forests, and 8 percent is on other public lands. By site class, the hardwood types are distributed as follows:[3]

Site class (cubic feet per acre per year)	Thousand acres	Percent
20-49	267	9
50-84	968	34
85+	1,606	57
Total	2,841	100

In addition to the hardwood types, hardwood trees make up 10 percent or more of the stocking on 2.7 million acres of commercial conifer types.

About 80 percent of the total cubic-foot volume in hardwoods in California is oaks[4] (including *Quercus spp* and *Lithocarpus densiflorus*) as shown below (see also species list at end of this article).

Species or species group	Million cubic feet in trees 5.0 inches+	Million board feet (Int. 1/4" rule) in trees 11.0 inches+
California black oak	1,078	2,659
White and live oaks	718	1,771
Tanoak	1,087	2,048
Madrone	544	1,024
Red alder	64	179
All other hardwoods	202	394
Total	3,693	8,075

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[1] Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks. Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

[2] Research Forester, Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Portland, Oregon.

[3] See Griffin and Critchfield 1972 for details on the distribution of hardwoods in California.

[4] Not included is the volume of oaks on over 7 million acres of unproductive oak woodland, consisting primarily of California blue and valley oaks and California live, interior live, and canyon live oaks. No volume inventory has been made of these species except where they occur on "commercial forest land."

These estimates of forest area and timber volume were made by the Renewable Resources Evaluation Research Unit at the Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Portland, Oregon. Volume was calculated for trees having at least one 8-foot log above a 1-foot stump to a top diameter of 4 inches outside bark for cubic-foot estimates, and 9 inches for board-foot estimates.

To approximate the total volume in hardwoods on California's commercial forest land, factors were developed as follows: A sample of trees measured by the Resources Evaluation Unit were selected and main bole net volumes were calculated. Values developed by Pillsbury and Stephens (1978) in California's central coast area were used to estimate total tree volume including stumps, limbs, branches, and tops in the same trees. Conversion factors were calculated by broad diameter class and applied to the State totals. Because the species mix in Pillsbury's study differs from the total mix of hardwoods in California, these results can be viewed only as rough approximations:

Diameter at breast height	Net cubic-foot volume of main bole from a 1-foot stump to 4-inch top (A)	Conversion factor--total tree volume/main bole volume (B)	Approximate total tree volume (A) x (B)
Inches	Million cubic feet		Million cubic feet
5.0-10.9	1,047	1.56	1,633
11.0-14.9	725	1.90	1,378
15.0-20.9	857	1.98	1,697
21.0-28.9	691	1.98	1,368
29.0+	373	1.98	738
Total	3,693	1.84	6,814

A similar relationship between main bole volume and total tree volume was reported by Noel Cost (1978) in mountain hardwoods in North Carolina. Cost's study consisted mostly of smaller trees. His factor--1.46--is similar to the 1.56 shown above for trees in the 5.0- to 10.9-inch class.

Although oaks occur naturally on 5.5 million acres of commercial forest land, logging practices have promoted their growth and establishment.

Since 1953 (USDA Forest Service 1954), cubic-foot volume of oaks has increased 34 percent while conifer volume has decreased 29 percent. Selective cutting has removed conifers from mixed stands, often leaving oaks to control the site. McDonald (1973) reported that oak stocking on the Challenge Experimental Forest increased following logging to meet the former California Forest Practice Act Standards. Although current standards allow oaks to count as stocking only if designated for management (California, State of, 1975) their presence influences stand development even when not counted. Logging promotes oak in many areas of California.

A canvass of 100 percent of California's forest products industries in 1976 showed that hardwoods amounted to less than one-fourth of 1 percent of wood consumed (Hiserote and Howard 1978). Conifer consumption was 135 percent of annual growth and 2.1 percent of inventory, while industrial hardwood consumption was 6 percent of growth and 0.1 percent of inventory. Some hardwoods were used as fuel. About 1.5 million cubic feet of fuelwood was harvested by timber operators (California Department of Forestry 1977), and 47,707 fuelwood cutting permits were issued by the USDA Forest Service. An unknown but substantial portion was oak. Still, the total consumption of oak in California is a small fraction of the resource.

The effect of removing conifers from mixed stands and leaving hardwoods is seen in a stand sampled in Trinity County. This stand was logged about 20 years ago and again within the past 10 years. The older logging removed large pines. Recent logging removed large Douglas-firs. No hardwood trees were cut or killed by logging, but many hardwoods--mostly California black oak and canyon live oak--were damaged. Trees and stumps were tallied so stand data could be displayed before and after the recent logging. The results are:

Stand component	Square feet of basal area per acre in trees 5.0 inches+: Before logging, Total BA	Before logging, Percent	After logging, Total BA	After logging, Percent	Saplings & Seedlings per acre at time of sampling: Number	Percent
Conifers	56	52	24	32	342	26
Hardwoods	52	48	52	68	960	74
Total	108	100	76	100	1,302	100

In this stand the proportion of hardwood stocking increased 20 percent after removal of dominant Douglas-fir trees. A closer examination revealed that many of the hardwoods were crooked and/or rotten. Of more importance is the long-term effect. The future forest, represented by the saplings and seedlings, is three-fourths California black oak and canyon live oak.

To get a better idea of oak characteristics on commercial conifer site lands, two areas (see fig. 1) were selected for study: Trinity County in the Klamath Mountains and northern Coast Ranges, and a five-county area in the southern Sierra Nevada and the Tehachapi Mountains (Mariposa, Madera, Fresno, Tulare, and Kern Counties). Forest Survey plot records for lands outside National Forests were examined.[5]

[5] Field plots were randomly selected from a larger sample of aerial photo plots and established on the ground. For details on the sampling procedures see Bolsinger 1976 and 1978.

Figure 1--Map of California showing location of oak study areas.

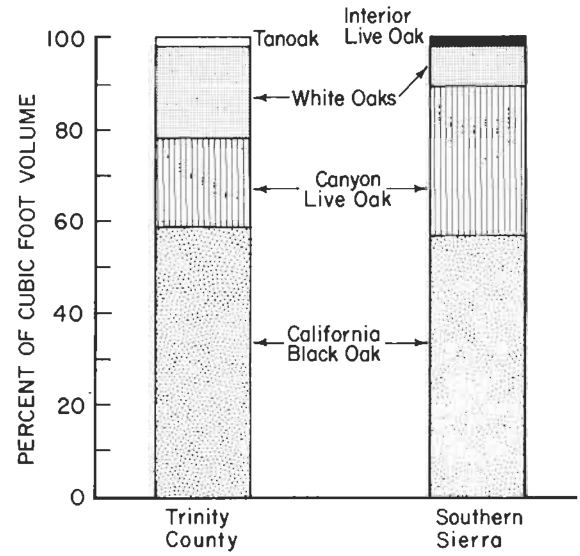

Figure 2--Percent of total net volume of oaks by species, Trinity County and southern Sierra Nevada.

The following summary shows area and number of plots:

Study area	Acres of commercial forest land	Number of field plots	Percent of plots with oak trees 5.0 inches+
Trinity County	460,000	118	70
Southern Sierra	174,000	65	60

Plots consisted of 10 points scattered over an acre. At each point trees were tallied and measured. Deductions were made for visible indicators of decay, missing and broken parts, and crook. Net volumes were calculated and summarized by plot and area:

Study area	Average conifer volume in all plots	Average hardwood volume in plots with hardwoods	Hardwood plots by cubic-foot-per-acre volume class		
			1-449	500-99	1,000+
	- - - Cubic feet per acre - - -		- - - Percent - - -		
Trinity	2,696	376	70	20	10
Southern Sierra	2,442	497	62	33	5

In both study areas, nearly 60 percent of the total oak volume was California black oak (fig. 2). Canyon live oak and white oak made up most of the balance. In Trinity County the white oak was *Quercus garryana*, including the large tree form and the smaller var. *breweri*. In the southern Sierra Nevada, field crews identified both *Quercus garryana* and *Quercus lobata*. Tanoak accounted for about 2 percent of the oak volume in Trinity County. In the southern Sierra Nevada, interior live oak accounted for 2 percent of the oak volume.

Figure 3 shows that the distribution of oaks by diameter class was somewhat similar in both areas, though the southern Sierra Nevada has a higher proportion of larger trees than Trinity County.

Oaks in California often are crooked, forked, and sprawling, making them difficult to handle in conventional industrial processes. Oaks in California's conifer stands often are rotten and broken, especially large old trees. A number of wood-rotting fungi attack oak trees, including *Armillaria mellea*, *Polyporus dryophilus*, *P. sulphureus*, and *Fomes applanatus*, and several wound rot species of *Polyporus* (Hepting 1971 and McDonald 1969). Deductions in volume were made only for visible indicators. Figure 4 shows the proportion of the 1,183 oak trees tallied in the two study areas by soundness categories. Defect was much greater than the 3 percent found by Pillsbury and Stephens (1978) in oaks in California's central coast. Their study included total wood volume, not just bole volume, and contained no California black oak.

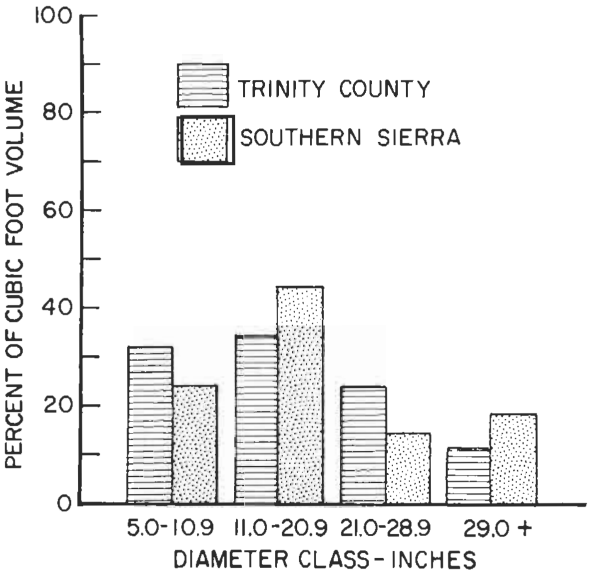

Figure 3--Percent of total net volume of oaks by diameter class, Trinity County, and southern Sierra Nevada.

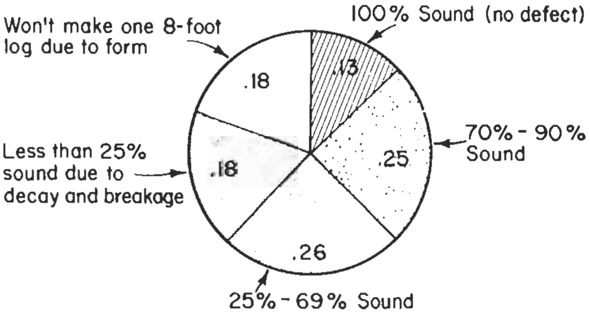

Figure 4--Proportion of oak trees tallied in Trinity County and southern Sierra Nevada by soundness categories (basis: 1,183 trees).

In both Trinity County and the southern Sierra Nevada, California black oak was found to have a higher incidence of decay than other oak species. Figure 5, for example, shows that 23 percent of the black oak trees in the southern Sierra were cull[6/] due to decay compared with 9 percent of the canyon live oak and 13 percent of the interior live oak. Because much of the decay was confined to butt sections of trees, inclusion of top and limb wood volume as done by Pillsbury and Stephens would decrease the average proportion of defect.

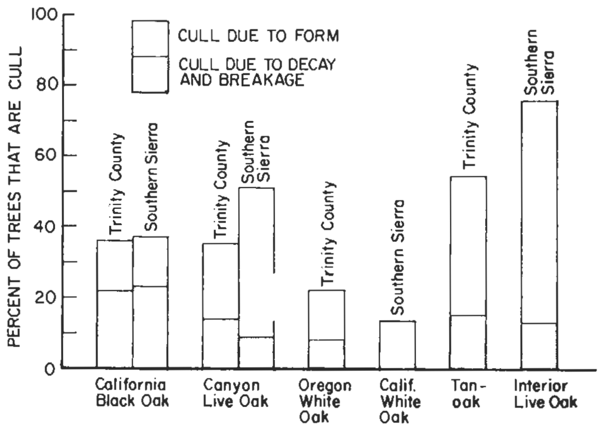

Figure 5--Percent of oak trees on commercial forest land in Trinity County and southern Sierra Nevada that were cull due to form and cull and breakage.

Larger, older trees are more defective than the younger, smaller trees. About 6 percent of the black oak trees in the 5.0- to 10.9-inch diameter class were cull because of decay, compared with 22 percent of 11.0- to 20.9-inch trees and 50 percent of trees 29.0 inches and larger (fig. 6). Similar patterns held for

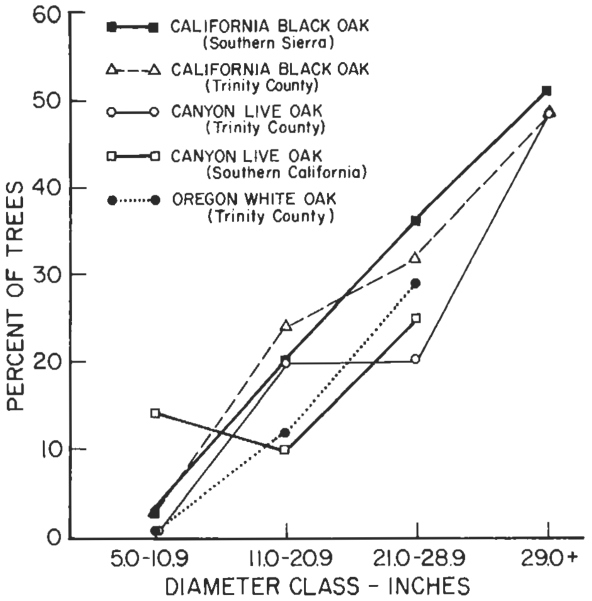

Figure 6--Percent of trees tallied in Trinity County and the southern Sierra Nevada that are cull due to decay and breakage.

6/ Cull trees are less than 25 percent sound, or won't make one 8-foot log.

other oaks. Much of the defect seemed related to logging wounds and fire scars. Because deductions were made only for visible indicators of defect, these cull estimates are considered to be conservative. Decay indicators were: visible rot, hollows, breaks, and fungus sporophores. The following tabulation shows percent of trees by diameter class with visible decay indicators:

Diameter class	Percent of trees with indicators
inches	
5.0 - 10.9	28
11.0 - 20.9	65
21.0 - 28.9	80
29.0+	100

Discussion

Oaks in California's commercial forests are currently an underutilized resource, and they have been increasing. The oaks are valuable as wildlife habitat and important in watershed protection. Their presence adds to the unique character of California's forests. They are an essentially untapped resource for energy and other uses. Development of a use for these species would have many positive results, including an economical way to release conifers from competition on extensive areas. Any technology that is developed has to take into account the defective nature of these trees. For example, oaks suitable for lumber products usually must be fairly large, yet most large oak trees contain substantial amounts of cull. Smaller oak trees could be suitable for firewood and other uses for which the presence of decay or other defect would not be critical. In some areas, oaks may promote the establishment and early survival and growth of conifers by creating a more favorable soil pH and sheltering them from the harsh summer sun. It may be possible to grow both oaks and conifers on the same piece of ground. Oaks would be the nurse crop; they could be harvested when the conifers are large enough to make it on their own in the sun. Under intensive management, undesirable features of oak such as decay and crook could be minimized.

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SCIENTIFIC AND COMMON NAMES OF TREES

Scientific name	Common name
Alnus rubra Bong.	red alder
Arbutus menziesii Pursh	madrone
Lithocarpus densiflorus (Hook. & Arn.) Rehd.	tanoak
Quercus agrifolia Nee	California live oak, coast live oak
Q. chrysolepis Liebm.	canyon live oak
Q. douglasii Hook. & Arn.	blue oak
Q. garryana Dougl.	Oregon white oak
Q. garryana var. *breweri* (Engelm.) Jeps[7/]	Brewer oak
Q. garryana var. *semota* Jeps[7/]	Kaweah oak, shin oak
Q. kelloggii Newb.	California black oak
Q. lobata Nee	California white oak, valley oak
Q. wislizenii A. DC.	Interior live oak
Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirb.) Franco	Douglas-fir

[7/] From Griffin and Critchfield (1972).

Quercus kelloggii

Preliminary Recommendations for Managing California Black Oak in the Sierra Nevada[1]

John Tappeiner and Philip McDonald[2]

Abstract: Ecologically, California black oak is an important species in mixed-conifer and ponderosa pine forests. The occurrence of this oak in these forests is reviewed in terms of site considerations, species composition and stand structure. Its response to fire and role as a nurse crop for conifers are discussed. This discussion, along with a brief summary of current research findings, leads to recommendations for managing this oak for wildlife, wood and aesthetics in the Sierra Nevada. We envision growing pure black oak in groups which range from about 0.5 to 10 acres. On poorer sites this oak appears to be able to maintain itself, while on better sites treatment will be necessary to counteract the natural succession toward conifers.

INTRODUCTION

Recent interest in more intensive management of California black oak (*Quercus kelloggii* Newb.) in the Sierra Nevada, especially for wildlife habitat, has stimulated development of preliminary management recommendations for this species. These are based on McDonald's (1969, 1978) work, discussion with silviculturists throughout California, and field observations of both authors. It is our hope that presenting these recommendations will lead to their discussion and improvement. They should be considered only as preliminary.

Any silvicultural prescription depends upon the objectives and the products for which a stand is managed. Stand management objectives depend, in part, upon site productivity, species composition, stand structure, and economic alternatives. In addition, prescriptions must be developed on a stand-by-stand basis with careful regard to the ecological forces interacting on the stand. The recommendations that follow are intended to match the ecology of this oak to management considerations.

California black oak is found in essentially three broad vegetative categories, and we feel that stand management will differ somewhat in each. Furthermore, these guidelines are aimed not only at stands managed for wood products, but also at those where wildlife and aesthetics are emphasized.

Before we present these recommendations, background must be given to show their basis and logic. This background will consist of a brief presentation on site productivity, species composition, and structure of California black oak stands, as well as this oak's role as a nurse crop for conifers, its response to fire, and its reproduction from seed and sprouts.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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California black oak is found in three broad vegetation types: (1) conifer forest (Pacific ponderosa pine, Pacific ponderosa pine--Douglas-fir, and Sierra Nevada mixed conifer), (2) California black oak, and (3) oak woodland-chaparral.

Recommendations for management of black oak in the conifer forest are presented in detail. We will only briefly mention management possibilities for this oak in the other types.

BACKGROUND

Site Productivity

California black oak is found on a wide range of sites. It grows vigorously on deep well-drained soils of loam or clay-loam texture and does well on sandy, gravelly, or stoney soils. Poorly drained soils, however, restrict downward root penetration and lead to its early demise. This oak is often found occupying the poorer, harsher sites. However, its best development is on high sites--sites where the conifers are more competitive and hence responsible for eventually reducing oak density.

Stand Structure

Vegetative associates are several species of conifers, other hardwoods, and woody shrubs. Most conifers inherently grow taller than this oak, and given enough time, will overtop it. Because the oak cannot tolerate shade when mature, it loses vigor and usually dies once overtopped. California black oak is favored by disturbance such as fire, which often kills competitive vegetation, but only kills the oak back to ground line. It quickly sprouts, and if present in sufficient numbers, forms a closed canopy. Thus, the purest stands of oak often are found on poorer sites and in areas of heavy past disturbance.

In natural young-growth ponderosa pine and mixed-conifer stands, black oak is found as scattered individual trees and in small groups. Scattered trees are most common on better sites, while groups generally occur on moderate sites on south slopes or in small draws and areas of rocky soil. Within the groups there usually is not a wide range of age classes. In fact, because of sprout origin, most trees in a group are of one age. New saplings or poles established between disturbances generally are lacking.

On harsher sites, black oak stands tend toward being pure, especially in the northern part of the species' range. Where disturbance has been frequent, the black oak forest can be extensive, made up of a mosaic of even-aged stands, or sometimes of two-aged stands with large scattered old-growth trees above and more numerous young-growth trees below.

Black Oak as a Nurse Crop

On drier sites on south and west slopes with good soils, and at lower elevations, California black oak can be a nurse crop for conifer reproduction (Baker 1942, Tappeiner 1966). Often there appears to be a positive relationship between oak shade and the occurrence of conifer seedlings, saplings, and poles on slopes otherwise occupied by bear-clover (*Chamaebatia foliolosa*) or other woody shrubs. Apparently the conifers are not affected as much by the oaks as they are by the less shade-tolerant shrubs. Generally, regeneration under oaks is a slow process, and 20 years or more are often necessary for the area to become stocked with conifer seedlings. Even then, the presence of oak does not ensure adequate conifer regeneration.

While oak shade favors natural regeneration of conifers, it retards their later development. Ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*) is relatively intolerant and the lower light levels under oak, along with competition from established oak roots, slows its growth. Seedlings often appear weak and spindly and are frequently damaged by the reproduction weevil (*Cylindrocopturus eatoni*). Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*), white fir (*Abies concolor*), and sugar pine (*Pinus lambertiana*) grow much better in oak shade as seedlings and saplings. Their leaders and crowns, however, usually are damaged as they grow through the oak branches. Also, their tolerance decreases with age, and light levels under oak may be somewhat low for their best development.

Fire

California black oak is severely damaged by crown fires and unless mature, even by relatively cool ground fires (McDonald 1969). Fire can kill the stem outright or cause "feathering" along the stem from epicormic branching. These branches are a serious lumber degrade, and in general are short-lived on all but open-grown trees. Fire-damaged stems are especially susceptible to pathogens, which weaken the tree and result in windthrow and breakage. Therefore, fire must be used with caution, if at all, in managing saplings or older black oak trees. Mixed-oak and conifer stands in general may not be compatible with burning if good quality oak wood is an objective of stand management.

It is possible that fire could be used to stimulate suppressed advance oak reproduction and this possibility needs careful study on several sites. Often, older oak seedlings, which are 0.5 to 2.0 feet (0.1 to 0.6 m) tall and about 20 years old, grow under large oak trees in competition with tolerant conifer seedlings and saplings and various shrubs. These oak seedlings are often repeatedly browsed. Fire might reduce the vegetative competition and result in seedling-sprouts more vigorous and of better form than the seedlings. Fire would kill the advance oak reproduction back to ground line. The oak probably would sprout from the root crown, often with only one stem, and quickly grow beyond browse height.

Reproduction

At present, foresters have had little experience in outplanting black oak; therefore, they must rely for the most part on natural regeneration, which is composed of advance reproduction and stump sprouts. McDonald (1978) noted the following points with regard to regeneration:

Natural oak seedlings and advance reproduction

a. In young-growth stands, large seed crops occur every 5 to 6 years, and seem to either be excellent or nonexistent. Inclement weather and insect infestation often reduce seed crops greatly.

b. Height growth of new seedlings averages only about 0.1 foot (3 cm) per year, advance growth about 0.3 foot (9 cm) per year for the first 5 growing seasons.

c. High mortality of acorns and newly germinated seedlings is common.

d. Advance reproduction of black oak often is quite plentiful, averaging 500 to 800 seedlings per acre (1200 to 2000/ha) in mixed conifer and hardwood stands.

e. Tree form often is better if the tree is from seed, rather than from sprouts.

Reproduction by sprouting

a. After cutting, black oak sprouts vigorously from the root crown or the stump.

b. Stumps should not be higher than 8 inches (20 cm) in order to obtain sound, windfirm and reasonably straight sprouts.

c. Stool sprouts originate from tall stumps caused by cutting or breakage of the tree. They are weakly attached to the stump and are peeled off easily by wind and snow. They also are prone to heart rot introduced from the stump. For these reasons they are undesirable and to be avoided.

d. Sprouts from the root crown grow about 2 feet (0.6 m) per year in clearcuttings and about 0.7 feet (0.2 m) per year in shelterwood cuttings.

e. In clearcuttings and burns black oak stump sprouts will outgrow planted or natural conifer seedlings for at least 15-20 years. Thus, planting these areas with conifers does not eliminate oak from the new stand.

Artificial regeneration

Black oak can be established by artificial regeneration if a good seedbed free of competing shrubs and trees is provided. Newly fallen acorns should be gathered in the fall or spring, and outplanted when just beginning to germinate. Pinned-down cone screens must be used for protection from rodents, especially squirrels. With use of these techniques, on a high site in north central California, survival after 10 years was 40 to 45 percent. Annual fertilization with 0.25 pound (0.1 kg) per seedling of 16-20-0 enhanced survival and height growth. Fertilized seedlings were 2.5 feet (0.8 m) tall after 5 years and over three times taller than unfertilized seedlings. Protection from pocket gophers, and at specific locales in California protection from deer and cattle, would aid in seedling establishment.

Thus it appears that regeneration of California black oak is most likely to be successful with sprouts in clearcuttings. Seedling-sprouts, if plentiful, could enhance stocking if burned or slashed and stimulated to a higher growth rate by so doing. Artificial seeding has promise and this technique should improve with experience.

Stand Density - Thinning

To obtain the proper density and quality of black oak trees to increase stand productivity, thinning often will be necessary. Such treatment should promote good stem and crown development and even enhance the value of wildlife and aesthetics. Stump sprouts can be thinned, beginning about 4 years after sprouting, but earlier thinning generally results in additional sprouting (McDonald 1978). Thinning at an early age (4 to 8 years), has the advantage of smaller material to cut and less slash to dispose of, but this practice should be used with caution because there is an indication that early thinning may result in forked trees. And thinned sprouts grow no faster than unthinned sprouts, at least for the first 10 years after thinning.

To produce well-formed trees with no loss of stand increment, thinning of natural stands should be done when sprouts and seedlings are 30 to 50 feet (9 to 15 m) tall or when the stand exceeds 125 square feet of basal area per acre (29 m^2/ha). On a high site in north central California, 60-year-old hardwood stands thinned at 100 to 125 square feet of basal area per acre (23 to 29 m^2/ha) tentatively produced the most cubic volume for the first 8 years after thinning. On lower sites this residual level of growing stock could be too high and 80 to 100 square feet per acre (18 to 23 m^2/ha) might be more appropriate.

Where accessible, thinning can be done for fuelwood, usually at no cost to the owner. In thinning and other stand tending, trees of seed origin should be favored as they usually have good form.

In the future, plantations from seed will be established at different spacings, and from them will come thinning schedules that will maximize growth and value. Such schedules may differ from those for stands of sprout origin. It is likely that the thrifty, more fully-crowned plantation-grown trees so produced, will yield abundant acorns at a much earlier age than the narrow-crowned trees in the dense sprout stands of today.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Following are preliminary recommendations for management of California black oak in the three broad vegetative types defined earlier. They serve as a starting point; use them with caution.

Conifer Forest Type

1. Black oak on poor sites on west and south slopes should be maintained in pure stands. It should be relatively easy to do so. On better sites, the species is subject to overtopping by conifers and considerable stand manipulation will be needed to maintain a constant proportion of groups of well-developed oak trees.

2. For practical management of mixed black oak-conifer stands, black oak should be grown in pure groups with a range in size of about 0.5 to 10 acres (0.2 to 4 ha). In this manner, treatments favoring oak can be applied to discrete parts of the stand. Because the smaller groups generally are more common where the site is higher and the larger groups are located where the site is lower, management will follow accordingly. Large stands on poor sites probably should remain natural unless uses are well defined. Groups of oak are common in mixed-conifer stands, and it should be necessary only to recognize and recommend for them in silvicultural prescriptions; only occasionally will special treatment be necessary to establish new groups. Furthermore, managing oaks in groups will aid the orderly management (regeneration, release, logging, slash disposal) not only of the oak, but also of the surrounding conifers.

3. The number of various-sized oak groups recommended for retention or creation in each compartment cannot be answered here. It will depend on the use or mix of uses and their intensity, which in turn is geared to management goals.

4. If oak is to be used as a nurse crop for conifers, its canopy density must be regulated for best conifer development. Need for periodic opening-up of the stand depends primarily on the tolerance and size of the conifers and the density of the oak canopy.

5. If used in stands with oaks in them, fire should be very light and confined to the ground surface. It must not be hot enough to damage oak stems and hence allow formation of heart rot. Fire can possibly be used to stimulate height growth of oak advance reproduction.

6. Because of the slow growth rate of natural reproduction, oak regeneration should be accomplished mostly from root crown sprouts or from advance reproduction. Stumps should be lower than 8 inches to avoid stool sprouting.

7. Thinning of oak should begin when stems are 30 to 50 feet tall and obviously overcrowded. After thinning, basal areas of 100 to 125 square feet per acre should be satisfactory for cubic volume growth on good sites, with somewhat lower density on sites of lesser quality. The reduced stand density brought about by thinning should create a more open stand with a longer view and hence be more pleasing aesthetically.

8. Because the incidence of heart rot increases in stands over age 80, these stands are increasingly poor risks. Yet acorn production increases after age 80. Thus, a compromise between wood and acorns may often be necessary for multiple-use management. At least two broad age classes (0 to 80 and 81 to 120+ years) should be maintained for continuous mast production.

9. In areas where oaks already are aggregated, artificial regeneration of conifers after fire or clearcutting does not preclude oak management. Of course, the oak group and about 20 feet (6.1 m) of buffer need not be planted. The oaks will sprout and the sprouts will grow faster in height than the conifers and thus be competitive with them at least for several decades. Trees from these sprouts can be precommercially thinned along with the surrounding conifers and thus groups of oaks will again be present in the mature stand.

California Black Oak Type

This type consists of nearly pure black oak stands, some of which are quite extensive. Without fire the stands will remain pure on poor sites and probably slowly change to mixed oak-conifer stands on better sites. The large number of trees and hence concentrated volume of wood could lead to development of an intensive program of stand management and utilization. Because many of these stands are found at low elevations, they form part of the important winter range for wildlife species. Thus the forest manager is faced with a number of manipulative possibilities for managing the different uses.

The preliminary stocking and regeneration recommendations listed above will probably apply to this type. To begin stand management both for mast and wood production, initial prescriptions could call for the removal of poorly formed or damaged trees. Growth then would accrue on the better stems. The poor quality trees could be sold for fuelwood.

Oak Woodland-Chaparral Type

In this type California black oak is an occasional associate on deep, well-drained soils. Here it generally is the dominant vegetation. It is often favored for shade, aesthetics, mast, and fuelwood in both suburban and rural settings. California black oak will reproduce by sprouts in this type and the material on vegetative reproduction should apply. Beyond this, however, the foregoing recommendations become increasingly questionable. Simply not enough information is available to recommend them with any certainty.

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Quercus kelloggii

An Approach to Managing California Black Oak and Hardwoods on a Deer Winter Range in Central California[1]

Donald Potter and Barbara Johnston 2/

Abstract: On the Stanislaus deer winter range, a method for determining stocking levels of California Black Oak (Quercus kelloggii) was developed. Mast needs for the deer herd and mast production per tree were first determined. The required number of oak trees per acre and percent of land to be occupied by oaks was calculated. A stand structure describing the distribution of the oak component in space and time was developed to achieve a desired balance between timber and deer production.

INTRODUCTION

The effects of timber management activities on the winter range of the Stanislaus deer herd have long been a management concern. Past timber management activities stressed optimizing growth and yield of commercial conifers. The wildlife biologists' primary concern was the decrease in oaks with accompanying decreases in acorns available to wintering deer. Guidelines for California black oak (Quercus kelloggii) retention often were developed on a small project basis, without data to quantify the effects of such recommendations area-wide. Recent availability of acorn production data by tree size and age, and other silvicultural information on California black oak, has enabled biologists and foresters to estimate the oak basal area required to support acorn production to meet the needs of specific densities of deer. Using this data, oak management guidelines to meet these requirements can be developed.

Information was needed on the following topics to develop recommendations for an entire winter range:

1. Population objectives for the Stanislaus herd.

2. A quantitative estimate of mast requirements for wintering deer.

3. A determination of oak basal area and stand structure needed over time to support the mast requirements.

4. A vegetative analysis of the winter range in order to identify how much and what kind of land was needed to meet basal area requirements. For example, the oak requirement could be met from combinations of marginal timber producing lands, isolated oak stands, stands in draws or on poor soils, as well as from intensively managed timber lands where oak was one of the managed species. This analysis was also necessary to measure present oak stocking levels in relationship to our objectives.

5. An evaluation of the effect of meeting various oak retention levels on timber production.

These interim oak management guidelines were developed through field discussion with foresters, silviculturists, and Forest Service and California Department of Fish and Game biologists. Although there are many other habitat elements which should be, and are being considered in managing the Stanislaus herd, we are

1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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addressing only the oak component on the winter range in this presentation.

STUDY AREA

The winter range of the Stanislaus deer herd (Odocoileus hemionus californicus) occupies about 143,000 acres (57,870 ha) in an area bounded generally on the south by Highway 108 between Sonora and Long Barn, on the north by Highway 4 between Vallecito and Arnold, on the west by the Parrott's Ferry road between Vallecito and Sonora, and on the east by a line from Crandall Peak to Arnold. Approximately 45 percent of the area is National Forest land. Elevations range from 800 feet (243 m) to nearly 5500 feet (1,676 m). Mean elevation is about 3200 feet (975 m). Vegetation types include chaparral, oakwoodland, California black oak, ponderosa pine, and mixed conifer. Ponderosa pine (Pinus ponderosa) is the most abundant conifer species. Associated species include canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis), buck brush (Ceanothus cuneatus), deerbrush (Ceanothus integerrimus), mariposa manzanita (Arctostaphylos mariposa), and toyon (Heteromeles arbutifolia). Winter precipitation falls both as rain and snow. A deep winter snow pack generally does not develop, and southerly slopes usually are open most of the winter.

The area in which the guidelines were developed covers roughly 10 percent of the total winter range and is known as the Schaeffer compartment. Different guidelines were developed for southerly slopes. These slopes cover the quadrants from east through south to west and receive the greatest amount of winter sun. Deer use is much more intensive on these slopes and oaks are more abundant. North slopes cover those quadrants between west through north to east. North slopes receive much less deer use and have a higher conifer to oak ratio.

POPULATION OBJECTIVES

Population objectives have not been established for the Stanislaus herd, because the California Department of Fish and Game has not yet completed its management plan. However, Fish and Game and U.S. Forest Service biologists have developed an interim management objective on the winter range of 90 deer days use per acre per year on southerly facing slopes. Deer use has been measured as high as 90 deer days per acre by permanent transects in some areas in the Schaeffer compartment.

MAST REQUIREMENTS FOR DEER AND OTHER CONSUMERS

Acorns in the total diet of wintering deer have been found to range from 11 percent to 76 percent (Browning et al. 1973, Harlow et al. 1975). It is reasonable to assume acorns will constitute an average of 50 percent of the October-through-December diet of deer in the Sierra Nevada mountain range during good mast years (Barrett and Menke 3/, Goodrum and others 1971, Ashcraft 4/). Deer consume about 5 pounds (2.3 kg) of food per day, of which 2.5 pounds (1.1 kg) are acorns.

Although deer management is of prime concern, mast requirements for other acorn users like valley and mountain quail (Lophortyx californica and Oreortyx picta) and gray squirrels (Sciurus griseus) also are considered. The population objectives were set at 1 squirrel per 2 acres (0.8 ha) and 1 quail per 5 acres (2.0 ha) (Goodrum et al. 1971). The daily intake of a gray squirrel is about 0.22 pounds (100 gms) of food (Hawkins 1937, Uhlig 1956); of a quail, 0.02 pounds (9 gms) of food (Michael and others 1955). Asserson (1974) found acorns in the stomachs of gray squirrels in California to range from a low of 9.6 percent by volume in July to a high of 71.3 percent in December with an average of 50.9 percent over an eleven-month period. We are assuming acorns constitute about 50 percent of the diet of gray squirrels over a twelve-month period because of their acorn storage behavior,and about half the diet of quail over a three-month time span (Table 1).

Because only 50 percent of the acorn crop is likely to be sound and available to ground consumers because of encapsulation, abortion, and insect damage (Todd 1976, Barrett and Menke 3/),the 245 pounds (275 kg/ha) is arbitrarily doubled to a requirement of 490 pounds per acre per year (549 kg/ha).

Black oak acorn production is cyclic at 2- to 3-year intervals (Roy 1962). In intervening years acorn production often is low. In such

3/ Unpublished report (A review of the value of hardwoods to wildlife in California with recommendations for research). R. H. Barrett and J.W. Menke, respectively, College of Natural Resources, Berkeley, and Department of Agronomy and Range Science, Davis, University of California,1976.

4/ Personal communication G.C. Ashcraft, California Department of Fish and Game, staff, December,1978.

	deer	squirrel	quail	total
a. pounds of acorns/day freshweight	2.5	0.1	0.01	
b. population objectives acres/animal	1 1/	2	5	
c. pounds of acorns required 90 days	225	–	0.9	
365 days	–	40.2	–	
d. pounds of acorns/acre/year	225	20.1	0.18	245

1/ 90 deer days/acre/year also means 1 deer/acre for 90 days of use

Table 1--Estimated acorn requirements of deer, squirrels and quail.

years, the diet of these and other acorn consumers will shift to other food sources. Sometimes these are inadequate, as winter mortality is strongly correlated with years of low acorn availability.

Once the mast requirements were estimated, the next step was to determine the acorn production of oaks by age class to provide 490 pounds of acorns per acre. Data are extremely limited, although generalizations on expected mast production are available (U.S.F.S. 1969). Perhaps the best data are from a study of California black oaks by Graves (1977) on the Plumas and Tahoe National Forests in 1975 and 1976 (fig.1). Black oaks do not produce large numbers of acorns until they are over 80 years of age, and after 160 years, mast production declines (McDonald 1969). Based on the above studies, a weighted average of 60 pounds (27.2 Kg) acorns per tree was calculated for trees over 80 years old.

STAND STRUCTURE TO MEET MAST REQUIREMENTS

The first step in developing the required stand structure was to determine the amount of area that was to be occupied by oak. Acorn production per tree was the starting point for this determination. Because the Plumas-Tahoe study did not distinguish between acorn production of open-grown trees and those grown in a closed canopy, and because acorn production in this study was not correlated closely with size of tree, two different approaches were taken to determine the basal area of oak needed. Both methods relied on the observations that : (1) trees in the study area older than 80 years generally were 20 inches (54 cm) d.b.h. or larger and (2) at 60 pounds of acorns per tree it would take 8.2 trees per acre to produce the 490 pounds of acorns needed by consumers.

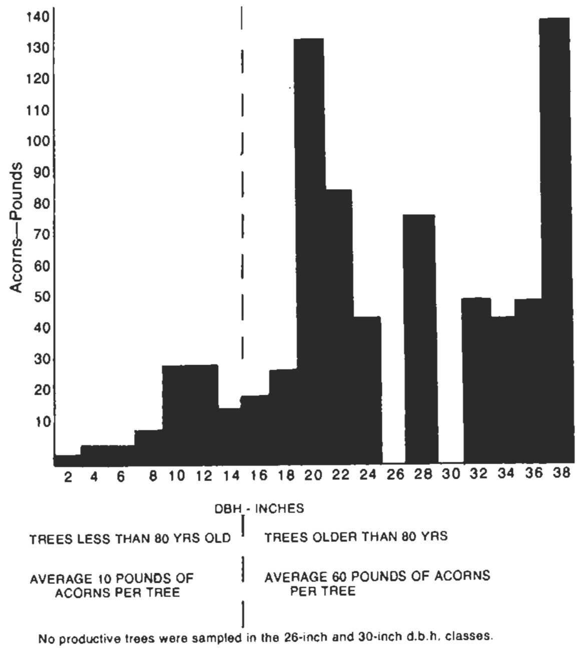

Figure 1--Estimated number of pounds of fresh California black oak acorns per tree per year as related to diameter at breast height.

First it was estimated that a 20-inch d.b.h. open-grown tree would have a crown diameter of 36 feet (10.9 m)(U.S.F.S. 1969), and 8.2 open grown trees would occupy about 20 percent of each acre. If an equivalent area was added to provide for replacement of acorn producers by trees in the 0-80 year age class, then 40 percent of the area would be occupied by oak.

The second approach multiplied the basal area of a 20-inch d.b.h. tree by 8.2 trees to arrive at a basal area of 18 square feet per acre (4.1 m^2/ha) needed in trees 80 years and older (2.18 ft^2/tree x 8.2 trees/ac.=18 ft^2/acre). This figure was compared to the levels tentatively recommended for oak stands on above average sites of 120 ft^2/acre (27.6 m^2/ha) (Tappeiner and McDonald 1979) and found to be about 15 percent. The assumption was then made that in a well-stocked oak stand older than 80 years, about 15 percent of the surface area would be occupied by crowns. This figure was doubled to provide for replacement by the 0-80 year age class. The result was that 30% of the area would be occupied by oak.

Using these approaches then, the range seemed to be 30-40 percent of the area would be occupied by oak, and this was established as a guideline.

SPATIAL ARRANGEMENTS

The next step was to define an arrangement of oaks and conifers on the ground that could be used for practical management purposes. Oaks in association with conifers on the Stanislaus occur as single individuals, in pure aggregations of 0.1 to 1 acre (0.04 to 0.40 ha), or occasionally in small stands of 2 to 3 acres (0.8 to 1.2 ha). Aggregations are small homogeneous units of oak in conifer stands. The main criterion used to identify oak aggregations was at least 80 percent crown cover in oak. Canyon live oaks also occur in significant number on the Stanislaus herd winter range. Where the two species occur together, both will be managed under these guidelines.

On south slopes oak occurs primarily as aggregations. It seemed reasonable to retain uniformly distributed oak aggregations because these aggregations are easily recognized on the ground by field crews, and because they are more efficiently managed than single trees. Thus, the guidelines picture conifer-oak stands with a 30 to 40 percent oak component distributed as uniformly as possible in aggregations of 0.1 to 1 acre in size (fig. 2). The remaining area would be occupied by conifers. The oak aggregations should occur in roughly 2 age groups of 0 to 80 years and 80 to 160 years with a stocking level of 18 square feet per acre in the 80 to 160 year age group.

Figure 2--Area prepared for conifer plantation with black oak aggregations retained.

On north slopes current Forest Service Region 5 guidelines for hardwood retention will be used. They specify 5 square feet of basal area per acre. If this is doubled to account for two age classes, it amounts to over 8 percent of a well-stocked oak stand for these sites. Individual trees or aggregations could be used on these slopes.

To maintain oaks in aggregations that consistently produce mast will require considerable effort. Better acorn production data are needed by site, age, species, and stocking density. For example, in the 1975 study of 110 black oaks on the Tahoe and Plumas National Forest, 20 percent of the sample consisted of non-acorn-producing oaks (Barrett and Menke 3/). Regeneration of California black oak by planting has never been seriously undertaken in California. If regeneration is established either naturally or artifically, protection of young seedlings from damage by deer will undoubtedly be necessary. Once young oak aggregations are established, thinning probably will be necessary to develop full-crowned mast producers.

IMPLEMENTATION OF GUIDELINES

Four steps were followed for applying the oak guidelines to large units of the winter range.

Step 1. The angle of the winter sun was determined and the slopes receiving the most winter sunlight, were identified on a topographic map.

Step 2. An overlay showing the location and acreage of accessible commercial timber lands was prepared. Those lands falling on southerly slopes were identified for 30-40% oak retention.

Step 3. Using aerial photos, an overlay of timber types was prepared. Stands were divided into ten acre grids and the oak component was shaded by 3 classes of 0 to 20 percent, 20 to 50 percent and greater than 50 percent. This enabled us to ascertain the levels of oak stocking by stands, over the total compartment, relative to our stocking guidelines,and to select specific stands for treatment on a priority basis.

DISCUSSION

This analysis would not be complete without discussing its effects on timber production. There are adequate predictions of conifer yields for California forest lands (Dunning and Reineke 1933). There is little doubt that conifer yields will decrease using the proposed guidelines.

However, using the management techniques developed here and the existing timber yield data, the impact of different deer population objectives can be evaluated by the land manager. In this way, a desired balance between timber and deer production can be achieved where both resources occur in the same area.

Oaks could yield a positive timber return in the near future. At present, oak is used primarily for fuel wood on the Stanislaus, and it does not constitute a part of the regulated forest yield. Throughout the rest of the world this is not the case, where foresters look at yields of both conifers and hardwoods. Maintaining oaks up to 160 years will likely produce some high quality hardwood, and this would increase the value of the timber yield substantially.

Quantification of deer population response to various levels of oak retention is not easily displayed for the decisionmaker. Although deer numbers and acorn availability probably do not form a direct linear relationship, we can safely assume that increased acorn yields from managed oakstands will greatly increase the size, health, and stability of the Stanislaus deer herd.

These guidelines were developed for a specific management problem on the Stanislaus deer winter range. However, we feel the approach can be applied to other vegetation complexes and other wildlife species.

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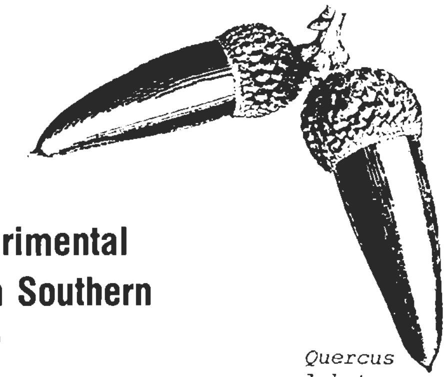

Quercus lobata

Oak Management Harvest A: An Experimental Management and Utilization Project on Southern California Private Ownership[1]

James E. Asher, A.C.F.[2]

Abstract: A large-acreage, corporate landowner has instituted a comprehensive, long-range, forest management program on its multiple-use wildlands under this Consulting Forester; the Plan ultimately includes bringing a sizeable mixed hardwood resource under management. In early 1979 we began: (1) a formal hardwood inventory of 7,680 acres (First Increment-Classification and Inventory), and (2) a 300-acre working "demonstration" oak management forest operation (Oak Management Harvest A) with all harvested material to be utilized in the Ranch ongoing program.

INTRODUCTION

Tejon Ranch consists of two hundred seventy thousand acres forming the largest contiguous Spanish land grant holdings in California and is the setting for this report. The Tejon Ranch Company, a farsighted landowner, is engaged in diversified agriculture, and produces many crops ranging from cotton to pistachio nuts on its flat lowlands in the San Joaquin and Antelope Valleys, where the elevation ranges from one hundred to three thousand feet. Tejon Ranch contains working, non-renewable resources including oil and mineral leases and even a cement plant. A Tejon Ranch mainstay is its Livestock Division, historically running ten to fifteen thousand head of cattle on its ranges that go up to 6,700 feet in elevation. Because of its awareness of renewable natural resources, the Tejon Ranch instituted wildlife management over thirty years ago. Beneficial and profitable controlled recreational hunting of deer, small game, and birds has helped to nurture heavy and healthy game populations.

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[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, June 27, 1979, Claremont, California.

[2] Consulting Forester, Lake Arrowhead, California.

In 1975 Tejon Ranch Company agreed with the Consulting Forester on the desirability of long-range forest management whereby the forest and other resources could be improved. The forest had the potential of contributing much more to the ongoing corporate picture under planned utilization and not at the expense of the other natural resources and Ranch uses; in fact,sustaining forestry would enhance all other values.

Softwood forest management, begun on a forest condition priority basis, soon made evident the needs and the potentials of the Ranch hardwood forest. Considerable acreage was found to support Upper Sonoran and Transition life zone mixed oak stands. Densest on northern exposures and on ridgetops above 4,000 feet is California black oak (Quercus kelloggii). Flats, ridgetops and some sidehills are forested with a "savannah" oak forest composed mostly of blue oak (Quercus douglasii) and California white oak (Quercus lobata). Scattered below 3,000 feet is interior live oak (Quercus wislizenii). Canyon live oak (Quercus chrysolepis) occurs in dense stands on north slopes at middle and upper levels. Antelope-San Joaquin Divide ridge country, along the higher summits, contains approximately 15,000 acres of dense, shrubby Brewer's oak (Quercus garryana var.

breweri). Other hardwood species grow in selected arid to riparian sites, which include the chapparral representative scrub oak (Quercus dumosa). A hardwood forest inventory by forest type-delineated acreages is underway but incomplete.

Initial hardwood forest management goals are (1) inventorying of the resource (which today presents many "unknowns"), and (2) commencement of an experiment ("demonstration forest") to (a) begin the development of sound silviculture, and (b) determine the economic feasibilities.

In keeping with the necessary sound corporate approach for such a long term endeavor, the establishment of markets for oak wood products to finance the management of oak woodlands is paramount. For the Tejon Ranch Company, until financially feasible markets are found and secured, no comprehensive forest management planning and activity is practical (affordable). "Oak Management Harvest A" is a start toward these initial goals. The project is a test harvest and product manufacturing effort to develop techniques and establish their costs and to place various kinds of materials into potential market channels; it is important also to put practical meaning into the evolving hardwood forest inventory.

"Oak Management Harvest A" involved 300 acres of oak types within a 1,500-acre area in the Bear Trap Canyon section of Tejon Ranch. It was administered as a Tejon Ranch timber sale under standard controls and constraints. A logging operator was contracted to harvest and mill a variety of species and products. A portable sawmill was installed in the timber sale area which produced 30,000 bd. ft. of oak lumber (rough, green) grading from Number three common (pallet stock) up through Number one common and better (furniture grades). Along with the lumber, 100,000 bd. ft. of logs, in variety, were prepared for direct shipments. The attempt is being made to inject these materials into all possible markets across the United States and overseas.

The expected market resistance is being encountered with these "unproven" California oaks; only long-standing traditional hardwood supply sources are trusted. Meanwhile, we are waiting for information from certain markets cooperating in testing the Tejon Ranch lumber and logs.

Key in gaining interest from and limited access to the cooperating hardwood consumers is (1) that a significant volume of oak resource is available on a continuing basis, and (2) that the Tejon Ranch Company has a resource-oriented and long-range policy of managed utilization of its assets, thus providing a potential of continuing sustained production of forest values including wood products. The selection of sample materials for the market search is deliberately varied, and consistently includes some materials of the highest quality. It is felt that a target of high per-unit monetary return must be obtained from the high-quality material to sustain a successful Program because the greater proportion of lesser quality products can and will be disposed of at lower profits. "Oak Management Harvest A" must show that oak forest management will pay for itself or the concept cannot be considered feasible and be continued. Indications from one buyer are that a satisfactory recovery of high grade lumber is possible provided that it is (1) milled properly for grade and at correct and consistent dimension, and (2) is carefully cured under exacting conditions (introducing some critical "unknowns"). This very preliminary reaction is encouraging though indicative of the time and effort needed to develop the project to feasibility.

Silviculture is being developed with the input of several interested agencies such as the California Department of Forestry, the California Department of Fish and Game, Kern County Fire Department. Thinning from below, aimed at a level of stocking control effective in meeting the multiple-use guidelines of Tejon Ranch natural resource management is being applied along with an "oak sanitation-salvage" approach. Crown dieback is the principal indicator being used to rate "risk" oaks. A very light cut is resulting to date in applying this prescription combination; compatible with the heavy Ranch emphasis on continuing aesthetic value.

CONCLUSION

"Oak Management Harvest A"; brought to light several problems such as high harvesting, milling, and curing costs; is in its completion stage. A major problem is the slash and debris accumulation; fuelwood contractors have been brought in to accomplish cleanup on the Project. Evaluation of the results of the silvicultural prescriptions is being done; time will be needed, particularly to assess effects upon the regeneration problem. Cattle and deer exclosures and other measures are to be installed on sample areas to further refine project effects. Market suitability of the oaks, the vital factor, has yet to be interpreted and returned by the cooperating purchasers.

Quercus kelloggii

Growth of Thinned and Unthinned Hardwood Stands in the Northern Sierra Nevada... Preliminary Findings[1]

Philip M. McDonald[2]

Abstract: Sixty-year-old stands of California black oak, tanoak, and Pacific madrone were thinned from a basal area of 198 ft^2/acre to 85 to 141 ft^2/acre, and their responses evaluated. Diameter growth of the three species doubled after 8 years and when averaged, increased from 0.46 to 0.98 inch. Larger trees and dominant trees grew best. Diameter growth of trees in clumps containing up to four members was equal to that of single stems of the same diameter. Average annual cubic volume growth of thinned stands ranged from 66 to almost 89 ft^3/acre/year. Results are preliminary and any conclusions drawn from them are speculative.

INTRODUCTION

Among the hardwood tree species in California, tanoak (*Lithocarpus densiflorus* [Hook. & Arn.] Rehd.), California black oak (*Quercus kelloggii* Newb.), and Pacific madrone (*Arbutus menziesii* Pursh) show the most promise for providing wood products, fuel, and fiber. In northern and, to a lesser extent, central California, these species are extensive and abundant. In 1975, volumes estimated for California were about 2.55 billion board feet (14.5 million m^3) of California black oak, 1.97 billion board feet (11.2 million m^3) of tanoak, and 0.98 billion board feet (5.5 million m^3) of Pacific madrone sawtimber.[3]

These hardwood species are found growing singly, in small aggregations, or occasionally covering an entire hillside. In many instances, they are the stepchildren of disturbance. Heavy logging or fire reduces conifer competition and allows them to grow more freely. All have strong sprouting ability and, even if killed above ground, usually remain viable below. Extensive and rapidly-growing sprouts quickly occupy and often take over disturbed areas.

Because fire has been commonplace in the Sierra Nevada since the 1850's, nearly all hardwood stands are of sprout origin. Some single trees show multiple centers when cut--presenting evidence of former clumpiness. Because original stands often were dense to begin with, and rendered more so because of multiple sprouts, young-growth stands also tend to be dense. Tree growth is slow and often decreases until mortality provides growing space for survivors.

Some landowners are asking questions on how to manage their hardwood resources. "What amount of yield can I expect," and "What is the best spacing and thinning regime to maximize growth and yield" are the two questions most frequently asked. Little information is available, with almost none that quantifies the growth response to stand manipulation.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks. Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

2/ Research Forester, Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Redding, California.

3/ Personal communication from Charles L. Bolsinger, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Portland, Oregon, August 1978.

This paper presents stand response information. As such, it is an attempt to fill a critical gap in the management of these species of native California hardwoods. Results provided are tentative. They represent only a portion of a larger study, do not have enough duration to establish firm trends, and are not statistically verified. They are presented to show what is being attempted and to quantify relationships to date. Any conclusions drawn from them are speculative and given only to provide an idea of "what might be."

THE STUDY

The setting for this study is the Challenge Experimental Forest, Yuba County, California, from 1968 to 1978. Here young-growth stands of California black oak, tanoak, and Pacific madrone are commonplace. The stands tend to be even-aged, originating from sprouts after fire or disturbance. In 1968, stand age was about 60 years.

Site quality of the Experimental Forest is high. Dominant California black oaks are about 70 feet tall at age 60--indicating site index to be 60 at a reference age of 50 years (Powers 1972). The soil is deep and fertile, the mean annual temperature is 55°F (13°C), and precipitation averages 68 inches (1727 mm) per year.

To quantify the growth of individual species as well as that for mixed hardwood stands, 14 ¼-acre (0.1-ha) circular plots were established. They ranged from 60 to 150 ft^2/acre of basal area. Somewhere within this range would be a basal area that would balance the level of growing stock with the most efficient use of available resources, and therefore, maximize growth. One plot was selected randomly as an uncut control. Prescribed basal areas were assigned randomly to the others.

Lack of knowledge on hardwood growth response in general, and a probable need to establish a wide range of basal area levels, each with several replications, suggested that some form of replicated experimental design be used. Lack of enough homogeneous area to establish the large number of anticipated plots, however, plus difficulty in getting the stands thinned at the same time, mandated that a different and, perhaps, more exploratory approach be used. One plot for each prescribed basal area was established. Statistical analysis of growth response was to be by multiple regression.

Marking guides were difficult to formulate. Leaning trees are common, particularly of California black oak, therefore, clumps can occupy one piece of ground and their crowns influence another. After the stand was marked to the prescribed basal area, crown thinning provided residual trees with "sky light" or room to expand. Straight, tall, thrifty, well-formed trees were favored (fig. 1). No more than four stems per clump were allowed because additional stems often were of poor form (fig. 2). Each plot was surrounded with a buffer zone, 20 to 60 feet (6 to 18 m) wide, cut to its prescribed basal area.

Local fuelwood cutters thinned the stand in return for the wood. Cutting rules required removal of all unmarked trees, stumps no higher than 8 inches (20 cm) above mean ground line, and the piling of slash. Utilization of the trees was to a 2-inch (5-cm) top.

In each growth plot, all leave trees larger than 3.5 inches (9 cm) in diameter were numbered 2 inches (5 cm) above breast height. Tree species, diameter, crown class, and clump density (one to four members per clump) were recorded annually. Diameter growth was calculated first as basal area, averaged, and converted to a diameter basis. Cubic volumes to a total top were taken from volume tables applicable to each species on high sites (McDonald 1978). Six plots with prescribed basal areas of 85 to 141 ft^2/acre (20 to 32 m^2/ha), and the control with 209 ft^2/acre (48 m^2/ha) had data spanning 8 years (table 1). These plots are the basis for this report. The seven other growth plots were thinned at a later date and, therefore, had a shorter period of data collection. Statistical analysis, however, was not possible until sufficient data had accrued for all 14 plots.

RESULTS

Unthinned Stands

Data from the six ¼-acre growth plots and control indicated that basal area of the unthinned 60-year-old stands ranged from 165 to 230 ft^2/acre (38 to 53 m^2/ha). As a composite stand, they averaged 198 ft^2/acre (46 m^2/ha) and 659 stems per acre (1628 stems/ha) in the range of 2 to more than 16 inches (5 to more than 41 cm) in diameter at breast height. Number of stems ranged from 832 to 416 per acre (2056 to 1028/ha) and were typical of unthinned hardwood stands of these species in this area. Although these values indicate prethinning diversity, they also indicate that stands were quite dense and growing slowly. To compare thinned and unthinned stands, those that were thinned were combined and averaged to form a composite stand (plot). They are not strictly combinable, however, and will be treated independently in future regression analyses.

For the composite plot, about 57 percent of the total stems fell into the 4.1- to 8.0-inch (10- to 20-cm) diameter class, 27 percent into the 8.1- to 12.0-inch (21- to 31-cm) class, with the remainder either larger or smaller. In terms of species composition, tanoak contributed 63 percent of the total number of stems, California black oak 23 percent, and Pacific madrone the remaining 14 percent. The stands contained about 4090 ft^3 or nearly 43 cords of wood per acre (274 m^3/ha) when utilized to a 2-inch (5-cm) top.

Thinned Stands

An examination of cut stumps indicated that tree vigor generally had been poor. Trees averaged 12 to 15 growth rings per inch of diameter (5 to 6 rings/cm) with the annual growth rate in slow decline.

Thinning reduced the composite plot basal area by 41 percent and the number of stems per acre by nearly 70 percent. All stems less than 4 inches (10 cm) d.b.h. were eliminated and those in the 4.1- to 8-inch (11- to 20-cm) class were reduced by 77 percent. Tanoak was cut heavily and a more equitable mix of species was achieved.

Thinning also increased the proportion of trees with more fully developed crowns. When calculated as a percentage of the composite stand, the proportion of trees in the codominant crown class doubled; and in the dominant class, tripled. After thinning, trees in these two classes constituted 79 percent of all trees. Also, average stand diameter was increased by thinning, especially for tanoak and, to a lesser extent, for California black oak and Pacific madrone.

A total of almost 700 trees were removed from the growth plots. No heart rot was observed in the stumps. Young-growth trees of these species, either from seed or root crowns, are usually free of this malady, at least in this area.

Mortality during the 8-year timespan was low in the thinned plots. One to five trees died in each plot--18 trees died altogether. The most common cause of death to tanoak and Pacific madrone apparently was disease (blight); for California black oak, suppression, and too much shade in the still too-dense plots often led to mortality. Natural mortality during 8 years in the uncut control was 14 percent or more than twice that of the thinned plots. Most of the trees that died in the control were small California black oaks less than 5 inches (13 cm) d.b.h. Suppression was the prime cause of death.

Diameter Growth

Among species, tanoak had the best overall diameter growth in both thinned plots and control. Pacific madrone and California black oak followed in decreasing order (table 2). As expected, large trees with wide crowns and large photosynthetic areas grew best. For example, tanoak and California black oak more than 12 inches (30 cm) in diameter at breast height had the largest diameter increases for the 8-year period. Small trees, however, responded most relative to the control. In the 4.1- to 8.0-inch (10- to 20-cm) diameter class, madrone trees in the thinned plots outgrew those in the control by more than three times; tanoak trees by more than two times. Overall, diameter growth of each species in the thinned plots was more than twice that of each species in the control.

When analyzed further by crown classes, diameter growth in inches per tree, for 8 years, generally decreased as position in the stand declined (table 3). For all species, both in thinned plots and control, dominant trees grew best followed by codominant, intermediate, and suppressed. When diameter growth for all crown classes and species in thinned plots and control was compared by t-test, it was found to be significantly better in the thinned plots ($p = .01$) than in the control.

The growth response to thinning of single trees as compared with thinning of trees in clumps needs to be evaluated. A forest manager needs to know whether or not leaving clumps of trees will decrease total stand growth.

Diameter growth for single stems and clumps having up to four members was determined for the composite thinned stand and for the control (table 4). No trends in diameter growth by species or by number of stems per clump developed during the 8-year study. One reason for the lack of trends was the wide range in diameter of stems within individual clumps.

The relationship between original stem diameters, number of stems in a clump, and stem diameter growth was inconsistent. Growth of individual members of two- and three-member clumps of tanoak and California black oak were averaged for diameter growth each year for 8 years. For three-member California black oak clumps, the initially largest members grew more slowly than other members at first, then at a medium rate, and were most rapidly adding girth to their boles at the end of the study period (fig. 3). The initially smallest members of the

Figure 1--Stands of California black oak, tanoak, and Pacific madrone trees on the Challenge Experimental Forest tend to be even-aged, originating from sprouts after fire or disturbance.

Figure 2--Tanoak clumps of sprout origin often contain trees of both good and poor form.

Table 1--Basal area of sample plots before and after thinning on the Challenge Experimental Forest

Plot	Basal area per acre		
	before thinning	after thinning	Reduction
	---------------Ft^2---------------		Percent
1	165	102	38
2	194	110	44
3	208	125	40
5	230	141	39
6	206	136	34
7	188	85	55
Average	198	116	41
Control	209	209	0

Table 2--Comparative diameter growth in thinned plots (T) and control (C) by species and diameter class during an 8-year study on the Challenge Experimental Forest

Species	8-year diameter growth by diameter class									
	4.1 to 8.0		8.1 to 12.0		12.1 to 16.0		16.1 to 20.0		All sizes	
	T	C	T	C	T	C	T	C	T	C
	Inches/tree									
Pacific madrone	0.58	0.15	0.83	0.48	1.09	1.02	----[1]	----	0.87	0.40
Tanoak	.93	.45	1.19	.87	1.29	1.35	1.25	----	1.18	.63
California black oak	.50	.32	.80	.65	1.27	----	----	----	.74	.38
All species	.64	.33	.99	.69	1.25	1.13	1.25	----	.98	.46

1/ Dashes indicate no trees present.

Table 3--Relationship of diameter growth to crown class in thinned plots and control for an 8-year study on the Challenge Experimental Forest

Species	Crown class	8-year diameter growth	
		Thinned plots	Control
		--Inches/tree--	
Pacific madrone	Dominant	1.00	0.87
	Codominant	.90	.55
	Intermediate	.52	.22
	Suppressed	----[1]	.12
Tanoak	Dominant	1.32	1.23
	Codominant	1.13	.67
	Intermediate	1.13	.67
	Suppressed	----	.29
California black oak	Dominant	.96	.60
	Codominant	.72	.35
	Intermediate	.36	.21
	Suppressed	----	.10

1/ Dashes indicate no trees present.

Table 4--Effect of clump density on diameter growth in composite thinned plot (T) and control (C) for an 8-year study on the Challenge Experimental Forest

Species	8-year diameter growth per stem when number of stems per clump was:							
	1		2		3		4	
	T	C	T	C	T	C	T	C
	Inches							
Pacific madrone	0.89	0.36	0.65	0.58	----1/	0.20	----	0.40
Tanoak	1.19	.78	1.20	.67	1.00	.42	1.25	.68
California black oak	.74	.36	.73	.47	.70	.46	.68	----
Weighted average	.95	.40	1.03	.58	.86	.42	.96	.54

1/ Dashes indicate no clumps present.

Table 5--Diameter growth by species and residual basal area during an 8-year study on the Challenge Experimental Forest

Species	Eight-year diameter growth when basal area (ft^2/acre) was:						
	85	102	110	125	136	141	209
	Inches/tree						
Pacific madrone	0.7	---1/	1.1	0.8	---	---	0.4
Tanoak	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	.6
California black oak	1.1	1.0	.8	.8	.6	.6	.3
Weighted average	1.2	1.3	1.1	.9	.9	.7	.4

1/ Dashes indicate no trees present.

Table 6--Average annual and net cubic volume growth for all species combined by residual basal area, for 8-year period

	Residual basal area level (Ft^2)						
	Thinned plots						Control
	85	102	110	125	136	141	209
	Ft^3/acre/yr						
Gross	66.3	87.6	77.2	88.8	70.3	77.6	81.8
Mortality	17.0	3.4	12.0	2.2	15.0	13.3	16.6
Net	49.3	84.2	65.2	86.6	55.3	64.3	65.2

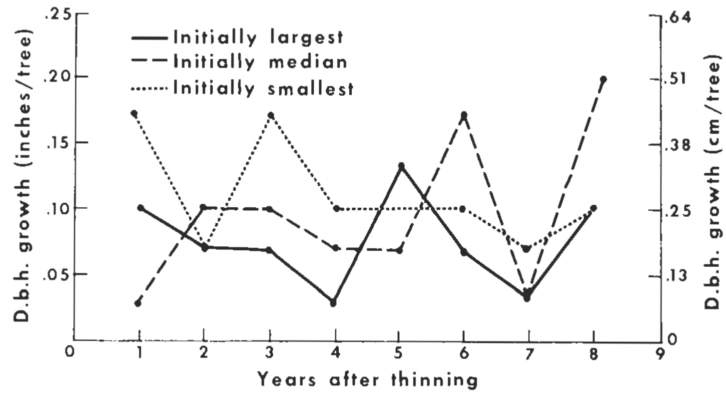

Figure 3--Annual d.b.h. growth of each member in California black oak clumps having three members.

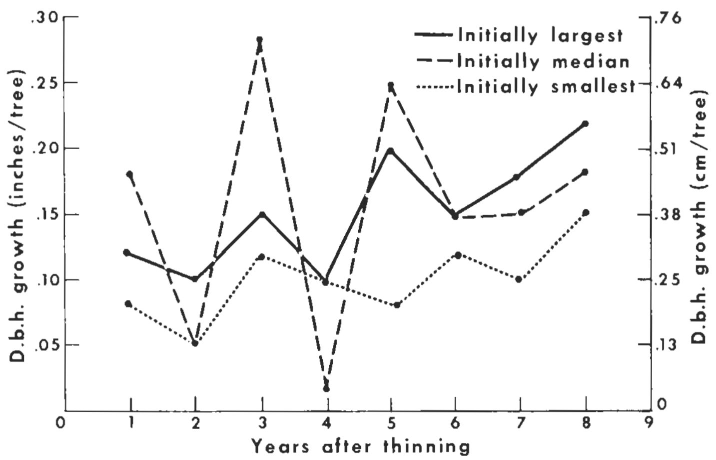

Figure 4--Annual d.b.h. growth of each member in tanoak clumps having three members.

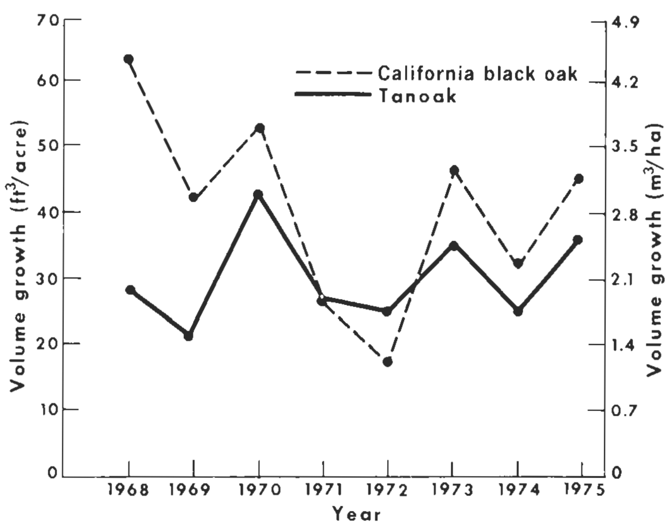

Figure 5--Annual trend of volume growth for California black oak and tanoak in a stand cut to 141 ft^2/acre of basal area.

clumps grew rapidly at first, then moderately throughout. The initially medium-sized members began with a modest diameter growth rate, fell behind, and then increased. For at least 1 year, however, they outgrew the other clump members. For three-member tanoak clumps, the initially largest members generally grew fastest, and the initially smallest members grew slowest (fig. 4). The initially medium-sized members indicated a wide range in annual growth rate--best for 3 years, poorest for 1, and intermediate for 4.

For two-member California black oak and tanoak clumps, the initially largest stems generally outgew the smallest. Differences in annual growth rates between the two members, minimal throughout the study, were even less during the eighth year than the first. A similar analysis was done for four-member clumps. Results from this analysis are not given because the number of clumps of this size was small. Average diameter growth of individual stems in four-member clumps, however, was no less than that for single trees of comparable size.

Analysis of diameter growth for 8 years, by residual basal area density, indicated species and stand response to thinning (table 5). For tanoak, diameter growth ranged from 1.0 to 1.6 inches (2.5 to 4.0 cm) per tree, for Pacific madrone 0.7 to 1.1 inches (1.6 to 2.8 cm). Diameter growth of California black oak ranged from 0.6 to 1.1 inches (1.5 to 2.8 cm) per tree and was progressively lower as residual basal area density increased.

Another means of evaluating stand response to manipulation is by quantifying cubic volume growth. For thinned plots and control, gross cubic volume growth for all species ranged from about 66 to almost 89 ft^3/acre/yr (4.6 to 6.2 m^3/ha/yr) (table 6). Natural mortality reduced average annual or gross growth from 2 to 26 percent. Stand densities of 85 and 209 ft^2/acre (19 and 48 m^2/ha) suffered the highest mortality.

Because diameter growth of California black oak seemed to be declining when basal area density exceeded 125 ft^2 (29 m^2), analysis of data from a representative plot examined this trend more closely. On the basis of available information, the plot having 141 ft^2 (32 m^2) of basal area was considered to be representative, recognizing that it may or may not be typical.

The trend of net cubic volume growth during the 8 years indicated wide variation in growth rate, and for California black oak, a generally declining growth trend (fig. 5). Large declines in rate often resulted from mortality. Tanoak showed less variation than black oak, mostly because of less mortality. Volume growth rate of tanoak appeared to be steady or increasing slightly.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Limited data and one researcher's subjective thoughts on the biological response of tanoak, California black oak, and Pacific madrone to manipulation are the basis for the statements that follow.

Each of these species occupies a specific niche in the forest and each responds differently to the biological and climatic forces operating there. Tanoak grows fairly well in shady uncut stands and small trees respond well in terms of diameter growth when thinned. California black oak needs more sunlight. Smaller trees grow poorly in the natural stand and almost as poorly in stands thinned to 130 or more ft^2/acre (30 m^2/ha) of basal area.

Tanoak, California black oak, and Pacific madrone respond to thinning. Relative to trees in the unthinned control they doubled in diameter growth. For tanoak, indications are that growth will stay the same or accelerate in the years ahead. For California black oak, an increased growth rate is not certain. Trees in stand densities above 125 ft^2/acre (29 m^2/ha) seem to be declining.

The thinning trial was not replicated, but indicates certain trends. Stands thinned at 102 and 125 ft^2/acre (23 and 29 m^2/ha) grew the most in cubic volume. At basal areas above 125 ft^2 stands have too many stems, a more shady environment and less available moisture--all of which could inhibit the vigor of California black oak. Below 102 ft^2/acre of basal area, stands were too open and seemed to be too warm for tanoak and Pacific madrone. Higher mortality in stands below 102 and above 125 ft^2/acre, therefore, seems likely.

Net growth from the stands thinned to 102 and 125 ft^2/acre was about 85 ft^3/acre (6 m^3/ha) each year. This is not a bad growth rate in its own right. If it consisted of quality wood from pruned trees, such stands could be economically competitive with conifers. And because these hardwoods in characteristically dense stands prune naturally, pruning costs should be low.

The finding that California black oak and tanoak grow about equally whether as single trees or in clumps of two to four stems, at least for the age of tree in this study, has significance for the forester. It could mean that no penalty of decreased growth will result from leaving clumps of well-formed stems (fig.

Figure 6--Diameter growth of each member of this thinned clump will be about equal to that of four single trees of comparable size.

Figure 7--Young-growth hardwood stands in north-central California yield a large volume of wood for product and energy use. Yield is almost 4090 ft^3/acre or 43 cords per acre (274 m^3/ha).

6) for possibly up to 70- to 80-year rotations. Because two to four well-formed members per tanoak and California black oak clump are commonplace in natural stands, foresters are free to leave them, if they wish.

For years, foresters have known that mixed-hardwood stands in the north-central Sierra Nevada contained numerous stems. Perhaps they did not realize how much wood these stands represented. Almost 4090 ft^3 or 43 cords per acre (274 m^3/ha) is a lot of wood (fig. 7). Little of it is rotton. Nearly all trees in the study area originate from root crowns. These structures apparently reduce greatly the incidence of heart rot bridging from rotting stump to pith of sprouts.

These early results indicate that the three species of native California hardwoods studied are rather unusual. They often grow in clumps, growth of 55- to 65-year-old trees is spread adequately over two to four members in each clump, and response to release by thinning is variable. Such findings probably mean that management guidelines specific to native California hardwoods will need to be developed.

The one sure conclusion at present is that we are clarifying what we need to know. Much work, more studies, and more data are necessary before firm guidelines for maximizing growth from native California hardwoods will be available.

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Quercus kelloggii

Radial Growth of California Black Oak in the San Bernardino Mountains[1]

Barbara Gemmill[2/]

Abstract: Hypotheses concerning growth of California black oak in the San Bernardino mountains were tested. Black oaks were found to grow radially in a slightly asymmetrical manner. Number of stems per clump decreased with age. Diameter of the largest stem and average radial growth for the previous 60 years increased with number of stems. Growth curves representing expected radial growth of black oaks in the San Bernardino mountains are presented. Possible air pollution effects on black oak radial growth are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Oxidant air pollutants from the Los Angeles Basin have been affecting the coniferous forests of the San Bernardino mountains to a significant degree since World War II. Symptoms of severe ozone damage to several conifer forest species have been noted. The chlorotic condition of the foliage and rate of needle shedding have suggested that a reduction in growth may be a consequence of high oxidant doses (McBride, Semion and Miller, 1975). A hardwood associate, California black oak (*Quercus kellogii* Newb.), also exhibits symptoms of ozone damage, although not as severely as the conifer species. The radial growth of five coniferous species and California black oak with regard to air pollution in the San Bernardino mountains is currently being investigated as part of the Environmental Protection Agency/San Bernardino National Forest (EPA/SBNF) Ecosystem Project. A preliminary analysis of the black oak portion of the study is reported here.

The impact of photochemical oxidants on black oak radial growth is unknown. In order to assess the magnitude of the likely growth depression brought about by air pollution, more information is needed initially to portray the expected growth of a typical black oak in the San Bernardino population of California black oak. In this analysis, I have tested several suggestions and observations found in the literature relating to black oak growth. It is important to note that since most published information on black oak growth consists of observations and not data, my hypotheses are based on conjecture. Where observations only suggested certain relations, I have taken the liberty of proposing quantitative comparisons for the purpose of testing their possible validity. Also, the analysis is specific to the San Bernardino mountains and cannot be projected to California black oak populations in general at our given state of knowledge. Hypotheses to be tested include:

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

2/ Project Leader, Tree Growth Study, EPA/SBNF Ecosystem Project. Author's address: University of California, Division of Biological Control, 1050 San Pablo Avenue, Albany, California 94706.

3/ This investigation was supported by EPA Grant No. R805410-03. This report has been reviewed by the Corvallis Environmental Research Laboratory, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, and approved for publication. Approval does not signify that the contents necessarily reflect the views and policies of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, nor does mention of trade names or commerical products constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

(1) Two cores taken from opposite sides of a tree are proportional and represent growth. Standard procedure in the dendrochronology field is to utilize two cores from opposite sides of a tree, perpendicular to the direction of slope to avoid reaction wood (Fritts, 1976). The intention is to minimize variance in order to derive a single value representative of radial growth. This procedure applies to all tree species. It is of interest to know whether or not two cores taken by this method adequately represent growth, given the often asymmetrical growth habit of an oak stem.

(2) Growth rate of the main stem in a multi-stemmed tree decreases with increasing number of stems per clump. McDonald (1969) states that the number of sprouts per clump influences growth. For the purpose of this analysis, we will assume a negative influence. Each stem in a clump may be expected to have growth rates slower than a comparable single-stemmed tree, and proportional to number of stems. As a corollary to this,

(3) Diameter of the main stem decreases with increasing number of stems per clump.

(4) Tree height increases as number of stems per clump increases. Somewhat contradictory to the above statement, Edwards (1957) noted that stumps of large trees often produce many stems of equal dominance along with other stems of lower importance. McDonald (1969) also found that sprout number and vigor increased as cut stump diameter increased up to 20 inches, and that the many-stemmed clumps tended to grow the most vigorously. Vigorous growth and dominance, in both of these observations, probably refers to height. Both of these examples refer to young (i.e. 4-yr-old) sprouts. However, since height is an important variable in competitive interactions, it is worthwhile to test whether this relationship is maintained among mature trees.

(5) Number of stems per clump decreases with age of the clone. McDonald (1969) found the number of sprouts per clump to decrease exponentially with age, from approximately 4 sprouts at age 20 to 2 at age 80 and 1 at age 120, based on observations of black oak growing throughout California.

(6) Number of stems per clump increases with decreasing site quality. While initial numbers of sprouts may be related to size and vigor of the parent tree, greater sprout retention and more stems per clump at a given age have been observed on poorer sites (McDonald, 1969).

(7) The shape of generalized radial growth curve for black oak will vary according to site factors, with variance seen in both the location of the peak and the average growth rate.

The intention of this preliminary analysis is to establish which factors relate directly to the prediction of radial growth. The data used for this portion of the analysis should be free from effects of air pollution. At the end of this paper, a discussion of air pollution effects on oak radial growth will be presented, in light of information developed about expected black oak growth in the San Bernardino mountains.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Black oaks were examined on six vegetation plots forming a portion of the study area of the EPA/SBNF Ecosystem Project. All plots occurred within the conifer forest zone (Horton, 1960) and were dominated by either Ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa* Laws) or Jeffrey pine (*Pinus jeffreyi* Grev. and Balf.). Species composition of the forest overstory is listed in Table 1. Plots varied in length from 100 to 300 meters, with uniform widths of 30 meters, and were located on variable slopes and aspects. Plots extended in length until 80 Ponderosa or Jeffrey pine of dbh greater than 10 cm were included. Site characteristics and location of the plots are described in Table 2 and Figure 1 respectively. The first four plots form a transect from the Crestline area (high pollution levels, low elevation, relatively high precipitation) to Green Valley (lower pollution, higher and drier). The last two plots form part of a similar transect in the Barton Flats area.

In the late summer of 1977, black oaks greater than 10 cm dbh (diameter at breast height) on the six study plots were cored with a Swedish increment borer. Two cores were taken at a height of 1.5 m on opposite sides of each tree through a diameter running perpendicular to the direction of slope. The cores were returned to the laboratory, dried and mounted in wooden holders with the vessel elements running vertically. Sanding tended to clog the pores with sawdust and reduce visibility; consequently, cores were surfaced with a razor blade. Cores were aged and growth rings were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm back to and including the year 1920, using a Henson dendrochronometer.

Data utilized from other portions of the EPA/SBNF study include: height, diameter and number of stems. Site indices for black oak

Table 1--*Percent species composition of the study plots*

	Breezy Point	Camp O-ongo	Deer Lick	Green Valley Creek	Schneider Creek	Camp Osecola
Quercus kellogii	23.0	35.8	28.7	40.2	23.7	10.7
Libocedrus decurrens	22.2	2.8	0.0	4.9	7.7	0.0
Pinus jeffreyi	0.0	0.0	25.2	10.5	0.0	65.1
Pinus ponderosa	53.3	42.2	7.7	7.8	32.1	19.5
Quercus chrysolepsis	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.8	16.7	0.0
Pinus lambertiana	0.0	0.9	16.1	5.4	1.3	0.0
Abies concolor	0.0	18.3	22.4	29.9	25.6	4.7

Table 2--*Site characteristics of the study plots*

	Breezy Point	Camp O-ongo	Deer Lick	Green Valley Creek	Schneider Creek	Camp Osecola
No. trees	115	121	160	228	155	147
Density, trees/acre	155	96	108	102	86	124
Slope, percent	20	25	<5	30	20-45	<5
Aspect	N,NW	N	-	W	N	-
Elevation, feet	5000	6300	6300	6400	6000	7000
Average potential soil rooting depth, m	4.75	4.31	1.09	3.74	7.16	5.64

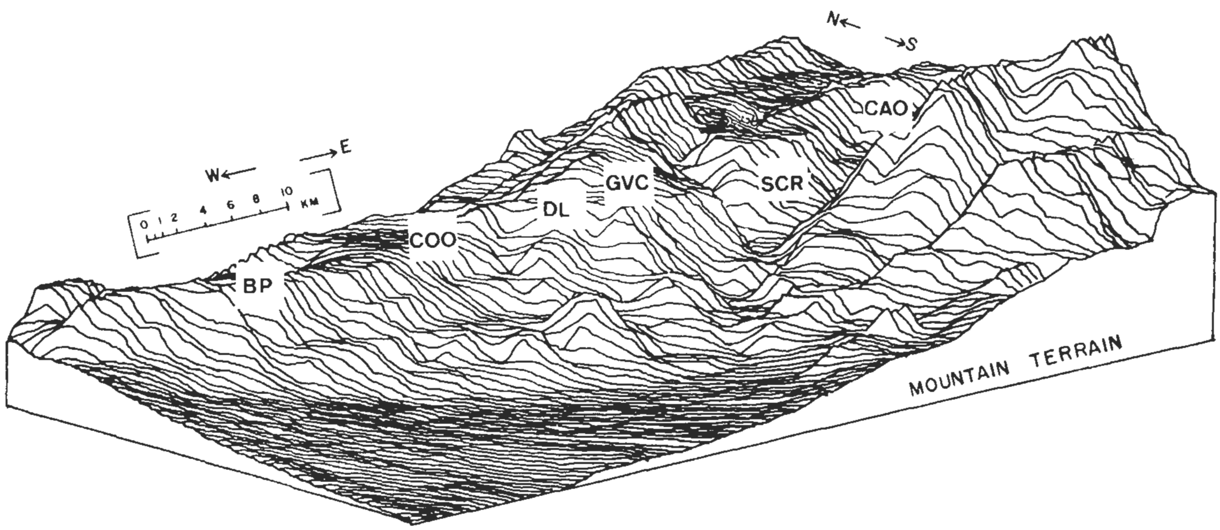


Figure 1--*Location of the study plots in the San Bernardino mountains (BP = Breezy Point, COO = Camp O-ongo, DL = Deer Lick, GVC = Green Valley Creek, SCR = Schneider Creek, CAO = Camp Osceola)*

were calculated using the procedure of Powers (1972), in which actual height is compared with expected height at a given age to evaluate growth potential of the site.

Ring widths corresponding to the same year on cores taken from opposite sides of the same tree were correlated using the Pearson correlation procedure (Nie, et al., 1975). Age at breast height, height, diameter, average radial growth and site index were analyzed individually and in combinations against number of stems, by analysis of variance and multiple regression procedures. A generalized growth curve was derived for each separate plot by calculating the age at breast height of the tree at the time each growth ring was formed, and combining ring widths for each age from year 0 to the oldest age of any tree on the plot.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Radial Growth Within Trees

Average correlation coefficients per plot between cores taken from opposite sides of the same tree are presented in Table 3.

Table 3--*Average correlation coefficients, derived by comparing ring growth in sample cores taken from the opposite sides of a single black oak.*

Plot name	Sample size	Average correlation coefficient
Breezy Point	8	.610
Camp O-ongo	38	.686
Deer Lick	15	.428
Green Valley Creek	9	.694
Schneider Creek	27	.578
Camp Osceola	7	.490
Average of all trees	104	.602

The correlation is less than could be expected in arid-site conifers (Fritts, 1976) and suggests that two cores, while they may still provide an estimate of growth, are not consistently proportional to one another. In general, most trees correlated fairly well between cores, with a few extremely poor correlations bringing averages down. Poorest correlations were found among the older trees with very thin growth rings of all the same general magnitude; small variances in such small rings will contribute to a poor correlation. Trees with crooked and leaning growth habits also tended to have weaker correlations.

Predictors of Number of Stems, Radial Growth and Tree Height

For purposes of testing hypotheses 2-6 as outlined in the introduction, number of stems were regressed against other descriptive variables of diameter, height, site index, average radial growth and age at breast height Additionally, two other dependent variables namely average radial growth and tree height were regressed against the remaining independent variables. Results of the regression are indicated in Table 4. A breakdown of the data into charts is presented in Figure 2.

In the San Bernardino mountains, increasing number of stems correlate positively to the diameter of the largest stem and the average radial growth rate. Number of stems does appear to decrease with increasing age, although the relationship is not strong.

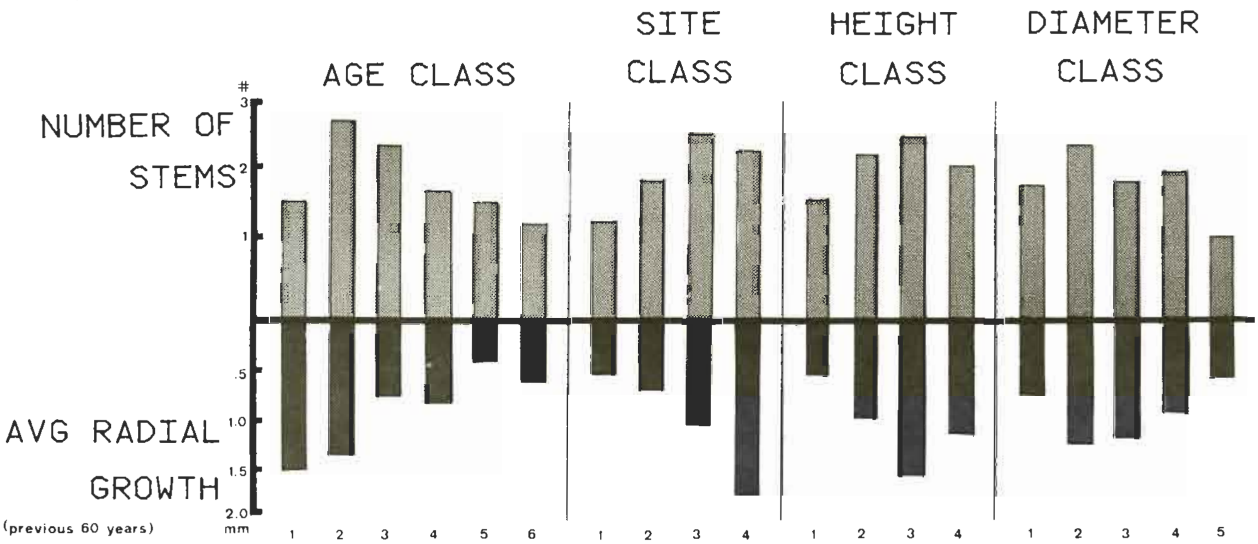
The apparent increase in diameter and growth rate with number of stems, which is contrary to hypothesized results, appears to result from a third relationship: that number of stems, in this area, increase with site quality. Such an increase may well be due to the younger ages of all trees in plots with high site indices, having no older trees to provide controls for age. However, even within one plot, i.e. Camp O-ongo, average growth rates and diameter of the main stem increase with number of stems up to 4 stems per clump. Perhaps these data affirm McDonald's (1968) observations that stumps from larger trees produce both a larger number of sprouts and more vigorous ones. In general, hypotheses relating diameter and site quality to number of stems can neither be upheld nor rejected with a large degree of certainty. However, the fact that the poor sites had almost exclusively single-stemmed trees casts doubt on the statement that, for this area, sprout retention is increased on poorer sites.

Age, diameter of the main stem, tree height, site index and average radial growth for the previous 60 years are all significantly related to number of stems per clump, age negatively and the remainder positively. Average radial growth has very strong correlations with height, age and site index, while height has a strong correlation with diameter. From this analysis, number of stems does not appear to be highly important predictor of average radial growth, although a significant relationship exists. Within a tree, many other relationships are stronger and more consistent.

Table 4--*Calculated f-values for each variable*[1/], *all plots*

dependent variable	independent variable	direction of correlation	f-value	significance
number of stems per clump	average diameter, all stems	-	.01	--
	average radial growth, previous 10 years	+	.85	--
	age and average radial growth	-,+	3.00	*[2/]
	age	-	3.62	*
	diameter, main stem	+	4.83	**
	height	+	5.16	**
	site index	+	5.63	**
	average radial growth, previous 60 years	+	5.84	**
average radial growth, previous 60 years	diameter, main stem	+	3.89	*
	height	+	47.70	***
	age	-	90.50	***
	site index and age	+	131.58	***
	site index	+	154.70	***
height	age	--	.47	--
	diameter, main stem	+	66.76	***

1/ All variables refer to measurements on largest stem in the clump, unless otherwise noted.
2/ * significant at P = 0.10 level
** significant at P = 0.05 level
*** significant at P = 0.01 level



Age classes: 1- 0 years through 60 years; 2- 61 years through 80 years; 3- 81 years through 100 years; 4- 101 years through 120 years; 5- 121 years through 140 years; 6- 140 years and above.
Site classes: 1- 0.0 site index value through 20.0 site index value; 2- 20.1 site index value through 30.0 site index value;3- 30.1 site index value through 40.0 site index value; 4- 40.0 site index value and above.
Height classes: 1- 0.0 meters through 10.0 meters; 2- 10.1 meters through 15.0 meters; 3- 15.1 meters through 20.0 meters; 4- 20.1 meters and above.
Diameter classes: 1- 0.0 cm d.b.h. through 20.0 cm d.b.h.; 2- 20.1 cm d.b.h. through 30.0 cm d.b.h.; 3- 30.1 cm d.b.h. through 40.0 cm d.b.h.; 4- 40.1 cm d.b.h. through 50.0 cm d.b.h.; 5- 50.1 cm d.b.h. and above.

Figure 2--*Breakdown of data into variable classes, all plots. The average value of two dependent variables corresponding to classes of the independent variable is presented.*

Expected Radial Growth Curves

Curves representing typical radial growth of black oak within each of the study plots are presented in Figures 3-4. Since data from different calendar years have been pooled in deriving the curves, responses relating to environmental variables such as yearly fluctuations in precipitation, temperature and air pollution are assumed to balance out, while the expression of long-term site conditions (i.e., soil factors, gradients of average annual precipitation) remain.

Most notable features of these growth curves are the large early radial growth of oaks on higher average rainfall sites (i.e. Breezy Point and Camp O-ongo), and the small but consistent radial growth of old oaks on all sites.

Air Pollution Effects on Radial Growth

Air pollution may be thought of essentially as a defoliator, reducing viable leaf area especially in late summer (see Miller, these proceedings). Other oak defoliation studies, generally concerning eastern North American oaks, have noted that the degree of growth reduction due to defoliation depends on the extent, season and frequency with which the defoliation takes place. Rexrode (1971) noted that severe injury in one year reduced wood production, while successive annual defoliations led to branch dying and tree mortality. Nichols (1968) found that one year of moderate defoliation may reduce radial growth 20 to 30 percent, while one year of heavy defoliation may cause a growth reduction of 40 to 70 percent. Two consecutive years of 60 to 100 percent spring defoliation caused mortality. In contrast, Baker (1941) found that growth increment among oaks 81 to 100 percent defoliated was reduced only one-half of normal.

Air pollution defoliates black oak only moderately, and chiefly in the late summer, rather than during periods of rapid spring growth. Being deciduous there are no direct carryover effects on the foliage from one year to the next. However, it is conceivable

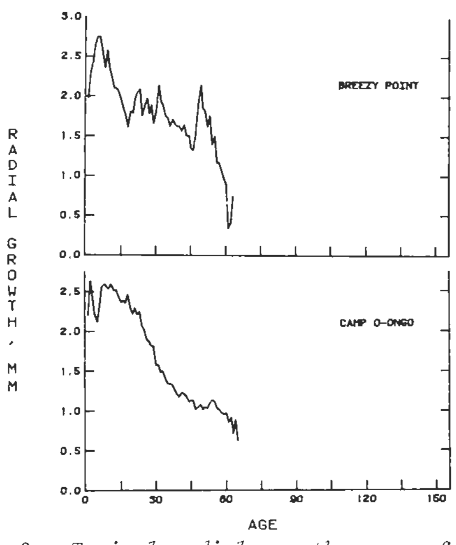


Figure 3 -- *Typical radial growth curves for California black oak on two plots on the moist end of a precipitation gradient in the San Bernardino mountains.*

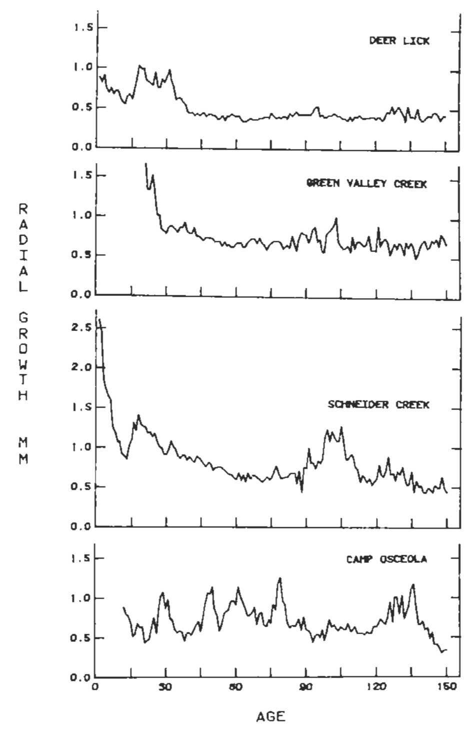


Figure 4 -- *Typical radial growth curves for California black oak on four plots on dry locations along a precipitation gradient in the San Bernardino mountains.*

that air pollution may have a significant impact on height growth of damaged oaks, since most of the height growth depends on carbohydrates produced and stored at the end of the summer. In contrast, the effect on radial growth of an oak exhibiting smog-damaged leaves might be hypothesized as one of a moderate growth diminution. Whereas conifers may be greatly weakened and susceptible to mortality after a series of poor growth years, oak species have the unique characteristic of being able to survive for extended periods at extremely small radial growth rates, and still respond quickly to improved conditions (Gingrich, 1971). At some point, however, sustained damage must reach a point that exceeds even the resilient capabilities of the oaks. Figure 5 graphs the actual radial growth curves from two trees of the same age from the Camp O-ongo plot, which experiences severe oxidant doses. Both trees withstood a period of drought in the late 1940's, prior to the presence of air pollution. Within the smog period from approximately 1950 to the present, one tree (#834) appears to have suffered little air pollution injury, while the other (#882) is in obvious decline. Leaf injury ratings obtained from 1974 to 1978 (see Miller's contribution, these proceedings) suggest that these trees are showing two extremes of responses to air pollution. At present, the internal and external factors responsible for the apparent differential response in radial growth is unknown. The remainder of the Tree Growth Project's work with black oak will be designed to identify and quantify these factors contributing to these two different responses. Additionally, the magnitude of each response throughout the San Bernardino mountains will be assessed.

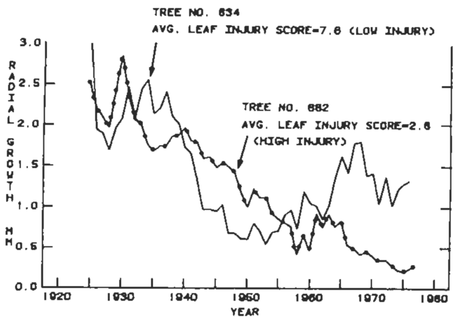


Figure 5--*Actual growth curves of two equal-aged black oaks on the Camp O-ongo plot.*

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The following discussion pertains solely to black oak in specific locales in the San Bernardino mountains. There is no data to verify whether the San Bernardino population does or does not significantly differ from black oak populations elsewhere.

Two increment cores per tree may be adequate to describe radial growth of black oak only when old and leaning trees are excluded. Study trees should be selected for relatively straight growth habits, and caution should be exercised in deriving conclusions from year to year variation in very old trees.

Increasing number of stems per clump does not appear to dampen radial growth rates, although the nature of the competitive relationship between stems in a clump deserves more study, particularly in relation to site factors. Site factors and age are the strongest determinants of radial growth. The effect of age, or growth stage of the tree should be controlled for or removed before it is possible to compare radial growth rates between trees. The present analysis indicates that diameter cannot effectively replace age in predictive equations for radial growth, for obvious reasons. A tree may be small in diameter either because it is young, in which case it is in its most rapid period of growth, or because it is growing very slowly. Height and diameter should be modelled as the inter-related results of the trees' internal growth dynamics, with at least one important feedback being that radial growth correlates possitively to height.

The site index utilized here to summarize site factors is useful as an initial approximation to the importance of site. However, it merges together an assortment of diverse environmental features, such as the precipitation and temperature regime, stand density, and past history. The identification of site qualities contributing to growth differences needs considerably more analysis before radial growth can be described quantitatively.

California black oaks in the San Bernardino mountains experience a rapid flush of radial growth as young trees, reaching growth rates up to 3 mm per year within the first 25 years on the better sites. After 50 years of age, growth fluctuates closely around a much lower rate, also depending on site.

Although black oak may be expected to respond less severely to air pollution damage than coniferous species, damage is visible in the radial growth patterns of some individuals.

Assessment of this damage awaits the identification and quantification of external and internal factors, as mentioned above.

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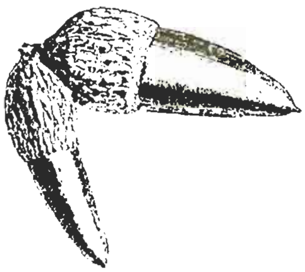

Quercus agrifolia

Prescribed Burning in California Oak Management[1]

Lisle R. Green[2]

Abstract: Prescribed burning is aimed at reducing hazardous chaparral and other fuel accumulations, beneath or near trees. Because most California oaks have thin bark and almost any fire causes serious damage to boles or crowns, some hand cutting, or clearing with a small bulldozer, may be necessary before burning. Prescribed burning can be accomplished safely in fuels not directly under or adjacent to canopies. Prescription items discussed are ratio of dead-to-live fuels, fuel volume, green and dry fuel moisture, relative humidity, windspeed and direction, and air temperature. Other considerations are terrain, time of day, and season of year.

INTRODUCTION

When we talk of prescribed burning in California oak management, we are usually concerned about burning chaparral with as little damage to oak trees as possible. We want to remove brush fuels or, occasionally, other fuel accumulations that could threaten stately old oak trees or thickets of trees during wildfires. Another reason for a prescribed burn is to reduce numbers of oak trees, as when burning for range improvement.

THE FUELS PROBLEM

Oak frequently dominates on northerly exposures, as stringers along low elevation riparian zones, or it may mix with conifers or other woodland species at upper elevations. Usually we find an understory of brush, or brush surrounding and fingering through the oak woodland. If the oak is dense enough to exclude brush, the tree canopies often extend to the ground. The fuel within the stand then consists of dead or nearly dead shrubs and dead and live branches and litter from the oak trees (figs. 1, 2).

Figure 1--Thick oak stands require hand or mechanical thinning, or burns prescribed to remove only small amounts of fuel per burn, to prevent destruction of the trees.

The brush--or "chaparral"--is frequently dominated by chamise (*Adenostoma fasciculatum* H. & A.). Associated species and genera are manzanitas (*Arctostaphylos* spp.), ceanothus (*Ceanothus* spp.), mountain mahogany (*Cercocarpus betuloides* Nutt.), scrub oak (*Quercus dumosa* Nutt.), salvia (*Salvia* spp.), and others. These shrubs contain fats, waxes, terpenes, and oils that are readily extracted in the laboratory as "ether extract." These materials are also

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[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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readily driven off when heat is applied during wild or prescribed fire and they burn violently 5, 10, or 50 feet (1.5, 3, or 15 m) in the air.

Figure 2--Hand labor was used to prune trees and pile underbrush, which was burned. Low intensity broadcast burning can now be used to control fuel accumulations.

The chaparral may contain little dead fuel in young stands, or from 35 to 50 percent in aged stands. Most of the dead material is distributed through the living shrub crowns. Brush in southern California generally has relatively little fuel on the ground, so fires travel through the brush crowns, and into tree canopies, if they are above or adjacent.

A herbaceous understory is usually lacking beneath dense chaparral, but a sparse stand of herbaceous plants, mostly annuals, is observed frequently where the brush stand is open. After fire or other clearing, seed from these plants and from seed stored in the soil, sometimes for decades, start to grow. Forbs--herbaceous, nongrassy plants--are abundant at first, but from 2 to 5 years after the initial clearing annual grasses and longer-lived forbs, such as deerweed (Lotus scoparious Ottley), become abundant. After 5 to 7 years, woody vegetation from sprouts and seedlings occupies the site again, and for the next 10 or 15 years the young, succulent closed stand of brush does not burn readily, except under the most adverse burning conditions. Gradually, however, dead twigs accumulate, some litter builds up, short-lived species die or dieback during drought, and the ratio of dead-to-live plant material increases, so that the stand becomes more and more flammable. Until the chaparral is about 20 years old, most fires are extinguished before they reach 10 acres in size. As the brush ages beyond 20 years, wildfires tend to get bigger (Philpot 1973, Rogers 1942). The really big fires occur when the chaparral is from 30 to 40 years old, or older.

During wildfire that sweeps across thousands of acres (ha) of wildland vegetation, air temperatures are usually in excess of 100° F (38° C), relative humidities below 5 percent are not uncommon, and sustained winds from 20 to 70 miles per hour (32 to 112 km/h) are usually blowing. In late summer, dead fuels may contain from 3 to 10 percent moisture, and fine, green fuels 50 to 65 percent--less than one-half their green fuel moisture contents of early spring. With these conditions, fire spreads rapidly through the fuels that are within a few feet of the ground. Where these fuels are beneath the oak trees, a convection column of hot air and swirling, burning volatiles distilled from the green fuels will, as a minimum, burn holes through the canopy above. If the fuels near the ground are continuous under the canopies, and if the burning conditions are extreme--low relative humidity and fuel moisture, high air temperature, and windspeed--the entire canopy may explode into flames and consume the small branches. Strong winds, coupled with undercanopy fuels, may move fire through the canopies.

During the Big Bear Fire on the San Bernardino National Forest in 1970, and in other fires where forests or woodlands were destroyed, the damage to oaks was principally where trees were underlain by brush. The oaks survived the Big Bear Fire where brush fuel loading was at low levels. The vulnerability of an individual tree to fire appeared less related to attributes, such as bark thickness, crown stratification, or chemical content of the foliage, than to the distribution of brush fuels around it (Minnich 1973). In the Eastern United States, killing of oaks by wildfire was two to four times greater in unburned forest than in prescribed burns conducted during the previous 10 years (Little and others 1948). Fires went out in forested areas burned by prescribed fire 1 year before the wildfire.

There have been some favorable and some unfavorable data collected following fire in oak stands. On the positive side, oaks sometimes seem to be somewhat more fire resistant than much of the chaparral. Scrub oak and shrub live oak (Quercus turbinella Greene) contain less of the volatiles, 3.7 and 6.2 percent respectively, than flammable chaparral, which contains from 7 to 20 percent volatiles (Rothermel 1976, Montgomery 1976). The oaks generally are somewhat higher in green fuel moisture than chamise, and contain a lower proportion of dead-to-live fuel (Green 1970, Minnich 1973). Because of these and, perhaps, other variables, the only group of sclerophyllous species that showed resistance to fire during the Big Bear conflagration of 1970 was the oak woodlands (Minnich 1973). In a prescribed burn in southern California, 85 percent of live chamise was consumed, 75 percent of live manzanita, but only 45 percent of mountain mahogany and scrub oak (Green 1970).

The "bad" news is that California oaks, with the exception of coast live oak (Quercus agrifolia Nee) (Plumb 1980) and, perhaps, Engelmann oak (Q. engelmanni Greene) (Snow 1980), are thin-barked and stems and canopies are sensitive to fire. Canyon live oak (Q. chrysolepis Liebm.), on the site of the 175,000 acre (70,820 ha) Marble-Cone Fire in Monterey County, was described as "so sensitive and flammable as to invite self-destruction" (Griffin 1978). A wildfire may have few or no beneficial effects on a black oak stand, but has many bad effects. It kills most small stems, and scorches the stems and roots of larger trees, even though the bark is relatively thick. Scorching causes fire scars, which result in deformities, leave openings to admit rot and diseases, and serve as points of ignition when fire next goes through the area (Edwards 1957). Interior live oak (Q. wislizenii A.DC.) has thin bark, and topkills readily when fuels burn around the base of the tree (Plumb 1979). In the Eastern United States, oaks and other hardwoods are so sensitive that fire is not recommended for use in their management but, rather, is directed toward hardwood control (Fender 1976).

HAZARD REDUCTION

Because fire in chaparral located near oaks is one of the greatest threats to the oaks (fig. 3), what can we do? Alternatives to wildfire removal of the brush include prescribed burning, mechanical clearing, herbicides, hand labor, or some combination of these methods.

Figure 3--Security against wildfire can be attempted by crushing the brush adjacent to trees, and burning under a low intensity burn prescription.

Hand labor was used to clear brush during the late 1950's and 1960's when prison labor was available in quantity to agencies, and it is currently used to some extent when firefighting crews and other labor are not otherwise occupied. Hand labor is environmentally acceptable, but more expensive than other clearing methods. This high cost might be justified where the clearing is under or near valuable trees but, generally, would be prohibitive on any extensive scale.

Bulldozers can sometimes be used in and around oaks to push brush away from trees to be protected, or a bulldozer can crush brush for burning under relatively safe burning conditions. Use of the bulldozer can also be somewhat expensive because working around and under canopies, using care not to damage trees, is not conducive to high rates of production. If the bulldozer is needed to save oaks, however, it may be justified.

Herbicides may control or eliminate unwanted vegetation in some oak stands. They can be injected into tree trunks or applied to stumps of cut brush or trees. Aerial broadcast applications of herbicides is seldom appropriate because of potential damage to desirable trees, but tractor boom or hand spraying of brush sprouts within and around oak stands can be accomplished under appropriate wind, temperature, and humidity conditions. Use of herbicides after prescribed burning or hand clearing should be considered.

Prescribed burning will be needed to get rid of hand-cut brush piles, tractor-crushed brush, or standing chaparral. How is this to be accomplished?

Prescribed Burning

Prescribed burning of mature chaparral without damaging oaks presents problems that are difficult, or sometimes impossible, and we have rather little experience with this type of burning. Repeat burns should be easier. Personnel then have more experience with prescribed burning, deal with less fine flashy fuel, less total fuel, and fires are less likely to crown.

Numerous variables affect fire behavior, that is, the way it burns. It is convenient to discuss these variables individually, but they are all interrelated and, integrated by the fire, determine burning behavior.

Fuel Factors

Ratio of Dead-to-Live Fuels

Young chaparral stands--those less than 20 years old--will contain less than 20 percent dead material, and frequently only 5 or 10 percent. Such a brush stand is nearly fire-proof, and will burn only under extreme burning conditions. Of the brush stands we work with in oak management, most are older--20 to 50 years of age. As brush ages, the proportion of dead fuel increases until aged stands may be from 35 to 50 percent dead. Such mature brush generally burns well under moderate burning conditions. If the brush has been crushed or treated with herbicide, or if snow breakage occurs, the proportion dead may be more than 50 percent.

Fuel Volume

Chaparral volume in California will vary from about 5 to 40 tons per acre (12 to 100 tons per ha), and average about 18 tons (44 tons per ha). During hot prescribed burn or wildfire, 65 to 80 percent of fine-stemmed, flammable brush, such as chamise and coastal sage species in a mature stand will burn; but only about 50 percent of less flammable species, such as mountain mahogany and scrub oak will burn. From theoretical studies (Byram 1959) and from experience we know that, as available fuel quantity increases beyond 2 to 3 tons per acre (5 to 7 tons per ha), the fire burns more and more intensely. For this reason, reburns with usually less flammable fuel, are generally easier to conduct safely than are initial burns. Ten tons per acre (25 tons per ha) of small flammable fuel--that which will burn during a fire--are considered heavy fuel accumulation (McArthur 1962, Norum 1977), and we have that much or more in most mature chaparral stands. This makes burning without damage to oaks difficult.

Fuel Moisture

Although the value varies somewhat depending on type of fuel, size of firebrand, windspeed, and other variables, a fuel moisture content of 25 percent of oven-dry weight is an approximation of the value above which fuels will not burn (Rothermel 1972). Fire spread is generally slow in small fuels containing more than 15 percent moisture, unless steep slope or strong winds boost the combustion rate (Britton and Wright 1971, Foster 1976, Heirman and Wright 1973, Rothermel and Anderson 1966, Sneeuwjagt 1974, and Forest Service n.d.). As fuel moisture goes up, or down, fire intensity changes proportionately (King 1973, Pace and Lindenmuth 1971, Rothermel and Anderson 1966, Forest Service 1968, and Forest Service n.d.).

Dead fuel moisture can be determined by laboratory procedures, but is usually estimated from special fuel sticks that represent dead fuels from 1/4 to 1 inch (0.6 to 2.5 cm) in diameter. Moisture readings of 6 to 12 percent, depending on the proportion of dead fuel, are needed for burning mature standing brush.

Green fuel moisture also influences fire behavior, although its effect may not be as obvious as that of dead fuels. Moisture content of the green fuel is always too high, above 25 percent, for the green twigs to sustain flaming without an outside heat source; but during summer and fall when moisture content of the twigs may be as low as from 55 to 65 percent, heat from flaming dead fuel dries the green twigs until they, too, burn violently. From experience and research we know that, if green fuel moisture is 90 percent or greater, burning these fuels is most difficult and much dead fuel is needed to sustain the flaming. For mature brush, a green fuel moisture no greater than 65 to 75 percent is generally needed for satisfactory prescribed burning.

Weather Factors

Relative Humidity

Humidity is the moisture in the atmosphere, and the relative humidity compares this moisture to the amount the air would hold if it were saturated, for example, 20 percent or 70 percent. Humidity affects moisture content of small dead fuels, which absorb moisture when the relative humidity is high, and release it when the relative humidity is low. The effect of humidity on fuels larger than an inch is small, except over long periods of time.

To burn standing brush near trees, we like relative humidity to be 25 to 40 percent. When the brush is crushed or cut and piled, from 30 to 60 percent relative humidity, depending on the dead-to-live ratio, is desirable.

Windspeed and Direction

Lack of ability to forecast local winds has been responsible for more prescribed burning escapes than any other variable affecting fire behavior. Weak storm fronts sometimes move in unexpectedly but, more frequently, erratic wind-speed and direction because of local topography and convection aid escapes. Wind accelerates the oxygen supply to burning fuel, and contributes to heating of uphill or lee side of fuels. It carries away water vapor that dampens burning, and transfers firebrands beyond the fire front. Ten miles (16 km) per hour winds are usually considered the upper limit allowable for prescribed burning.

Although wind causes problems, it would be difficult to burn without some air movement. Without a flammable understory, such as dry grass, several miles per hour of wind--four to eight (6 to 12 km)--is needed to move fire through brush canopies. A little wind is needed to disperse heat when burning under tree canopies, and wind is needed to move fire through sparse fuels.

Air Temperature

Air temperature has less direct effect on fire behavior than humidity, fuel moisture, or wind, but affects these and other variables, and through them, fire behavior.

High air temperatures warm fuels so that less preheating by fire is needed before combustion occurs. Also, less heat energy is required to drive off moisture, and moisture evaporation proceeds more rapidly. Because of heating near the ground, high air temperatures can cause unstable air. This may result in strong convection currents and strong upslope daytime winds, which sometimes cause fire spotting and fire whirls. As temperature rises and relative humidity decreases, drying of fine fuels proceeds.

Some studies have suggested that prescribed burning be done when maximum air temperatures are less than 70° F (21° C), especially when burning under tree canopies (Biswell and Schultz 1956, Gaines and others 1958). A maximum of 80° F (26° C) was suggested for burning fuelbreaks (Schimke and Green 1970). Minimum temperatures can be as low as 30° F (-1° C), but low temperatures are usually accompanied by high relative humidities and high moisture contents of fine fuels. A temperature range of 60 to 70° F (15 to 21° C) would be nearly ideal for most prescribed burning. Brush piles or crushed brush can be burned under low temperature ranges.

Other Factors

Terrain

Slope has an effect on fire spread similar to windspeed: the steeper the slope, the more rapidly fire spreads uphill and the more slowly downhill. Prescribed fires usually are started near a ridgetop and allowed to back downhill, or to burn from the top of the hill in a series of narrow strips where the fire burns with the slope.

If the slope has a southerly exposure, fuels will be somewhat more flammable than on a northerly exposure. Frequently, it is easier to prescribe burn on south slopes because, when they will burn satisfactorily, northerly exposures generally will not burn, and this results in a natural fireline. If the exposure is northerly and ready for burning, the south exposures will burn intensely.

If local terrain is irregular, the problems of gusty, turbulent windflow and direction changes confront the prescribed-burn planner.

Time of Day

Conservative prescribed burning calls for reaching prescription and igniting during the hot part of the day, and burning into lowering air temperature and rising relative humidity. Fuels are as dry as they will be during this period, and as burning is extended into the late part of the day, control problems are less. For large burns, the objective might be to burn out a safe fireline and to burn under clusters of trees during the morning hours or the previous day, then allow fire through the rest of the burn when the air temperature is near maximum for the day.

Season

Where dead fuel accumulations are massive within a stand of trees, the objective should be to burn during late winter or early spring, or earlier during the winter if sufficient rain has fallen to wet 100-hour timelag [up to 3-inch (7.6-cm) diameter] or larger fuels, as well as litter. By burning when the larger fuels and deep litter will not burn, the flashy fuels--pine needles, fallen oak leaves, dry grass, and small twigs--can be removed with minimum damage to trees. If burning in such a stand is delayed until moisture content within the larger fuels is below 17 or 18 percent, they will add to the intensity and duration of the fire, and much more damage to tree boles and canopies will result.

CONCLUSIONS

California wildlands have been prescribe burned by permit since 1945, usually for range improvement. The objective frequently was to kill or severely damage stands of oaks. Only during the last year or two has burning to enhance the appearance and chances for survival of oak stands during wildfire been an objective. Experience in oak management burning, therefore, is limited, but is being expanded rapidly. Practices and principles learned in burning chaparral, ponderosa pine forests, and other fuel types are being modified to apply to prescribed burns in oak forests. Scientists in various disciplines are currently gathering knowledge about oak ecosystems, and this knowledge will aid in reducing the hazards of fire to California's oak stands.

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Quercus lobata

Nursery Propagation of California Oaks[1]

Suzanne Schettler[2] and Michael N. Smith[3]

ABSTRACT: California Oaks have been propagated by seed, cuttings, and grafting; but seed remains the most practical method. Initial planting of acorns in a bag or flat permits sorting and root-pruning before seedlings are planted into container or ground. Propagation and cultural practices vary with the purposes for which the oaks are produced.

INTRODUCTION

Propagation of California oaks by nursery methods is well suited to ornamental use. When it comes to forest and range plantings of oaks, the costs and benefits of these methods must be weighed for the particular application. On the one hand, direct broadcasting or dibbling into the ground may seem more economical if acorns are abundant enough after sorting to cover expected losses to foraging animals, drought, and other causes. On the other, a plant of gallon-can or equivalent size is a known entity that has already survived many initial hurdles; and early maintenance is less expensive in one nursery location than spread over acres of potentially rugged terrain. It may be promising, moreover, to borrow initial nursery techniques and then plant out at an early stage. The decision to use or not to use nursery methods at a given stage of seedling development will depend on the economic value of the trees and cost of alternative methods. Common principles apply to propagation for all purposes.

1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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GOALS

Forestry

For timber use, a forester seeks oaks with consistently erect, straight boles, rapid rate of growth, and more or less even size. Clonal material may even be desirable. The strain must be well adapted to the local soil and climate. The trees must be of adequate size during the best planting season (mid-fall through mid-winter in mild climates, early fall in snow country), and must be able to establish themselves quickly and grow vigorously to harvest size.

Wildlife Management

A wildlife manager presumably seeks the full diversity of local ecotypes, and trees of varied growth habit are not undesirable. Mature trees should bear abundant acorn crops to provide food for wildlife. The wildlife manager shares with the forester an interest in locally adapted trees and in matching optimum planting size to optimum planting date. For large-scale forest plantings, there is a growing awareness that local genetic material should be kept intact: propagation should be from local trees only. This also applies to other large plantings such as along highways and in large housing subdivisions.

Ornamental Horticulture

The typical ornamental nurseryman seeks predominantly aesthetic characteristics in a young oak, combined with potential for success in varied landscapes. The tree should resist disease and be adaptable to a wide range of climates and soil types. A given tree may be planted in a location hundreds of miles from its parent, on native soil, subsoil or fill, with drought or summer watering. It must be able to thrive in an artificial setting as well as in a natural one. Each tree should grow vigorously, become established readily in the ground, and not vary too much in form from the "classic" image of the species.

Thus, the goals of oak growers may vary. But they all share an interest in plants with a vigorous start, in the strongest possible state at planting time, and produced by the most economical method.

VEGETATIVE PROPAGATION

Propagation by seed has been the only method commercially successful thus far, and will be discussed in the next section. The considerable diversity inherent in this method can be partly limited, where desired, by selection of source trees, preferably within relatively uniform populations. The following are some methods of clonal propagation, applicable where the traits of specific selected trees are to be perpetuated.

Cuttings

Some propagation of oaks has been done from cuttings. However, most oak species are inherently difficult to root. Researchers to date have rooted only a few species, using elaborate equipment and such exotic materials as 2,4,5-T [(2,4,5-trichlorophenoxy) acetic acid]. And the numbers propagated by this technique have been too small to hold much promise for economical production on a commercial scale. However, it should be noted that many plant species thought to be difficult or impossible to propagate by this method in years past are now routinely and economically reproduced in this manner. Often the "breakthrough" has involved simple environmental, mechanical (as in hedging) or chemical manipulation of parent stock.

Grafting

Grafting has been quite successful with some European and eastern American species. It could prove worthwhile in certain applications, but has not been tried extensively for California species. The type of graft is dictated more by the preference of the propagator than by the plant; one of us has had very limited success with a simple side graft performed in January on coast live oak (*Quercus agrifolia*). However, grafting is a relatively expensive technique, requiring a strong motive for perpetuating an individual clone (as is frequently the case for ornamental use).

Tissue Culture

Tissue culture has produced only limited success with many woody plants, often resulting in proliferation and development of vegetative shoots without similar development of roots. We do not know of any sustained success with California oaks. Tissue culture is also fairly expensive on a per-unit basis, especially with slower-growing plants; but there is potential for nearly unlimited numbers of "identical" trees if this method were perfected.

ACORN PROPAGATION

The remarks that follow, unless otherwise credited, are based entirely upon our first-hand experience as commercial growers of oaks in central and northern California.

Collection

Collecting acorns presents as large a challenge as any later stage of propagation. Timing is crucial. The first wave of acorns to drop from a tree consists primarily of aborted and weevil-eaten acorns. Then, the good acorns drop a few days or weeks later. Not all trees bear equally heavy acorn crops. A given tree is not always consistent in its crop from year to year. And in some years, perhaps in response to aberrant weather during the previous season, a species may bear a poor or negligible crop throughout its range, as *Q. lobata* did in 1978 in much of northern California.

To physically collect acorns on the tree is slow and precarious, but gives the best percentage of sound acorns if they are gathered between the first and second drops and just as they loosen sufficiently from the cap to permit removal without damage. Gathering acorns from the ground is far easier and faster, as they sometimes can be raked or swept up. But this method also has its drawbacks. Unless the first drop has been raked or otherwise removed, the eaten and aborted acorns will be collected together with the good ones. And animals may beat the propagator in gathering *their* acorns.

In addition, acorns of different species may be mixed on the ground unless the parent tree is well isolated or growing in a pure stand. For large producers, it would seem advisable to maintain certain seed trees in the wild by spraying as needed against principal insect pests like the Oak Moth or California Oakworm (Phryganidia californica) and the Filbert or Acorn Weevil (Curculio uniformis), and by one or two deep waterings at the drip line during summers of extreme drought.

Sorting

Two kinds of sorting are required. Broken and crushed acorns and those with weevil holes in the shell must be visually sorted. And acorns that look good are generally floated as a rough test for viability--those that float are reliably bad, although those that sink are not always viable.

Storage

It may be necessary to store acorns if 1 full year's growth would produce a plant too big for planting the following fall. Acorns can be dried and stored at cool or cold temperatures, but in our experience, drying has reduced viability to an unacceptable level, particularly with Q. agrifolia. It might be possible to delay sowing, if needed, through lower-temperature moist stratification or even freezing; we have not explored these possibilities.

Stratification

Cold stratification (in which seeds are layered or mixed with a moist medium such as peat in a container and refrigerated) is sometimes used to break dormancy of the embryo, to permeate the seed coat without rotting the seed, and/or to even out the commencement of germination. However, with the possible exception of high-elevation material, the need for stratification in California oaks is questionable--a batch of fresh acorns often includes quite a few that have begun to sprout on the ground or surprisingly even on the tree. Even Q. kelloggii, a red oak species reported in the literature to require stratification, has germinated well and rapidly for us without such treatment. Chemical pretreatment with gibberellin or other chemicals might be tried, but likewise seems unnecessary for California oaks. In our experience, every low-elevation California oak species has shown good germination with no pretreatment other than careful sorting.

Sowing

Two problems quickly develop after sowing. Oak roots grow rapidly while the tops grow slowly. The nurseryman, though perhaps not the forester or wildlife manager, may seek to alter the root-shoot ratio to prevent early root binding in containers. (All three growers may be deceived as to root growth by observing only the tops.) And every batch of acorns will exhibit mixed viability and vigor, producing a need to sort and cull at the earliest, most economical stage.

Seed Beds

One traditional method of sowing is to plant in seed beds. This allows for unrestrained growth of strong roots, but unless they are frequently undercut to prepare them in advance, at lifting there is potential for mortal damage to the roots, at least in the case of evergreen species like Q. agrifolia. Deciduous species can regenerate roots after heavy cutting if lifted while they are leafless and dormant. The seed bed method permits the use of inexpensive space and ease of irrigation and fertilization. With proper timing, seedlings can be transferred directly from the seed bed to a permanent planting site.

Seed Flats

Planting in seed flats is very space-economical, although it is a two-step method. It permits easy handling and the sorting so essential at the earliest stage of seedling development. Growth rate can be manipulated inexpensively by moving a flat to a warmer or cooler environment. In our central coast climate, outdoors is cooler than on the greenhouse floor, which, in turn, is cooler than on a greenhouse bench. Growth rate can also be manipulated by raising or lowering nutrient levels. But, unless seedlings are transferred to individual containers soon after germination, roots become crowded and hopelessly tangled in the flat. With refinements, we believe this could be one of the best methods for propagating oak plants. Deep flats that hold 3-1/2 inches (9 cm) or more of sowing medium are needed to provide uncramped root space. And a copper screen or treated bottom on the flats causes air and/or chemical pruning of the tap root which induces root-branching.

Pots

Acorns are sometimes planted directly into individual pots, a method used extensively to grow coniferous species for timber use. The advantage of this method, if pots are deep enough and seed is of known high quality, is that it is theoretically a one-step process. However, the pots most commonly used in nurseries are too shallow for oaks and acorn viability may be unknown. The less vigorous individuals cannot be culled before a considerable investment in materials has been made, and it is difficult in a pot to "correct" a root system. The best container for this purpose is one 2 to 4 inches (5 to 10 cm) square by at least 7 to 8 inches (18 to 20 cm) deep, either a bottomless band or a fiber pot whose bottom decomposes after a few months. However, availability of pots this size is limited. They are also heavy and awkward to handle in standard shallow flats.

Plastic Bags

The most successful method of starting acorns that we know was passed on to us by W. Richard Hildreth while Director of Saratoga Horticultural Foundation. Sorted acorns are mixed with damp sand, vermiculite, peat, or sphagnum in a plastic bag and kept between about 50 and 75° F (10 to 24° C). This is not the classic "cold stratification," which it superficially resembles, but a method of sowing. The acorns begin to sprout in the bag within a few months or even weeks. They will continue to germinate over an extended period, but in practice, the slow sprouters tend to remain less vigorous at all later stages and are best discarded. (This, of course, means many more acorns have to be collected than the anticipated crop.) When the root is 2 to 3 inches (5 to 8 cm) long, it is tip-pinched to induce branching (particularly desirable if the plant is to be container-grown) and planted directly into a moderately large container such as the one described above or a gallon can. At this stage, shoot growth may still not have begun. The seedling may be sown with acorn on the surface of the soil, or may be placed an inch or so below the surface.

The only disadvantages of this method occur when the seedlings are left in the bag too long: the shoot will grow bent after it reaches the light at the surface of the bag, the roots will become tangled, and the whole mixture can rot. But, properly timed and maintained, this technique is well adapted to the need to keep pace with rapidly-developing vigorous roots, to sort at the earliest opportunity, and to prune and straighten roots at the most formative stage. It requires little environmental control and no pre-transplant feeding or watering. It is economical of space, as bags can be kept in unused space under greenhouse benches. And it could provide the most effective shortcut for forest planting in mild climates: acorns, collected as they drop, could germinate in bags quickly enough to plant directly into the ground within a matter of weeks. Where losses are high from feeding by jays and other acorn-eaters, once a root and top are producing food for the seedling, the acorn which is their main attraction can be clipped off.[4/]

Transplanting

Transplanting from either a bag or a flat provides a prime opportunity to cull undesirable plants and to tend roots of select individuals. At this time, lateral roots regenerate freely after the tap-root is cut, whereas to cut heavy roots at later stages tends to produce shock and setback. The kind of root system ultimately desired can be partly determined by how hard and how frequently the roots are pruned while the seedlings are still young. Here the ornamental nurseryman will likely diverge from his forest or wildlife counterpart, deliberately forcing development of a branched root system ideal for planting into successively larger containers.

Container

Selection of container may be a compromise of factors. For the forester or wildlife manager, a deep root system that helps the plant become established quickly in the ground must be weighed against problems of digging a deep planting hole and the logistics of moving heavy containers. Here, also, container cost is critical, with cheaper materials such as polyethylene film, cardboard, or tarpaper often being preferred. For a nurseryman, container cost is less restricting. As mentioned before, for any grower, it is possible (and desirable) to transplant directly from the bag or flat to a 1-gallon can or its depth equivalent.

Medium

Nearly any reasonable planting medium can be used with good results as long as it is well-drained. Planting mixes usually employed in the ornamental nursery include various mixtures of conifer sawdust or shavings (most frequently Redwood [Sequoia] or Douglas-fir [Pseudotsuga]) and any of a wide variety of sands, soils, or volcanic materials. Soil of any sort should normally be sterilized, while

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[4/] Personal communication with Wayne Poderick, Director, Botanic Garden, Tilden Park, Berkeley, California.

the other materials tend to be acceptably low in pathogenic fungi and other organisms. If the young plants will be outplanted into dense high-clay soils, it is advisable to use a relatively dense nursery mix, with watering and other nursery care adjusted accordingly. Some clay content is highly desirable in any case for retention of nutrients.

After this first potting, it is important to minimize posttransplant shock. The seedlings should initially be kept in a cool location with an even supply of moisture, and given half shade, particularly if moved during the longer, hotter days of spring or summer.

Culture

Culture of oak seedlings for ornamental use is geared toward achieving maximum growth at all stages. This is accomplished by giving the seedlings constant optimum conditions and avoiding stress. The soil mix should always be moist (permitted by a porous, well-drained mix). The presence or absence of nutrients seems to make little difference in growth until seedlings are 2 or 3 inches (5 or 8 cm) high. At later stages, most oak species are as responsive to high fertility as most other woody plants; differences produced in growth rates of Q. agrifolia, Q. wislizenii, and Q. lobata can be spectacular. Temperatures should be moderate; in theory a winter-heated house could permit year-round growth. Summer shade permits more vigorous growth during the first year or two. And although probably not economical, long-day lighting should accelerate growth.

Root-Pruning

Root trimming may be necessary at each successive move to a larger container in order to keep roots from growing cramped or coiled while the top reaches saleable size. It is critical to keep roots growing actively and freely. As alternatives to screened containers or bottom-treated flats to prune and induce early branching of newly-germinated roots, open-bottomed containers or plant bands produce the same effect at the transplanting stage; as the pots are moved from one location to another the roots are pruned in the process. Fiber pots tend to rot away at the bottom and become open-bottomed containers with time. It is most desirable to transfer young plants rapidly to the next larger container or to the ground, as soon as roots have filled the current container.

Staking

Staking is generally not necessary. A grower may wish a tree for timber or ornament to have a strongly upright lower trunk. However, staked trunks tend to be weaker and to develop less rapidly in girth than unstaked trunks. Both single-trunked and multitrunked trees are desirable for landscape use, and a gnarled trunk can increase an oak's aesthetic value. If taller trees are desired, judicious pruning of weaker secondary trunks may be more useful than staking.

Pests and Diseases

Young oaks in the nursery are as subject to pests and diseases as are other plants, and early detection is important because treatment is most effective when these problems first appear.

Aphids frequently occur in closely packed nursery blocks, particularly of Q. agrifolia and Q. kelloggii during April and mid-September through mid-October. They can seriously distort growth, but seldom kill the plants. Whiteflies occur occasionally in summer, again where blocks of plants are overpacked so that much of the foliage is shaded. Both aphids and whiteflies are treated effectively with such systemics as Orthene (safest to the user), Cygon or Metasystox which give extended control. One application generally lasts 1 to 3 months. Quick knock-down without lasting control can be obtained with Diazinon, Malathion, Sevin, or other short-residual surface insecticides.

Oak Moth Caterpillars are not usually a nursery problem. They, and similar species, can skeletonize young foliage but, again, are usually not lethal. Control is obtained with such materials as Orthene, or with Lindane which is not systemic but leaves a long-term crystalline residue effective where eggs hatch over a period of weeks. Dipel and other formulations of Bacillus thuringiensis give effective biological control. Broad-spectrum, short-term, insecticides give control if all the caterpillars have hatched at the time of application.

Stem gall insects such as the Woody Twig Gall (Callirhytis perdens) can do very serious damage, especially on Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii, where they girdle twigs and virtually ruin many young trees. Chemical control is extremely difficult; probably the most effective measure would be to enclose plant blocks with shade or other cloth of sufficiently fine mesh to prevent entry by the adult insects.

Powdery mildew may be a problem in late summer, primarily in sprinkler-irrigated nurseries and in foggy coastal locations. It can seriously distort new growth and cause "witches' brooms." Many chemicals are available specifically for it, although there may be registration problems for use in oaks; Dithane, Karathane, Kelthane, and Pipron are registered for powdery mildew. Benlate is often effective only at increasingly high concentrations. Repeated sprays of Captan, alone or in combination with other fungicides, can give effective control. Benlate and Captan also control Botrytis, which can be a problem under cool, wet conditions particularly in early spring.

Fungus twig blights and root rots are often caused (especially in sprinkler-irrigated nurseries) by Pythium and Phytophthora. Truban is probably the best currently registered control, while Captan is a reliable standby.

All these diseases are prevented by generous plant spacing, and hand- or other short-duration or non-overhead watering.

Under continuous good culture, it is not unusual here for the low-elevation deciduous oaks (Q. kelloggii, Q. douglasii, Q. lobata) to attain 1-1/2 to 2 feet (46 to 61 cm) of top growth by the end of the first summer in the nursery. Q. agrifolia may reach 2 to 3 feet (61 to 91 cm). At the end of the second year, the deciduous species will have grown to 3 to 5 feet (91 to 152 cm) in 5-gallon cans and coast live oak to 5 to 8 feet (152 to 244 cm).

Outplanting

When it is time for final planting into the ground, several factors must be taken into account. Is water available for a few deep irrigations during the first dry season? If not, the young plant must be planted with, or just ahead of the first rains. Planting should be timed and tended so that extremes of temperature, wind, and drought are prevented. Under ideal conditions, a vigorous oak seedling can be planted out and experience little or no interruption in its growth. However, if the timing and situation of planting will be less than ideal, the plant should be hardened off well in advance to prepare for the new environment. Nutrients can be gradually reduced, periods between watering gradually lengthened, and exposure to hot sun increased so that a tougher plant goes out to compete in the wild, less dependent on human care.

The propagator's success shows up not in the nursery, but many years later when wildlife or humans, with no thought of propagation, enjoy a healthy stand of oaks.

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Quercus dumosa

Nutrient-Microbial Considerations in Oak Management[1]

Paul H. Dunn[2]

Abstract: Nutrient data for California Quercus woodlands has been extracted and is presented in table and graph form to facilitate comparison of individual sites with other sites. Nutrient cycles, with emphasis on carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus, are reviewed for Quercus. Fertilizer use in Quercus woodlands is reviewed. Nonsymbiotic dinitrogen fixation and mycorrhizal associations with Quercus are discussed and four mycorrhizal fungi species producing hypogenous fruiting bodies in association with Q. dumosa are identified.

INTRODUCTION

Recognizing the value of oak woodlands for recreation, wildlife, and wood production is the impetus behind current oak outplanting programs. A major influence on the success of such oak productivity is the nutrient-microbial condition of the soil.

Microbial activity in soils is generally little understood but critical to the success of many management plans, particularly those involving outplanting, introduction of oaks, and increasing productivity of oak-dominated sites. For this reason, microbial conditions and the interrelationship to nutrient pools must be taken into account.

This paper is designed principally to give oak woodland managers a reference to compare the nutrient status of their sites to nutrient levels in other oak woodlands and thereby predict results of proposed management activities. Much of this information, which is sparse and scattered throughout the scientific literature, is summarized here with emphasis on California oak woodlands, though other areas are considered as well.

NUTRIENT BUDGETS IN OAK WOODLANDS

Oaks rarely occur in pure stands. Most of the data presented here are therefore derived from woodlands in which oak is the dominant overstory species, but not the exclusive species on the site. The information has been gleaned from many different scientific papers so the nutrient budget is not complete for every site; however, the budgets presented hopefully will indicate a range of values against which a site can be judged before management activities are proposed and some prediction of success can be made.

Much of the California oak data is extracted from the California Soil Vegetation Survey which, though not complete for all areas of the State, provides some usable budget values. These data include unpublished resources and were made available by Paul Zinke[3] of the University of California, Berkeley. The criterion used by the author to classify a site as oak woodland--based on California Soil Vegetation Survey data--was an excess of 50 percent cover of oak or an oak-grass savannah.

Quantities of nutrients in various pools do not alone give complete information about the nutrient conditions of a site. The rate of transfer between pools is also important. A

1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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3/Zinke, Paul J. 1979. Unpublished chaparral soil data, chaparral plant data, and Weibull probability density plots. Dep. of Forestry, Univ. of Calif., Berkeley.

site with high turnover rates between pools can be as productive as that site with large nutrient pools but with slower recycling rates.

The Carbon Cycle

Gross primary production, or energy, is fixed in carbon compounds during photosynthesis. Oaks metabolize part of the gross primary production as respiration; the remainder generates biomass, or net primary production. Each fall, deciduous oaks drop most of their net primary production in the form of leaves onto the litter layer. Conversely, evergreen oaks keep their leaves 1-1/2 to 3 years, which means that less of their annual energy production is expended in regenerating leaves. The evergreen oaks do tend to drop their oldest leaves primarily during the fall, but it is not a complete drop (Wheeler 1975) as in deciduous species.

Prior to falling, leaves of many tree species are infected by initial decomposition fungi (Jensen 1974). When the leaves are deposited on the upper layers of litter, they are invaded from below by soil fauna (Dickinson and Pugh 1974) which chew the leaves into even smaller pieces. Much of the leaf material is left partly decomposed in fecal pellets. Successive waves of microbes then decompose leaves and fecal pellets with extracellular enzymes.

Readily decomposed carbon-containing compounds, such as sugar, are metabolized first, mostly by sugar fungi such as Zygomycetes (Jensen 1974). Next, cellulolytic microbes slowly decompose the cellulose. The resistant lignins which remain are then very slowly decomposed. The final links in the decomposition chain are the humic compounds which, because of very long half-lives in the soil, take 100 to 1000 years to decompose. These humic compounds may originate directly from the litter or from microbes involved in decomposition. Each step in the decomposition process involves a different microhabitat and a different complement of microbes. Near the bottom of the litter layers only lignin and humic compounds remain. This layer, which becomes anaerobic when wet, is referred to as the fermentation layer.

The decomposition time of a leaf in litter varies in proportion to resistant compounds in the leaf and the environmental conditions. For example, Edwards and Heath (1975) found that increases in the polyphenol content of Q. robur L. leaves decreased the decomposition rate. Yielding (1978) showed that in San Diego County chaparral, Quercus dumosa foliage decomposed 21.12 percent in 18 months. In the same time and place, Ceanothus greggii foliage decomposed 12.8 percent, Adenostoma fasciculatum decomposed 15.05 percent, A. sparsifolium decomposed 20.18 percent, Arctostaphylos glandulosa decomposed 18.81 percent, and Cercocarpus betuloides decomposed 23.07 percent.

In oaks, decomposition takes place through a combination of micro-organisms and soil invertebrates. But within a narrowly defined system, some inherent differences in decomposition rates occur by species and site. For example, the decomposition rate in temperate oak woodlands is higher than the decomposition rate in San Diego chaparral sites recorded by Yielding, partly due to the dry climate of the chaparral which limits the amount of time conditions are suitable for decomposition (Winn 1977, Olson 1963, Yielding 1978). In England, foliage of Quercus robur L. decomposed 40 percent in 18 months (Edwards and Heath 1975). An oak-hickory forest in southern Illinois was estimated to decompose one-half of the litter in 10.5 to 17 months (Akhtar and others 1976). Litter from a mixed oak forest in New Jersey had 65 percent decomposition in 18 months (Lang 1974). An oak-pine forest litter on Long Island lost 66 percent of its weight over 1 year (Woodwell and Marples 1968). In 6 months, Q. alba underwent 28 percent decomposition and Q. velutina had 29 percent decomposition (Broadfoot and Pierre 1939). In the same 6-month period, Q. petraea lost 26.20 percent in English mull, 23 percent in moder, and 22 percent in peat. Q. robur lost 17 percent each on three separate sites in 6 months (Bocock and Gilbert 1957).

As a juvenile oak woodland ages, the depth of the litter layer changes. In juvenile stages, the depth of the litter layer gradually increases. In a mature temperate zone oak forest, a nearly steady state is achieved, with litter deposition equaling litter decomposition (Lang 1974). Such may not be true for stands where nutrients become limiting or where the amount of resistant compounds in leaves increase. The result is a longer decomposition time (Edwards and Heath 1975), offset only partly by better moisture retention in the thicker litter layers. The dense, closed canopy of older stands also decreases the temperature in the litter layer, thereby slowing decomposition. In some areas, environmental conditions are such that equilibrium is never achieved, mostly due to dryness (Olson 1963). For example, the California oak savannah does not develop deep litter layers, perhaps due to the high water-holding capacity of the soil and high levels of rodent and arthropod activity which breaks up litter and moves it down into soil where decomposition is rapid.

Microbial respiration accounts for 99 percent of the CO_2 produced from the litter and soil (Ausmus and Witkamp 1974). The actual proportion of respiration attributable to bacteria, fungi, roots, and other soil organisms is not easily ascertained. Of the microbe-produced CO_2, about 78 percent is due to fungi, about 22 percent is due to bacteria (Anderson and Domsch 1973). These percentages may attribute too much activity to bacteria in oak woodlands, since the acidic litter in the oak woodland ecosystem selects in favor of acid-loving fungi.

Most microbes are dependent on photosynthetically fixed carbon as an energy source. The distribution of carbon, therefore, closely parallels the distribution of microbes, as demonstrated by selected California oak stands (fig. 1). Although no microbial data was developed for this study, microbial activity should parallel the carbon biomass in the upper soil layers. This may not be true for the carbon increase seen below 50 cm.

For example, quantities for chaparral sites (fig. 1) generally fit in the mid-to-lower range.

The Nitrogen Cycle

Nitrogen--essential to all living organisms--is a component of the amino acids which make up protein. Nitrogen gas is the principal component of air (≈ 80 percent), however, it is not in a form usable by most organisms. Through symbiotic association with a microbe, some plants are able to fix nitrogen from the air into a usable form. The legumes and members of the genus Ceanothus are typical. Dominant chaparral shrubs reflect this nitrogen-fixing ability (fig. 3) in their foliage nitrogen content. Ceanothus cannot exist on sites which do not provide sufficient nitrogen from soil or allow fixation to maintain leaf tissue concentrations greater than 1 percent. Quercus dumosa, which does not fix its own nitrogen, reflects the available

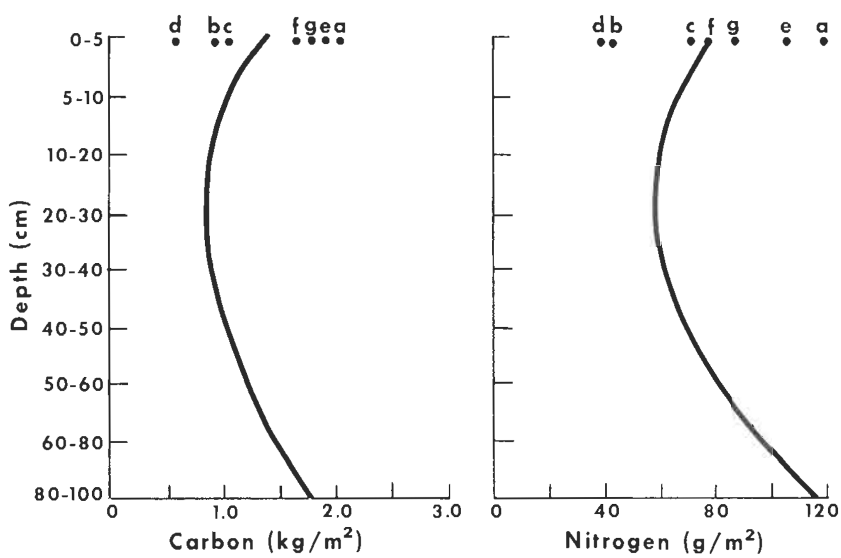

Figure 1--Carbon (kg/m^2) and nitrogen (g/m^2) soil profiles from Quercus dumosa sites in southern California: (a) Kiethly Ranch, Lake County, Calif., (b) Owl Canyon, Hollywood, Calif., (c) El Prieto Canyon, Los Angeles County, Calif., (d) Scissors Junction, San Diego County, Calif., (e) Sunrise, San Diego County, Calif., (f) Descanso (4 mi NE), San Diego County, Calif., and (g) Vista (5 mi S) San Diego County, Calif. (Data supplied by Paul Zinke, University of California, Berkeley).

Zinke[3/] has developed Weibull distributions for the carbon content of soil to 5 cm stands of Quercus dumosa throughout the State (fig. 2). Using this curve for comparison, the relative richness of any given site to other sites in the State can be made. Any site which falls on the low end of this distribution should be considered marginal.

nitrogen of a site in its foliage. Plants can maintain the same foliage nitrogen level within a broad range of soil nitrogen levels. Changes in foliar nitrogen levels occur at the extremes of soil nitrogen concentrations. Soil nitrogen is the most direct measure of the nitrogen condition on a site. The Weibull distribution of Q. dumosa soil nitrogen content (fig. 4) provides a measure against which a site can be compared (fig. 1).

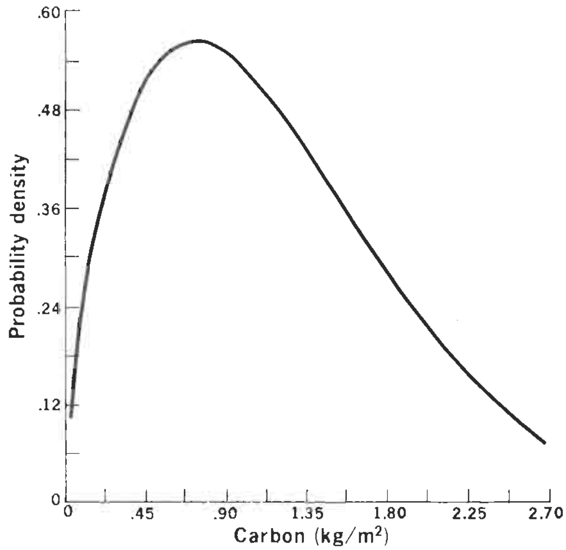

Figure 2--Weibull function for carbon for California *Quercus dumosa* soil (0-5 cm) (Data supplied by Paul Zinke, University of California, Berkeley).

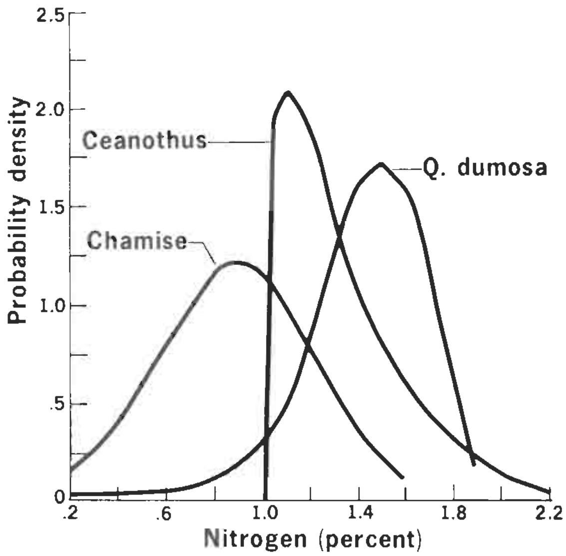

Figure 3--Weibull function for California chaparral foliar nitrogen (Data supplied by Paul Zinke, University of California, Berkeley).

Another method of assessing site quality is the carbon-nitrogen ratio (C:N) of leaf litter and soil on a site. Sites rich in nitrogen have a low carbon-nitrogen ratio. In sites low in available nitrogen, the ratio increases. Profiles for several oak woodland sites in southern California illustrate the range of carbon-nitrogen ratios occurring in the top meter of soil (table 1). The Q. douglasii sites (oak savannahs) generally have lower carbon-nitrogen ratios than other California oak species.

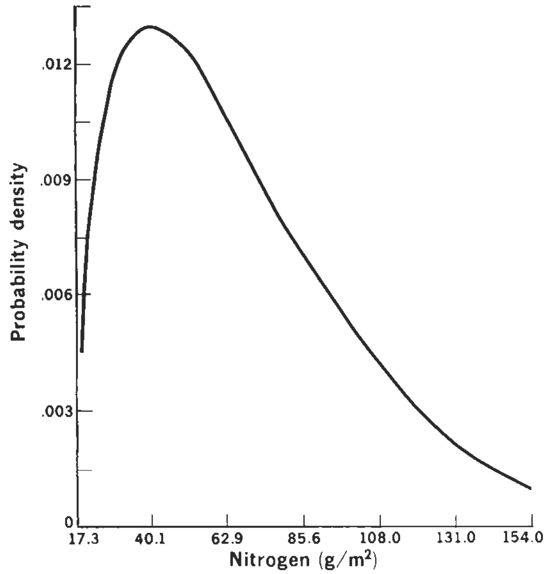

Figure 4--Weibull function for nitrogen for California *Quercus dumosa* soil (0-5 cm) (Data supplied by Paul Zinke, University of California, Berkeley).

Leaves are an important part of the nitrogen budget in an oak woodland. Depending on size, leaves were found to constitute 3 to 7 percent of the total tree biomass aboveground in the Georgia study performed by Monk and others (1970). Leaves in California are commonly 1 to 2 percent nitrogen (Wheeler 1975). Post oak-blackjack oak forests in Oklahoma have a nitrogen content of 2.4 percent in post oak and 3.4 percent in blackjack oak (Johnson and Risser 1974). The quantity of leaf nitrogen is related to nitrogen availability within the woodland. Leaves normally acquire all of their nitrogen early in their growth (Sampson and Samisch 1935). Before oaks drop their leaves (every year for deciduous species, every 1 to 3 years for evergreen species), much of the nitrogen in the leaf is translocated from the leaves to the woody tissue. The percentage retained by the tree varies from 72 to 77 percent for California oaks (Wheeler 1975). Q. dumosa is an exception, with 27 percent retention (Sampson and Samisch 1935, Wheeler 1975). Much of the nitrogen left is in structural materials resistant to microbial decomposition.

Decomposition of nitrogenous compounds in leaf litter is similar to the decomposition of carbon compounds. The nitrogen is made soluble by extracellular enzymes from microbes. From there, the nitrogen may be leached into the

Table 1--California Soil-Vegetation Survey data for the top 1 meter of soil in oak woodlands.

Plant	Cover	Carbon	Nitrogen	Phosphorus[1/]	Carbon-nitrogen ratio	Soil	County	Quad/Plot	PPTN	Elevation
	percent	kg/m^2	g/m^2	mg/m^2	C:N				mm	m
Quercus douglasii	20-50	3.06	317.47	23	9.6	Trimmer	Fresno	100B1/11	381-482	460
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	5-20	10.97	871.82	4122(B)	12.6	Supan	Tuolumne	79A1/07	635-737	340
Pinus sabiniana	<5									
Grasses	50-80									
Q. douglasii	20-50	6.52	698.34	578(B)	9.3	Wisheylu	Calaveras	68D2/02	635-737	640
Grasses	50-80									
Q. douglasii	20-50	8.59	772.84	106	11.1	Sacata	Fresno	100A2/11	762-864	1040
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	6.28	726.56	1759(B)	8.6	Whiterock	Calaveras	68D3/01	635-737	370
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	5.34	1095.49	3991(B)	4.9	Whiterock	Calaveras	79A2/04	635-737	270
Grasses	50-80									
Q. douglasii	20-50	6.31	659.73	433	9.6	Laniger	Tehama	41A1/01	508-610	60
Grasses	5-20									
Q. douglasii	20-50	5.76	687.75	617(B)	8.4	Argonaut	Butte	50B3/01	635-737	60
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	7.20	318.82	101(B)	22.6	Argonaut	Yuba	50A3/04	1143-1245	520
Grasses	20-50									
Ceanothus	5-20									
Q. douglasii	20-50	3.03	341.77	353(B)	8.9	Amrogosa	Butte	50B3/04	762-864	240
Grasses	50-80									
Q. douglasii	20-50	5.84	429.70	439(B)	13.6	Auburn	Butte	39C3/08	889-991	300
Grasses	50-80									
P. sabiniana	5-20									
Q. douglasii	5-20	3.72	485.66	346(B)	7.7	Auburn	Calaveras	79A3/01	381-482	240
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	6.00	564.01	1722(B)	10.6	Exchequer	Calaveras	79A1/01	508-610	300
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	3.84	444.74	824(B)	8.6	Exchequer	Calaveras	79A2/02	508-610	200
Grasses	80-100									
Q. douglasii	20-50	8.55	686.37	0	12.5	Auberry	Butte	39C3/10	1143-1245	490
Q. douglasii	20-50	6.90	450.33	20		Guenoc	Shasta	32A1/10	762-864	280
Grasses	50-80									
Q. douglasii	20-50	5.86	517.32	161(B)	11.3	Sobrante	Calaveras	79A2/05	508-610	240
Grasses	50-80									
Q. lobata	<5	14.08	794.53	2867(B)	17.7	Chualar	Yuba	50B4/04	1106-1118	430

[1/] (B)=data for bicarbonate extraction; otherwise water extraction

Table 1--Continued

Plant	Cover	Carbon	Nitrogen	Phosphorus[1/]	Carbon-nitrogen ratio	Soil	County	Quad/Plot	PPTN	Elevation
	percent	kg/m^2	g/m^2	mg/m^2	C:N				mm	m
Q. wislizenii	<5									
Grasses	80-100									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	8.01	336.17	535(B)	23.8	Sobrante	Yuba	50B4/01	762-864	340
Q. wislizenii	80-100	0	0	12	0	Shaver	Fresno	90D2/01	889-991	2190
Q. wislizenii	80-100	7.60	566.88	35	13.4	Ahwahnee	Fresno	90C4/09	635-737	730
Q. wislizenii	80-100	4.01	311.27	65	12.9	Auberry	Fresno	100A2/02	762-864	520
Q. douglasii	5-20									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	24.95	1029.18	950	24.2	Stover	Tehama	33B3/23	635-737	340
Q. douglasii	5-20									
Grasses	20-50									
Q. wislizenii	50-80	11.18	1011.96	2295(B)	11.0	Sobrante	Butte	50B2/08	762-864	180
Q. douglasii	20-50									
Grasses	20-50									
Q. wislizenii	80-100	7.18	500.62	686	14.3	Ahwahnee	Fresno	100A2/03	762-864	550
Q. douglasii	5-20									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	10.53	422.15	579(B)	24.9	Sierra	Yuba	50B4/02	762-864	340
Q. douglasii	5-20									
Grasses	5-20									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	8.03	388.51	89(B)	20.7	Wisheylu	Yuba	50A3/03	1143-1245	550
Q. douglasii	5-20									
Grasses	20-50									
Q. wislizenii	5-20	12.96	751.35	847(B)	17.2	Rescue	Yuba	50A3/09	1016-1118	490
Q. douglasii	20-50									
Grasses	N/A									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	8.03	523.47	15	15.3	Tollhouse	Fresno	90C3/03	635-737	820
Grasses	20-50									
Q. wislizenii	20-50	8.85	976.99	969(B)	9.1	Dorado	Calaveras	68D2/04	635-737	300
Q. douglasii	20-50									
Q. wislizenii	5-20	10.60	867.86	675(B)	12.2	Rancheria	Calaveras	69C1/04	1016-1118	430
Grasses	80-100									
Q. wislizenii (shrub)	50-80	8.12	394.23	3019(B)	20.6	Ahwahnee	Yuba	50A3/07	1016-1118	370
Q. wislizenii (shrub)	20-50	8.90	870.56	14	10.2	Sites	Glenn	42D2/02	762-864	850
Q. dumosa	20-50									
Lithocarpus densiflora echinoides	20-50	6.95	328.74	37	21.1	Weitchpec	Humboldt	11D3/08	1778-1880	850
Q. vaccinifolia	20-50									

Table 1--Continued

Plant	Cover	Carbon	Nitrogen	Phosphorus[1/]	Carbon-nitrogen ratio	Soil	County	Quad/Plot	PPTN	Elevation
	percent	kg/m^2	g/m^2	mg/m^2	C:N				mm	m
L. densiflora echinoides	50-80	33.48	837.21	438(B)	40.0	Hostler	Yuba	39D4/04	2032-2134	1220
Abies concolor	20-50									
L. densiflora	50-80	13.54	707.81	352(B)	19.1	Salminas	Sonoma	60D2/03	1778-1880	910
Q. kelloggii	50-80	18.35	921.74	791(B)	19.9	Challange	Yuba	50A3/05	1270-1372	820
Q. kelloggii	20-50	6.23	282.62	22	22.0	Neuns	Shasta	24D4/06	1270-1372	550
Q. kelloggii	20-50	11.36	848.58	32	13.4	Guenoc	Sonoma	60C2/02	1270-1372	150
Q. douglasii	20-50									
Q. agrifolia	20-50									
Grasses	20-50									
Q. kelloggii	50-80	6.82	447.11	10	15.3	Mariposa	Shasta	23A4/02	1270-1372	520
Q. kelloggii	5-20	21.82	1713.60	27	12.7	Tyson	Humboldt	26B1/03	1778-1880	1040
Grasses	20-50									
Q. garryana	80-100									
Q. garryana	80-100	16.93	1419.90	52	11.9	Tyson	Humboldt	26B1/16	1778-1880	1010
Douglas-fir	5-20									
Holodiscus discolor	20-50									
Q. kelloggii	5-20									
Douglas-fir	5-20									
Q. garryana	20-50	6.78	433.12	72	15.7	Kilarc	Shasta	15C3/01	1778-1880	580
Q. garryana breweri	20-50									
Grasses	20-50									

root zone where it is taken up by the plant root, the mycorrhiza-root complex, or by microbes for their own use. The microbes have life cycles of a few days at most after which they are decomposed by other microbes. Approximately 0.3 percent (Jensen 1932) of the microbial biomass in each life cycle is left in microbial wall materials (humus), which is highly resistant to decomposition and also high in nitrogen (C:N 10:1). Since there are several turnovers in microbial biomass each season, with 0.3 percent of the nitrogen lost during each cycle, the amount of nitrogen retained in resistant compounds steadily increases. With each microbial generation, CO_2 is produced through respiration and lost from the soil. As the carbon is lost from the litter, the carbon-nitrogen ratio becomes smaller. At ratios of 1:7 to 1:10, the remaining carbon is insufficient to continue decomposition cycles.

The mineralization of nitrogen in leaf litter to nitrogenous forms available for root-mycorrhiza uptake proceeds through many steps. Production of ammonium, NH_4, from amino acids is the first step in the process. The enzymes for ammonification are common in fungi and bacteria. Some plants and many microbes can take up NH_4 as a usable form, some cannot. The transformation of nitrogen from ammonium to the more available nitrate, NO_3, is a two-step nitrification process carried out by bacteria which use the energy released in the chemical process. In the first step, NH_4 is changed to NO_2 by Nitrosomonas group bacteria. In the second step, NO_2 is converted to NO_3 by Nitrobacters group bacteria. Both of these steps are sensitive to almost any disturbance, e.g., burning, plowing (Powlson 1975). The acid pH of oak woodland litter and soil is not preferred by these two groups of bacteria. If NH_4 is the preferred form of nitrogen for plants being raised, the conversion of NH_4 to NO_2 can be blocked naturally by allelopathy (Rice and Paucholy 1972) or artificially by N-Serve which is specific against Nitrosomonas group bacteria (Goring 1967). Blocking this conversion may be a major advantage in preventing the leaching of NO_3 from the site. Pure culture studies have not determined a preference by oak for NO_3-N or NH_4-N. Work on *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco has shown that this ectomycorrhizal conifer cannot reduce NO_3-N in its larger roots (Li and others 1972); however, subsequent study[4/] revealed that the root tips of pure culture *P. menziesii* are very efficient in reducing nitrate--better even than the intact mycorrhiza. An alternate means of producing NO_3 is heterotrophic nitrification. In this process, a microbe takes an organic compound with a nitrogen compound attached and changes the form of the nitrogen compound without ever releasing it from the attached organic compound. This process continues until the organic compound has an NO_3 attached. The NO_3 is then split off and made available. No free NH_4 or NO_2 is produced in this process (Focht and Verstraete 1977).

Under anaerobic conditions, denitrification, another step in the nitrogen cycle, can occur. NO_3 can be converted to N_2O and N_2 which are subsequently lost to the atmosphere (Focht and Verstraete 1977). The importance of denitrification has not been determined, although this chemical conversion appears to provide a means of nitrogen loss under the litter where the soil is moist with anaerobic microsites.

Nitrogen in the roots (mostly fine) cannot be ignored as an important part of the oak nutrient budget--specifically, 21 percent of the total nitrogen held by an oak (Duvigneand and Denaeyer-DeSinet 1970, Rolfe and others 1978, Johnson and Risser 1974). Yet little information is available on its dynamics. The fine roots are known to undergo seasonal cycles of growth and death, but no data are available on the removal of nitrogen from these roots before death.

More certain are the methods by which roots take up nitrogen. Root hairs, which occupy a limited area, take up nitrogen from solution. Another effective means is through ectomycorrhizae which occur on all oaks (Trappe 1977). The sheath of ectomycorrhizal fungi surrounds the active root tip, isolating it from the soil and preventing production of root hairs. The mycorrhizal sheath has mycelia radiating from it which occupy the soil space more effectively than root hairs from the same length of root. Surface area is increased ten times compared to root hairs. Mycorrhizal mycelia are also much more efficient than root hairs in taking up water and nutrients, including nitrogen. Many plants are unable to survive without the mycorrhizal association unless large amounts of fertilizer are added to make nutrients available, as in nursery operations (Menge and others 1978).

In wildland sites, adding nitrogen fertilizer may not be practical, so a natural source of additional nitrogen is important. In principle, both biological and nonbiological sources of additional nitrogen are available. Both rainwater and atmospheric dust contain considerable amounts of nitrogen. Air provides another usable source of nitrogen derived from volatilization of ammonia, NH_3, from soil, lightning fixation, and industrial sources.

[4/] Trappe, James M. 1979. Personal communication. U.S. Dep. Agric. For. Serv., Pac. Northwest For. and Range Exp. Stn., Portland, Oreg.

Smog areas are also particularly heavy in nitrogen compounds (Appel and others 1978). Though the amount of nitrogen from these physical effects varies greatly, it cannot be ignored.

Three types of biological input of nitrogen to oaks are recognized. In one method, animals which have grazed elsewhere transport nitrogen into an oak savannah in the form of waste. These wastes are deposited and accumulate under trees which the animals use for shade and protection. The animals remove nitrogen from the same area in the form of acorns, browsed leaves, and grazed grasses. The net loss or gain from this exchange has not been measured, though Holland (1973) contends that removing cattle from an oak savannah does not change the nitrogen accumulation.

The second source of nitrogen accumulation is from roots. Oak root systems extend out beyond the dip line of the canopy where, along with their mycorrhizal associates, they remove nutrients from the entire area and concentrate it around the tree by leaf fall. This should result in a nutrient depletion of the area around the oak and an increase of nitrogen under the oak. But the area just outside the canopy in an oak savannah shows no decrease in nitrogen in the upper soil layers or grass production. Any root accumulation must therefore be from areas below the grass rooting zone.

The third nitrogen source in oak stands is nitrogen fixation. Biological nitrogen fixation can be symbiotic as in legumes and Ceanothus or nonsymbiotic as in many blue-green algae and some free-living bacteria species. Symbiotic nitrogen fixation associated with oaks has not been substantiated (Jain and Vlassak 1975). Nor are there reliable estimates of the importance of nonsymbiotic nitrogen fixation in oak woodlands, but it has the potential of being very important. One of the better documented cases of enhanced nitrogen fixation under oaks is with Q. dumosa lysimeters at Tanbark Flats, San Dimas Experimental Forest. In these studies, there was no accumulation from surrounding areas and aerial inputs to all lysimeters were the same, but the oak showed increases over the controls in nitrogen content (table 2) (Zinke 1969). This experiment suggests that Q. dumosa (and Eriogonum fasciculatum) probably enhances nonsymbiotic nitrogen fixation while Adenostoma fasciculatum inhibits fixation. Ceanothus crassifolius is a symbiotic nitrogen-fixing species. A successful acorn crop provides a major sink of nitrogen which can be transported from the site by animals; however, a good estimate of the amount of nitrogen in the acorn crop is lacking and only poor knowledge exists of the fate of this nitrogen in the ecosystem.

Ecosystems efficiently conserve available nutrient supplies, particularly on low nutrient sites. Few nutrients are lost with recycling. Even the compounds resistant to decomposition are functional here, holding nitrogen which might otherwise be leached from the ecosystem. The rate of movement from one nutrient pool to the next determines the availability of nutrients for growth. Still unanswered is whether nitrogen added to the ecosystem is maintained over a period of time within that ecosystem or lost from it in order to maintain a fixed ratio between nitrogen and some other element.

Phosphorus Cycle

Phosphorus is a nutrient known to be often in short supply, yet essential in the makeup of compounds which transfer and hold energy, adenosine triphosphate (ATP). Amounts present in oak sites vary considerably (table 1). Weibull distribution[3/] of phosphorus values for Q. dumosa soil in California (fig. 5) provide a comparison of extractable phosphorus in the top 5 cm of soil for a given site.

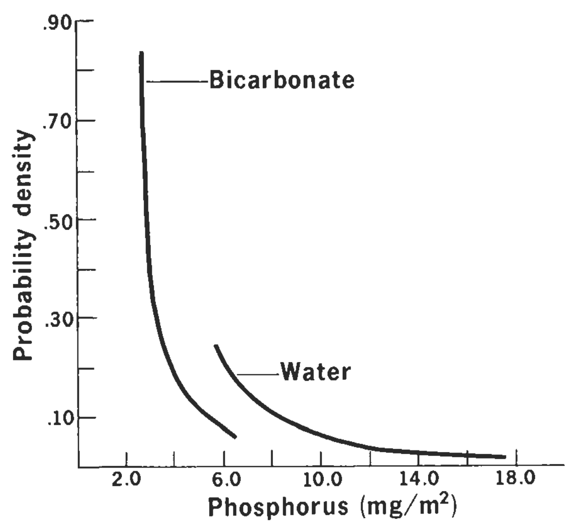

Figure 5--Weibull function for water-soluble and bicarbonate-extractable phosphorus for California Quercus dumosa soil (0-5 cm) (Data supplied by Paul Zinke, University of California, Berkeley).

Available phosphorus is often the problem, and not total phosphorus. Zinke's Weibull probability distributions furnish two different measures of available phosphorus. Mycorrhiza provides one means whereby the availability problem is overcome. Root hairs inefficiently occupy a total soil volume and phosphorus diffuses very slowly in soil. In contrast, mycorrhizal mycelia very capably occupy this

Table 2--Nitrogen accumulation in the San Dimas lysimeters in 13 years (after Zinke 1969). Values are g/m^2 of nitrogen.

	Original Soil	Barren	Cover Type			
			Af[1/]	Eff[2/]	Qd[3/]	Ccr[4/]
Vegetation	0	0	5.2	10.6	6.1	29.6
Litter	0	0	3.2	30.0	17.9	32.4
Mineral soil to 122 cm	318.0	283.8	278.5	318.8	343.6	320.1
Total	318.0	283.8	286.9	359.4	367.6	382.1
Change		-34.2	-31.1	+41.4	+49.6	+64.1

1/Af = *Adenostoma fasciculatum*
2/Eff = *Eriogonum fasciculatum*
3/Qd = *Quercus dumosa*
4/Ccr = *Ceanothus crassifolius*

soil volume. Mycorrhizal fungi are very productive in phosphorus uptake. Citrus research shows a great increase in uptake efficiency when mycorrhizal fungi are present (Menge and others 1978).

Availability of phosphorus is also changed by the relationship between pH and phosphorus solubility. More than 30 years of lysimeter measurements in the San Dimas Experimental Forest show an increasing amount of available phosphorus which correlates with decreasing pH.[3/]

Fertilization

Fertilization is currently an oak woodlands management technique practiced outside of California to increase production. Nitrogen fertilizer can be added to a site in two ways. Mineralized nitrogen fertilizer can be added to a site, but on a large scale this addition to low revenue producing oak woodlands is economically impractical; however, this may be very feasible in ornamental operations. A few principles are clear from fertilization work done in the eastern United States. Most studies show a response of eastern oak to nitrogen, but an N-P-K mixture gives a superior response (Auchmoody 1972, Farmer and others 1970, Broadfoot 1966, Buckley and Farmer 1974, and Grandy and Pope 1978). The fertilization response lasts 5 to 10 years (Buckley and Farmer 1974). Fertilizer recommendations have to be made individually based on the unique requirements of each site. The implications of eastern United States oak fertilization experiments on western oak species is unknown. Oak fertilization and nitrogen cycling in the eastern United States have been reviewed by Patric and Smith (1975), but no similar work exists for western oaks.

Microbes

Where oak roots are infected with efficient strains of mycorrhizal fungi, much lower concentrations of available nitrogen and phosphorus can be tolerated. Enhanced nitrogen availability through nonsymbiotic bacterial nitrogen fixation may also be possible in the future. These two types of microbes in particular need to be considered to preclude oak sites from reverting to grasslands or other non-oak areas. Nursery addition of good mycorrhizal strains could solve many problems (Trappe 1977).

The amount of nutrient (such as nitrogen) on a site may also be important in determining the spacing of oak trees, and may limit the biomass that a given site can support. Phosphorus is particularly important because no biological way exists to fix this nutrient. The amount which is available on a site is all the oak woodland will have. Fertilization may figure importantly in cases of low soil phosphorus.

Another impact of mycorrhiza on oak woodlands is the production of subterranean fruiting bodies, or truffles (Gilkey 1916, 1954). Truffles are important components of a rodent's diet (Maser and others 1978, Stienecker and Browning 1970) and are highly valued by Europeans for their flavor. Research is currently trying to introduce the European mycorrhiza onto California oak for commercial production of truffles which would give oak woodlands a high economic value.[5/] In 1978,

[5/]Trappe, James M. Pers. commun. 1979. Mycorrhizal applications in ecosystem management. U.S. Dep. Agric. For. Serv., Pac. Northwest For. and Range Exp. Stn., Portland, Oreg.

the European black truffle brought $250 to $400 per pound. The production of edible truffles promises to provide more economic return than oak wood, and could increase wood production and provide a steady return until logging age.

Native truffles also may be edible. Q. dumosa at Kitchen Creek, San Diego County, California, has produced specimens of four different truffles: the Ascomycetes Geopora clausa spp. Californica (Gilkey) Bards and Tuber rufum var. nitidum (Vitt.) Fischer, and the hypogenous Basidiomycetes Gautieria parksiana Zeller and Dodge and Hysterangium spp. These fruiting bodies seem to be common in the upper soil layers and are probably important to rodents and may be usable for human consumption.

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Quercus kelloggii

Oaks and the California Landscape[1]

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Abstract: Native oaks are important visual elements in the California landscape. Their significance is suggested by statewide distribution, by historic association, and the variety of visual roles played. Much of our local and regional landscape character is identified with different oak species and their visual arrangements; conservation of that character helps maintain scenic amenity. Oaks and landscape are discussed in regard to highways, recreation places, and urban forests. Some landscape research needs on native oaks are posed.

INTRODUCTION

Native oaks play a significant role in the California landscape. Oaks and their typical visual arrangements contribute to the distinctive identity of local and regional landscapes. Indigenous oaks are both numerous and widely distributed. Historic accounts recognize the relationships of oak trees with such places as Oakland and with early Spanish exploration. The maintenance of the esthetic character of California landscapes, some of it intimately dependent upon oaks, should be recognized as one part of environmental quality protection.

California oaks, as a group, occur in several sets of visual relationships which typify particular regional landscapes. Three distinctive oak patterns contribute to scenic quality. Two of the patterns consist of highly contrasting mosaics of grass and oak woods with strong light to dark color contrasts. In spring they display a marked color brilliance. One of these two patterns is the oak savannah, a continuous woodland spread of scattered oaks, variable in density, through which the simple and flowing ground plane of grass remains apparent. The other pattern is a discontinuous mosaic of oaks in solid wedges, stringers, or whole slope faces interspaced with clear grassland patches of various shapes. This contrasting pattern of distinct oak and grass areas can usually be correlated to facets of the topography and to exposure. The third major pattern is that of occasional oaks--especially black oaks (Quercus kelloggii Newb.) --either grouped or alone within the dominant continuity of the mixed conifer forest. This is a more subtle pattern than the preceding two but the scattered presence of oaks makes local cells of contrast in color and light intensity compared to the more sombre, more abundant conifers. These particular oak patterns have special value in their contribution to scenic quality that has regional identity. They should serve as physical models to influence the form of development changes. Urbanization and land use conversions are prone to make every place look similar, leading toward mediocrity

[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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in our surroundings. Retention of California oak landscape as a physical, visual resource and responding to it ultimately serves environmental quality more broadly. It is logical to start by conserving local and regional amenities.

Kuchler's vegetation map (1964) suggests we are never very far away from native oaks. The whole rim of the Central Valley, save a small gap at the south end, is oak woodland. That ring is about 900 miles long, includes some five oak species variously distributed north to south and east to west, but runs heavily to blue oak (Q. douglasii Hook & Arn.). Then in the northern Coast Range from Eureka to the south of San Francisco - some 250 miles--we find oaks among the dominant trees within the mixed evergreen forest (Kuchler's type 29). The southern Coast Range--Monterey to Santa Barbara--is again characterized by the California oak woods type. Canyon oak (Q. chrysolepis Liebm.) and black oak, especially the latter, are visually important though subordinate counterpoints within the very extensive mixed conifer forest of the Sierra-Cascade west side, the Klamath Mountains, and the north end of the Coast Range. The presence of oaks does not end there, because pockets of them grow on the ridge east of San Diego, while at the extreme north end of the state, the Oregon white oak (Q. garryana Dougl.) makes a token appearance. The Central Valley, particularly the Sacramento portion, has its oak hummocks and riparian stringers, the last suffering serious reductions compared to an earlier time. The only sizeable part of California's landscape without the visual component of oaks or remote from it is the southeastern desert country.

Some place names of the State suggest historical or cultural values based upon oaks being conspicuous in certain landscapes (Gudde 1965). The Spanish were more discriminating than later settlers, distinguishing live oak (encina) from the deciduous oak (roble). Part of the city of Oakland was originally called "Encinal de Temescal" (Liveoak Grove by the Sweathouse), a name reflecting Spanish, Mexican, and Indian influences. Both the earlier Spanish and the later Anglo-Saxons nonetheless observed that oak groves were distinguishing elements of this particular landscape. Paso Robles (Pass through the Deciduous Oaks) in San Luis Obispo County was first named by Padre Pedro Font in 1776, later becoming the title of a land grant and was finally adopted as the city name in 1889. Two other towns named for oaks in the 1870's refer to entirely different species: Oakdale, Stanislaus County, memorializes interior live oak (Q. wislizenii A. DC.); and Oakville, Napa County, recognizes its big valley oaks (Q. lobata Nee). It is apparent from these few examples that oaks have strong enough visual images to be perpetuated in names.

The maintenance of local or regional landscape character built upon native oaks represents an extremely important and more effective means of conserving scenic amenity than any attempt to provide a man-made substitute. The original landscape of an area is normally an extensive combination of regionally typical landforms, vegetation patterns, and water forms. To this will be added new land use patterns, either urban or rural; but in usual situations no overall man-made substitute takes the place of the earlier landscape. Physical signs of human activities, including clearing, grading, construction, and new planting, are more apt to be seen as fragmenting rather than integrating. The use of introduced trees is not automatically condemned, because it can be both efficient and attractive; but the sensitive use of indigenous oaks, along with their perpetuation in place, is an important means of integrating new development with the broader surrounding landscape.

Highways

Highways are a primary way of showing us the landscape. They pass through the country in one of two ways. They can thread through the landscape in a way conforming to the landforms and tree cover typical of a locality, combining road and countryside into a satisfying experience. Or the highway can more literally blast through terrain and vegetation providing a road foundation without apparent regard for surroundings and isolating road from place. Where the components and scale of the landscape fit the scale and design of the highway, there may still be failure to make compatible relationships with the local vegetation mosaic. Not all highways include roadside plantations, but all roads pass through the landscape. Some examples may suggest how California oaks can relate to highways and countryside.

Freeway 24 leaves Walnut Creek and approaches Oakland through several ranks of hills. The dominant native vegetation is live oaks in draws and on shadier slopes while drier slopes are valley oak woodland or mosaics of oak-chaparral. The roadside within the right of way is planted in a complete way, a relatively normal procedure for an intensively traveled route in an urbanizing area. The plantings are eucalyptus and pine with introduced shrub cover which do not recognize the adjacent and distinctive native cover of oaks, grassland, and chaparral. The plantation solves certain functional problems, such as light-motion screening and erosion control. Yet the concept of the roadside plantings totally excludes any influence by the original landscape or linkage with it. A visual connection with the surroundings could have been made with judicious placement of oaks, even while allowing use of certain subordinate exotics if practical necessity demanded it. This particular freeway planting addresses certain functional problems, but the amenity provided is isolated from the broader landscape seen from the road.

In a related counter example, live oaks are the major roadside trees planted along Highway 101 in the vicinity of Santa Maria. Roadside oaks correspond directly with the scattered oaks of the adjacent flat, then together they make a visual linkage with the local hillside mosaic of live oak-chaparral.

Highway 101--the Redwood Highway--between Petaluma and Santa Rosa runs through open agricultural country with considerable residential development. The native landscape of flatter parts is grassland with widely spaced valley oaks. Hill slopes in the distance are grassland or evergreen forest with live oak (Q. agrifolia Nee) dominant. This being the Redwood Highway, widely spaced clumps of redwood are planted along both sides of the roadway. Redwoods were never a part of this landscape. Those that are now planted grow in an inhospitable climate of summer drought, heat, and wind. Tourism and the strength of a name have taken precedence over a more appropriate useage of valley oaks which belong in this place. Redwoods will occur naturally along the highway further north, a canopied landscape infinitely more impressive than this artificial plantation.

South of Red Bluff, Interstate 5, the high-speed freeway passes through rolling low hills covered with blue oak woodland, a relatively small-scaled landscape. By modifying horizontal and vertical alignments to fit the hills and adoption of a variable median area, the separated opposing lanes approximate the visual scale of a two-lane road. Continuity of the blue oak woodland is maintained within the median as well as along the right-of-way boundary. The outside edges are cleared irregularly rather than following the absolute edge of the fenced line. By contrast, the freeway approaching and leaving these blue oak hills runs with a straighter alignment through flatter, open country. This kind of skillful highway design made responsive to a local landscape gives the traveler an interesting sequential change in an otherwise rather monotonous stretch of road. The character of the oak woodland is observed and no other roadside plantings are needed.

The general policy for planting along California highways is to be guided by the vegetation adjacent to the right of way. It is a matter of design judgment as to what degree there is response to the local man-altered landscape or to the native regional surrounding. California oak landscapes are distinctive and merit consistently sensitive response in highway design and construction phases.

Parks and Recreation Places

For parks and recreation places where oaks dominate the landscape, two questions about visual quality arise. Are new plantings made with appropriate attention to surrounding oaks? Does silvicultural management assure perpetuation of oaks?

A century ago, Grinding Rock State Park in the Mother Lode was a favored spot where the Miwok Indians gathered acorns from the valley oaks and black oaks. Farming later modified the area by clearing. Now old and mature oaks appear as landmark trees. Some of the oldest are decadent and falling apart. Younger oaks grow in rather dense woods with some ponderosa pine and incense cedar. There are almost no oaks of intermediate age and size. The purposes of the modern park use will be served well by maintaining large, rather widely spaced oaks in sizeable openings bounded by dense pine-oak forest. The park is a handsome oak landscape reflecting an early history of Indian use. Yet it will not remain as it is, and a tree replacement program is needed. The problem posed is one of recreational silviculture coupled with spatial design to suit contemporary and future park needs. The model to be followed is present in the landscape as it may now be seen.

Glencliff campground in the Cleveland National Forest is in a flat with large and scattered canyon live oak. The oaks are conspicuous for their size; their darkness contrasts to lighter enclosing hillsides with thin and sear chaparral. While canyon live oaks are the primary visual key to the local landscape, they also afford the functional amenities of shelter and shade; the local climate is seasonally harsh. With the openness of oak woods being less than ideal for a campground, plantations of Arizona cypress have been introduced for screening. The pointed and glaucous forms of the cypress have little in common with the original surroundings, are visually competitive with the oaks, and can not give the shelter the oaks do. As an alternative--and in response to what may be seen--it would have been possible to use heavy plantings of canyon oak, first to give screening and later to grow selected oaks into tree form.

At one level of consideration, the introduced cypress at Glencliff are satisfactory in their growth and in improving the recreational site. In a more urban place than this one, designed contrasts combining native and introduced vegetation may be accepted as interesting and appropriate--the context of a man-modified environment. At another level of consideration, this example shows no appreciation for the special visual character of the surroundings, a point of principle that bids ill for protecting a particular wildlands environment.

Oaks in Urban Forests

In a recent paper on urban forestry emphasizing visual landscape values, I defined "urban forest" as the general impression of forest within the city seen both close by and in the distance (Litton 1978). To this should be added the attendant values of varied uses which apply to urban systems of combined forested and open spaces. Oaks in the urban forest are apt to be remnants of an earlier rural landscape,and as such, offer particular advantages. Since oaks normally occur either as isolated individuals or massed into woods, they can be considered in these two ways in towns or cities.

Oak Woods

As part of the visual landscape, oaks are arranged (or were so originally) in discernable patterns of woods intimately reflecting the forms and aspects of local terrain. In turn, the local scene joins a larger regional landscape. So oaks can contribute directly and importantly to the amenity of the city, both locally and as tied to broader surroundings. In cities such as Berkeley and Santa Barbara, live oaks are found grouped in stringers or wedges of upper watersheds and defiles, massed on steeper upland faces and adapted to sites with advantageous soil-moisture conditions. Such upland areas offer special visual values to a city because of their possible continuity and their high degree of visibility from lower parts of town. That wooded continuity can be maintained while containing low density housing if carefully done or by concentrating pockets of higher density housing separated from areas of oak woods. Conservation of such oak areas can succeed only with early recognition of their value, and sensitive planning and design.

Other advantages of oaks in grouped patterns extend amenity values into other inherent relationships. Their adaption to place enhances survival potential. At the same time, massed groupings are logical subjects for application of silvicultural management which can assure their future. Yet judging from the Berkeley campus of the University of California, the concept of maintaining oaks by silvicultural means is not evident. Photographs from the year 1900 show remarkable old and mature live oaks, perhaps 200 or more years old at that time. Having reached the end of their life span, none of these old giants remain on campus. Even so a form of recreational silviculture applied to existing oak groves and coupled with control of irrigation could give this campus some historical ties to an earlier condition.

Connected functional and aesthetic purposes are also served by oak woods. They include urban wildlife habitats, offering sanctuary to birds and small mammals, and the esthetic opportunity for wildlife observation. They provide watershed protection by slowing up urban runoff and retaining water. Oak groupings, if of sufficient size and continuity, offer desirable opportunities for recreational access, the location of limited park facilities, and connective routes. A function of oak management, coupled with open space design objectives, may be the extension and consolidation of oak woods.

Single Oaks

Individual and isolated oaks in the city--largely remnants of an earlier time--appear to have greater threats to their survival than do oak woods. Sheer competition for space is the central problem, but individual construction activities as well as the collective impacts of urban development take their toll of native oaks. Carelessness and ignorance contribute, but even the most careful measures meant to protect individual trees can eventually fail. New oaks planted after construction may have the best chance for successful growth in altered site situations.

Separated and single trees have visual influence only over local scenes--a different scale relationship from that of massed oaks. Only if widely spaced trees are sufficiently repeated do they endow notable character to a town--a condition fulfilled by the valley oaks of Paso Robles. Even so, because oaks are generally long lived, the enduring dominance of a single large tree in the local landscape is significant and without substitute.

Oak species have life spans ranging from 150 to 300 years (Harlow and Harrar 1950). Therefore, protection of all but decadent individuals is worthwhile. Problems of maintaining single oaks in town, for parks or other purposes, can be represented by the example of constructing a single building near an oak or oaks. A house may be architecturally designed to fit the focal feature of a single fine oak, with the tree working as a central link between house and garden. It is a grand and simple idea. The execution needs care at every step, followed by proper water and garden management. Conventional experience indicates that avoiding any changes within the drip line of an oak is the most desirable way to be safe, a safeguard frequently violated. The structure must fit the tree level; grading must be minimized. House walls cannot crowd the tree. Foundation design to avoid root damage may require bridging or piers in lieu of continuous walls. Any filling or paving within the tree canopy area can be threatening (decking, permeable paving or sharply limited paving may succeed). Elaborate systems of maintaining an air-water interface between original ground grade and imposed fill are unlikely to succeed except temporarily. Roof water has to be removed independently from the tree root zone, and any under-canopy gardening should be modeled to follow the preexisting condition of the microsite and its climate. A successful end result means careful attention to a full array of factors.

Contemplating the place of oaks in urbanizing situations suggests several conclusions. What we may know about oak protection and culture is neither assembled in accessible form nor is it available for every day use. What we do not know about oaks and their use in landscape is considerable and a desirable research subject.

Landscape Research on Native Oaks

The need for Landscape research on California oaks can be posed by such questions as: How can we maintain oaks in urban places? Can forms of recreational silviculture be developed for perpetuation of oak woods? Would it be useful to find out how oaks may be commonly appreciated in certain California landscapes? Would the assembly and dissemination of current information about oaks be useful to citizen's groups? To urban planning departments? To environmental planners and landscape architects?

Maintaining oaks in urban places means protection of individuals as well as grouped trees. We need to understand how particular species have been affected, and to what degree, by the urban stresses of grading and paving, changes in surface and groundwater supplies, and by microclimate modifications. It appears, for example, that valley oaks are more sensitive to paving over the root zone than are live oaks, but such generalizations are not specifically helpful and may be misleading. Oaks, according to species, have different but relatively long life spans; more accurate prediction of future life has a bearing on adoption of protective measures. Does the urban environment have a material effect on oak longevity? Oaks seem to grow slowly, and this assumed rate may be a misguided reason given for discouraging their planting. We actually know little about growth rate of oaks in either urban or rural places; it may be faster than assumed and cultural practices could enhance growth rate. A slower growing oak as a street or park tree offers a real advantage over faster growing trees in needing a minimum of pruning maintenance. Avoiding the impacts of some pruning practices used on fast growing trees suggests both economic and esthetic bonuses. Cities with trees massed in woods could perpetuate those trees by the adoption of silvicultural techniques. Even so, we do not know about how large an aggregation of oaks, or in what condition - may make it a suitable subject of silvicultural research.

Experimentation with recreational silviculture, that silviculture oriented to landscape resources, may best start in rural and wildlands areas. Grinding Rock State Park has been suggested as an appropriate place for such research. Bringing together several professional disciplines is needed--the plant ecologist-forester, the park administrator, the landscape architect. And the social scientist is called upon to ascertain public values and to communicate with a public which can be hostile to misunderstood manipulations in park landscapes. It takes time for an interdisciplinary research and planning team such as this to integrate their varied capabilities and to identify goals. Silvicultural manipulations take time to show effects. A long-term policy is needed to assure that the undertaking is not scuttled by neglect or adoption of new, short-view policies.

In conclusion, the identification of oak landscape values within this paper has been based upon personal, professional judgment. To confirm or deny the elements of professional landscape judgment and to discover other esthetic values that interested communities may have about the outdoors is possible only with social science research. This kind of research in wildlands is politically unpopular and difficult to fund. Yet it is needed to show what degree of public support may exist to maintain the environmental qualities of oak landscapes and their regional identity.

We as resource managers should strive to bring together knowledge now fragmented and spread out among many different individuals. Information about California oaks is not readily available in any concentrated or easily available form. Certainly many individuals--researchers, academicians, planners, foresters, landscape architects, to name some--have information about oaks based upon research and observation. A "state of the art" publication about oaks would fill a void at this time. Such a working paper would be helpful to researchers, professional practitioners, and local planning/open space agencies. As an example, there appears to be much popular interest in native plants; sometimes it takes a naive form, suggesting that all nativesare good plants,presenting a heaven-sent solution to maintenance-free landscapes. We know native plants, including oaks,are an interesting class of plants which demand certain conditions for successful growth, but research priorities about oaks need identification. A working paper should also be helpful in revealing a constituency interested in oak use and protection along with what they need to know. Although a "state of the art" publication represents a modest kind of proposal, it should be both immediately informative and suggestive of what we need to find out about native oaks in the California landscape.

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Quercus agrifolia

Measures That Can Help Offset the Detrimental Effects That Urban Development Has on Oak Trees[1]

Paul A. Rogers[2]

Abstract: Land development is seriously encroaching upon our southern California oak woodlands. Urban development not only creates an unnatural environment, it also impacts these oak trees. Unless careful corrective measures are taken during construction, the trees ultimately decline and die. The effects that construction has on oak trees with regard to loss of air, water, and nutrients are discussed. The loss of roots and/or top foliage during construction is of major concern. Solutions center on the preservation of driplines during construction, special procedures for grading cuts and fills around oak trees, the use of specialized soil/air drainage systems, and compensatory pruning and fertilization of impacted trees. This paper covers the practices currently used to preserve oak trees in highly developed areas.

All of us appreciate the native oak trees and are familiar with their majestic beauty. But as man continually develops their natural habitats in the coastal valleys and foothills it is inevitable that he will encroach upon them. This encroachment not only creates an unnatural environment for these trees but it often seriously impacts them unless careful corrective measures are taken. This paper will provide an overview of some of these problems and offer some mitigating measures that can help to offset them.

Urban development continually encroaches upon the oak trees' well-being by the construction of homes, roads and utility lines. Additionally, grading changes most seriously impact oak tree roots by both cuts and fills. Ultimately natural drainage courses are changed such that the tree is now forced into an unnatural environment. From this point on, decline is usual, and it is an eternal battle to try to save a tree in this condition. For instance, drainage water from a car-wash rotted the roots of one oak tree so extensively that we were able to pull it straight out of the ground with a crane.

The oak problem in many sites to be developed begins with the army of heavy equipment that is used during grading. This is damaging to the trees, as soil is removed and roots are either severed or filled over and compacted. Additionally, water tables are changed and trees are often neglected during the entire construction period. Compounding this is the dust that accumulates on the leaves. Compaction is often further increased as the trees offer shade to construction workers and their vehicles.

Once grading is completed the construction of buildings also takes its toll on the trees. Utility trenching severs roots and often such trenches are left open for extended periods of time.

Building construction often requires removal of some of a tree's upper structure. Disfiguration by limb breakage is a common occurrence. When pruning is performed, large limbs are often removed or the tree may become somewhat pollarded, which obviously destroys its beauty. Such severe pruning further creates

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1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

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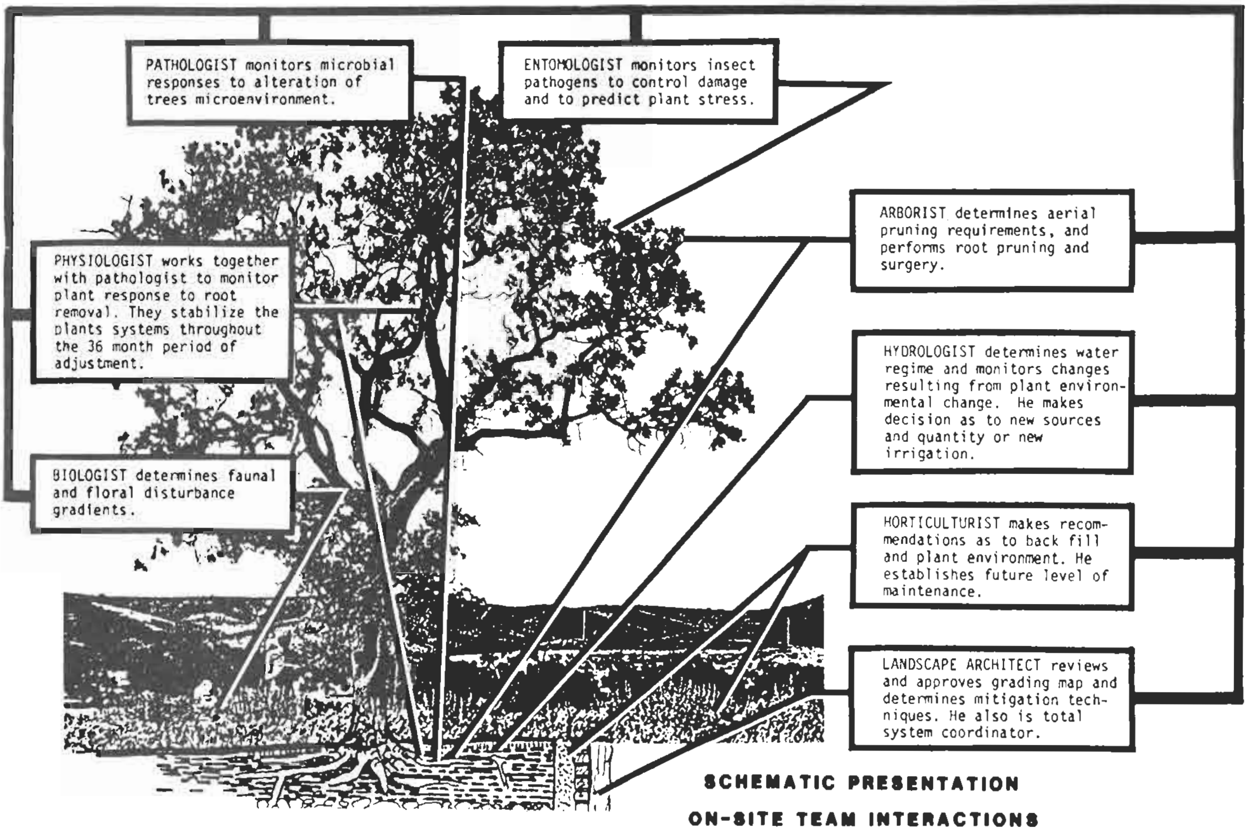

Figure 1--Maintaining healthy oak trees on developed sites requires input from several disciplines.

problems with growth flushes and the subsequent witches broom or powdery mildew diseases.

By far the greatest problem we encounter from development around oak trees are those situations where soil is filled at the trees' bases. This is critical for air and water drainage. Oftimes such fill soil located at the tree's trunk will retain moisture and in time will cause rot and eventually undermine the tree. One declining tree that we investigated had seven feet of fill at its base. After its soil was removed we found that the basal area had already rotted two-thirds around the trunk. It appeared that former construction had damaged the tree trunk and that the presence of soil and its moisture retention had accelerated the demise of this tree.

Once site development is completed the tree problems do not end. This is a critical time for them. Recognize that the trees have been removed from a natural environment, weakened by development and are now located in an artificial environment. Such an environment subjects them to overirrigation, planting at their bases, improper pruning, and perhaps further compaction. In time, it is inevitable that such trees will decline and eventually die.

So, those are the problems -- at least some of them that confront us. It is possible to have successful stands of oak trees in an urban scene. We have many such situations but it does require expertise and money to achieve success. Such an effort encompasses the interfacings of several disciplines (Fig. 1). A discussion of some of these follows.

A good horticultural evaluation of all trees present on a proposed site is most important. Such an evaluation essentially separates the trees into removal and preservation categories. Some times we try to save trees that shouldn't be saved. This is a costly decision because tree removal after construction has been completed is considerably more expensive than earlier removal.

A good horticultural evaluation encompasses an investigation of all tree parts by a knowledgeable person. Upper structure should be examined for cavities, physical weaknesses and possible pest problems. Such pest problems may have to be identified by a pest control advisor and by pathological testing.

Basal parts of the tree must be inspected in detail. Trunks should be examined for cavities or the presence of excessive amounts of fill soil. Not to be overlooked are the trees' roots. Where are they? Are the trees deeply rooted such that construction may not seriously impact them (Fig. 2)? Are they diseased?

TYPICAL OAK TREE RHIZOSPHERE

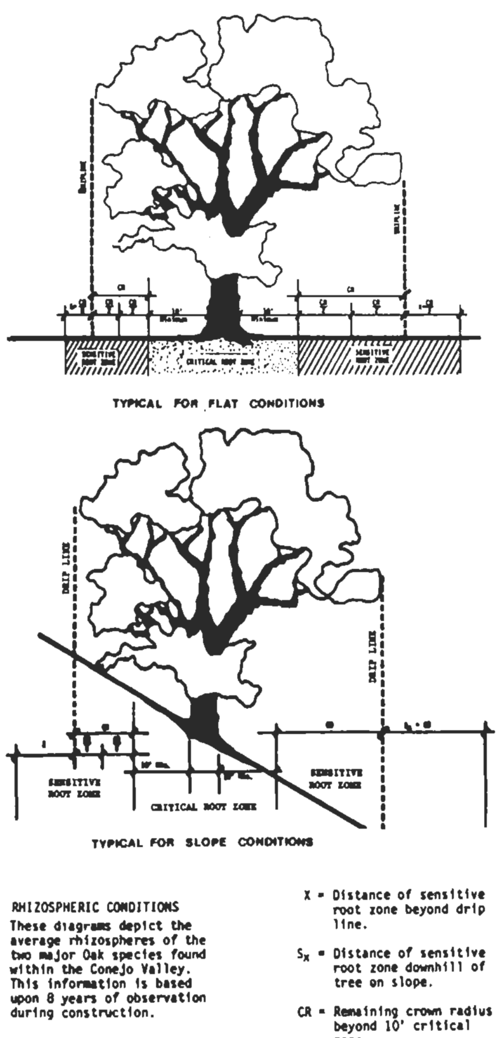

Figure 2--Typical distribution of root zones under the canopy that are "sensitive" or "critical" to the trees' well being.

These examinations must be performed and recorded in order to accumulate as much information as possible on each tree. Such evaluations should include tree sizes relative to height and spread, and root locations so that developers can plan around them to avoid serious impaction.

When evaluating the impact of construction on trees, building and landscape are of key importance. We try to save as many trees as possible and to lessen the impact of construction on them. For example, rather than construct a concrete wall which would disturb a tree's root systems, a wooden fence may suffice, as it would not require trenching for a foundation. Relocation of building pads or utility trenches can also be of great benefit to a tree. Perhaps several utility lines could be placed into one or two trenches -- thereby reducing tree root loss.

Pre-job conferences with all contractors can be of great benefit. Such meetings can enlighten these people about the trees and their care. Also the use of fences placed around oak tree drip lines can assist in assuring that compaction and the dumping of debris is lessened.

Ideally it is best to have all surgical or pruning work done prior to construction. This permits ease of arborcultural work and tree pruning performed often balances the roots lost during construction.

Should special tree wells, watering or feeding be required this is also an excellent time to perform them.

It is important that a knowledgeable person be present or available during all phases of construction. Such a person (usually a horticulturist or arborist) would be monitoring the trees and ensuring that they are properly maintained. Also such a person would have the capability to establish programs for future levels of maintenance.

In summary, then, protecting our oaks is the implementation of a complete program (Fig. 3). Such a program involves pre-site planning, horticultural evaluation and data collection design, and preparation and care of the trees prior to, during, and after construction around them. This program may interface many disciplines such as landscape architects, pathologists, entomologists, horticulturists and others as illustrated. Once these program items have been put into effect, we will be able to have successful oak stands within urban development.

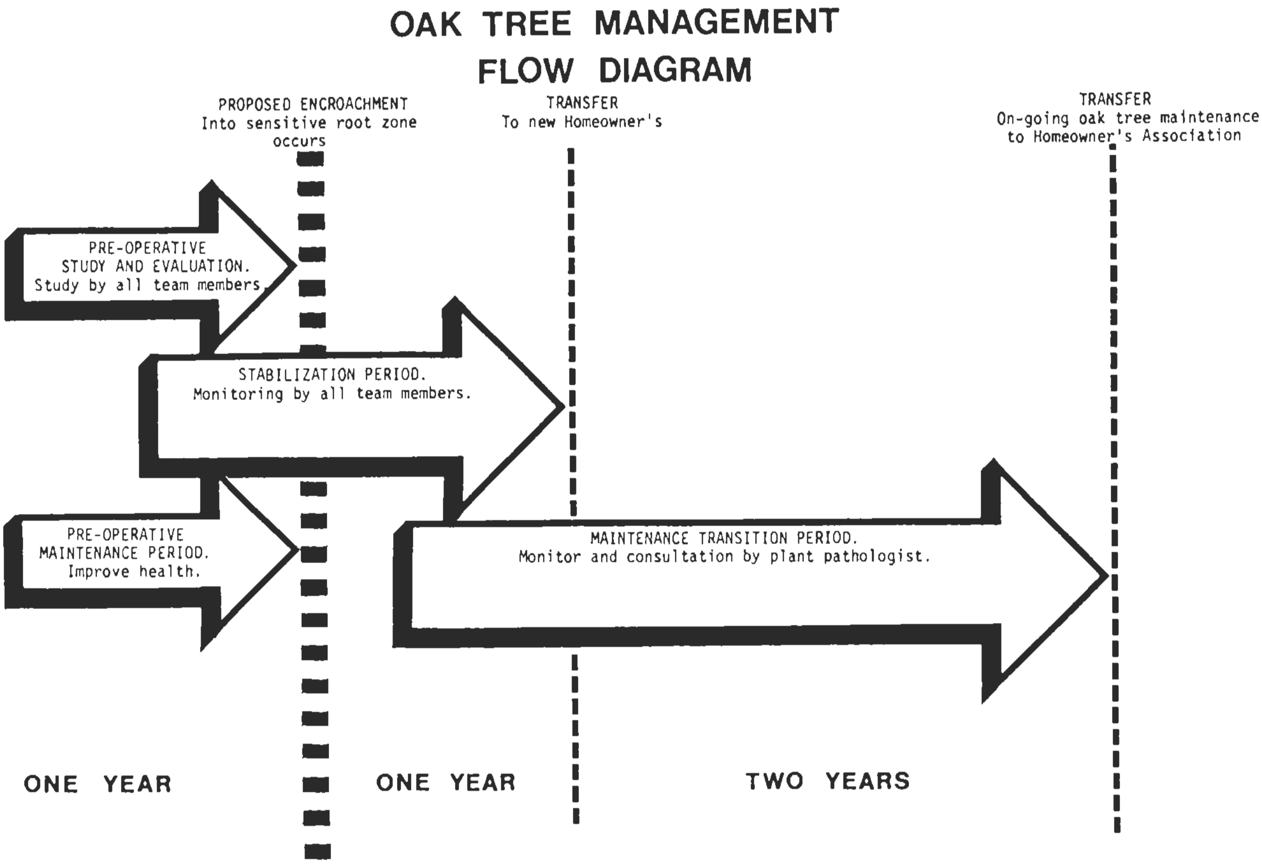

Figure 3--Flow diagram illustrating the critical periods of an oak tree management schedule.

Quercus lobata

Aspects of Water Relations in Coast Live Oaks and Valley Oaks Subjected to Root Damage from Land Development Operations[1]

Stephen W. Roberts[2/] and Robin L. Smith[3/]

Abstract: Xylem pressure potentials and stomatal conductances were intensively monitored in individuals of coast live oak (Quercus agrifolia) and valley oak (Quercus lobata) in order to assess short-term effects on the tree water system resulting from root pruning and land grading operations. Increased water stress was measured in affected trees. The most negative potentials were approximately -30 bars in September and October in both species. Stomatal conductances were typically quite low (0.02 to 0.10 cm s^{-1}). Patterns of stomatal activity were measured which appeared to limit water stress. It was concluded that these oak species possess adaptations which may enhance survival following root system disturbances such as may occur during land development operations.

INTRODUCTION

Southern oak woodland communities in southern California are being increasingly utilized by land development projects. The principal tree species in these communities are vegetationally, ecologically, and aesthetically important community components. In the area of Thousand Oaks, California, Quercus agrifolia (coast live oak), Q. lobata (valley oak), and other oak species have undergone significant habitat modification from recent grazing and farm practices and currently by changed land-use patterns from land developments. The survival and reproduction of oak trees in this rapidly changing environment is of concern to individuals working in the conservation and management areas. These individuals now face important challenges in regard to appropriate treatment of these oak communities.

The oak trees in the study area represent species which have evolved a set of responses to external water availability under environmental constraints which have operated over evolutionary time. Changing land use patterns which alter the water regime for these plants represent an important perturbation to a key environmental factor. In addition, the time scale of such perturbations is short relative to the generation time of the trees, which may live for hundreds of years. Thus, individual trees with a set of response properties largely determined by past evolutionary history must now survive and reproduce under new conditions which may be quite different from conditions under which those properties evolved.

A working hypothesis of this study is that site modification by land development will alter site water balance. The changed water balance should in turn affect a variety of physiological processes in the oaks and other plants. These effects may be detected in changed tree water use patterns through altered leaf stomatal conductances, which govern the exchange of water vapor, CO_2, and other gases, and altered patterns of leaf water potentials, which are related to the ability of plants to extract soil water and which affect rates of a

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1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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number of metabolic processes. This study was designed to test this hypothesis and in so doing provide needed data on water relationships of Q. agrifolia and Q. lobata. These data would then allow a preliminary evaluation of some effects of site modification such as grading, drainage alteration, soil loading by structures, irrigation, and other activities associated with land development.

METHODS

The study site was located on the development known as Ben Johnson's Fairway Homes, near Thousand Oaks, California. The site is on gently rolling terrain dissected by small drainages and intermittent streams. The property is part of North Ranch, and the study area had been used in the past for grazing cattle.

The trees studied were all mature individuals roughly 80 to 100 years old. Tree heights were generally between 20 and 30 feet. The trees for which data are presented are characterized briefly in table 1. Water relations were measured in individuals of Q. agrifolia and Q. lobata which had varying portions of the root system removed as a result of building retaining walls near the trees. The fraction of roots which were removed could not be quantified because the root distributions of the individual trees were not known. However, an approximation of root system disturbance is given by the use of an index as described shortly. The walls involved vertical cuts typically 4-6 feet in depth, located approximately 8-10 feet from the base of a tree. Measurements were also made in undisturbed control trees as a reference by which to gauge the effects measured in the disturbed trees. A crude index of disturbance to the root system was obtained by measuring the length, depth, and distance from the tree base of the trenching cuts. These values were then incorporated into a "root disturbance index" (RDI) using

$$RDI = \sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i \, (L_i/R_i)$$

where D is the depth of the cut, L is the length of the cut, and R is the radial distance of the cut from the tree base. All measurements are in inches. Measurements were taken in increments around each tree and summed to give the total RDI. These indices are given in table 2. The effects of these root-cutting and grading operations were assessed primarily through measurements of xylem pressure potentials. Pressure potentials were measured using a pressure chamber of the type described by Scholander et al. (1965) and by Ritchie and Hinckley (1975). Stomatal diffusion conductances were also measured with a porometer of the type originally described by Kanemasu et al. (1969). During days of tree water relation measurements, air temperature and wet bulb temperature were measured with a shaded sling psychrometer. Photosynthetically active solar radiation (PAR) was also measured. Soil psychrometers were installed to measure soil water potentials at 5, 20, and 60 cm depths.

Table 1--Brief characterization of study tree settings.

Individual tree	Comments
18, 19, 20 (QL)	Located on a ridgetop, in well-drained, somewhat sandier soil than is typical at the study site.
787 (QA)	Located off the study site, used as one of the control trees.
89, 92, 93, 94 (QL)	Located in close proximity to each other on gently sloping terrain typical of the study site.

Table 2--Root Disturbance Index measured for the trees in this study.

Tree	Root Disturbance Index (RDI)
	—— Inches ——
QL-18	0, 298[1/]
QL-19	510
QA-89	419
QA-92	0, 1129[1/]
QA-93	340
QA-94	229
QA-787	0

[1/]When serving as a control tree, RDI = 0: final RDI was calculated following grading operations.

Daily courses of leaf water relations were measured beginning at dawn. Pressure bomb leaf samples were obtained using a climber who extensively sampled all levels and exposures in the tree canopy. These data indicated that a major source of variability in pressure potentials was the recent previous condition of exposure of the leaves to solar radiation. Analysis of these measurements revealed that the horizontal variability was as great as the vertical variability in the canopy. Thus, subsequent sampling was concentrated at lower canopy levels, allowing more trees to be studied. Leaves were systematically sampled from the four compass directions. While the within-canopy variation was often significant, mean values and standard errors were calculated because our major interest in this study was in characterizing whole-tree responses.

All oak trees on the study property were previously surveyed, identified, and cataloged[4]. All the tree identification numbers mentioned in this study refer to those assigned in the earlier studies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A brief summary of climatic conditions is presented in table 3. These are provided to assist in interpreting daily courses of plant water relations which are presented later.

[4]Unpublished reports by James Dean, Lee Newman and Associates, Westlake Village, California.

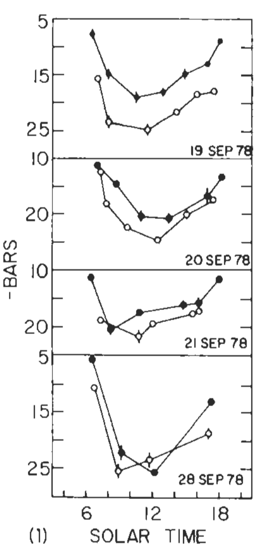
Table 3--Weather characteristics during days of tree water relation measurements. Given are maximum air temperature (T_{max}), maximum vapor pressure deficit of the air (VPD_{max}), average dew point temperature (T_{dew}), average vapor pressure of the air ($\bar{E}$), and soil water potentials at 60 cm depth (Ψ_{60}).

Date	T_{max}	VPD_{max}	T_{dew}	$\bar{E}$	Ψ_{60}
	°C	mb	°C	mb	-bars
19 Sep 78	26.0	29.4	- 5.6	4.02	-
20 Sep 78	27.1	31.8	- 5.5	4.07	-
21 Sep 78	31.2	42.6	- 5.1	4.18	-
28 Sep 78	35.1	44.1	+11.1	13.21	-
30 Sep 78	33.0	40.3	+12.3	14.28	-
04 Oct 78	25.7	16.8	+15.1	17.00	33
11 Oct 78	33.0	43.3	+ 2.7	7.44	-
12 Oct 78	34.9	50.6	+ 7.2	10.14	-
13 Oct 78	36.5	55.2	+ 7.3	10.19	-
24 Oct 78	26.5	20.8	+ 9.5	11.81	21
06 Dec 78	7.9	8.6	- 8.5	3.21	13
09 Feb 79	18.7	14.4	+ 4.0	8.13	[1]

[1]Reading close to zero bars, outside the range of the psychrometer.

Measurements were made in late September to characterize short-term changes in the daily course of pressure potentials in Q. agrifolia subjected to root pruning. Two trees growing on even terrain approximately 120 feet apart were selected. One, Q. agrifolia number 92 (QA-92) had no root system disturbance and served as a control for Q. agrifolia number 94 (QA-94) which underwent root pruning. These data are presented in figure 1. On 19 September 1978, daily courses of xylem pressure potential were measured for both trees prior to root cutting. The root cutting on QA-94 was accomplished between 0840 and 0920 solar time on 20 September 1978. The daily courses for QA-92 were similar on both 19 and 20 September 1978, while QA-94 showed a midday negative shift of about 2 bars following the root cutting. Further measurements showed that QA-94 achieved daily minimum pressure potentials similar to the control QA-92, but had generally high dawn potentials and apparently more rapid afternoon recovery. The major short-term effect, thus, appeared to be the development of more stressful midday potentials, but overnight recovery, as indicated by the dawn potentials, did not appear to be affected.

Similar measurements were made before and following root cutting on Q. lobata tree numbers 18 and 19 (QL-18, QL-19). These data are presented in figure 2. On 28 September 1978, daily courses were measured in QL-18, which served as a short-term control,



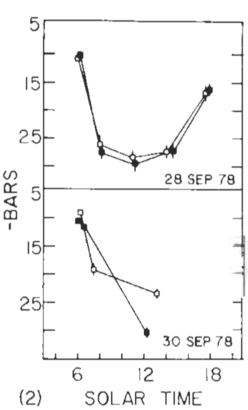
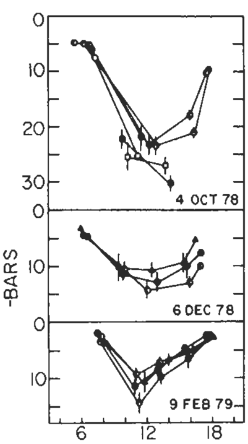


Figure 1--Daily courses of xylem potential with standard errors for QA-92 (○) and QA-94 (●). Vertical bars are standard errors.

Figure 2--Daily courses of xylem potential with standard errors for QL-18 (□) and QL-19 (■).

and QL-19 on the day prior to root pruning. The trees showed similar daily courses in pressure potential, both in the dawn and midday minimum values. Root cutting and trenching were carried out on 29 September 1978, and measurements were again made on 30 September 1978. Again, similar to the earlier data on QA-94, the dawn potentials were similar in QL-18 and QL-19. However, the midday values were notably different, with QL-19 showing midday potentials of around -30 bars, while QL-18 showed values of about -24 bars.

Data in figure 3 are presented to illustrate a broader sample of trees over longer time periods. The daily courses measured on 4 October 1978 show QA-93, QA-94, and QA-89 with similar patterns. QL-18 and QL-19 developed more negative daytime potentials than did the other study trees, probably because of local edaphic conditions at the sandier ridgetop site of QL-18 and QL-19.



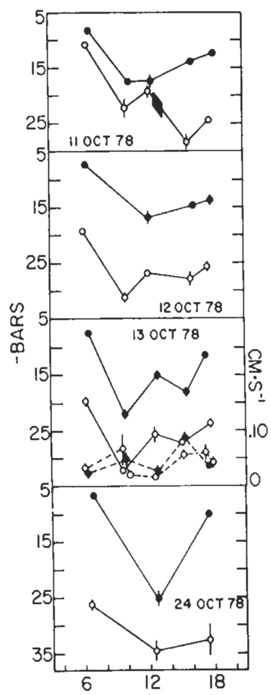


Figure 3--Daily courses of xylem potential with standard errors for QA-89 (◓), QA-92 (○), QA-93 (◐), QA-94 (●), QA-787 (▲), QL-18 (□), and QL-19 (■).

Figure 4--Daily courses of xylem potential with standard errors for QA-92 (○) and QA-94 (●). Also shown are leaf conductances in dashed lines on 13 October 1978. Cross-hatched area on 11 October 1978 indicates the root cutting period on QA-92.

Data presented in figure 3 for 6 December 1978 and 9 February 1979 show daily courses of pressure potentials during the winter wet season when soil moisture is replenished. Daily minimum potentials fell in the -10 to -15 bar range and dawn potentials were in the -2 to -4 bar range. QA-787 is included in these data. This tree was located off the study site and was used as a permanent control tree which would not be affected by land development operations.

The period of 11-13 October 1978 involved a study of short-term effects of large-scale disruptions to root systems. QA-92, which was scheduled for eventual removal, was selected for experimental root manipulations. In early afternoon on 11 October 1978, a trench was dug 8 to 10 feet deep around approximately 70% of a circle formed at a radial distance of two feet from the base of the tree. Morning values of potential in tree QA-92 (figure 4) were 3-4 bars more negative than the other trees, similar to other measurements on this tree on earlier occasions. Root-cutting operations began shortly after 1200 solar time. Measurements at around 1540 revealed that potentials had decreased markedly in tree QA-92, reaching a mean value of -28 bars at a time when QA-94 showed a value of -14 bars. QA-92 then partially recovered in late afternoon to approximately -24 bars at 1750.

The following day, 12 October 1978, the dawn potential measurements of -19 bars showed that tree 92 was unable to completely recover from the previous day's water deficit. QA-94 recovered to a dawn value of about -7 bars. QA-92 exhibited substantially more stressful midday potentials than QA-94, showing a minimum value of -31 bars while QA-94 developed minimum potentials of -17 to -18 bars.

Measurements made on 13 October 1978 again revealed the same basic difference between the radically root-cut QA-92 and QA-94 which had a much smaller fraction of cut roots. Lack of overnight recovery was again apparent in QA-92, which had a dawn potential of -19 bars, while QA-94 showed values of about -7 bars. Throughout the day tree 92 showed potentials which were substantially more negative than QA-94. Minimum potential was -32 bars in QA-92, and -22 bars in QA-94.

13 October 1978 was a high stress day in terms of air temperature and the evaporative "demand" of the atmosphere (table 3). These environmental conditions brought out a stomatal water stress response pattern which is shown in figure 4, and which is linked to the development of leaf water potentials. The daily course of potential in trees QA-92 and

QA-94 all showed a midmorning minimum, then a partial early afternoon recovery followed by a midafternoon minimum and, finally, a partial late afternoon recovery. These time trends in potential are related to the time course of stomatal conductance. Midmorning conductances were at a relative maximum, promoting higher rates of water loss by transpiration and the subsequent development of decreasing potentials. The midday decrease in stomatal conductance, indicating a partial stomatal closure under water stress, resulted in a partial midday recovery in potential. Stomata re-opened in midafternoon with a consequent decrease in potentials and began closure in late afternoon with a corresponding increase in potentials. This linkage between stomatal activity and potential indicates that Q. agrifolia is able to regulate water use in response to external environmental factors which affect tree water balance and internal factors of water stress which affect a number of processes in plant tissues.

The effects of the root cutting on QA-92 persisted through time as shown on 24 October 1978. It is not known if QA-92 could have survived this water stress regime because it was removed for road construction in late October 1978. The indications are that the root disturbance in QA-92 produced much more damaging and possibly irreversible effects when compared to root disturbance effects measured in the other trees. Thus, there are limits in the magnitude of root system disturbance which the trees can accomodate without major disruption in the tree water system.

CONCLUSIONS

Water relations measurements taken at the study site over the period September 1978 through February 1979 indicate that increased water stress occurred in individuals of Q. agrifolia and Q. lobata which have been subjected to disturbances to the tree water system through root cutting and grading operations. The measurements of water stress, as characterized by xylem pressure potentials, were not of such magnitude as to suggest impending lethal effects; rather, the trees incurred chronic water stresses which would accumulate over time. The potentials of root-pruned trees fell within the range of values reported elsewhere for these oaks (Griffin 1973). It must be stressed that these were carefully managed root pruning and grading operations and the same conclusions may not apply for trees subjected to more routine trenching and grading operations in and near the tree root zone. Drastic root pruning on an experimental tree showed immediate disruptive patterns of pressure potential, establishing that there are clearly limits as to the degree of root damage these oaks can withstand in their present environment.

From these short-term data, it is not yet possible to evaluate long-term effects of such a water stress regime. Plants have evolved a number of mechanisms to compensate for environmental fluctuations in water availability, and this may be particularly true for these Quercus species presumably adapted to the mediterranean summer drought climate pattern. Future measurements will clarify some of the responses of these trees to root system disturbance and fluctuation in water availability, responses which must be understood before adequate oak management programs can be developed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Mr. James Dean for the foresight to suggest these studies be undertaken and Mr. Ken Rattner for permitting measurements to be carried out at the study site. Dr. Phil McDonald provided helpful criticism which improved the manuscript.

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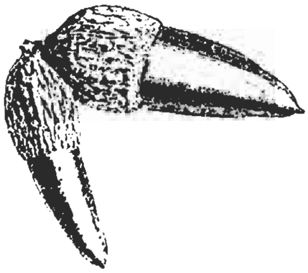

Quercus agrifolia

Oak Tree Banks and Relocation[1]

Richard D. Cross[2]

Abstract: A problem facing both developers and conservationists is how to save valuable oaks in urban developments when they are in a road right-of-way or future building space. Our unique solution is that if a tree is in good condition, it can be dug up and moved. Instead of boxing a tree we trench around it, dig it up, and move it to another location. In this way, many trees can be moved each day. Another facet of this operation is the temporary storage of trees in what we term "tree banks" for up to 3 years duration. The trees are laid in trenches and partially covered with soil. One-time relocation has been successful 85 to 95 percent of the time.

There is a tremendous amount of encroachment and urbanization that has a significant effect on oak trees. Much of it is detrimental. What we have proposed in the last four years is that many trees do not have to be cut down if a road is going through. You can relocate the tree. It can be removed and taken -- stored in the ground. If a roadway is going through it's mainly a decision whether or not the tree should stay or go. Should we preserve the tree by putting a costly well around it, or should we take the tree out? Now, if the tree is in the middle of the roadway, or a condominium is going to be put in, in most cases the tree is taken out. It's expensive to redesign around trees. And in many cases if you redesign around the tree, there are serious consequences that you have to deal with later which involve more expense.

All too often in Southern California we find a particular site where they're going to cut down a slope and fill a valley, so they not only have to cut out the trees that are on the top, but they have to fill in and actually remove the trees on the bottom.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

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The ideal thing is to have the tree in the landscaping. In fact, you can remove the tree and relocate it back in again after you have built that particular project. Say, building a condominium or a roadway, or what have you. Trees can be moved -- small trees, large trees. Now, I should say oaks have been moved before, using a boxing technique. The problem with this is that boxing is very expensive and time consuming. When the developer gets that grading permit, he has a loan out from the bank and he wants to start grading. He can't wait around for two or three months, six months, up to a year boxing trees. He has to move right away because time is money. He wants to get the homes built and sold. So the developer needs to move in quickly. The best way to do this is burying the tree or digging the tree out with a bulldozer, not boxing it. This may sound radical, but it can be done. We'll be working in conjunction with the City of Los Angeles on a pilot project. We'll be taking some trees out that are about 65 feet high with about a 70-foot spread. We will move eight or ten of those in twelve hours.

The ideal way is to move the tree in one day, if you can. We have moved up to 12-inch diameter trees. We have moved up to eighteen trees in a single day.

In some cases we store the trees for as long as a year. They'll build the pads, start putting up the frames on the house, then the trees can be taken out of the storage area.

When they're laid we'll dig a ditch 8, 10, 12 feet deep, and lay the tree in, and then fill in as much soil as possible on the tree.

Now, with pads that developers put up, the soil is compacted; so you can't leave a tree in its original position in many cases because they have to compact to 90 percent. They have to dry the soil down hard so the structure will stand over the years. And this is a very severe trauma for your oak tree. That's why many of them in urban situations will succumb even if you're building around them.

So if you've got the room, you store your trees, and you move them later; and you can also take your oak trees and put them in more advantageous positions. An oak tree in front of a home is worth a great deal more money than it is in the back.

If you're going to move an oak tree in this fashion, there are certain things you have to take into consideration. One of them is, select a proper site. You have to be very careful that you don't run into a situation where a hole was dug to receive the tree, and underground water filled the hole. Just imagine what would happen if the tree was put in there! So site selection is very important.

Trees that are not weakened, and are free from pests and fungus can be moved. Insects such as the western sycamore borer (*Ramosia resplendens*) often hit trees weakened by drought. Check for these. You don't want to move a tree that is severely hit or in a state of decline.

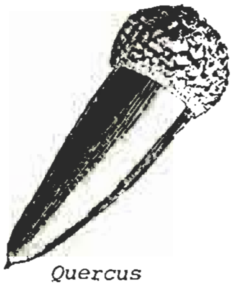
The Pacific flatheaded borer (*Chrysobothris mali*) is a potential pest both before and after moving a tree. If you're going to relocate or store trees, you first have to diagnose the trees' condition. Many trees are moved that shouldn't be, even boxed trees. If they're moved and not taken care of properly, a flight of borers will move in and take out the trees. This is probably the major pest attacking relocated oak trees.

Also check for wind damage. You should prune the damaged branches because in many cases you will put the tree near a building or near a place where a building will be erected. You don't want to be liable for damage to the building.

What we're trying to say is there are other alternatives. It's not a case of a tree has to go, or does it stay, and what do we do to preserve it? You can now take trees out. We feel that before you cut the tree down, you can relocate it. If you can't relocate it, store it for a year, two years, three years. Then take the tree out and put it back where you want it. You can do this, and I think that the landscapers, in the upcoming years will be able to use the environment we have, rather than bringing in trees that decline, that are not indigenous to this area, trees such as eucalyptus that create a problem of maintenance, pest problems and such. This is a new approach, but it's going to find favor with a lot of landscape architects.

In storing, we lay trees down at an angle depending on the type of tree. If the tree with multiple branches has a big spread, you really can't lay it down; but trees that come off hillsides and dense growth grow straighter, so you can lay them down. We tried it to conserve as much space as possible. In the Calabasas area we stored 90 or 95 trees.

We can move the trees in the summertime or the wintertime. We prefer -- I know this sounds radical -- but we prefer to move the trees in the summer rather than the winter. If you've ever had a D-9 "Cat", a large piece of machinery, if you get into soft soil, wet soil, she'll go right to the belly pan, and you're stuck there with the machine. But we have found that in summertime it's ideal. We don't worry about the heat problem. I worry more about my machinery getting in and out.



Quercus lobata

Characteristics of Root Systems: California Oaks[1]

W. D. Thomas[2]

Abstract: Intensive examination of root systems for 21 oaks (Quercus lobata and Q. agrifolia), during excavation in a development project in the Conejo Valley (Ventura County, California), indicated that the major root zones were within 5 to 8 feet from the stem. Buttress roots within that distance send down sinker roots as far as 30 ft. with lateral feeder roots emanating at interfaces between different soil types in the soil profile. Shallow lateral roots with feeder roots only at the tips may extend as far as 90 ft. from the stem; these are assumed to be winter feeder roots. Tap roots on all trees, regardless of species, were degenerate and non-functional. Most roots had infections by Dothiorella querci and/or Phytophthora cinnamomi, many of which had been compartmentalized. Excision of up to 45% of entire root systems have met with no deleterious effects over six months; all roots were coated with Tree-Heal and wrapped with plastic until the excavations were backfilled.

This study was part of a research program at Thousand Oaks. North Ranch and Westlake Village comprise a very expensive development sponsored by my friend, Johnson Holmes. The project is still not completed. It will be two or three months before we can wrap up all our data.

This has been one of the projects that tree men dream of because it gave us the rare opportunity to study the characteristics of the oak roots. I entitle my talk "California Oaks" because the eastern oaks have somewhat different characteristics. We are talking about trees that are adapted to long drought periods and then lengthy stretches of wet weather, soaking rains, washing and so forth.

Hence we see different characteristics than those which appear in either the eastern or southern oaks. But for the contractors and developers who are concerned with this problem, the study is extremely valuable.

Most of the impacted oaks are on an area that has been rather highly grazed. Trees are scattered rather than occurring in large groups. In our study area we found 21 trees impacted by construction. At the time we did not know it was possible to lift trees, bury them for a time, and then replace them.

We selected one of the oaks which was lost to construction activity. This became our study tree and we tore it completely apart. We dug it out and manicured the roots so we could study them. We had to give our help two or three lectures about roots so as to maintain a high level of interest on their part.

Now this tree appeared to be a very solid one. It was one of the most beautiful on the construction site. But as we dug around it we found it became weak from a loss of roots, and split at the crotch. Inside we found a core of carbon. Apparently the tree had grown around the parent which had been damaged by fire a long time ago. The core was solid carbon and we detected no decay in this area. Underneath the core, however, we found

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1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

2/ Forest-Ag, Lafayette, California

decay where the fire had not hit.

One of the characteristics of these California oaks is a degenerate tap root. It appears to be active in the young oaks but then for some reason which is not clear to us, it degenerates as the tree matures. It is unusual to find old oaks with a solid tap root. As we cut through we find that most of the roots occur within the two-to-three-foot zone. As we penetrate below two to three feet the secondary roots are rarely found.

We find that if we are going to encounter mycorrhizal activity it will occur within the first foot or two of the stem. Farther out we find a paucity of mycorrhiza. The litter and everything that collects under the tree favors the development of fungi.

Now one of the most striking observations we make is the development of sinker roots. These sinkers will come as laterals, going down from the secondary or buttress roots somewhere within five feet, or closer, to the stem. Seldom do we encounter sinker roots beyond five feet. But we could expect anywhere from three to ten sinker roots around a tree, within three to four feet of the stem. Apparently these are the roots which provide the survival mechanism for these trees during the dry seasons.

Looking at the map of the root zone of this particular tree it is evident that the laterals which were found went clear out to 60 feet. If we look at the root zone of the profile, we find that on one side we see nothing beyond six feet from the stem. Coming around on the south side of the tree we had a group of laterals coming down to three feet, but we had a great big, over-two-inch lateral, down in the three-to-four-foot zone. Others are less than two inches in size. Moving around the tree we find a little cluster of laterals probably coming from one major group. Going around on the other side of the tree we find laterals out past the 50 foot marker as well as a small cluster right around the stem and another great big lateral down at the four foot zone.

This was the basic root structure of this particular tree which we sacrificed.

Now during the process of our examination all of the roots were hand-dug and cut, were wrapped with plastic and painted with tree-heal. There's some question in my mind about the value of this procedure. I think we probably could have sprayed the roots with paraffin just as well, because we found that whatever the situation was, some drying the cut roots showed drying for about two inches up from the cut. Others dried for three or four inches. But be that as it may, the callus had formed around this area, almost immediately upon cutting. It is almost impossible to get there and treat that root before it callused to set up its own protective mechanism.

Other surprising things we found were these snake-like winter feeder roots. One particular feeder was rather neat. It lay about six or eight inches beneath the surface, running out as far as 90 feet. Except right at the tip, there were no feeder roots on it. The small tip feeder roots looked much like the tail of a poodle dog.

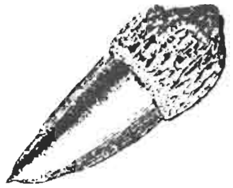
Along the roots we found quite a bit of infection. We isolated Dothiorella querci and Phytophthora cinnamomi. In many cases the roots had compartmentalized around these infections and the tree had gone on to add additional roots. The natural mechanism the trees have for withstanding many of these infections is just amazing. In fact we also found Streptomycytes that were working on some roots and an abundance of Trichoderma.

On one root about 60 feet from the trunk we found Dothiorella and Fusarium and clear out here the tree had compartmentalized around it.

As far as the depth is concerned, it's fascinating because we found that at every layer of the soil zones we would see mats of feeder roots. Then the root would go on down and there would be another cluster of feeders. There was a beautiful layering of feeder roots in each transitional zone in the soil profile. This continued to a depth of 30 feet. So these are the areas from which the tree is obtaining its sustenance.

In the case of one particular tree where a wall was to be built, we cut out about 45% of the root system and several people were of the opinion that it would die. We did the cutting during the August dormancy. The tree, however, had large roots, three feet deep, extending out as far as 80 to 90 feet in the direction opposite the wall. The root system which was left did the job. Next spring the tree leaved out before the others did and it came out beautifully.

So much depends on the kind of care we give these oaks, and the protection they receive. On the last check 11 months after cutting, we have yet to lose a tree on this development. We have not seen a tree really wilt if we are giving it proper water. So you see it is possible to come out with beautiful trees in a well-developed program.



Quercus agrifolia

California Oaks and Outdoor Recreation[1]

Sam S. Alfano
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Abstract: California oaks have played an important part in western Indian culture as well as the colonization of the State by the Spanish. The desires of farmers, ranchers, subdividers and other land users have caused a decline in the oak stands throughout the State. Some of the most desirable recreation sites located in California are located in oak groves. These oaks not only provide shade and shelter but also are the habitats of many wildlife species that provide visual enjoyment to the outdoor recreationist. It is essential that we retain, wherever possible, the remaining stands of oak, not only in our recreation sites throughout the State, but also in and adjacent to our growing communities. It is also essential that we pursue silvicultural practices that will assure growth of young trees in our old growth stands throughout the State.

It was Washington Irving who said, "He who plants an oak looks forward to future ages and plants for posterity. Nothing can be less selfish than this."

If Gallup took a poll of the most scenic and picturesque native trees of California, there is no doubt in my mind that California oaks would head the list.

There is no question that oak species had a special significance in early European culture. English oak, for example, provided fuel, timber for ship building, wood for housing and forests which generated such tales of hope, freedom and adventure as the legend of Robin Hood. Strong, tough and robust, the oak was a symbol of manhood.

The California oaks were just as significant to Indian culture. Although acorns provided a major footstuff for many Indian tribes, it can be assumed that they also attached special aesthetic and perhaps spiritual values to these bountiful trees. One can imagine the joy and excitement that took place as the women and children found their way along ancient trails to the oak groves. There was, no doubt, a feeling of pleasure and exhilaration to be in and among these ample providers of food, who modified the heat of summer, winds of fall, coldness of winter and the rains of spring.

The oaks played an integral part in the Spanish culture, for the early Mission trail from San Diego to Monterey wound among the forests of oak. Beneath the outstretched limbs of a coast live oak, Padre Junipero Serra, in 1770, planted his cross and celebrated the first mass conducted on the Monterey Peninsula. The Spanish explorers interpreted the coast live oak as an indicator of fertile land and evidence of suitable location for residences. American pioneers did so as well. And even today, in this time of stress and pressure, just walking down a leaf-covered lane brings serenity and peace of mind.

Fifteen of America's 68 species of oak grow in California. If one examines a distribution map of the common species of California oaks, it is evident that they are adaptable to a wide range of elevations, soils and climates.

There is no estimate of the acreage occupied by oaks before the white man arrived in California. There is an estimate by some

1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

experts, however, that originally 800,000 acres of riparian habitat occupied by oaks existed in California and has now been reduced to some 12,000 acres. In the Coast Ranges and Sierra Nevada foothills, ranchers burn, spray and bulldoze blue oaks to turn woodlands into grasslands under the questionable assumption that fewer oaks will mean more grass for cattle. The continuing reduction of oak stands throughout California further emphasizes the need to retain the remaining acreage for outdoor recreation purposes.

Another point about conversion concerns water. A number of people today want to see the deciduous oak forests cut down and replaced with conifers. They are forgetting one of the big costs of conversion--the cost of water lost by switching from deciduous hardwoods to conifers. Conifers intercept rain and snow in their crowns and much of it is lost by evaporation. Deciduous hardwoods, on the other hand, allow the precipitation to fall through the crowns to the ground. Here the evaporative forces are much less. In a study in the southeast, annual streamflow, which is water available for reservoir storage, decreased by 20% fifteen years after the area was converted from a mature deciduous hardwood forest to white pine (Swank and Douglass 1974). This loss will continue and probably worsen as the pines grow larger and drink more water. Other studies in the southeast and north central states have shown similar results.

Because water recreation is an inherent part of outdoor recreation, and because I think Californians are going to need all the water they can get, this concerns me.

Adaptability to a harsh and variable environment makes these species extremely important to the outdoor recreationist. The valley oaks located on deep soils in the interior valleys are observed by the passing motorist as eye-catching silhouettes which break up the monotony of the landscape. The California black oak, which is found in a wide range of elevations throughout the State, is known for its scenic beauty throughout the year and especially when the species puts on its colorful fall display.

The coast live oaks are generally found along our valleys and water courses throughout the State. These are mostly evergreen species and provide continuous shade and shelter to outdoor visitors. It is not by chance that many of the campgrounds, parks and picnic sites throughout southern California and other parts of the State, are located in oak groves.

California black oak in southern California campgrounds and picnic areas is likely to increase in the future. A virulent fungus (fomes annosus) attacks the roots of local conifers and kills them in patches up to four or five acres in size. New seedlings contract the disease and soon perish as well. Seedlings of California black oak seem relatively immune to this pathogen and, consequently, are being used to replace the conifers. Likewise, photochemical smog is killing conifers while California black oak is little damaged. The ability to shed smog-laden leaves in the fall is one big advantage of being deciduous.

The need for quickly establishing vigorous young black oak seedlings has stimulated research in growing and outplanting this and other oak species. Nearly 100 acres on Liebre Mountain in the Angeles National Forest will be set aside for tests aimed at developing planting stock and outplanting methodology for successful establishment of these oak species.

The attractiveness of oak groves to the outoor recreationist and to the recreation planner is understandable. Yet the desirability of these locations presents a relatively minor but nevertheless certain amount of risk to the user. The landscape architect is careful to avoid the unnecessary removal of trees when he designs a recreation facility. He avoids road locations that may necessitate the removal of large limbs and cut root systems. With all his carefulness, however, the problem of tree (including oak) failure in campgrounds, parks and picnic sites has concerned many agencies throughout the State.

In 1968 a California live oak fell across a tent located in the Cerro Alto Campground within the Los Padres National Forest. Fortunately, no one was killed but an elderly woman had to be hospitalized for nearly eight months.

On a quiet spring day, what appeared to be a sound canyon live oak fell with a crash into a campground unit within the Wheeler Gorge Campground. A young boy received minor injuries and some $600 worth of damage was done to a recreation vehicle.

An Easter Sunday almost turned into a day of tragedy as the heavy limb of a canyon live oak within Tuckers Grove County Park collapsed onto picnickers. Three persons were treated at Goleta Valley Hospital for minor injuries. In spite of these near misses, millions of visitor days have been spent in southern California campgrounds without injury.

Questions on oak soundness often are raised by park rangers and campground attendants. Annual inspections of sites to note dead limbs and canker growth are essential. Examination of core samples obtained from an increment borer can provide signs of heart rot in the trees. Both are being done in Forest Service campgrounds.

The best information on tree failures in recreation areas has been compiled by Dr. Lee A. Paine and his associates located at the Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Experiment Station at Berkeley, California. Dr. Paine's publications entitled, "Tree Failure and Accidents in Recreation Areas: A Guide to Data Management for Hazard Control," "Accident Hazard Evaluation and Control Decisions on Forested Recreation Sites," and "Administrative Goals and Safety Standards for Hazard Control on Forested Recreation Sites" constitute an extremely good basis for evaluation of oak hazard problems.

This national computerized program provides for five classes of failure: upper bole, lower bole, butt, limb and root system. A query to the computer will show how many failures injured people or damaged property and what costs are involved. Failures can be related to species of oak, defects contributing to the failure, triggering environmental factors, tree diameter, tree age, elevation of the site, time of day and the year in which the failure occurred. Currently Los Padres National Forest personnel are conducting annual reviews of recreation sites to assess the hazardous tree situation.

In our zeal to remove seemingly hazardous trees, however, it has become necessary to use a certain amount of good judgment. An apparently hollow oak may be the home of a spotted owl, the refuge of the California grey squirrel, the nesting place of the Steller jay or a perch for a sparrow hawk. In California alone, more than 45 wildlife species consume acorns, including woodpeckers, band-tailed pigeons, Steller jays, raccoons and ground squirrels. Acorn mast also constitutes a significant percentage of the diet of many birds and mammals. It is this interrelationship of wildlife to oak stands that draws the outdoor visitor to see and hear the many wildlife species that abound within these ecosystems. This interrelationship appears to have been recognized by forest managers who manage the thousands of acres of California black oak in the higher elevations throughout the State.

The importance of oaks in the valleys, foothills and forests has not drawn the attention that is needed. It is imperative that outdoor recreation managers begin to regenerate the valley and live oak species by pooling the latest information on oak silviculture.

Recently a 10-acre site was planted to canyon live oak seedlings on the Santa Barbara District on the Los Padres Forest. Stock in five-gallon containers was outplanted using the latest techniques. Although the seedlings were well cared for during the hot dry summer months, the roots provided succulent dinners for hundreds of ground squirrels in the area.

To avoid this problem, the roots of oak seedlings planted in the Sage Hill Campground located across the river were covered with a 1-inch wire mesh. Hopefully, this technique will allow the root systems to take hold before being eaten by ground squirrels.

The successes and failures regarding oak regeneration need to be shared by all concerned, so that the least amount of time, effort, and money is lost, and so that we can again reestablish thrifty stands of oak throughout the valleys and foothills in this State.

We should not overlook the outstanding aesthetic value provided by such oaks. Vast acreage throughout the valleys and foothills have been grazed by cattle to the extent that young oak seedlings are nonexistent. Who is responsible for maintaining these last vestiges of what was once an ocean of green? The aesthetic appreciation of oaks as a form of outdoor recreation is evident by the care given to featured trees in urban areas. Unfortunately, too many oaks are eliminated for subdivisions, shopping centers and other asphalt and concrete facilities. The quality of the urban environment could be enhanced so much more if only oaks, and plenty of them, were to grace the streets and buildings.

The sensitivity of the Indians for oaks is found in a statement made by Sitting Bull. He proclaimed, "I wish all to know that I do not propose to sell any part of my country, nor will I have the whites cutting our timber along the river, more especially the oak. I love to look at them because they endure the wintry storms and summer heat, and not unlike ourselves, seem to flourish by them." Let us heed Sitting Bull's proclamation so that future generations can see the magnificence of our native California oaks and recreate under their spreading branches.

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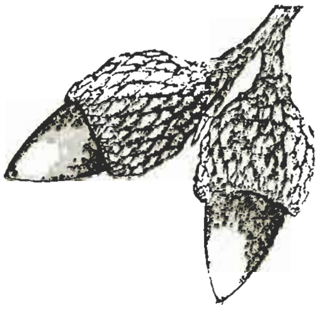
Damage Factors


Quercus wislizenii

Insects Feeding on California Oak Trees[1]

Leland R. Brown[2]

Abstract: The typical damage and the distinguishing characteristics of the injurious stage are described and illustrated for the following 11 important and/or common insects feeding on California oak trees, categorized as: Sucking insects: oak pit scales, crown whitefly; Leaf-consuming insects: California oak moth, tent caterpillars, fruittree leafroller; Boring insects: western sycamore borer, oak twig girdler; Acorn insects: filbertworm, filbert weevil; and Gall insects: two-horned oak gall, distorted leaf gall. The management of these categories of injurious insects is discussed, emphasizing the philosophy and decision-making process.

INTRODUCTION

Insects are one of the important categories of "damage factors" affecting oaks. In California well over 125 insect species have been recorded feeding on various parts of oak trees. Approximately 15 of these insects are of major importance to oaks; a few of these important insects are discussed here.

For the person managing oaks it is logical to categorize insect pests by the part of the oak they feed on. This subdivides the large number of oak insects into groups of less formidable size, and in large part these groups are natural in that sucking pests are together, chewing larvae of moths and beetles are grouped, etc. Furthermore, control measures are frequently the same for insects feeding the same way on the same plant part. Thus the sequence of insects discussed here is as follows: sucking insects; leaf-consuming insects; boring insects on trunks, limbs, and twigs; boring insects in acorns; and gall insects.

What the oak manager will do about insects feeding on this tree may depend on where it is. The infested tree on an urban homelot may require an immediate spraying of insecticide, whereas such an oak in a wild, forested area may require observation and the encouragement of natural predators and parasites. The final part of this paper will discuss what man can do to regulate populations of these injurious insects.

For a more detailed account of California oak insects and their management, the reader may wish to write the author for a copy of Brown and Eads (1965). Most species mentioned here are well covered by Furniss and Carolin (1977) which is available to most foresters.

SUCKING INSECTS

Sucking insects include whiteflies, aphids, leafhoppers, tree-hoppers, and scale insects. The long, stylet-like mouthparts of these insects are inserted into or near the vascular system of the oak, generally the phloem, and the watery, sugar-containing sap is withdrawn, sometimes in quantities that kill leaves and twigs. The plant cell structure is left intact. Often these sucking insects inject into the plant some of their saliva which may be toxic enough to kill tissue or cause it to be deformed. Sucking insects seemingly have few defenses, except their generally enormous reproductive powers. Honeydew may be dropped from infestations of some sucking insects, such as aphids and certain scales. Only two sucking insects are discussed in detail here: oak pit scales, because of their great potential for harm, and crown whitefly, because it is so common.

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[1]Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

[2]Professor of Entomology, University of California, Riverside, CA 92521.

Oak pit scales

If the twigs and smaller branches of an oak are leafless, and weakened or dead, like those in figure 1, a close search should be made of the twig surfaces. If many shiny, round, convex, yellowish-green, pin head-

Figure 1--Note generally weakened condition of these branches of valley oak from a severe infestation of an oak pit scale, *Asterolecanium minus*.

sized bodies are found in dimpled areas of the bark, as in figure 2, then most likely one of the oak pit scales, (*Asterolecanium* species, Homoptera: Asterolecaniidae) is present. The dimples or pits are especially noticeable when the scale is removed. When the young crawler scale first settles, the bark may be smooth, but with the insertion of the mouthparts and injection of its toxic

Figure 2--Numerous adults and pits of the golden oak scale, *Asterolecanium variolosum*, on two twigs of *Quercus robur*. 1.7X.

saliva, the bark around the scale begins to swell so that the mature, attached scale appears to be residing in a pit. Three *Asterolecanium* species are present in California: *A. minus*, *A. quercicola*, and *A. variolosum* with *A. minus* being the most common. Insofar as known they have a single generation annually with peak hatch in late May. Of all the sucking insects affecting the oak tree, the pit scales can do the most harm because they frequently escape early detection, have a high reproductive potential, and have toxic salivary secretions. Pit scale infestations can be devastating, particularly in addition to droughts.

Crown whitefly

One of the most common sucking insects, especially on black oaks, is the crown whitefly, (*Aleuroplatus coronatus*, Homoptera: Aleyrodidae). Superficially it appears like a salt and pepper encrustation on the bottom side of the leaves; but when magnified, as in figure 3, each immature whitefly appears to be a flat, scale-like, black body from which issue several large plates of white wax, somewhat in the form of a crown. The adults

Figure 3--Immature forms of the crown whitefly, *Aleuroplatus coronatus*, on the lower leaf surface of coast live oak. 8.6X.

appear more like a conventional insect in being winged and free of the leaf. The tiny adults are especially noticeable around oak stands in the spring of the year when they fly in such numbers as to resemble the swirling flakes of a snow storm. At such times this whitefly is a nuisance pest. But at other times when the immature forms encrust the leaf in high numbers it is not obvious what the damage is to the leaf or tree.

Other sucking pests of oaks

Oak treehoppers (Homoptera: Membracidae)
Gelatinous whitefly (Aleuroplatus gelatinosus, Homoptera: Aleyrodidae)
Stanford's whitefly (Tetraleurodes stanfordi, Homoptera: Aleyrodidae)
Woolly oak aphid (Stegophylla quercicola, Homoptera: Aphididae)
Black-punctured kermes (Kermes nigropunctatus, Homoptera: Kermidae)
Oak wax scale (Cerococcus quercus, Homoptera: Asterolecaniidae)
Ehrhorn's oak scale (Mycetococcus ehrhorni, Homoptera: Asterolecaniidae)
Oak lecanium scale (Lecanium quercitronis, Homoptera: Coccidae)
Oak scale (Quernaspis quercus, Homoptera: Diaspididae)
Coast live oak erineum mite (Aceria mackiei, Acarina: Eriophyidae)

LEAF-CONSUMING INSECTS

This category of insects is readily noticed because the forms themselves are relatively conspicuous as is the type of damage they do. Also, their defecated droppings may be in such quantities as to appear in windrows on the ground and sound like a light falling rain. These insects eat the cell walls and watery cell contents of the leaves. The loss of leaf tissue reduces the food-making capability and slows the growth of the oak. All of the leaf blade may be consumed, leaving only the ribs, or only one leaf surface, usually the lower, may be removed in spots. This is referred to as "skeletonizing." Also there are a number of insects on oak leaves that may spend a part, or all, of their immature stage mining between the upper and lower leaf epidermis. Larvae of moths are the most common oak leaf consumers, although there may be stages of beetles or wasps that attack the leaves. Three of the most common and important leaf consumers are discussed here: California oak moth, tent caterpillars, and fruittree leafroller.

California oak moth

This voracious defoliator, also called the California oak worm, is perhaps the most important insect pest of oak trees during years of normal rainfall. During drought years the oak twig girdler probably equals it in importance. But it is typical of oak moth infestations to exist in extremely high populations during one year; then these populations will collapse and any stage of the insect will be difficult to find for 4 or 5 years. These population collapses may result from a depletion of oak leaf food and/or a variety of insect parasites and predators (Harville, 1955) that build up during an oak moth epidemic. They are also subject to a naturally occurring wilt disease. The California oak moth (Phryganidia californica, Lepidoptera: Dioptidae) is also curious in that it is the only member of its family in the United States. Most of the dioptids are tropical, but this one ranges into California, to north of San Francisco, and into Arizona.

The larva (fig. 4) when full-grown, is about 25 mm long, without noticeable hairs, and it has a large, brown head. The body is mostly black but may have longitudinal stripes of white, red, and yellow. Although each larva is relatively slow-moving, it

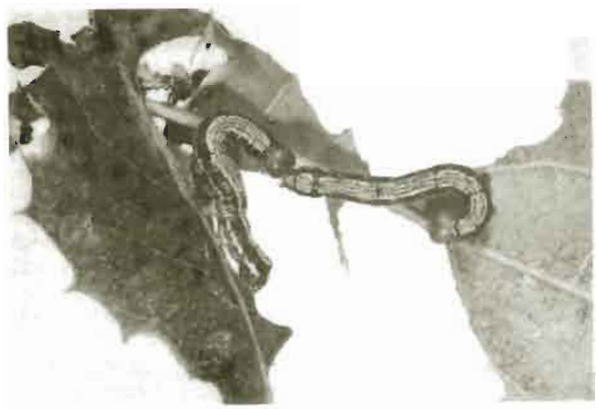

Figure 4--Fourth-instar larvae of the California oak moth, Phryganidia californica, on injured leaves of coast live oak. 0.9X.

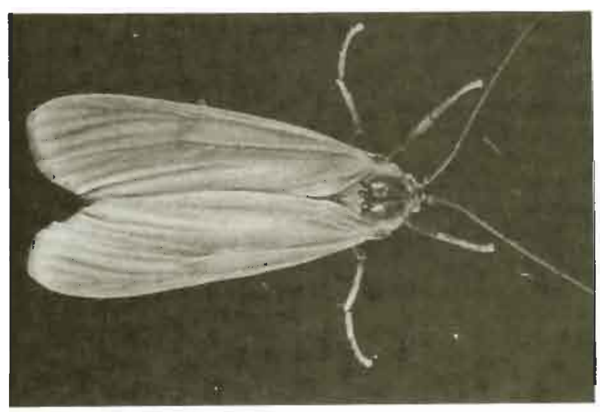

Figure 5--Adult female of the California oak moth, Phryganidia californica; note thread-like antennae. 1.7X.

consumes a great amount of oak foliage. The adult female (fig. 5) is uniformly cream-tan except where the black cuticle is hairless on the back of the thorax. The female has thread-like antennae whereas the male's is feather-like; he also has a faint yellow spot in the center of each forewing. In most of California there are two annual generations of oak moth, but there may be as many as three in southern California. Usually larvae will be present and feeding from mid-March to mid-May and again from mid-July to mid-September.

Tent caterpillars

There are at least two tent caterpillars of the genus Malacosoma (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae) that may occasionally seriously defoliate oaks; included are M. californicum, the western tent caterpillar, and M. constrictum, the Pacific tent caterpillar, see figure 6. Tent caterpillars are so-called

Figure 6--Mature Pacific tent caterpillar, Malacosoma constrictum. 1.3X.

because some of them spin great quantities of silk which they arrange in the crotches of twigs. They congregate on these tents to rest at certain times of the day. Although the species mentioned here will spin and lay down a silk line as they wander about the tree, they seldom if ever will form this silk into a tent. These mostly blackish caterpillars are fairly large, being over 35 mm long when full grown. They are quite hairy with tufts sticking out their sides. These hairs are grayish or cream-colored, whereas some of the hair clumps protruding from the top are orangish. Most of these tent caterpillars have a fair amount of speckled, light blue on their sides. The Pacific tent caterpillar has a dark blue head (fig. 6). There is a single, annual generation with larvae active from early to late spring.

Fruittree leafroller

Archips argyrospilus (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) is called "fruittree leafroller" since it is one of the most common and important pests of commercial fruits, especially pome fruit, but it has a wide host range and defoliates many woody ornamental plants. For at least 30 years it has defoliated, with some regularity, the California black oak in the San Bernardino Mountains. In common with other members of this moth family the larvae tie the leaves together with silk in a kind of "nest" (fig. 7) and feed on these leaves.

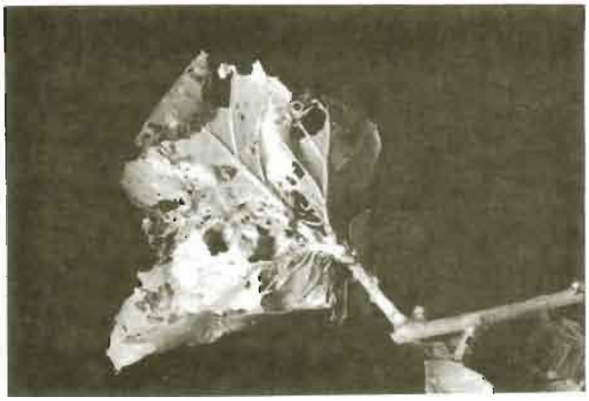

Figure 7--Larval injury and leafrolling of the fruittree leafroller, Archips argyrospilus, to terminal leaves of coast live oak. 0.5X.

As the larvae (fig. 8) become larger they tend to feed exposed, especially on the younger leaves. If disturbed they will usually spin a thread and hang tail downward. They wriggle violently at the least disturbance. The 20 to 25 mm long larval body is

Figure 8--Mature larva of the fruittree leafroller, Archips argyrospilus, on leaves of coast live oak. 2.1X.

essentially free of hairs and is a light pastel green, with the head a light, shiny brown. Populations of this leafroller can become enormous and cause the complete defoliation of Quercus kelloggii. It is curious that Q. chrysolepis is hardly fed upon in contrast to other local Quercus species. Evidently there are few effective natural parasites and predators. The larvae are most active from late March into May; this may be later in the high elevations.

Other leaf-consuming insects

Live oak leaf cutter (Vespina quercivora, Lepidoptera: Incurvariidae)
Oak ribbed case maker (Bucculatrix albertiella, Lepidoptera: Lyonetiidae)
Oak leaf blotch miner (Lithocolletis agrifoliella, Lepidoptera: Gracilariidae)
Stenomid oak leaf tier (Setiostoma fernaldella, Lepidoptera: Stenomidae)
Phycitid oak leaf tier (Rhodophaea caliginella, Lepidoptera: Pyralidae)
Western tussock moth (Hemerocampa vetusta, Lepidoptera: Liparidae)
Salt-marsh caterpillar (Estigmene acrea, Lepidoptera: Arctiidae)
Black oak woollybear (Hemihyalea edwardsii, Lepidoptera: Arctiidae)
Live oak weevil (Deporaus glastinus, Coleoptera: Curculionidae)
Oak leaf sawfly (Periclista species, Hymenoptera: Tenthredinidae)

BORING INSECTS

Insects in this category bore or tunnel through any tissue of the oak except the leaves and acorns. The tissue cells and the watery cells and the watery cell contents are chewed with hard mandibles, ingested by the insect, and passed through its digestive tract. These undigested parts are eventually defecated as fecal pellets or frass. This sand- or powder-like frass is loosely or tightly packed in the burrow behind the insect, where with some insects it remains, but with others an opening is made and the frass is eventually pushed to the outside. An example of an insect employing both means of frass disposal in its life cycle is the bark beetle or scolytid: the larvae pack the frass in the burrow, whereas the adults push the frass to the outside. Because the boring insect is hidden, it is not until the appearance of frass on the outside, or the decline or death of tissue beyond the burrow, that it is discovered the oak is infested. Thus, considerable damage may occur before we become aware of it.

Damage from boring insects can be the most devastating type of insect damage. If it is beneath the bark in the cambium tissue, usually the xylem and phloem tubes are cut, having a catastrophic effect on the tissue supplied by these vascular tubes. And, a relatively small area of bored trunk can have an effect on a relatively large area of limbs, twigs and leaves. If the boring is in the wood, or non-living part of the tree, the immediate effect is less devastating; but the long-term effect may be a weakening of that structure, even to the point of its falling to the ground.

Another consequence of the insect's being buried in the tissue is that there is almost always no way it can be reached; eventually it, or usually a later life cycle stage, will come out of the tree and then it can be treated with an insecticde or other control measure. This means that when dealing with boring insects, we must have a good knowledge of its biology or life cycle development. But even with the most precise knowledge, variations in the rate of development of individuals of a boring insect population, together with vagaries of the ambient temperature and its effects on this development, make the control of this insect category the most difficult of all. A complicating factor with most boring insects (buprestids, cerambycids, scolytids, as examples) is the attractiveness of water-stressed trees. Often times supplying the tree with water is the most important insect control measure.

Western sycamore borer

Although this clear-winged moth (Synanthedon resplendens, Lepidoptera: Sesiidae), is well-known as a sycamore pest, it is also very common and important on oaks. On either of these trees a swelling, roughening, and darkening of the bark or tunneling on the trunk, larger limbs, or limb crotches is the characteristic and readily visible damage. There is frequently an abundance of reddish-brown, sand-like frass in the crotches or on the ground surrounding the trunk. Sometimes the thin, paper-like pupal cases may be seen protruding from the bark, indicating that the adults have emerged. If the roughened bark is smoothed with a rasp or draw knife (fig. 9), the numerous, meandering tunnels of the larvae will be exposed.

Generally only the less vigorously growing bark is affected. On an oak used for ornament this damage is unsightly, but it is questionable how serious this damage is physiologically. The affected tissue is

Figure 9--Trunk bark of sycamore scraped to expose numerous meandering tunnels of the larvae of the western sycamore borer, Synanthedon resplendens; oak bark so scraped is similar. 0.17X.

Figure 10--Notice many patches of whitish dead leaves on this coast live oak. Each patch has resulted from one year's mining of the oak twig girdler, Agrilus angelicus.

primarily bark, although tunneling into the cambium region is common, where the tunnels may be moist. Attacks may also be associated with mechanical damage to the trunks or limbs where equipment or automobiles have cut or bruised the bark. Such injuries are attractive egg-laying sites.

The larvae causing the damage are whitish-pink with a light brown head and are mostly hairless. They are 18 mm long when full grown. The adult moths resemble small, black- and yellow-striped wasps. There is a single generation of moths annually; emergence occurs from May to early August, with a peak in June and July.

Control on ornamental oaks is usually aimed at the exposed adults; a residual insecticide spray or paint may be effective. Scraping or rasping away the roughened bark, to improve the appearance, will also kill many larvae and pupae in their tunnels. Invigorating the oaks with judicious watering, fertilizing, and pruning may help, as will the prevention of mechanical damage to the tree.

Oak twig girdler

If one notices many small patches of dead leaves on an oak tree (fig. 10), the chances are that it is infested with oak twig girdler (Agrilus angelicus, Coleoptera: Buprestidae). If one traces down the twig from one of these patches of dead leaves, to the junction of the dead and living tissue, and carefully peels the bark, exposure of a flat tunnel girdling spirally down the twig in the cambium usually confirms the presence of this insect. Further, if brown powder-like frass and a 25-mm long, flat, whitish, legless larva, with expanded sides, is found in the tunnel (fig. 11), it is certain the twig girdler is present. This insect requires two years to complete its life cycle. At the end of one year, twigs about 5 mm in diameter will have been girdled and killed; each will include a relatively small number of brownish-white, dead leaves (fig. 10). At the end of

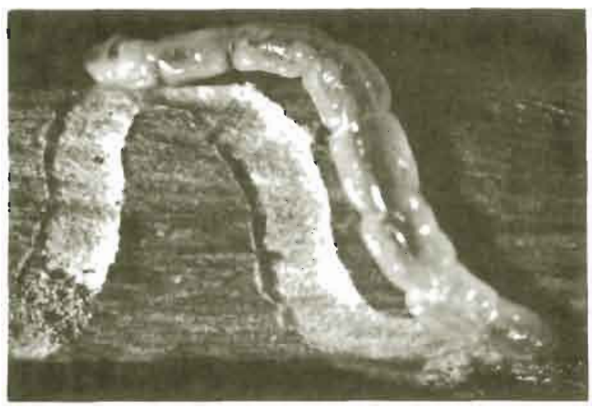

Figure 11--Mature larva of the oak twig girdler, Agrilus angelicus, next to its mine in the twig; bark at the junction of living and dead wood has been removed. 3.8X.

about 22 to 23 months, the larva will have girdled down into twigs 10 to 15 mm in diameter, and there will be many more dead leaves. This girdling effectively cuts through the cambium and xylem layers, and stops the flow of water and nutrients to the leaves and twigs beyond the girdle.

This twig girdler, like other buprestid beetles, seems attracted to oaks suffering from drought. Much heavier girdler infestations follow one or more years of lower than normal rainfall. This girdling damage, and the persistent, dead leaves, on an oak tree grown for ornament, is unsightly and most owners want something done about it. However, with oaks in the wild, forested environment such injury is of less concern to man. Physiologically such girdling damage may not be cause for concern, and conceivably could be even considered beneficial to the tree. It would in effect be like a pruning, which in a drought situation, could be beneficial.

After 23 months, the twig girdler larva turns back into the wood it has killed, tunnels for 100 to 150 mm, chews out a chamber and pupates therein. The adult emerges in the chamber within a week or two and chews its way to the outside of the twig, thus being exposed for the first time in almost two years. In warmer, inland areas the period of adult emergence will be from late May to late June; whereas in cooler, coastal areas, emergence will be from late June into late July. With such a two-year cycle, it should be noted that there will be even-numbered and odd-numbered year strains, with no interbreeding.

To control twig girdler in valuable oaks, first invigorate the trees with suitable irrigation, pruning, or fertilization. Second, spray a residually effective insecticide on the oaks shortly prior to adult emergence from the twigs.

Other boring insects

Dry-wood termites (Kalotermes species, Isoptera: Kalotermitidae)
Carpenterworm (Prionoxystus robiniae, Lepidoptera: Cossidae)
Pacific flatheaded borer (Chrysobothris mali, Coleoptera: Buprestidae)
Nautical borer (Xylotrechus nauticus, Coleoptera: Cerambycidae)
Roundheaded oak twig borer (Styloxus fulleri, Coleoptera: Cerambycidae)
Oak bark beetles (Pseudopityophthorus species, Coleoptera: Scolytidae)

ACORN INSECTS

Foresters and other tree managers often collect acorns for oak propagation. As much as 80 percent of these acorns may be wormy (fig. 12). Two of the most common acorn-boring insects are the larva of a moth--the filbertworm (Melissopus latiferreanus, Lepidoptera: Olethreutidae), and the larva of a weevil--the filbert weevil (Curculio occidentis, Coleoptera: Curculionidae), see figure 13. Either type of larva may tunnel throughout the inside of the acorn and

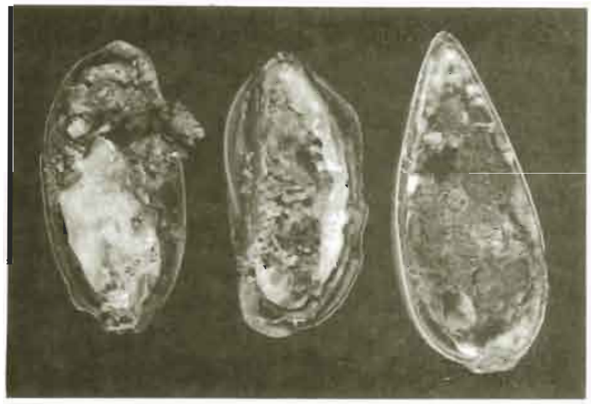

Figure 12--Three acorns cut open to show the extensive larval tunneling and frass of the filbertworm, Melissopus latiferreanus. 0.9X.

Figure 13--**Sideview of the long-snouted adult** of the filbert weevil, Curculio occidentis, walking on the acorn cup of canyon live oak. 2.1X.

deposit frass (fig. 12). The embryo may be destroyed and depletion of the endosperm may greatly reduce the vigor of a new oak tree. Another frequent symptom associated with insect-infested acorns is bleeding. Bleeding sap may have a sour, fermented odor from a bacterium introduced by the insect (Hildebrand & Schroth, 1967). Bleeding may be so great and the odor so strong that some homeowners with oaks may want to have the insect controlled.

The filbertworm may be distinguished from the filbert weevil larva by the true legs on the thoracic segments and prolegs, with tiny hooks (crochets) on the abdominal segments; the weevil larva is legless. The reddish-brown, metallic copper-marked filbertworm moth lays her eggs singly on the acorn and the newly hatched larva bores through the tough acorn coating.

The yellowish-brown adult weevil (fig. 13) uses the tiny mouthparts at the end of her long, slender snout, to chew a small hole in the acorn coat, and then turns around, deposits an egg and pushes it through the hole. The weevil grub hatches inside of the acorn. The filbertworm has at least one annual generation and maybe two. The larvae may be boring in the acorns from July to September and again in the fall and throughout the winter. The adults will be present up to two months prior to these periods. The filbert weevil has only a single, annual generation and may be present on the acorns in the summer and early fall, with the larvae feeding in the acorn from early fall throughout the winter.

OAK GALL INSECTS

Oaks are the favorite host of the gall wasps (Hymenoptera: Cynipidae). Over 140 species of these wasps lay their eggs in various tissues of oaks in the western United States. The oak produces a growth (gall) around the egg and developing larva that is unique in form for each wasp species. Most of these galls are an interesting novelty and cause no harm to the oak. The two leaf-infesting gall insects discussed here, however, do cause economic damage.

Two-horned oak gall

This name describes the small, wheat-grain-sized gall found on the lower leaf surface veins of coast live oak, caused by Dryocosmus dubiosus (Hymenoptera: Cynipidae). The gall frequently has a small, up-turned projection on each end (fig. 14). There is

Figure 14--Lower side of coast live oak leaf with two veins infested with the two-horned oak gall caused by Dryocosmus dubiosus; several other veins show slit marks where galls have fallen off. Dead tissue is due to ovipositional punctures. 1.5X.

a reaction from the oviposition in the leaf vein that soon causes the leaf beyond the puncture to die, even without a gall forming. It is common to observe coast live oak with all its leaves appearing partially whitish-brown, much in contrast to the normal dark green. This detracts from the tree if it is primarily an ornamental.

From each gall emerges a female wasp and many of these fly to the male flowers (catkins) and oviposit in them. Each oviposition causes the catkin to produce a club-shaped, reddish-purple gall, one of which may contain a female wasp and another the male. Individuals of this bisexual generation mate and the females oviposit in the leaf veins, causing another crop of two-horned galls containing the unisexual generation. As a timing device, it is worth remembering that the two-horned gall is producing female wasps at about the time the catkins are developing; this is about the time an insecticidal spray should be applied.

Distorted leaf gall

The leaf, leaf petiole, twig, and even the acorn, may be involved by this very irregular, roughened, and many-celled gall on white oaks (fig. 15). It is caused by the gall wasp, Neuroterus varians (Hymenoptera: Cynipidae). Many of the valley oaks in the San Fernando Valley, for example, have been damaged, both ornamentally and physiologically, by enormous populations of this gall. The leaves in particular may be so distorted, thickened, and reduced in size that they cannot carry on their normal functions of

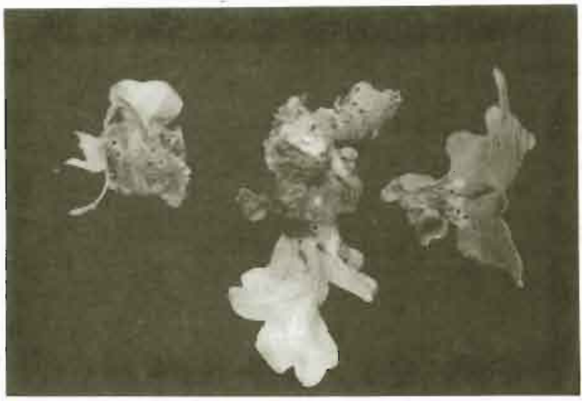

Figure 15--Severely distorted leaves and stems of valley oak resulting from galls of Neuroterus varians. 0.9X.

making food, transpiration, etc. Many homeowners complained that they were deprived of the shade and beauty of their valley oaks by this wasp's actions. Although considerable spraying of insecticide had been done during the foliage season, it was of little effect. It was not until after discovering the wasp was active before the leaves came out that control efforts became successful. The wasp oviposits in the developing leaf buds in February and early March. Insecticidal sprays at that time reduced the gall damage.

Other common cynipid gall insects

California gallfly (Andricus californicus)
Irregular spindle gall wasp (Andricus chrysolepidicola)
Live oak gallfly (Callirhytis pomiformis)
Twig club gall wasp (Callirhytis suttoni)
White oak cone gall wasp (Andricus kingi)
Spined turban gall wasp (Antron douglasii)
Jumping oak gall wasp (Neuroterus saltatorius)
Woollybear gall wasp (Sphaeroteras trimaculosum)

MANAGING OAK INSECT PESTS

It is well to remember that the oak is a very tough tree and there is probably no insect species acting alone that will kill it. Very few insect problems compare in severity, for example, with drought or armillaria root rot. After identifying the oak insect and its damage to the tree, and learning pertinent points of the pest's biology, the oak manager must decide whether or not something should be done about it. A first question to ask is: are the oaks worth the cost of the control measure? A single oak in a home yard, one that contributes considerable beauty and dollar value to the property, will easily be worth fairly costly and repeated treatment. But oaks in a wild, forest situation will probably have a much lower unit value, and cannot justify very costly pest control action. Spraying trees with insecticide, for example, may cost from $2 to $50 per tree depending on several factors. Phrasing the question differently: will the cost of doing something be less than the "cost" of doing nothing?

Another related question to be decided is: will the control measure have side effects that are not acceptable? For example, will spraying an insecticide kill the fish in a nearby lake or stream? Or, will spraying an insecticide create an unacceptable public furor? Or, will spraying kill beneficial parasites and predators of the pest insect?

If it is assumed that something should be done, the oak manager should get the services of a competent entomologist to aid in the evaluation very early in the process. As a matter of principle the use of an insecticide should always be considered as the last resort, especially in situations where it is undesirable to be committed to insecticide use year after year. Improving the vigor of the oak tree should be considered first, such as judicious irrigation, fertilization, and pruning, especially when dealing with the more damaging boring insects. Sanitation/salvage, removal of weak and dying trees as practiced in other types of forests, may not only improve the appearance and vigor of the oak stand, but may aid in insect control. Or the use of sanitation/salvage coupled with the use of insecticide, sharply focussed both in space and time, may be the most desirable. Of the various means of applying insecticides to oak trees the method known as "high-pressure" or "hydraulic spraying" is probably the most reliable. The spray equipment needed to treat a mature oak tree is large, heavy, and expensive. Commercial spray operators have such equipment for their business, and it is often least expensive to hire the job done by one of these operators.

Until very recently, the use of insecticides for woody ornamental plants had to conform exactly to what was printed on the insecticide container label. The label had to state the specific rate that could be used on a particular oak insect pest. This has meant that there were no legal recommendations for similar oak insects not mentioned on the label. Recently these regulations were relaxed so that now an insecticide can be registered: for oaks, or even just for woody ornamental plants; for a specified insect pest, or for near species; for a rate less than the maximum rate stated on the label; and for more than one method of application.

There are not many alternatives to insecticides for the sucking insects mentioned this paper. Tree invigoration which produces new growth tends to favor the pest insect. Pruning the tree, to the extent of good horticultural practice, opens the tree crown so that insecticidal sprays can penetrate better. Parasitic or predatory insects have obviously not been an important factor in the natural control of the sucking insects of oaks; otherwise we would not have them as problems.

To control pit scales, a single spray of any one of the following insecticides in 100 gallons of water can be used: (a) 1 pound of 50 percent diazinon wettable powder, (b) 2 pounds of 50 percent carbaryl wettable powder, or (c) 4 pounds of 25 percent malathion wettable powder plus 1 to 1-1/2 gallons of light-medium or supreme-type oil. Application should be made at peak hatch during mid-May to early June, or when seen. These sprays and timing would also serve to control crown whitefly, or any of the other sucking insects mentioned.

There are some natural enemies of the leaf-consuming insects mentioned in this paper, but it is questionable how well man can control their beneficial actions. California oak moth has a complement of natural enemies (Harville, 1955) which undoubtedly keep this leaf-consumer in low populations during most years. During the occasional year when the California oak moth populations explode, insecticidal spraying may be necessary. In those areas where fruittree leafroller has been damaging, natural enemy activity has not been prominent, but leafroller itself exerts a built-in control in that large, early-emerging worm populations consume the desirable foliage leaving none for the late emerging worms; but this may be little solace for those owning the oaks.

If spraying of insecticides is acceptable, carbaryl at the rate of 2 pounds of 50 percent wettable powder per 100 gallons of water may be used against oak moth; 1-1/4 pounds of 80 percent carbaryl sprayable would be an alternative. Either of these sprays would also be useful against fruittree leafroller or tent caterpillars, or several of the other leaf-consuming insects mentioned.

An environmentally safer spray option for California oak moth is the use of Bacillus thuringiensis, which affects only certain insects and only at certain stages. Per 100 gallons of water use 1 gallon of Thuricide® 90 TS, or 3 pounds of 25 percent Biotrol® wettable BTB 183, when larvae are about half grown.

Tree invigoration is a first line of defense against boring insects. This may be by judicious watering, pruning, or fertilizing. Second, a residually effective insecticide spray can be applied shortly before the adult insect comes out of the bored trunk or limb. On oak twig girdler or western sycamore borer this may be 2 pounds of 50 percent carbaryl wettable powder, or 1-1/4 pounds of 80 percent carbaryl sprayable, per 100 gallons of water. For twig girdler this should be applied about mid-May in inland areas to mid-June in cooler coastal areas. Pruned, girdled twigs can be confined in a screen cage under the tree and watched for adult emergence from the twig. For western sycamore borer this spray may be applied in late May; by observing the bored area the adults will begin revealing their presence by the protruding pupal skins. Other boring insects listed may have other adult emergence dates.

For controlling acorn insects on the tree, there is a legal registration for filbertworm using carbaryl spray, at the rate of 2 pounds of 50 percent wettable powder per 100 gallons of water. This is for the adult moth which has been collected in mid-April, on oak gall apples, and again in mid-October on the acorn. This registration does not mention the filbert weevil although carbaryl is used to control other weevils. Control of these two insects in the acorns after they are harvested can be accomplished with the fumigant, methyl bromide, at the rate of 5 pounds per 1000 cubic feet, at 70° to 79°F, with 4 hours exposure, at atmospheric pressure, and in a chamber, van container, or under a tarpaulin. Of course, methyl bromide is an odorless gas and is very toxic to humans, so adequate precautions must be taken. The larvae can be killed in the acorns with wet or dry heat but this also would likely kill the oak embryo. Acorns held in cold storage will retard the development of the insects.

Carbaryl, at 2 pounds of 50 percent wettable powder per 100 gallons of water, also is effective against the adult stage of the gall insects. Such a spray should be applied in early February for the distorted leaf gall wasp, and about mid-March to early April for the two-horned oak gall wasp. The timing of sprays for other gall wasps will vary depending on the species.

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Diseases of Oaks in California[1]

Robert D. Raabe

Abstract: Diseases of native oaks in California are of little importance under natural conditions. Root rots resulting in decline and/or death are very severe when native oaks receive summer irrigation. Witches' broom may also be severe on oaks when pruned, fertilized, and irrigated during the growing season.

Diseases of oak trees in California are relatively unimportant when the plants are grown under natural or native conditions. This is due in part to the fact that the soil-borne disease-producing organisms are not too important under natural conditions. It is also due in part to the long dry period in most of California. Most of the disease-producing organisms which affect the foliage need condensed moisture on the leaves over a prolonged period in order for infection to occur. Dew formation is usually not of long enough duration to allow such organisms to become established. The most important diseases of oaks occur when the trees are grown under cultivation and are treated improperly. Irrigation of trees during the summer favors certain disease-producing organisms.

The diseases to be included here are separated into those that are soil-borne and affect the root systems and those that infect the above-ground parts of the plants. The importance, general symptoms, and control measures, if necessary, are mentioned for each disease.

SOIL-BORNE DISEASES

Seedling Root Rot

This disease is most common in nurseries when the seedlings are grown in containers. Young trees die, usually during the summer season. An examination of the root system reveals many darkened and dead roots. Removal of the bark on the main stem shows a brown discoloration moving up into the woody tissues. The disease results from the fact that native oaks, because they have adapted to a climate where there is no summer rainfall, do not need irrigation during that time. However, when grown in containers where the root systems are confined and cannot explore the open ground, the plants must be watered to keep them alive. This weakens the plants. If water molds (species of Pythium and Phytophthora) are present, they will invade the root systems and weaken the trees resulting in stunting or maybe death. Control is difficult. Not overwatering, keeping plants on the dry side, and using soil mixes with excellent drainage will help. Periodic drenches with fungicides effective against such fungi have given control in other native California plants and plants native to areas with dry summers (Raabe and Lert 1967).

Decline and Trunk Canker

By far the most important disease problem on native oaks is a decline in which the trees may die rapidly, or more commonly, in which the trees decline and linger a long time before they die. Symptoms include sparseness of foliage, loss of foliage color, death of variable numbers of smaller branches, various size cankers at the soil line, and death of the tree. Cankers may be inconspicuous or may appear as ruptures in the bark, at or near the soil line, from which a dark sticky material may exude.

Little research has been done regarding the cause of the disease. Miller (1941) reported the isolation of Phytophthora cactorum (Lebert & Cohn) Schroet. from diseased trees and in subsequent inoculations showed the fungus to be pathogenic to Q. agrifolia and Q. virginiana. He also reported observing that excessively wet soil conditions due to prolonged rains, overwatering, poor drainage and raising of the soil level on the main trunk favor the disease Mircetich et al. (1977)

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 25-27, 1979.

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reported the isolation of Phytophthora citricola Sawada and P. cactorum from bark and roots of declining Q. agrifolia trees and from the soil around infected trees. They also isolated P. cinnamomi Rands from cork oak, Quercus suber. In greenhouse inoculations using young seedlings, they found both Quercus sp. to be infected by all three species of Phytophthora, though the fungi did vary in their virulence on the different oaks.

In isolations from small roots of declining oaks taken from soil agar samples, unidentified species of Pythium and Phytophthora have been recovered, indicating that they as well as the larger roots and stems may be infected by these fungi.

The importance of summer irrigation as the most important contributing factor cannot be over-emphasized and has been stressed by Miller (1941), McCain and Raabe (in Brown et al. 1975, Butterfield et al. 1963) and Mircetich (1977).

On the U.C. Berkeley campus, excellent illustrations of this have been observed, the most striking of which occurred outside the new Moffet Library. Two California live oak trees, each about 30 cm dbh, were left in place during construction of the building. Upon completion, landscaping called for mounds on either sides of trees, lawn planted up to the trunks and sprinklers to irrigate the lawn. In 1971, this was completed. The tree nearest the sprinkler immediately started to decline and in 1974, the tree died and was removed. The second tree showed a slower decline but by 1977 was very weak. Because of the drought very little irrigation of the campus occurred that year. By early winter, the tree had recovered to the point where it did not look as though it had ever suffered decline. This is a textbook example; it is known that withholding irrigation for one summer does not always result in such a miraculous recovery but withdrawal of summer irrigation will help give control.

Oak Root Fungus

Another fungus which infects the roots of oak trees is Armillaria mellea (Vahl ex Fr.) Kummer. This fungus is commonly called the oak root fungus, not because it often kills oaks but because the roots of native oaks frequently are infected with little apparent damage to the trees under natural conditions. The fungus received its name because orchard and vineyard crops frequently died when planted in land recently cleared of native oaks. The fungus found in the dying and dead plants was the same as the fungus found in the oak roots left in the soil and because of this association, it received its name.

Although the oak root fungus is important as a disease-producing agent in many plants, the amount of damage on California oaks has not been determined. Under natural conditions, the fungus does not seem to damage California oak trees. However, infected trees, in irrigated areas or in areas where the soil level has been changed, frequently die. The abundance of layers of white fungus tissue between the bark and wood of the lower stems and larger roots (fig. 1) suggests the importance of the fungus in weakening the trees. Recently a tree next to a lawn in a large park blew down in a wind. Not only was the fungus present between the bark and the wood of the roots but many of the roots showed advanced stages of decay in which the wood had become quite soft and watery with patches of fungus tissue scattered through it. Few other fungi produce similar fungus structures when plants are infected. If in question as to whether the oak root fungus is the cause, smelling the fungus tissue can help identify it, for the oak root fungus has a distinct mushroom-like odor.

Another indication of the presence of the fungus includes the production of dark, root-like strands on the outside of infected roots. These rhizomorphs, as they are called, are important in the infection of roots. They are often similar to small roots but can be distinguished from them easily by soaking pieces of rhizomorphs in household bleach diluted one part in nine parts of water for 10 minutes. If it is an active rhizomorph, the internal portion will become bleached a pure white. The centers of roots will not do this.

Other evidence of the presence of the oak root fungus is the production of mushrooms, usually around the bases of infected plants. These mushrooms vary in color from pale tan to red-brown and in size from 2.5 to 15 or 17.5 cm in diameter. In California, they usually appear between the middle of November and the middle of January. Although spores are produced in abundance in these fruiting bodies, they are not important in the spread of the fungus. Spread is mainly by contact of roots with other roots, either living or dead, in which the fungus is active.

Many oaks have been listed as being infected by the fungus throughout the world (Raabe 1963) but only a few have been tested for resistance to the fungus (Raabe 1975). In such tests, Quercus ilex and Q. lobata have been found to be highly resistant, Q. chrysolepis was found to be moderately resistant and

Q. dumosa and Q. virginiana (the only non-native oak to be tested) have been found to be susceptible. Additional oaks need to be tested in this program (Raabe 1966).

Figure 1--A portion of a root with the bark removed showing the layer of white fungus tissue of Armillaria mellea between the bark and the hard wood.

Control of Armillaria mellea under urban situations is very difficult. In orchards and vineyards, methyl bromide fumigation has given some success. In urban areas, this is not feasible. Avoidance of summer irrigations and the maintenance of existing soil levels around established trees will help. If changes in soil levels are necessary, dry wells around the trunk should be made so that the soil level 60 to 90 cm away from the bases of the main trunks will not be changed.

Inasmuch as the fungus exists only in infected roots in the soil, the removal of such roots prior to planting will help give control. The more complete the removal, the better the control. The use of resistant plants also will help control the fungus (Raabe 1975).

Verticillium and Fusarium Wilts

It should be mentioned that there are unconfirmed diagnoses of Verticillium wilt (Verticillium albo-atrum Reinke & Berthe.) and Fusarium wilt (Fusarium oxysporum species as yet unnamed) in California live oak trees. Although there is a report (Ivanchenko 1957) of a wilt in oak trees in Russia in which a Fusarium sp. was found, it was isolated in conjunction with three other fungi, all four of which had to infect the tree before the wilt symptoms appeared. There is also a report of a vascular wilt of oak resulting from infection by Fusarium oxysporum in Romania and Russia (Georgescu and Mocanu 1956) but the fungus was found only in seedlings. In personal communication with Dr. W. C. Snyder and Dr. Shirley Smith of the University of California, Berkeley (recognized authorities on Fusarium wilts), they stated they knew of no Fusarium wilts in oak trees, particularly California oaks. In regard to Verticillium wilt, a survey revealed a report of Verticillium on oak in Russia (Kranzouz 1958) and also a report from Hungary (Georgescu et al. 1959), but no reports of Verticillium on any oaks in the United States. This was corroborated by Dr. Stephen Wilhelm (an authority on Verticillium wilt) of the University of California, Berkeley. Trees reported to be infected by these fungi should be checked by the University, State or Federal plant pathologists to determine the validity of the diagnoses.

DISEASES AFFECTING ABOVE-GROUND PARTS

Slime Flux

This disease, which results from infection of wounds by bacteria and various fungi, occurs where sap or water can collect. It is usually more severe in large branches. As the organisms utilize the sap, they give off byproducts which prevent the cambium from healing the wound. More sap collects, more organisms develop and the process continues. Frequently a dark liquid flows from such wounds and may stain branches or the main trunk clear to the ground.

Control results from pruning in such a way that no liquids can collect in the wounds. In old wounds where this is occurring, the wound should be scraped to expose good wood and should be fixed so that all liquids drain from it. It has been suggested that painting such wounds with Bordeaux or a fixed copper paste will help.

Powdery Mildews

The powdery mildews are a group of fungi which are completely external on the surfaces of infected plants except for small extensions into the epidermal cells for the purpose of nourishment. The fungi are so named because the vegetative growth including the spores has a powdery appearance. Unlike most fungi, the powdery mildews do not require condensed moisture for the spores to germinate. The powdery mildews actually are favored by warm days, cool nights and reduced light intensities. In California, there are four powdery mildews found on oaks and only the one which causes witches brooms is of importance. The causal fungus is Sphaerotheca lanestris Harkn., though it sometimes is listed as another fungus (Gardner et al. 1972). It frequently infects the new growth of plants (table 1) and when it does, it stimulates lower lateral buds to develop, resulting in a witches broom, all of which is covered by the white, powdery growth of the fungus (fig. 2). Infected leaves become distorted and somewhat brittle. This disease rarely occurs on trees growing under natural undisturbed conditions. It is favored by conditions such as irrigation, fertilization and pruning of trees, which promote new growth late in the growing period during summer and fall. Sprouts following forest fires frequently are infected and develop witches brooms which may then become infected. Because the disease results primarily from poor cultivation practices, control results from cultivation practices which do not favor the disease. Leaf infection by the same fungus results in the brown mildew which appears as a brown, felt-like growth on the undersides of the leaves. Though it is conspicuous, it does not damage infected trees. Many oaks are infected and those reported as susceptible are listed in table 1.

Erysiphe trina Harkn. is recorded only on two oaks. On these plants, it produces conspicuous roundish infected areas on the upper surfaces of leaves (fig. 3). These infected areas frequently are covered with the sexual fruiting stages of the fungus, giving a grey appearance to the infected areas. Two other powdery mildew fungi also are found on oaks in California. These form a white, powdery-like growth, sometimes interspersed with the small, dark, spherical sexual fruiting bodies of the fungi, usually on the older leaves of various oaks. Susceptible species are listed in table 1. Because these mildews do little damage, control is not necessary.

Figure 2--Quercus agrifolia branch tips, showing powdery mildew witches broom on the right and non-infected branch tip on the left. Photo courtesy of C. E. Yarwood.

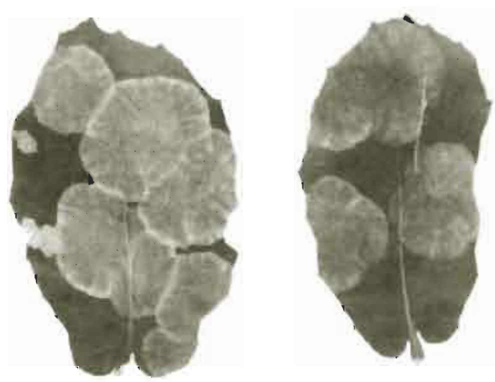

Figure 3--Leaves of Quercus agrifolia infected with the powdery mildew fungus Erysiphe trina. The infected portions on the leaf on the right are darker due to the production of the sexual fruiting bodies of the fungus. The evidences of the fungus on these leaves are more pronounced than usually found. Photo courtesy of C. E. Yarwood.

Table 1--Susceptibility of oaks to four powdery mildew fungi in California (Bonar et al., Gardner and Yarwood 1978) 1/

Erysiphe trina	Sphaerotheca lanestris (Brown mildew and witches broom)	Microphaera alni	Phyllactinia corylea
	Native oaks		
Q. agrifolia	Q. agrifolia*	Q. agrifolia	Q. agrifolia
Q. chrysolepis	Q. chrysolepis*	Q. douglasii	Q. durata
	Q. douglasii	Q. durata	Q. lobata
	Q. dunnii	Q. engelmanii	Q. turbinella
	Q. engelmann	Q. garryana	
	Q. garryana	Q. kelloggii	
	Q. keloggii*	Q. lobata	
	Q. lobata	Q. turbinella	
	Q. wislizenii		
	Introduced oaks		
	Q. alba	Q. robur	Q. coccinea
	Q. cerries		Q. robur
	Q. coccinea		
	Q. ilex*		
	Q. laurifolia*		
	Q. macrocarpa		
	Q. mongolica		
	Q. nigra*		
	Q. obtusa		
	Q. palustris		
	Q. phellos*		
	Q. robur		
	Q. rubra		
	Q. suber		
	Q. velutina		

* species on which witches brooms have been reported (Gardner et al. 1972)

1/ Obtained from Bonar et al; Gardner and Yarwood, 1978.

Sooty Molds

The sooty molds are dark fungi which grow on the surfaces of plant parts, obtaining their nourishment from sugary materials either from excretions of insects such as aphids, scale, or white fly or from secretions of the plants. They do not attack the plant tissues but they are detrimental in that they may shade the leaves, thus stunting the growth somewhat, and they are not aesthetically pleasing. Control results from insect control.

Leaf Blister

This disease, resulting from infection by the fungus Taphrina caerulescens (Mont. & Desm.) Tul., has been reported only on Quercus agrifolia, Q. douglasii and Q. lobata (USDA 1960). The symptoms appear as more or less rounded, light green, slightly raised blisters about 6 to 12 mm in diameter on the upper surfaces and concave areas on the undersides of infected leaves. The layman may confuse these symptoms with those caused by an eriophyid gall mite. The blistered areas may be numerous enough to be confluent and, if so, leaf curl may result followed by defoliation. The fungus is favored by cool, wet weather after new growth has started in the spring. In California it is of little consequence and control measures have not been determined.

Rust

The rust fungus, Cronartium quercum (Berk.) Miyabe ex Shirai has been reported on Quercus agrifolia, Q. chrysolepis, Q. dumosa, Q. engelmanni, Q. garryana, Q. kelloggii, and Q. wislizenii in California (Bonar et al. unpub.). The fungus produces yellow spores on the undersides of the leaves. These spores are the repeating stage and can infect other oaks. Resting spores rarely are produced; however, when they germinate, the spores produced infect the alternate hosts which are 2- or 3-needled pines. The rust is of little importance in California and control measures are not needed.

Anthracnose

This disease results from infection by the fungus Gleosporium quernum Harkn. (USDA 1960). The fungus produces a leaf spot and a twig blight on young twigs but is not important as a disease-producing agent in California.

Septoria Leaf Spot

This is another fungus leaf spot of oaks and in California is of little consequence. The fungus Septoria quercina Desm. has been reported on Quercus chrysolepis and Q. wislezenii (Bonar et al. unpub.) and S. quercicicola Sacc. has been reported on Q. agrifolia (USDA 1960) on which they produce small, circular spots on infected leaves. When severe, these fungi may cause defoliation but generally, they cause little or no problem in California.

Heart Rot

Heart rot is a disease in which any of a number of fungi gain entrance to the heartwood through wounds including those caused by fire or dead branches. In California, Ganoderma applanatum (Pers.) Pat., Polyporus rheades (Pers.) Fr., P. sulphureus Bull. ex Fr., P. gilous (Schw.) Fr., P. versicolor L. ex Fr., Poria andersonii fasciatum Schw., S. gauspatum Fr., S. hirsutum Willd. ex Fr. and S. rugosum Pers. ex Fr. plus many other fungi have been reported as being associated with heart rots (Bonar et al. unpub., USDA 1960). Once inside, they develop in the heartwood reducing its strength and predisposing the tree or parts of it to windthrow. Although this is a disease of older trees, sometimes younger trees become infected. In standing trees, heart rot is evidenced principally by the production of fungus fruiting bodies on the outer sides of infected trees. These may be fleshy or they may be woody. The importance of the disease is dependent upon the nearness to areas where damage will result from falling trees or portions of them. Control is based on this danger and removal of portions or all of infected trees may be necessary.

Drippy Nut

This disease results from infection of developing acorns of Quercus agrifolia and Q. wislizenii by a bacterium which produces a sticky material that drips from infected nuts. The material is unpleasant, especially when it drips on cars, walks, driveways, garden furniture, patios, etc. The drippy stage of the disease is more prevalent during the warmer part of the year. The disease was first recorded by McCain and Raabe (in Butterfield et al. 1963) and in studies by Hildebrand and Schroth (1977), the causal agent was named Erwinia quercina. According to Koehler (1978), the causal bacteria gain entrance when acorns are stung by cynipid wasps, acorn curculios or probably other insects during egg-laying or feedings. No control is available at present though Koehler 1978 suggested finding a way of defruiting landscape trees as a means of control.

Mistletoe

In California, the leafy mistletoe Phoradendron villosum Nutt. is found attacking many oaks. This parasite produces a small branched plant with evergreen leaves. At the point of attachment, there may be a swelling of the host branch and an occasional dying of portions of the infected branch distal to the point of attachment. The fruits of the mistletoe are attractive to birds and the seeds, which have a sticky mucilaginous coating, may go through the digestive tracts unharmed or may stick to the bills and be disseminated in this way. Even though the leaf mistletoes are perennial, they do little damage to plants and control generally is not necessary. Where desirable, infected branches can be removed or, according to Milton Bell[3], they can be controlled by cutting the parasite from the plant and covering

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3/ Personal communication with Milton Bell, formerly of Univ. Calif. Agricultural Ext. Service.

the point of attachment by wrapping it with roofing paper for an extended period of time.

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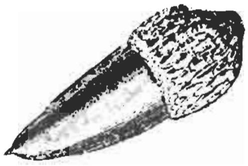

Quercus agrifolia

Response of Oaks to Fire[1]

Tim R. Plumb[2]

Abstract: Management of oaks requires knowledge of tree response to fire. This knowledge is gathered through visual and other evidence of damage and of recovery or death of the tree under various conditions such as fire conditions, weather conditions, and tree characteristics, particularly bark properties. Published information and field observations of five southern California oak species indicate that significant differences in oak species' fire sensitivity warrant consideration. The degree of trunk damage sustained is important. Coast live oak (Quercus agrifolia Nee) is extremely fire resistant, while canyon live oak (Q. chrysolepis Liebm.) almost self-destructs because of its dry, flaky bark. Bark thickness data are presented as well as methods for determining tissue viability. Recommendations for cutting or leaving damaged trees are based on species, size, and degree of trunk damage.

INTRODUCTION

Various oak species make up a large part of the plant cover on 15 to 20 million acres (6 to 8 million ha) in California. They occupy a wide range of sites as members of several vegetation types (Munz and Keck 1959). In the hot, dry, summer climate typical of most of California, oak trees are subject to wildfire wherever they grow. Consequently, management of the oak resource must consider tree response to wildfire.

Although the effect of fire on oaks has been studied in eastern United States (Loomis 1973, Hepting 1941, Toole and Furnival 1957), the only major report for California has concerned conifers (Wagener 1961). General studies have dealt with response of oak to damage from various sources, including fire, and it is well documented that most oak species vigorously resprout from the root crown and below-ground bud zone (Longhurst 1956). Stump sprouting potential, based on site index and tree age and diameter, has been developed for some Eastern oak species (Johnson 1977).

Historically, fire is considered a serious threat to oak trees (Edwards 1957, Sander 1977). This is understandable where the primary forest product is a veneer or high quality sawlog. Fire damage may immediately or eventually reduce the value of a tree. In California, however, other "products"--such as wildlife enhancement, watershed protection, recreation, and aesthetic value--may be more important than potential wood products. Oak trees may survive several damaging fires and live for 100 to 200 years or more. During this time, they may still provide many of the nonwood values mentioned.

Postfire oak management decisions must be made on a basis of specific information. After a severe crown fire, when all that remain are the charred trunk and large branches of the trees, it would seem obvious that the most appropriate action would be to cut the trees for firewood. On the other hand, after a low-intensity fire which causes little apparent injury to the trees, it would seem that they could be left to grow to old age. However, the apparent course of action may not always be the best postfire management decision.

This report, after some comments on fire-plant relationships, describes influences on tree response to fire, and the specific fire

[1]Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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response of five oak species, with respect to the trunk and aerial crown. (Damage to the root crown and below-ground part of the tree is not considered here.) A brief outline of postfire oak management planning considerations is included.

DETECTION OF DAMAGED TISSUE

To make an accurate assessment of fire damage, the observer must be able to distinguish between live and dead tissue. It is readily apparent when leaves are heat killed by fire. Damage to buds (if present) and to the live inner bark and cambium of the trunk and branches is not always so obvious. Several methods of detecting damaged plant tissue are listed in table 1.

Visual Evidence

It can be assumed that the cambium of a tree trunk has been killed if the bark has been completely consumed or if the bark has cracked and separated from the wood. When the bark, although completely charred, is thick, intact, and firmly attached to the wood, it is necessary to cut through the bark to determine the condition of the cambium. If the inner bark has a yellow tone, not white or pink, the cambium is either dead or seriously injured. The cambium and wood may also be stained dark brown or black, even though the inner bark appears healthy. It has not been determined that stained tissue is definitely dead, nor how long after the fire the staining occurs. Because many other damage symptoms occur within 3 weeks after a fire, it is probable that staining does also.

Table 1--Methods of detecting fire-killed plant tissue

Method of detection	General procedure	Utility[1/]	Reference
Visual	1. Directly observe degree of charring of tree trunk	Quick, simple, but success depends on species and d.b.h.	Loomis 1973
	2. Cut through bark to wood; dead inner bark is yellow or black, cambium black	Time consuming, but simple and fairly definitive; time after fire for effect to develop is unknown	Hare 1961
Aroma	Cut through bark to wood; dead inner bark has distinct fermented aroma	Time consuming, but simple; confirms visual detection	
Chemical	Cut into tissue, apply chemical solution:	Quick, but so far inconclusive	
	1. Urea peroxide plus ortho-tolidine (1 percent solution in 95 percent methanol); healthy tissue should turn blue or blue-black	Color response erratic or none at all when tested	Hare 1965b
	2. Tetrazolium chloride; healthy tissue should turn red	No color response when tested	Danielson 1972 (for Douglas-fir seed)
Electrical	1. Measure difference in electrical resistance of healthy and damaged tissue with a voltmeter	Not tested; reported results in literature inconsistent	Hare 1960 Hare 1961 Skutt and others 1972
	2. Use square wave generator and oscilloscope; to observe wave pattern of live and dead wood	Not tested; can be done with a portable unit	Ferguson and others 1975 (for dormancy in nursery stock)

[1/]Unless otherwise indicated, evaluation is based on tests made for this report.

Other Evidence

In the damaged inner bark of oak, the aroma of a wine cask has been detected from 2 weeks to several months after a fire; neither the minimum time it takes this aroma of fermentation to develop nor its duration is presently known. This test can be used when the inner bark is cut into to inspect for tissue damage.

Under some conditions, healthy plant tissue can be distinguished from damaged tissue by chemical reaction that produces a differential color response (table 1). With the urea peroxide, ortho-tolidine, methanol method (Hare 1965b), healthy tissue should give a blue to blue-black response, whereas non-respiring, presumably dead tissue, should remain colorless. So far, I have not found the color differential clearcut. Often a mottled blue stain is obtained, so that it is impossible to separate live and dead tissue with any certainty. At present, I do not recommend these chemicals for field use.

Tetrazolium (2,3,5-triphenyl tetrazolium chloride), used to determine viability of some seeds (Danielson 1972), is said to form an insoluble red pigment in live, respiring tissue. This chemical gave no color reaction in tests of either live or dead tissue, and is not recommended.

Measurement of electrical resistance has been used to identify live and dead tissue (Hare 1960, Various as cited in Hare 1961, Skutt and others 1972). Because the reported results are somewhat inconsistent and I did not test this method, I do not recommend it.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING TREE DAMAGE

The amount of damage that occurs in trees exposed to fire depends on the interaction of many conditions, the most important of which are briefly described here.

Temperature

The length of time that living tissue can withstand high temperature is inversely proportional to the temperature to which it is exposed (Martin and others 1969). Although there is some difference in heat sensitivity between individual cells and intact plants and between various plant species, a range of fairly low temperatures is fatal to most plant tissue. Lethal temperature for most intact plants ranges between 110 and 139° F (43 to 59° C), according to Hare (1961), who cites work with pine seedlings (Baker 1929):

Temperature (°F)	Time (min)	Effect
120	10+	No injury
125	5	Death
130	2	Death

First, there is a threshold temperature below which continuous exposure will not cause death; in this example, lethal temperature is somewhere between 120° F (49° C) and 125° F (52° C). Second, as the temperature increases, it takes less time to cause death. At 135° F (57° C), seedling death is rapid. A temperature of around 125° F is considered fatal to the cambium.

Fire Characteristics

Fire behavior, in rate-of-spread, energy release rate, and residence time, affects the time-temperature response, and thus the amount of tree damage that occurs. The time-temperature relations for the fire, the bark surface, and the cambium are not the same (fig. 1).

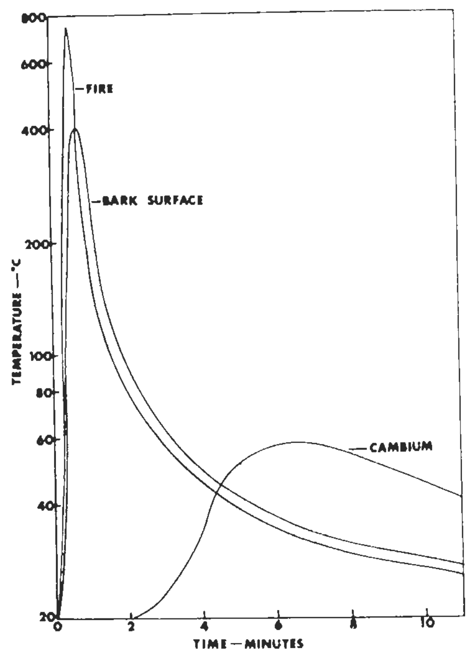

Figure 1—Time-temperature relations resulting from a passing fire can be predicted for two different locations in the tree trunk (Martin 1963).

Differential Heating

Not all sides of a tree are exposed to the same heat load. An eddy (chimney) effect develops on the lee side of a tree from the direction the fire is moving. This has been amply demonstrated under laboratory conditions by Gill (1974) and duplicated in our laboratory (fig. 2). In the field, trees with basal wounds on only one side of a tree, usually the uphill side, may be observed.

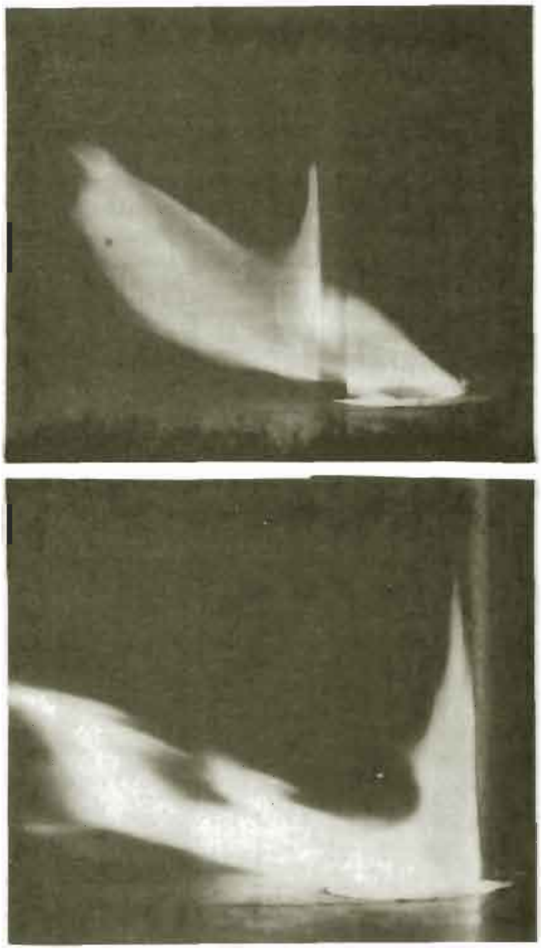

Figure 2—Simulated fire behavior demonstrates differential heating of a trunk. Above, base of flame front is at base of "tree;" below, base of flame is completely past tree.

Ambient Temperature

The initial bark temperature may determine whether or not the cambium is killed. For example, Hare (1965a) found that longleaf pine (Pinus palustris Mill.) and sweetgum (Liquidambar styraciflua L.) were about 50 percent more resistant to fire at 35° F (2° C) than at 70° F (21° C).

Season of the Year

Work with California conifers indicates that fire damage potential is greater in the growing season than later in the summer (Wagener 1961). Both eastern conifers and hardwoods, including oaks, showed increasing fire effects from winter to spring to summer (Ferguson 1957). This seasonal effect may be due to (1) differential physiological sensitivity to heat, (2) differences in fire intensity, and (3) differences in initial temperature, ambient temperatures being lower in spring than in summer.

Tree Characteristics

Predicting tree response to fire requires knowledge of certain facts about the tree, primarily, its species, age, diameter, and height; the tree part affected; and the bark characteristics.

In assessing fire damage, it is important that the species of oak be identified correctly, because all oak species do not have the same resistance to fire or the same recuperative capacity after being burned (Hare 1961, Spalt and Reifsnyder 1962). Differences in heat tolerance are probably due to differences in bark thickness, composition, chemical content, and other traits. See the discussion of the specific response of five southern California oak species to fire in a later section.

Tree age influences resistance to heat damage—younger trees are more susceptible to stem and top kill than old trees. Directly correlated to tree age are tree height, d.b.h., and bark thickness. Bark composition also changes with age, and may increase or reduce a tree's susceptibility to fire.

Tree diameter, which is directly related to tree age and site quality, is important in determining trunk survival. Large trees are more resistant to fire damage than small trees (Ferguson 1957). They have greater capacity as a heat sink and usually have thicker bark. Most oaks, including coast live oak, if less than 6 in. d.b.h. will be top-killed by a hot fire. Seedlings and trees less than 2 in. diameter will be top-killed by most fires.

Tree crown height directly affects amount of fire damage. Tree species which attain large size may suffer little or no crown damage from a low intensity fire if the lower edge of the crown is 30 to 40 ft (9 to 12 m) above the ground. Shrubs and small trees usually sustain heavy crown damage or complete trunk and crown kill during most fires.

Not all tree parts are equally sensitive to fire, although individual cells will be killed at 125° F (52° C). The size of a material--its surface to volume ratio--influences its susceptibility to heat damage. Leaves with a high ratio are much more susceptible to damage than twigs and other parts with much lower ratios. The trunk and branches are also protected by a corky layer of bark, which is a good insulator (Spalt and Reifsnyder 1962). Even a thin layer of bark will give good protection from high temperature for a short time--see the discussion below.

The roots are protected by a corky outer layer and by the soil itself. Oak root systems generally suffer little direct heat damage except possibly in feeder roots near the soil surface. It is probable that part of a root system dies back in response to aboveground damage, but this has not been verified in the field.

Dormant bud meristems have a thin protective covering of bud scales which reduces their sensitivity to heat damage as compared to leaves. I observed this after a prescribed fire in late spring in San Diego County in which the leaves of California black oak (Q. kelloggii Newb.) trees were killed. New shoots emerged from the damaged branches within 2 weeks after the fire. Acorns are quite sensitive to heat; even those lying on the ground exposed to sunlight are soon damaged.

Bark Characteristics

Bark is the most important protection the cambium has against damage from fire, insects, cold, and mechanical injury. It is a natural insulator containing numerous air spaces and suberized corky tissue.

The bark develops into a complex structure as a tree matures, changing from a thin layer of epidermal cells in young tissue to a thick, complex, multilayered zone in old stems. The general internal structure of a tree is illustrated in figure 3.

The outer bark varies greatly in surface texture from one species to another and is greatly affected by tree age. Surface texture may influence a tree's response to fire. A dry, flaky surface may actually contribute to a fire's intensity and result in more damage than would occur to a tree with smooth bark exposed to the same external heat input. In fact, the rise of cambial temperature during a fire is probably directly related to the flammability of the outer bark (Gill and Ashton 1968). I have frequently seen coast live oak (smooth bark) show only surface charring while canyon live oak (flaky bark, fig. 4) was frequently burnt through to the wood. Under intense burning conditions, coast live oak is damaged only 1/2 to 3/4 in. (1.3 to 1.9 cm) into the bark. Similar results from different bark surface textures were reported for eucalyptus (Gill and Ashton 1968).

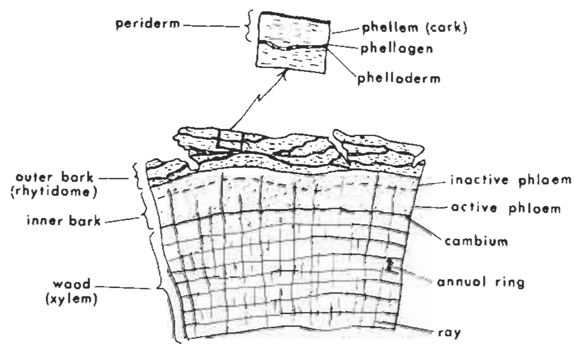

Figure 3--Tree response to fire is partly determined by the nature of the primary components of the bark and trunk.

Figure 4--Bark surface texture may affect fire behavior. The dry, flaky outer bark of canyon live oak increases fire intensity and amount of heat reaching the trunk.

The most important single influence on tree sensitivity to fire is bark thickness. Bark thickness is directly related to d.b.h. (Hare 1965a, Gill and Ashton 1968), and to tree age (Spalt and Reifsnyder 1962). Hare (1965a) found, using a constant heat source, that it took the cambium of an oak 30 seconds to reach 140° F if the bark was 0.2 in. (5.0 mm) thick and 136 seconds for bark 0.4 in. (10.0 mm) thick.

I collected bark thickness data for five southern California oak species. Differences in bark thickness among the five species are apparent (fig. 5). Coast live oak not only has the thickest bark, but its living, inner bark is several times as thick as its dead, outer bark. Interior live oak (Q. wislizenii A.DC.) likewise has a high ratio of inner to outer bark while the other species have about an equal amount of inner and outer bark. Other work indicates the older trees have greater heat resistance, not only because the bark is thicker, but also because the proportion of dead bark is greater (Hare 1965a, ref. to thesis by D. D. Devet 1940). However, the high fire resistance of coast live oak contradicts the idea that more dead bark is necessary for good fire resistance.

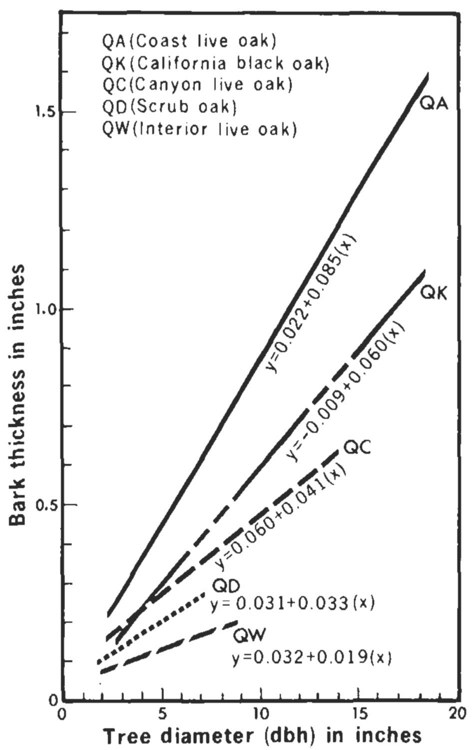

Figure 5—Total bark thickness of five southern California oak species was plotted in the range of d.b.h. classes sampled in the field. The curves are based on simple linear regressions determined by least squares.

The moisture content of bark varies from species to species, seasonally, and between the inner and outer bark (Vines 1968). The outer bark forms a sheath of low moisture content and low thermal conductivity around a zone of high moisture content and conductivity, the inner bark; however, the thermal diffusivity of both zones is similar (Martin 1963). Moisture contents I measured for coast and canyon live oak barks are as follows:

Species	Bark component	Percent moisture content
Coast live oak	Inner bark	106
	Wood	77
Canyon live oak	Flaky outer bark	11
	Inner bark	65
	Wood	60

These values are in line with other published data (Vines 1968, Martin 1963). The effect of moisture content on bark flammability may be more important than its effect on heat transfer (Gill and Ashton 1968).

The heat of combustion, the total amount of heat released during burning, for five southern California oaks is listed in table 2. With the exception of coast and interior live oak outer bark, all of the heat values are less than the theoretical 8600 Btu per pound. In each species, the inner bark has the lowest heat content, probably reflecting a low component of waxes and resins. The outer bark has the highest percent of acetone extractable materials (oil, fats, and resins), which accounts for its high heat content. Much of this potential energy is not released during normal burning conditions, however, because combustion is incomplete and some heat is used to vaporize moisture.

Bark density significantly affects the thermal properties of the bark; reported density values range from 17 to 39 lb/ft^3 for northeastern hardwoods and softwoods (Spalt and Reifsnyder 1962). Somewhat higher values were reported by Martin and Crist (1968). Based on a few observations, density values for five southern California oaks are listed in table 2. The outer bark of interior live oak at 61.3 lb/cu ft is very heavy and some pieces will sink in water. In contrast, the density of the flaky outer bark of canyon live oak is only about 31 lb/ft^3.

The thermal properties of bark—its insulating capacity—directly affect tree resistance to heat damage. Three such properties are described by Martin (1963):

1. Conductivity--the ability of a material to transmit heat through itself.

2. Specific heat--the ability of a material to absorb heat.

Table 2--Heat content and density of five southern California oak species (theoretical value for heat of combustion = 8600 Btu/lb)

Species and component	Density	Heat content[1/]
	(lb/ft^3)	(Btu/lb)
Coast live oak		
Outer bark	64	9550
Inner bark	25	7675
Wood	39	7900
California black oak		
Outer bark	63	8025
Inner bark	64	6475
Wood	51	7900
Canyon live oak		
Flaky outer bark	41	7175
Outer bark	48	7525
Inner bark	43	6575
Wood	45	7875
Interior live oak		
Outer bark	62	9875
Inner bark	45	7700
Wood	44	7925
Scrub oak		
Flaky outer bark	37	8350
Outer bark	45	8250
Inner bark	63	6750
Wood	57	8060

1/Values rounded off to nearest 25 Btu.

3. Diffusivity--the ratio of thermal conductivity to the product of specific heat and density.

Diffusivity is useful for evaluating the temperature change in a material over time, as in the cambium during exposure of the bark to fire. However, Martin found that the thermal diffusivity of bark is nearly constant over wide ranges of density, moisture content, and temperature (because of compensating effects) and is about one-fifth that of water.

TREE RESPONSE TO FIRE

In this section, the immediate and delayed response of the crown and trunk of a tree to fire are identified. Immediate tree effects range from no detectable damage to complete consumption or heavy charring, with tissue death. Delayed effects include sprouting from the tree base, trunk, and branches; cambial regeneration; and wood degradation by insects and disease.

Methods have been developed in the East for estimating, soon after a fire, the probable tree mortality, and for surviving trees, the probable wound size (Loomis 1973). Methods were also developed for predicting future sawtimber volume and quality loss, with dollar values (Loomis 1974). Procedures for predicting future amount of butt rot in fire-scarred red oaks in the South and ways to estimate extent of existing rot behind old scars are also available (Toole and Furnival 1957). Hepting (1941) gives a method for predicting future volume loss due to basal fire wounds, for Appalachian oaks. Similar studies have not been made in California. However, by applying results for oak in the East and South, we can obtain approximate damage estimates for the California oaks.

Estimating basal wound size and predicting tree mortality requires input about tree species, d.b.h., and the width and height of tree charring (Loomis 1973). Immediately after a fire, the width of a wound is fairly well approximated by the width of the charred area; however, wound height may exceed the charred area by several feet. The determination of char height is complicated by the deliquescent branching habit of some oaks; branching may begin almost at ground level.

Anticipated heart rot can be estimated for the present or predicted for the future using wound age and the ratio of wound width to tree diameter at stump height (Toole and Furnival 1957). Reported rates of spread range from 1.5 to 2.2 in. (3.8 to 5.5 cm) per year, with an overall average rate of upward spread of 1-1/4 ft (0.4 m) in 10 years.

Crown Damage

Crown damage can range from no effect to complete charring of the branches and total consumption of the leaves and small twigs. Often, different degrees of damage occur throughout a crown; the lowest part or the side facing an understory of brush or heavy fuel suffers greatest damage. If damage from a spring fire is limited to heat kill of the leaves, new leaves may emerge within a few weeks. Sprouting usually occurs also from the trunk and any branches that are not killed. Occasionally, some sprouts die back.

Basal Trunk Damage

The most common fire damage to a tree trunk is a basal wound caused by death of the cambium (fig. 6). Wounds less than a few inches across may eventually heal over with no accompanying heart rot (Toole and Furnival 1957), but larger wounds are responsible for the major loss of quality in eastern hardwoods. Establishment and spread of heart rot depends on many conditions, including resistance of the individual species, tree age, size of wound, and the species of fungus (Hepting 1941, Toole and Furnival 1957).

After a fire, a wound may also be attacked by various insects. As time goes by, new cambium may eventually cover a wound. However, if decay is active and wood of the wound face is destroyed, the growing cambium may curve inward and back on itself, forming a wound that may remain open for many years.

Subsequent fires may enlarge the wound until all that remains of the trunk is a thin, partial ring of mostly live wood. At this stage, the tree is a mechanical risk--subject to wind breakage. One more fire may so weaken the tree that it falls.

Heat damage to a zone of cambium completely around the trunk girdles a tree and eventually kills the crown. In a low intensity ground fire, cambium damage may be restricted to the lower 1 to 2 ft of the trunk however, with little or no immediate effect on the upper trunk or crown. I have seen trees girdled at this level still alive 8 years after the fire. The root system is probably kept alive by food supplied by the basal sprouts that develop after the fire.

How long the crowns of girdled trees will remain alive is not known. If the damaged zone is not too wide, the cambium may be able to reconnect. At any rate, trees with healthy-looking crowns, but with girdled trunks, may contribute to underestimation of fire damage.

RESPONSE OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA OAKS TO FIRE

Field evaluation of wildfire effects on five prominent southern California oak species began in 1974 to aid in postfire management planning. It was well known that most California oaks sprouted vigorously from the base when the trunk or crown, or both, were damaged; the study revealed important species differences.

On the site of the 1974 Soboba Fire, on the San Bernardino National Forest, almost 100 trees that had suffered damage ranging from light, spotty char to complete trunk and upper crown charring were selected, marked, and described. Postfire tree response (trunk and crown damage, resprouting, and death) was sampled for several years. Observations were made between 1975 to 1979 on seven other southern California National Forest areas burned by wildfire. Two areas burned by prescribed fire were also observed.

Permanent belt transects were selectively established in stands of coast live oak and California black oak on the Soboba Fire area, and in canyon live oak on the Village Fire area (Angeles National Forest). All trees in the transects were described by size, fire damage, and amount of postfire recovery. Follow-up sampling was done 1-1/2 to 2 years later.

Figure 6--**Basal trunk damage is the most common.** **Left, even a small charred area** on a California black oak can indicate damage to the cambium; right, active cambium is rapidly growing over the wound.

Coast Live Oak

Coast live oak was studied on six burned areas. The Soboba Fire was extremely hot, and severely burnt several groves of coast live oak (table 3, fig. 7). A number of completely charred trees were examined about 5 weeks after the fire. Initial evidence indicated that the cambium of many of the trees was not killed, and proposed sale of several hundred of the large trees for firewood was canceled.

The preliminary survey revealed coast live oak's ability to resprout from both the trunk and branches. Heavily charred trees resprouted within a few weeks after the fire, and within 5 years, regrowth has filled out a good part of the preburn crown area (fig. 7).

A followup survey of 75 completely charred trees in July 1976, 23 months after the fire, showed that all trees less than 3 in. (7.6 cm) d.b.h. were top-killed, but 87 percent had basal sprouts. Most trees 3 to 6 in. d.b.h. were also top-killed, but about 20 percent had trunk or crown sprouts. None of the trees larger than 6 in. d.b.h. were dead, and at least part of the trunk and crown of 60 percent of the trees was still alive.

A subsequent tree survey on the Soboba Fire was run in June 1977 and May 1979, 34 and 57 months after the fire. All the trees in a belt transect 50 ft (15 m) wide and 565 ft (173 m) long were tagged and described. Data for the 57-month sample date (table 3) indicate that:

1. Only 4 percent of all the trees were completely killed by fire.

2. Ninety percent of the trees less than 3 in. d.b.h. were top-killed, but most had sprouted from the base, and only 2 percent were completely dead.

3. The trunks and crowns of all but 5 percent of the trees larger than 6 in. d.b.h. survived the fire, and only two of 111 trees were completely killed.

The ability of the upper crown of coast live oak to survive intense fires was observed on several other burned areas. Crown recovery was dramatic on all of these areas, although it appears that percent mortality is occasionally greater than that after the Soboba Fire. Sometimes, the trunk and branch sprouts of a coast live oak die back.

Figure 7--A tree may recover from extensive crown damage. Left, 3 weeks after a wildfire, a large coast live oak which was completely charred is sprouting along the tops of the lower branches; right, 5 years after the fire, a large part of the original crown has been replaced.

Table 3--Condition of coast live oak trees on the Soboba area about 5 years after being completely charred in an intense wildfire

Tree diameter (d.b.h., inches)	Number of charred trees, August 1974	Tree condition, May 1979			
		Dead	Basal sprouts only	Basal and crown sprouts	Crown sprouts only
		Percent			
0-3	90	2	88	1	9
3-6	54	11	26	28	35
6-12	65	1	5	52	42
12-18	24	0	0	62	38
18+	22	4	5	50	41

Other attributes than its outstanding fire resistance favor use of fire in management of coast live oak. The trees are often large, making prescribed fire for hazard reduction advisable; and the stands are often very dense, with a low fuel loading of shrubs and other flammable material.

California Black Oak

California black oak was studied on the Soboba site and on a site of the Vista Fire (San Bernardino National Forest) that occurred in 1972. A few trees in a small grove that suffered different degrees of fire damage were marked for study a short time after the 1974 Soboba Fire. The trunks and upper crowns of the trees on the perimeter of the stand were killed during the fire, but trees farther in the stand received proportionately less damage, although a few large, old, hollowed-out trees fell over.

In October 1978, a belt transect 25 ft (7.6 m) by 300 ft (92 m) was established in another grove which had been partially surrounded by heavy brush. All 72 trees in the sample strip were tagged and their condition recorded (table 4). Almost 5 years after the fire, only 9 trees were dead, and they were evenly distributed throughout the 6 to 18 in. (15 to 46 cm) size classes. Trees less than 6 in. d.b.h. had the lowest percentage of live crowns and highest percentage of basal sprouting.

A low intensity fire may kill the cambium of even very large California black oak trees where the trunk is charred (fig. 6). Because ground cover is usually sparse under stands of large trees with closed canopies, high intensity fires and complete girdling of the trees is not expected. The most severe damage to this species occurs on the stand periphery, where they are exposed to high temperatures from the surrounding brush.

The Cleveland National Forest successfully used prescribed burning for hazard reduction under California black oak in May and June 1978. An understory of green grass often prevented direct burning of the tree trunks. Although the leaves on some of these trees were heat killed, on most trees a crop of new leaves emerged 2 weeks later.

Canyon Live Oak

Fire effect on canyon live oak was first studied on the Soboba area; this work indicated that the trunk was relatively sensitive to heat damage. A more intensive investigation was made after the November 1975 Village Fire. The condition of 198 trees with partially live crowns in a belt transect 50 ft (15 m) wide and 565 ft (172 m) long was determined 18 and 36 months after the fire. Trees with girdled trunks and dead crowns were tallied, but not described.

The Village study site was in a dense, almost pure stand of canyon live oak. Most of the trees were between 6 and 12 in. d.b.h. Fire damage was generally restricted to charring of the basal 1 to 5 feet of the trunk, and leaf kill of one-third to two-thirds of the crown. The dead, flaky bark (fig. 4) often carried fire several feet up a trunk; leaves on branches a few feet from the ground were heat-killed, but not burned. It was common for the bark of any size tree to be completely burnt through, exposing the wood underneath. This is rare for the other species covered in this report.

Table 4--Condition of a stand of California black oak 50 months after the 1975 Soboba Fire

Tree diameter (d.b.h., inches)	Number of trees	Tree condition[1]			
		Dead	Basal sprouting	Live crown[2]	Basal sprouting + live crown
		Percent			
0-6	7	15	57	14	14
6-12	38	11	18	47	24
12-18	21	19	19	52	10
18-24	6	0	33	67	0

[1] Initial fire damage ranged from no obvious effects to charring of the trunk and part of the crown.

[2] Includes both undamaged crown and regrowth since the fire.

Eighteen months after the fire, all trees less than 3 in. d.b.h. were top-killed and 90 percent had resprouted from the base (table 5). Crown kill developed more slowly in the larger trees and 55 percent were still alive at 18 months, although most were thought to be completely girdled at the base. Because the tops of the trees were still green and growing, it appeared that they were healthy and had successfully survived the fire.

During the next 18 months, about one-half of the "live" crowns turned brown (table 6). Many of the remaining live crowns will probably die in the next 18 months. In general, canyon live oak trees that have complete basal char are probably girdled and eventually the crowns will die, although it may take several years.

The use of prescribed fire in the management of canyon live oak does not appear to be promising. The trees are too sensitive to trunk girdling. The flaky outer bark contributes to the fire, making even a low-intensity ground fire one of high intensity on the trunk surface. The rise of cambial temperature is probably directly related to the flammability of the outer bark (Gill and Ashton 1968). Prescribed fire might be safely used in a stand of very large trees where fuel loading is low or where the trunks are protected from direct heat damage.

Interior Live Oak

Postfire response of interior live oak was initially studied on the Soboba area, where several trees with different degrees of fire damage were monitored the first year after the 1974 fire. Interior live oak was more sensitive to fire than canyon live oak. Although the bark of these trees is mostly live and doesn't burn well, total bark thickness is not very great (fig. 5). In addition, most interior live oak trees in southern California are less than 12 in. d.b.h.; consequently, the bark offers very little protection.

The effect of fire on large interior live oak trees was observed in a recent survey on the Los Padres National Forest. Even trees with bark an inch or more thick were thought to be girdled at the base where the fire appeared to be of moderate intensity.

Successful use of prescribed fire in interior live oak management does not seem promising. Not only is the bark thin, it seems to be less heat resistant than coast live oak bark of equal thickness. Where the bark is charred, the cambium is almost certain to be killed. Protection of large, individual trees might be feasible on small areas.

Scrub Oak

Scrub oak (Q. dumosa Nutt.) was included in this report because it is an important component of the chaparral in southern California. Because of its small size and intimate association with highly flammable chaparral species, it is almost always top-killed by fire.

Table 5--Condition of canyon live oak trees 1-1/2 years after receiving basal trunk damage during the Village Fire, Angeles National Forest, 1975

Tree diameter (d.b.h., inches)	Number of trees	Tree condition			
		Apparently dead[1/]	Basal sprouting only	Basal sprouting + live crown	Live crown only
		Percent			
0-3	10	10	90	0	0
3-6	59	3	73	22	2
6-12	97	1	25	70	4

1/ No evidence of live crown or sprouting.

Table 6--Decline over a 3-year period in the percent of live crowns of canyon live oak trees burned during the Village Fire, Angeles National Forest, 1975

Tree diameter (d.b.h., inches)	Trees with live crowns		
	Number of trees	After 18 months	After 36 months
		percent	
0-3	10	0	0
3-6	59	24	15
6-12	97	74	46

POSTFIRE MANAGEMENT PLANNING

The information reported here leads to some practical recommendations for postfire management planning. The decision to cut or not cut burnt trees as soon as a fire is out should be based on reliable information about anticipated tree survival. When possible, it is well to let at least one or preferably three growing seasons pass after a fire before making survival probability estimates and cutting decisions where survival is questionable.

The recommendations for cutting presented here (table 7) reflect only the expected response of trees to fire, and do not address other management considerations. The recommendations are generalized for size classes and degree of charring. Except in a crown fire, when direct effects tend to be the same on all trees, there is usually considerable range in degree of charring, and individual tree marking is appropriate.

The recommendation to cut assumes that a tree has been completely girdled and there is little or no chance for survival of the trunk and tree crown. The "leave" recommendation applies to trees in a range from those almost certain to survive to those which might survive.

Among trees that may survive are those which have basal wounds. A wound is usually limited to one side of a tree. I have seen tree crowns survive when less than 10 percent of the trunk circumference was left undamaged. Canyon live oaks 12 in. d.b.h. with wounds up to 20 ft (6.1 m) in height have remained completely functional. The question is, what percentage of a trunk circumference must be damaged before it should be cut? If a wound is narrow, the major portion of the trunk will remain intact, adequately supporting the crown of the tree. A prime consideration is whether or not the tree is presently or potentially a mechanical risk. As already noted, important wildlife, watershed, and recreation values will not be affected by serious trunk damage.

A tentative cutting guide might be:

1. Cut trees less than 6 in. d.b.h. that are more than 75 percent girdled.

2. Cut trees larger than 6 in. d.b.h. that are more than 50 percent girdled.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Oak species response to fire is variable. The trunk and upper crowns of coast live oak trees are highly resistant to fire kill and most trees resprout soon after they are burned. California black oak is less resistant to fire than coast live oak. Canyon

Table 7--Recommended guide to harvesting fire-damaged southern California oak trees, based on tree size and degree of trunk char[1/]

Species	Less than 6 in. d.b.h.			6-12 in. d.b.h.			More than 12 in. d.b.h.		
	Light char	Medium char	Heavy char	Light char	Medium char	Heavy char	Light char	Medium char	Heavy char
Coast live oak	Lv	Lv	Cut	Lv	Lv	Lv	Lv	Lv	Lv
California black oak	Lv	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut	Lv	Lv	Cut
Canyon live oak	Cut	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut
Interior live oak	Cut	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut
Scrub oak	Cut	Cut	Cut	Lv	Cut	Cut	2/	---	---

1/Assumes that 100 percent of the trunk circumference is affected, as follows: Light--spotty char or scorch, scattered pitting; Medium--continuous charring, scattered areas of minor reduction in bark thickness; Heavy--continuous charring and pronounced reduction in bark thickness, with wood sometimes exposed. Lv means that the tree should be left uncut for 3 years; Cut means the tree can be cut immediately.

2/Scrub oak does not reach 12 in. d.b.h.

live oak, interior live oak, and scrub oak are more susceptible to fire damage than California black oak.

2. Large oak trees are generally more resistant to fire kill than small ones. Bark is generally thicker and crowns are higher above the ground--both features reduce vulnerability.

3. Bark thickness and composition vary considerably among the five oak species studied and appear to have a direct effect on fire damage to the cambium. Thick, live bark offers best protection; dead, flaky, outer bark may directly contribute to a tree's destruction.

4. Discolored inner bark and cambium, with an aroma of fermentation are the best indicators of tissue damage.

5. Oak response to wildfire is complex and depends on actions and interactions of many variables. Trees may not react as expected and without careful examination, sound or slightly damaged trees will be unnecessarily cut. Additional study of feasibility of prescribed burning in oak management is needed.

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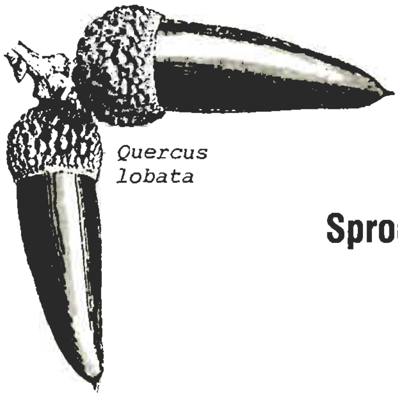

Quercus lobata

Sprouting in Fire-Damaged Valley Oaks, Chews Ridge, California[1]

James R. Griffin 2/

Abstract: Sprouting response of a total of 266 valley oaks was studied on plots representing three fire intensities in the Marble-Cone fire. In a crown fire plot all crowns were killed, but 53 pct of the roots survived to produce sprouts. After 1 year the crown fire plot sprouts averaged 59 cm in height. On a severe ground fire plot 82 pct of the oaks survived; 90 pct of the survivors had basal sprouts. Sprouts from trees with dead crowns emerged sooner and appeared more vigorous than sprouts from trees with live crowns. Mortality in a moderate ground fire plot was low; 57 pct of the survivors had basal sprouts. There was a trend in decreasing basal sprout vigor with increasing tree size. Ninety-three pct of the basally sprouting oaks had diameters between 10 and 39 cm.

INTRODUCTION

The Chews Ridge region in the Santa Lucia Range of Monterey County supports many age-classes of valley oak (Quercus lobata Née). Of particular interest are the younger trees, which are relatively well represented in this area (Griffin 1976). These small valley oaks are currently uncommon or rare in much of the oak woodland in California (Griffin 1977).

During the Marble-Cone fire of August 1977 all the valley oaks on the summit of Chews Ridge burned to some extent (Griffin 1978). Damage ranged from incineration by crown fire to light singeing by ground fire.

While surveying vegetation recovery on parts of the burn, I noticed younger valley oaks sprouting throughout the burned woodland on Chews Ridge. Knowing that few details of valley oak sprouting were recorded in the literature, I documented this interesting sprout situation where different age-classes had been subjected to various degrees of crown damage. This report summarizes the sprouting response of over two hundred valley oaks during the first growing season after the fire.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is common knowledge that most California oaks sprout when cut or burned. The shrubby oak species in the chaparral send up vigorous shoots after crown destruction, and the evergreen oak trees sprout actively from the base, sometimes from the crown as well. However, the deciduous white oak trees (valley oak; Oregon white oak, Q. garryana Dougl.; blue oak, Q. douglasii Hook. & Arn.) do not sprout as vigorously as the other California oaks. So little has been published specifically about valley oak that these two other closely related white oak trees are also reviewed here.

Jepson's (1910) early account of vegetative reproduction in white oaks remains the most helpful general reference. The following items are taken from his oak regeneration notes and individual species descriptions. All three species "stump-sprout" when young, but sprout vigor declines with age. Stumps of young white oaks are more likely to live than trees of the same size basally girdled and left standing. Oregon white oak may "weakly" stump-sprout in a few mature trees. Blue oak does not stump-sprout from mature trees, but it may "sucker"

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, Calif., June 26-28, 1979.

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from the trunk if cut several feet from the ground. Unfortunately, Jepson gave no sizes or ages at which sprouting declined in these white oaks.

Jepson stressed that natural valley oak regeneration is almost exlcusively by seed and that valley oak has the least vegetative reproductive potential of any California oak. He observed that: "Cutting off the trunk at the ground ends the life history at once, unless it be a small sapling-like tree. Increasing the height of the stump apparently makes no difference so long as the cut is below the first main arms or branches, but if the short stubs of the main branches be left then sprouting ensues freely."

I found no significant modern reference to valley oak sprouting. The wildlife habitat improvement literature has one item on how to encourage sprout production from blue oak stumps (Longhurst 1956). And the range improvement literature has a few notes on how to eliminate blue oak sprouts with herbicides (Leonard 1956, Leonard and Harvey 1956).

The few references mentioned above deal with the response of white oaks to mechanical or chemical crown damage. Even fewer references discuss sprouting induced by fire damage. Benson (1962) did speculate that blue oaks could not survive in chaparral habitats because of their relatively poor sprouting vigor. He stated: "Although the blue oak can survive grass fires beneath them in the oak woodland, they are killed outright by a hot brush fire, so they are unable to invade the chaparral." Benson was particularly contrasting savanna-grown blue oaks with white oak shrubs such as scrub oak (Q. dumosa Nutt.) which thrive in chaparral.

METHODS

I took general observations throughout a mosaic of fire damage conditions on Chews Ridge. The oaks inventoried for this report grew on the gentle summit between the U.S. Forest Service lookout tower and the Monterey Institute for Research in Astronomy site. This area was visited seven times between October 1977 and December 1978.

There was a general reduction in fire intensity across the study area. Regardless of location, however, each tree was classed individually into one of three damage groups on the basis of crown damage in 1977. "Crown fire" trees had all the leaves and smaller twigs consumed. The "severe ground fire" trees still had leaves, but the leaves were dead. In "moderate ground fire" areas some leaves in the upper crowns remained green. Most valley oaks in light ground fire areas had so little damage that they were not inventoried. Formal plot boundaries were not set, but the study area was essentially a complete sample of valley oaks on three plots totalling about 2 ha.

All the smaller valley oaks which might be able to sprout were marked with numbered aluminum tags nailed at dbh level on the north side of the trunk. The larger interspersed oaks were inventoried but not tagged unless they had damage features of special interest. For both tagged and untagged oaks, dbh, height of charred bark, condition of the 1977 leaves, condition of the 1978 crown, and size and nature of sprouts were recorded.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Valley oaks are seldom subjected to as hot a fire as these received in the oak-pine woodland on Chews Ridge. This portion of the mountain last burned in 1928, so 49 years of fuel had accumulated. Although parts of the oak stands are still "savanna" with a ground cover of annual grasses or bracken (Pteridium aquilinum Kuhn), much of the area had been invaded by Coulter pines (Pinus coulteri D. Don) (Griffin 1976). These thickets of pine saplings and small trees with a deep litter of needles, branches, and cones greatly increased the fire hazard to the oaks. In addition, two consecutive drought seasons with only half of the expected precipitation added to the hazard.

From previous work I knew about several dozen large valley oaks, up to 206 cm dbh, that had been dead in the study area for some years. These snags were completely consumed during the fire. Only empty "root cavities" radiating out from large pits in the baked soil mark where the snags had been. Burning of these snags caused pockets of severe damage in otherwise moderate or light ground fire areas.

Crown Fire

The fire entered the southern end of the study area on August 12, 1977 after crowning uphill through chaparral and scrubby hardwood forest. Here the ground cover, shrub stratum, and tree leaves and small twigs were literally consumed. Trunks of the valley oaks, up to 22 m tall, were charred to their tops. Crowns of the oaks were completely killed; no epicormic sprouts appeared during the following year. Many of the rootsystems of the oaks were also killed. Crown fire mortality of valley oaks was 48 pct (Tables 1, 2).

The first basal sprouts I noticed on the

Table 1-- Diameter distribution of 53 valley oaks killed by three degrees of fire damage on the Chews Ridge study plots.

Dbh class (cm)	Crown fire	Severe ground fire	Moderate ground fire
0-9		1	
10-19	2	5	
20-29	2	8	2
30-39	3	3	
40-49	1		
50-59	4	1	
60-69	3		
70-79	5	1	
80-89	1		
90-99	3		
100-109	1	1	
110-119	1		
120-129	1		
130-139	1		
140-149			
150-159	1		1
160-169		1	
Total	29	21	3

Table 2-- Diameter distribution of 213 valley oaks with basal sprouts (B) and/or epicormic sprouts (E) within three fire damage classes on the Chews Ridge study plots.

Dbh class (cm)	Crown fire	Severe ground fire			Moderate ground fire		
	B	B	BE	E	B	BE	E
0-9	3						
10-19	15	32	4		9	6	3
20-29	9	32	7	4	2	13	9
30-39	2	10		4	2	12	7
40-49	1	4				1	2
50-59	1						4
60-69						2	
70-79							
80-89				1			3
90-99							2
100-109							2
110-119							2
120-129							1
130-139							1
140-149				1			
Total	31	78	11	10	13	34	36

study area were on these crown-fire-killed oaks. Within 60 days after the fire a few small valley oaks had basal sprouts up to 20 cm tall. These sprouts were already large enough to attract browsing deer. One year after the fire, heights of the browsed sprouts ranged from 15-120 cm with a mean of 59 cm.

Severe Ground Fire

When the fire moved onto the gentler slopes of the main summit, it no longer burned from crown to crown. Here the leaves were heat-killed but not burned. Any burning that did occur in the crowns centered around the dead wood exposed at broken limbs and tops of large trees. On trees with extensive internal rot, burning so weakened the trunks that the trees broke apart. In a few hollow trees the internal fires killed the trees while the bark remained unscorched. On small relatively thin-barked trees crown mortality resulted from heat-caused girdling through the bark. In many such trees the cambium died even though the bark was not charred.

Only 18 pct of the severe ground fire oaks died during the first year (Tables 1, 2). Of the surviving valley oaks 90 pct had basal sprouts (Table 2). After 1 year the browsed basal sprouts ranged in height from 10-115 cm with a mean of 47 cm. Twenty-one pct of the surviving valley oak trees had epicormic sprouts on trunks or large branches. At the end of the first year some epicormic sprouts were dying, and it was not clear how many of the old crowns would survive or be rejuvenated by these sprouts. Most of the small trees that do survive by epicormic sprouts will have serious basal fire scars; strips of bark were already peeling off where the cambium died by the end of the first year. The amount of fire scars on the thick-barked large survivors was not evident during the first year.

Moderate Ground Fire

Direct mortality from the fire was low in this area. Only two small trees and one large hollow tree out of 86 inventoried oaks died (Table 1, 2). Fifty-seven pct of the surviving valley oaks have basal sprouts (Table 2). One year after the burn the browsed basal sprouts ranged in height from 10-120 cm with a mean of 45 cm. All trees with live crowns had some degree of epicormic sprouting in the lower crown. One year after the fire the large oaks had relatively normal-looking crowns. The small trees had mixtures of dead leaves, epicormic sprouts, and normal twigs. Many of the small trees will have basal fire scars.

Sprout Vigor

The dbh distributions in Table 2 strongly support Jepson's (1910) generality that valley oak sprouting vigor declines with age. The largest tree to have basal sprouts was 66 cm dbh, and 93 pct of the trees with basal sprouts were between 10 and 39 cm dbh.

Basal sprout heights could not be determined very precisely. The tips of some froze early in the season, and almost all sprouts suffered some die-back from mildew infection. In 1978 mildew was abundant on sprouts of all oak species over the entire Marble-Cone burn. Black-tailed deer added even more problems in measuring sprouts, for over 90 pct of the sprouts had been browsed.

I did not correlate sprout height with dbh, but smaller trees appeared to have larger sprouts. The modal height class for basal sprouts was 40-59 cm. Of the 27 sprouts that were 70 cm or more tall only three were from trees greater than 25 cm dbh. Regardless of size, valley oaks with dead crowns appear to sprout earlier, have longer sprouts, and produce more sprouts per trunk base than trees with live crowns.

Fire Control Implications

Apparently the Marble-Cone fire caused a rather high number of valley oaks to sprout. Even if heavy sprout mortality occurs in the next few years, an obvious number of sapling sprout clumps should develop. This amount of basal sprouting has not occurred after previous fires on Chews Ridge. The 1928 fire produced few if any successful sprout clumps on the study area. Pre-1928 fires caused only 3 pct of the stand to sprout; the 266 trees inventoried contained only eight sprout pairs and one sprout trio. Past fires also left basal fire scars on only 4 pct of the valley oaks on the study area.

Since the least sprouting after the Marble-Cone fire occurred in areas with no more than moderate ground fires, this study suggests that Chews Ridge did not have widespread crown or severe ground fires during the establishment of the present valley oak stands. Burns as serious as the Marble-Cone fire in the past should have caused a higher proportion of valley oak sprout clumps and more conspicuous basal fire scars on the surviving valley oaks.

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Quercus kelloggii

Effect of Chronic Oxidant Air Pollution Exposure on California Black Oak in the San Bernardino Mountains[1]

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Abstract: The effects of ambient oxidant air pollution exposure between 1974 and 1978 on California black oak (Quercus Kelloggi Newb.) leaf injury development, stem diameter growth, acorn production, and relationships to insect pests and disease were studied in 15 vegetation plots located along a gradient of decreasing oxidant dose in the San Bernardino Mountains of southern California. Leaf injury decreased uniformly along the decreasing dose gradient. Year-to-year observations suggested that greater leaf injury was related to lower air temperatures, concurrent with cumulative dose and higher precipitation during the preceding winter and spring. Greater leaf injury generally resulted in lower average stem diameter increases between 1975 and 1978 when the total tree population was considered; however, site quality obscured this difference in some plot comparisons. Distribution of the insect and disease complex did not appear related to the oxidant stress gradient; however, the fruit tree leaf roller and oxidant injury acted additively to injure foliage at several plots. Acorn production appeared depressed at these sites. The results of this study suggest that black oak will continue to show diminished productivity if ambient oxidant air pollution remains at levels measured in recent years.

INTRODUCTION

California black oak (Quercus Kelloggi Newb.) is an important species in the mixed-conifer and pine types of the San Bernardino Mountains. It is found in stands dominated by either ponderosa pine (Pinus ponderosa Laws.) or Jeffrey pine (P. Jeffreyi Grev and Balf.). The seedling density of associated conifers, namely ponderosa pine and white fir (Abies concolor, [Gord. and Glend.] Lindl.), is positively correlated with black oak crown cover in the San Bernardino Mountains (McBride 1978a) and the oxidant damaged ponderosa pine-black oak type appears to be shifting towards a black oak type (McBride 1978b). Since 1974, data have been collected on a gradient of decreasing oxidant dose in the San Bernardino mountains (Miller and others, 1977).

1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

2/ This investigation was supported in part by EPA Contracts 68-03-0273 and 68-03-2442, and EPA Grants R805410-01 and 02, through the Corvallis Environmental Reseach Laboratory. This report has been reviewed by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.

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This report describes preliminary results of work on the relationships of within-season and end-of-season leaf injury in black oak and radial growth to oxidant dose and weather variables. The frequency of acorn crops and the activity of defoliator insects and diseases along the oxidant gradients are also reported.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Study Sites

Fifteen permanent plots were established in an east to west direction, from 1515 to 2212 meters elevation, in the San Bernardino Mountains. Resultant plot locations corresponded to a gradient of decreasing oxidant air pollution effect, with increasing distance to the east. The oxidant gradient occurred within a 44.4 kilometer span between Camp Paivika at the extreme west and Camp Osceloa at the extreme east. Another dimension of the gradient was related to the south-to-north separation of plots, for example, the 3 to 4 kilometer span between Sky Forest on the rim overlooking the basin and the University of California Conference Center on the north shore of Lake Arrowhead. Plots were listed in order of ascending elevation, with distances and azimuths from Camp Paivika, the number of California black oak trees, and the principal pine associated in each plot (table 1).

Plots were selected on the basis of relative homogeneity of tree cover. They were generally located on flat terrain or gently sloping north aspects. Plot width was always 30 meters but length varied depending on the distance required to obtain the 50 ponderosa (PP) or Jeffrey (PJ) pines equal to or greater than 30 centimeter diameter breast height (d.b.h.). All tree species equal to or larger than 10 centimeter d.b.h. were labeled with numbered metal tags.

Oxidant Monitoring and Meteorological Measurements

Hourly ozone measurements were obtained from May through September, beginning in 1974, at three permanent stations--Camp Paivika, Sky Forest, and Barton Flats. The

Table 1--Permanent plot characteristics with plots listed in order of increasing distance from the Camp Paivika plot.

Plot name	Abbreviation	Elevation and pine[1/] associate(s)	Location relative to Camp Paivika: Distance	Location relative to Camp Paivika: Azimuth	Black oak trees
		meters	kilometers	degrees	
Camp Paivika	CP	1587 PP	---	---	63
Breezy Point	BP	1515 PP	2.8	19	31
Tunnel Two	TUN2	1642 PP	9.6	75	20
Dogwood A	DWA	1715 PP	11.0	92	16
Univ. Conf. Cen.	UCC	1600 PP	13.3	77	13
Sky Forest	SF	1709 PP	13.4	92	7
Camp Oongo	COO	1891 PP	18.3	94	33
Green Valley Cr.	GVC	1939 PP,PJ	21.8	92	73
Deer Lick	DL	1891 PP,PJ	23.3	100	38
Snow Valley 1	SV1	2060 PJ	26.7	94	16
Camp Angelus	CA	1818 PP	34.1	107	19
Schneider Cr.	SCR	1842 PP	36.0	105	33
Barton Flats	BF	1891 PP,PJ	40.4	101	13
Holcomb Valley	HV	2212 PJ	40.8	82	4
Camp Osceola	CAO	2121 PP,PJ	44.4	101	14

[1/] pp = ponderosa pine; JP = Jeffrey pine

DASIBI ultraviolet photometers used at these stations were calibrated by the California Air Resources Board in El Monte. Data were recorded on strip charts. Mast total oxidant meters (the instrument signal includes over 90 percent ozone and small amounts of NO_2 and peroxyacetyl nitrate) were used at all sites prior to 1974; during the 1974 to 1978 period they were located for two to three week periods at or nearby each vegetation plot. These temporary plot measurements were compared hourly by regression with the nearest of the three permanent stations so that missing hourly concentrations could be calculated.

Mast meters were calibrated against a DASIBI ozone photometer that was maintained in the laboratory as a transfer standard. Power was provided for Mast meters at plots with four 6 volt, 217 A/hr lead acid batteries that were replaced with newly charged batteries twice per week. DC to AC inverters were required. The Datamart strip chart recorders used at plots had self-contained rechargeable gel cell batteries.

All oxidant and ozone data were adjusted for the elevation difference between the calibration site and each mountain station or plot location by a factor ranging from 1.16 at 1515 meters to 1.26 at 2212 meters. Cumulative ozone or oxidant dose was obtained by summing all hourly concentrations equal to or greater than 0.03 ppm.(the natural background concentration).

Air temperature and relative humidity were measured hourly at the three permanent stations and telemetered by radio or telephone line to the laboratory in Riverside. The system was designed by Ball Brothers Research, Boulder, Colorado. At remote vegetation plots, temperature and relative humidity were measured with hygrothermographs in standard weather instrument shelters.

Winter precipitation was collected at vegetation plots using "Sacramento" storage gauges standing 147 centimeters high, with a 48 centimeter diamter base, and a 25 centimeter diameter orifice. The gauge was charged with antifreeze and a thin surface layer of automatic transmission fluid. Accumulations were measured monthly, when possible. Standard rain gauges and, later, a modification of the snow gauge were used to collect summer precipitation. The modification consisted of a 23 centimeter diameter funnel and collection bottle inserted into the orifice of the snow gauge.

Observation of Black Oak Responses

Oxidant Injury--At two week intervals, starting in mid-June and ending by early September, within season measurement of leaf injury was evaluated at 5 of the 15 plots. Three branch tips were permanently tagged on each of five trees per plot; this labeling provided assurance that the same leaves would be observed each time. A five-category descriptive scale was used to evaluate the symptom intensity represented by the aggregate of leaves on each branch tip:

Scale	Description
4	Leaves completely green
3	First evidence of interveinal chlorosis, chlorotic mottle, or necrotic lesions mainly on upper surfaces
2	Moderate levels of interveinal chlorosis, chlorotic mottle, necrosis mainly on the upper surface
1	More severe than category 2 with necrosis extending to the lower leaf surface
0	Leaves necrotic on both surfaces

An end-of-season evaluation of chronic leaf injury was made of all black oaks at each of the 15 plots, during the first 10 days of September, each year from 1974 to 1978. About half the plots were not visited in 1977 due to scheduling problems. In this procedure the leaf canopy of each tree was arbitrarily divided into upper and lower halves and leaf condition was described separately usually through wide-angle binoculars. Year-to-year comparisons are thought of as relative levels of deterioration from the healthy, symptomless score of 8 (4 each for upper and lower canopy).

Stem Growth and Acorn Crops--In 1975, a nail was placed at 1.4 meters d.b.h. on all trees. In 1978, the d.b.h. was remeasured. The diameter growth difference between the autumns of 1975 and 1978 (three growing seasons) was compared from plot to plot and for all plots, with particular attention to the relationship between growth and leaf injury.

Both the upper and lower crowns of each tree were inspected for acorns during end-of-season observations. The frequency of acorn crops for each tree was compared for the 1973-1978 period.

Insect Activity, Diseases, and Other Environmental Stresses--At two plots, namely CP and BP, black oaks were infested with the fruit tree leaf roller (Archips argyrospilus Walker) throughout the study period (Brown and Eads 1965). Eight other plots had minor infestations for at least 1 year. Some of this early summer defoliation was possibly due to the California oak moth (Phryganidia californica Packard). The resultant defoliation was described as 1, light; 2, moderate; and 3, severe. Defoliation at the end of the season was comprised of a new flush of leaves that were produced following the activity of the insects in May and June.

True mistletoe (Phoradendron flavescens var. villosum Nutt. Engelm. in Rothr.) was observed and recorded as one of three intensity levels, depending on the number of mistletoe plants, their position on the tree, and amount of mistletoe-caused branch mortality.

Stem decay was recorded only when indicated by external evidence. A dieback of oak branches was observed and recorded as one of three intensity levels, depending on the number of branches affected. Limb and main stem breakage traceable to excessive snow loading and loss of trees due to firewood collection were recorded.

RESULTS

Responses to Chronic Oxidant Exposure

Initial Screening of Data--The Kruskall-Wallis nonparametric test showed that oxidant-caused leaf injury, fall and spring precipitation, and acorn production all differed beyond chance from plot to plot. The results of other analysis methods follow.

Relationship of Leaf Injury and Plot Location--The influence of distance from west to east and plot elevation was recorded for black oak leaf injury each season from 1974 to 1978 (fig. 1). The plots are shown in relation to elevation and distance from CP. The influence of distance from the pollutant source is most evident for those plots 40 to 44 kilometers east of CP and above 2000 meters elevation, where average leaf injury for each of the 5 years at BF, CAO, SV1 and HV was $\geq$ 7.0 (very slight to no injury).

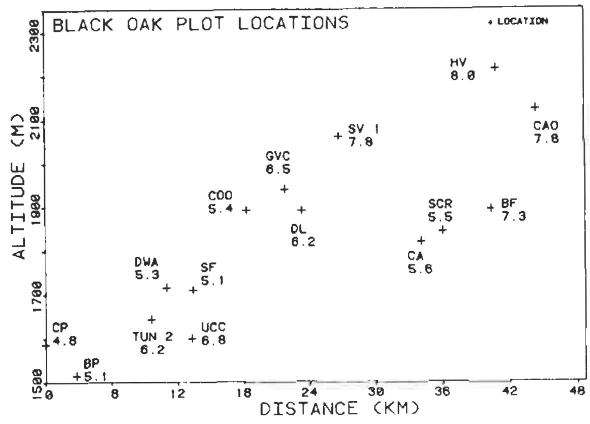

Figure 1. Average leaf injury score for the end of each season from 1974 to 1978 for black oaks in plots located on an elevational and a west-to-east gradient of decreasing oxidant dose in the San Bernardino Mountains. A score of 8.0 means no injury.

The five plots with the greatest average leaf injury (CP, BP, SF, DWA and COO) are all within 18.5 kilometers of the extreme west end of the study area. The elevations of these stations range from 1515 to 1891 meters. Average leaf injury in these plots was moderate, ranging between 4.8 and 5.4.

Relationship of Stem Diameter Growth to Plot Location and Leaf Injury--A comparison of the plot rankings for leaf injury and growth shows generally poor correspondence (table 2). For example, black oaks at SF and DWA show larger growth increases in spite of moderate leaf injury. Another comparison shows good growth responses at TUN2 and UCC when the average leaf injury was only slight, but these plots are considered to be in a high oxidant dose area (9.6 and 13.3 kilometers, respectively, from CP and 2.5 to 3.0 north of the ridgecrest overlooking the polluted basin). The smaller diameter increases at CP and BP compare well

Table 2--Average leaf injury scores from 1974 to 1978 and stem diameter increase between 1975 and 1978 at the 15 permanent plots in the San Bernardino Mountains.

Plots in order of decreasing leaf injury	Distance from CP	Average leaf injury[1/] (1974-1978)	Diameter increase (1975-1978)
	kilometer		centimeter
CP	----	4.8	0.61
BP	2.8	5.1	0.68
SF	13.4	5.1	1.27
DWA	11.0	5.3	1.51
COO	18.3	5.4	1.00
SCR	36.0	5.5	0.82
CA	34.1	5.6	1.26
TUN2	9.6	6.2	1.15
DL	23.3	6.2	0.50
GVC	21.8	6.5	1.04
UCC	13.3	6.8	1.50
BF	40.4	7.3	1.16
CAO	44.4	7.6	0.65
SV1	26.7	7.8	ND
HV	40.8	8.0	0.78

[1/] 0 - 1.99 Very severe
2 - 3.99 Severe
4 - 5.99 Moderate
6 - 7.99 Very slight to slight
8 None

with greater leaf injury, but chronic defoliation of many trees by the fruit tree leaf roller at these plots may be partially responsible for the smaller growth response.

To further explore the effect of leaf injury on growth, a regression was fitted for each plot but the R^2 values did not exceed 0.15. An analysis of variance was used to test the regressions of growth on injury for all plots, showing that slopes and intercepts differ beyond chance from plot to plot. The importance of plot (as expressed through characteristics like soil depth, water holding capacity, and slope) on average radial growth is reported by Gemmill in this volume.

The influence of leaf injury on stem growth was examined by comparing four samples from the total population (table 3). Plot characteristics seem to dominate as the most important variables associated with stem growth; however, another method was used to investigate the relationship of leaf injury and growth in which the total tree population was examined without respect to plot characteristics. The total tree population was divided into four stratifications, or leaf injury categories, so that the growth responses of each grouping could be tested using the two-sample t-test for unequal sample sizes. The test results show substantial differences where the p values were 0.000 for the first three groupings and 0.004 (separate) and .002 (paired) for the fourth, namely, 0-6.99 vs 7.0-8.0.

The growth differences, evident from these comparisons based on leaf injury, are greatest when the 0-3.99 categories are compared with the larger group of trees with less leaf injury. The growth difference becomes smallest when trees in the 7.0-8.0 leaf injury category are compared with the remaining population.

On the basis of leaf injury observations at six plots experiencing the heaviest oxidant doses (CP, BP, TUN2, DWA, SF, and COO) only 12 out of 170 trees in these plots could be considred oxidant tolerant, that is, with a 7.0-8.0 injury score average for the 1973-1978 period.

Table 3--Growth of four black oak samples from the total population when stratified by leaf injury category.

Leaf injury categories compared	Trees per category	Average diameter increase[1] (1975-1978)	Differences between categories
		centimeter	centimeter
0 - 3.99 vs	29	0.41 ± 0.13	
4.0 - 8.0	349	0.95 ± 0.07	0.54
0 - 4.99 vs	95	0.63 ± 0.09	
5.0 - 8.0	283	1.00 ± 0.07	0.37
0 - 5.99 vs	188	0.75 ± 0.08	
6.0 - 8.0	190	1.05 ± 0.09	0.30
0 - 6.99 vs	279	0.84 ± 0.07	
7.0 - 8.0	99	1.07 ± 0.14	0.23

1/ Confidence interval of 95 percent

Examination of Conditions Affecting Leaf Injury Development--Six of the plots receiving the greatest chronic exposure were compared for year-to-year variation of average leaf injury for the 1974 to 1978 period (table 4). Five of the plots (CP, BP, DWA, SF and COO) had similar leaf injury for each year over the 5-year period. These plots are located on the ridgecrest overlooking the polluted urban basin. TUN2 may have had less injury because of the pollutant dilution resulting from its location

Table 4--Annual leaf injury to black oaks at six plots located within an 18 kilometer-long by 4 kilometer-wide zone at the heavily polluted western end of the San Bernardino Mountains.

Year	Plot						Avg[1,2]
	CP	BP	TUN2	DWA	SF	COO	
	Average leaf injury score						
1974	5.5	5.6	6.9	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.4±0.15
1975	5.5	5.2	5.7	5.4	4.9	5.5	5.2±0.15
1976	4.7	4.3	6.0	4.6	4.3	4.7	4.6±0.15
1977	6.5	6.3	6.9	6.4	6.1	6.5	6.2±0.15
1978	4.6	4.1	5.6	5.0	5.0	4.6	4.6±0.15
Ave:	4.8±0.11	5.1±0.16	6.2±0.20	5.3±0.22	5.2±0.34	5.4±0.11	5.2±0.06

1/ Average injury for a single year for trees at the six plots could not be derived from averaging the six individual values for that year because plots must have the same number of trees

2/ Confidence interval of 95%

2.6 kilometers north of the first ridgecrest. The average injury at all plots varied similarly from year to year. The most severe injury occurred in 1976 and 1978; 1977 had the least injury, while 1974 and 1975 were intermediate. The data required to examine the different variables associated with symptom development at all six plots is not yet available for all years.

Sufficient data was available at plot DWA to examine year-to-year changes of leaf injury. These data show the relationships of cumulative oxidant dose and other variables to injury, for the years 1976, 1977 and 1978. During these years, injury development was measured biweekly throughout the growing season. The data suggest that the larger amounts of injury in 1976 and 1978 are associated with lower mean hourly June-September air temperatures and moderate to high total seasonal precipitation (starting in October of the preceding year) (table 5). The correlation between cumulative oxidant dose and within-season development of leaf injury is greatest in 1978. The negative correlation in 1977, when the dose was only slightly less than in 1978, coincides with lower precipitation and a higher mean seasonal temperature. These preliminary results suggest the hypothesis that higher temperatures coupled with lower soil moisture availability are expressed as lower daytime tree water potentials that, in turn, limit both transpiration and pollutant uptake.

Frequency of Acorn Crops--The number of trees producing acorn crops during the 1974 to 1978 period were compared listing plots in order of decreasing leaf injury. The year of peak production was 1977, followed by 1978. The general impression is that trees with less leaf injury and more rapid growth also produce more acorns (table 6). The small number of acorn bearing trees at CP and BP may result from the combination of stresses imposed by oxidant pollution and the fruit tree leaf roller. The locations where trees produced more acorn crops during the five-year period than the number of trees in the plot were DWA, TUN2, GVC, BF and SV1. In some cases, this resulted from the same tree producing acorns in successive or alternate years. The average diameter increases at these plots were all among the highest, as seen from ranking of plots in the column on the far right in table 6.

Diseases and Insect Pests of Black Oak Experiencing Chronic Oxidant Stress

The pest complex present on black oaks was described for each of the 15 plots in order of decreasing leaf injury (table 7). During the 5 year observation period only six of the original 428 trees in all the plots died due to pests or physical damage, and six were removed for firewood. The two most prevalent problems were insect defoliators (primarily the fruit tree leaf roller) present on 40 percent of the plot trees for one or more years and a branch girdling canker observed on 24 percent of the trees. The fungal cause of the canker has not been determined. The fruit tree leaf roller has been present in the western portion of the San Bernardino Mountains for at least 10 to 15 years prior to our observations.
The canker dieback was very scarce in the four plots experiencing the most oxidant-caused leaf injury. No evidence exists to suggest that the distributions of either the

Table 5--Variables that may have interacted to control leaf injury development of black oak at the DWA plot in 1976, 1977, and 1978.

Year	End of season leaf injury	Cumulative seasonal oxidant dose	Correlation of dose and within-season injury	Precipitation, Oct.-Sept.	Average air temp. June-Sept.
		(ppm-hr)		(cm)	(C)
1976	4.6	151.3	+ 0.40	89.1	15.5
1977	6.4	160.3	- 0.27	73.8	18.4
1978	5.0	168.4	+ 0.66	155.9	16.1

Table 6--Trees producing acorn crops between 1974 and 1978 (plots listed in order of decreasing leaf injury).

Plot name	Total trees per plot producing acorn crops 1974 - 1978: Acorn crops	Total trees per plot producing acorn crops 1974 - 1978: Trees	Trees with acorns each year: 1974	1975	1976	1977[1/]	1978	Plots in order of increasing diameter growth
CP	11	66	7	3	1	0	0	DL
BP	3	31	3	0	0	0	0	CP
SF	5	7	1	1	1	1	1	CAO
DWA	18	16	5	9	2	2	0	BP
COO	27	39	2	0	1	19	5	HV
SCR	17	37	2	7	6	2	0	SCR
CA	10	20	2	7	0	1	0	COO
TUN2	22	20	7	10	0	1	4	GVC
DL	28	41	ND	ND	2	20	6	TUN2
GVC	115	82	0	0	9	66	40	BF
UCC	4	13	1	3	0	0	0	CA
BF	22	16	1	1	7	13	0	SF
CAO	10	16	0	0	3	7	0	UCC
SV1	28	16	1	0	6	12	9	DWA
HV	4	6	0	0	1	2	1	(SV1=ND)
Total	324	426	32	41	39	146	66	
Percent	76.0		7.5	9.6	9.1	34.3	15.4	

[1/] The 1977 data for GVC, DL, HV, CA, SCR, BF and CAO were contributed by Robert F. Luck, Division of Biological Control, University of California, Riverside

defoliator or the branch canker are influenced by oxidant stress. These agents more likely are to be controlled by existing air temperature or soil moisture gradients.

True mistletoe infections were present at only five plots, the most severe problem being at SCR. No direct effects of oxidant were recognizable on the mistletoe foliage and no observations were made of mistletoe fruiting.

Stem decay was detectable on only 2 percent of the trees, mainly those of large diameter. The actual incidence of decay would probably be higher under a more thorough examination.

In spring 1974, a heavy snow caused a small amount of upper stem and branch breakage. The utilization of study plot trees is indicated by the numbers removed for firewood by 1978; one or two were living at the time of removal.

The relatively small size and small number of plots did not provide an optimal design for the best estimate of pest activity over the complete study area. The intensity levels (1, 2, and 3) to describe the defoliator, canker dieback, and true mistletoe severity on each tree provide a useful estimate of the severity of infestations or infections.

DISCUSSION

This study was part of an interdisciplinary study to predict successional trends in forest stands subjected to several chronic oxidant dose levels (Miller and others 1977). The trend in observed amounts of oxidant-caused leaf injury corresponded to the injury to oxidant-sensitive conifer species in the same plots oriented generally along a gradient of decreasing cumulative

Table 7—Pest complex and other environmental factors affecting black oaks in the San Bernardino Mountains, 1974 to 1978.

Plot name	Trees 1974	Dead trees in 1978	Insect defoliators[1]			Canker dieback			True mistletoe			Stem decay	Snow damage	Taken for firewood
			1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3			
CP	69	2	2	37	28				1				1	1
BP	31	0	5	9	17				2					
SF	7	0			2	1								
DWA	16	0	7											
COO	39	0	22	1		7	3	1					2	
SCR	37	3	16			15	6	1	9	1	3	3		
CA	20	1	16			6			1	1	1	2		1
TUN2	20	0	4			3				2	1			
DL	40	2	1			15	3					1		2
GVC	82	3				18	1	1				1	2	1
UCC	13	0												
BF	16	1				6	1	1				1	2	1
CAO	16	0	4			6	3						3	
SVI	16	0				2								
HV	6	0				2								
Total	428	12	77	47	47	81	18	3	13	4	6	8	10	6
Partial percent		2.8	18.0	11.0	11.0	18.9	4.2	0.7	3.0	0.9	1.4	2.1	2.1	1.1
Percent			40.0			23.8			5.3					

[1] 1. Light
2. Moderate
3. Severe

seasonal dose. Oak leaf injury varied from year to year; a high cumulative oxidant dose, moderate to high precipitation of the preceding winter and spring, and low to moderate air temperature stress concurrent with oxidant exposure during June-August appeared to cause greater injury. Cumulative oxidant dose and the June-August transpiration pattern must be evaluated together in order to develop a dose response simulation.

Tests of the relationship between average leaf injury during 1974-1978 for all trees in a plot and average diameter increase during 1975-1978 were inconclusive when plot comparisons were made. The variations of site index for black oak, as defined by Powers (1972), appeared to obscure comparisons of leaf injury on growth because intercepts were higher on the better sites; however, conclusive effects of leaf injury on growth were observed when the populations from all plots were pooled and, in effect, the influence of site index was averaged for 14 plots. The magnitude of this growth decrease relative to companion species in the stand will be determined after further data analysis is completed. McBride (1978b) has suggested a shift toward black oak in the oxidant stressed ponderosa pine-black oak type indicating that ponderosa pine experiences a larger decrease in growth and competitive ability. But, when oxidant stressed oaks are present on poor sites or when the effects of defoliator insects and pathogens are coupled with oxidant injury for several decades some weakened trees may succumb to these combined stresses. This condition could develop in the stands at the CP and BP plots; chaparral shrubs or grasses may eventually be the dominant cover type in this worst case situation.

Acorn production was very low at CP and BP during the study period. Thus, the combination of oxidant injury and defoliation by the fruit tree leaf roller may have an additive influence on both growth and reproduction.

The number of trees producing acorns peaked in 1977, when all plots were considered. Roy (1962) reported that abundant acorn crops for entire stands occurred every 2 to 3 years, but our data suggest a longer interval in the study area. A more detailed analysis of the size and frequency of acorn crops is being done by Robert F. Luck, the principal investigator for this phase of the interdisciplinary study.

The distributions of two other diseases, namely a branch dieback apparently caused by a fungus (not identified) and true mistletoe, do not appear related to the severity of oxidant stress. Their distribution appears to be related to stand conditions and temperature-and-moisture gradients that existed prior to oxidant stress. The possible role of peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN), a companion with ozone in the photochemical oxidant complex, has not been defined. At this time, it is not unreasonable to assume that ozone is the principal cause of the kinds of leaf injury symptoms observed.

McDonald (1969) described the resource values of black oak as a major component of six forest types in California and Oregon. Powers (1972) emphasized the economic potential of the species. These descriptions provide a perspective from which it is possible to conclude that chronic oxidant air pollution injury can have significant primary and secondary effects on black oak and the forest ecosystems of which it is a component.

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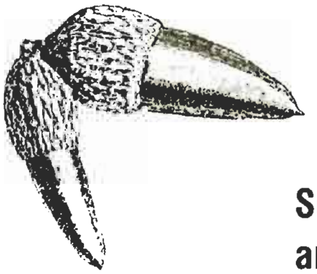

Quercus agrifolia

Sea-Salt Aerosol Damage to *Quercus agrifolia* and *Quercus lobata* in the Santa Ynez Valley, California[1]

Gary L. Ogden[2]

Abstract: This is a physiological ecology paper demonstrating the effect of far inland advection of sea salt aerosol on leaf damage symptoms and asymmetrical growth forms of two oak species (Quercus lobata, Quercus agrifolia) in a coastal valley in California. Foliar absorption of aerosol (chloride ion) produces leaf damage symptoms and asymmetrical growth forms on oaks up to 60 km inland under normal climatic conditions. Leaf morphological characteristics and environmental factors which cause a differential rate of Cl^- foliar absorption by oak foliage is discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The study area is located in Southern California in the Santa Ynez Valley. The W-E orientation, mountain enclosure, and gradual increase in elevation from the ocean inland make it an ideal area for aerosol advection studies. The 2 principal oak species occurring on the alluvial flats and gentle slopes (Q. agrifolia and Q. lobata) have overlapping distributions and differing growth forms (fig. 1).

Quercus agrifolia at a distance of 5.6 km inland is a prostrate pruned shrub approximately 1.8 m in height. The shrub is flagged from west to east. The trunks lean away from the ocean. At 7.2 km inland Quercus agrifolia is more arborescent, ranging up to 3.6 m in height but still flagged away from the ocean. At 16.1 km inland Quercus agrifolia is a leaning single-trunked tree, with the angle of lean less severe than at more coastal sites. At 28.2 km, this species exhibits no lean and stands as a single-trunked specimen.

Quercus lobata is only found 28.2 km or at greater distances from the coastline at Surf. Here, it takes on a pruned form with a severely leaning trunk. It resembles the form of Quercus agrifolia at the 16.1 km site. Quercus lobata still shows a flagged appearance at 48.3 km inland, but the severity of lean is less than at the 28.2 km site. Both oak species grow normally at distances of 72.4 km inland.

These observations suggest that either the wind or something in the wind is causing the differential growth form of the two oak species. Wind dessication could cause an asymmetrical growth due to differential killing of buds and leaves on the windward (west

[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Scripps College, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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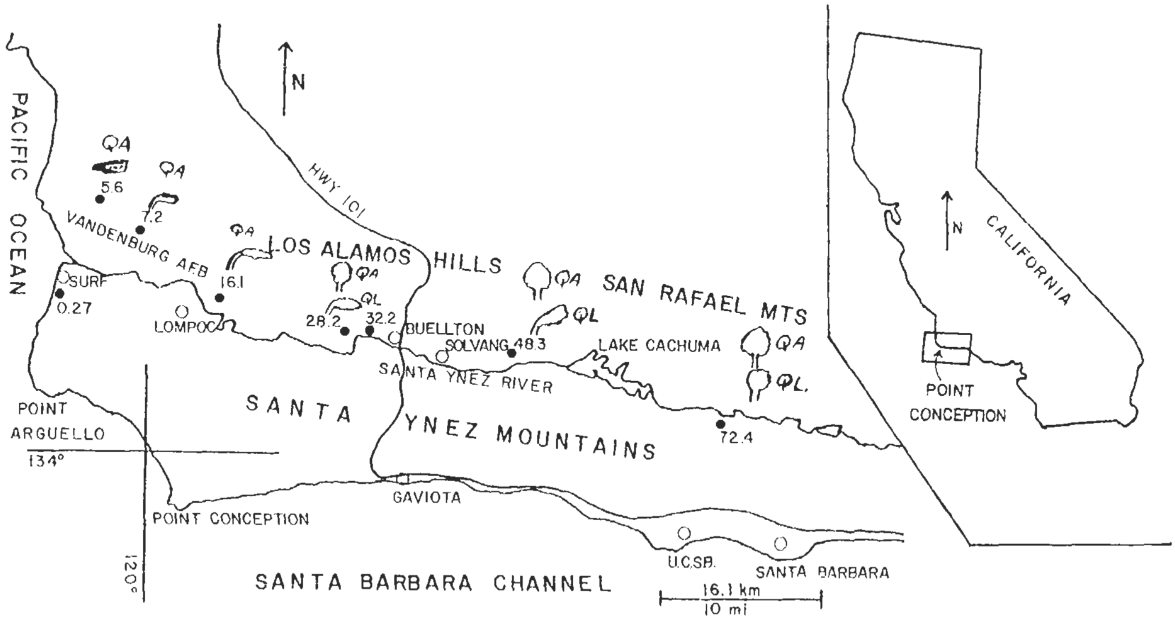

Figure 1--Map depicting location of the study area. Numbers beside each site represent distance inland from the w-facing coastline (Surf) in km. The valley is protected from a marine influence from the south by the Santa Ynez Mountains. Drawn figures depict the approximate growth forms of the two oak species.

facing) as opposed to the leeward (east facing) portions of the tree. Sea salt aerosol (Cl^-) could also produce a similar asymmetrical growth form. The trees, which act as wind filters, receive more sea salt deposition on windward than leeward leaves. The salt is foliarly absorbed with subsequent death of leaves and buds on the more exposed (windward) portions of the tree. The degree of lean is directly proportional to the long term intensity of salt spray damage.

Figure 2 diagrams the sequence of injuries that results in the formation of curved stems: (A) A twig which grew during a period of low spray intensity. The dark portion of the twig represents the dead tip which was killed when spray intensity increased to killing proportions; (B) Represents two twigs which grew during the next period of low spray intensity. During the next period of high intensity, the windward twig was killed since the leeward twig was protected by the seaward leaves and branches; (C) The same type of injury has occurred during another period of growth; (D) and (E) The older dead twigs have begun to decay

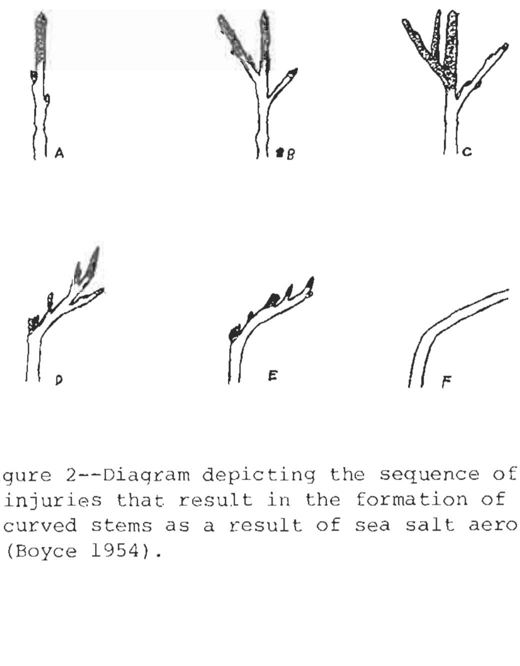

Figure 2--Diagram depicting the sequence of injuries that result in the formation of curved stems as a result of sea salt aerosol (Boyce 1954).

and expose some of the leeward twigs; (E) The living portion of the stem is composed of parts of several twigs which are oriented in the shape of an arc; (F) Represents the stem at some later time when radial growth has covered the dead twig scars (Boyce 1954).

METHODS

Wind (anemometers) and salt aerosol sampling equipment were placed in the field at selected sites (.27, 5.6, 7.6, 16.1, 28.2, 32.2, 48.3, 72.8 km) inland from the coast and monitored on a weekly basis for 3 years (1971-1974). Salt aerosol was collected on 6.45 cm^2 filter paper discs attached to microscope slides. The Cl^- ion was determined by mercuric nitrate titration. For Cl^- content in plant material the method of Brown and Jackson (1955) was used. Na^+ analysis was done by flame photometer.

AEROSOL ADVECTION

Salt aerosol was measured in significantly high quantities up to distances of 48.3 km inland. Average weekly aerosol values for the 5.6, 16.1, 28.2, 48.3 and 72.8 km sites were 1.65, 0.49, 0.45, 0.2, and 0.02 mg $Cl^-/20\ cm^2$/week. Higher aerosol values were found during spring and early summer months than during late summer and fall (fig. 3). Normal sea breezes produce small amounts of Cl^- influx. Post-frontal onshore northwesterlies produce the greatest aerosol amounts, which occur during early spring months. Greatest aerosol values were found to be on ridge crests. Leeward exposures throughout the valley receive little aerosol.

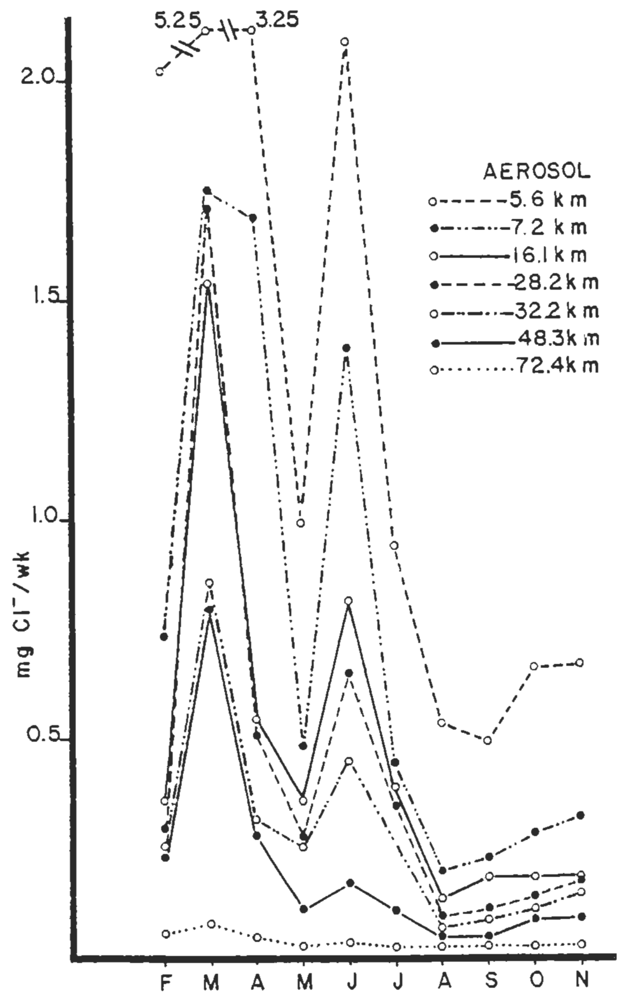

Figure 3--Salt aerosol values through time and space for 1973. Monthly values are derived from averages of weekly totals from all sources: impaction mg $Cl^-/20\ cm^2$/wk + drip off + fog drip-sedimentation-precipitation.

FIELD OBSERVATIONS OF AEROSOL DAMAGE ON NATIVE OAKS

Leaf necrosis (salt burn) was observed on both oak species in the field. The symptoms were identical to those described in the literature for Cl^- damage (Boyce 1951, Wells and Shunk 1938, Boyce 1954, Karschow 1958, Strogonov 1964).

The patterns of foliage damage observed were as follows:

1. Necrosis appears first at leaf tips as a browning area and proceeds along leaf margins in an inverted V pattern from leaf apex to petiole before leaf abscission from the stem occurs.

2. Necrosis was found to distances up to 60 km inland on Q. lobata; and 28.2 km for Q. agrifolia.

3. Windward exposed leaves on both tree species showed necrosis symptoms. None were found on the leeward leaves.

4. After the trees leaf out in February, symptoms occurred earlier in the season at sites located closer to the coast.

5. On sites where both species occur, damage appeared first on Q. lobata.

6. New necrotic leaves appeared more frequently on trees closer to the coast. The quantity of leaves showing symptoms was greater at coastal than inland sites.

7. Leaf exposure time to salt-laden air before damage symptoms appeared is shorter for sites at more coastal locations.

8. More apical and terminal buds die on windward as opposed to leeward portions of the tree.

FOLIAR Cl^- ABSORPTION VALUES IN FIELD OAK SPECIES

To determine rates of Cl^- absorption in field oak species,one study tree at each of the 11 sites along the W-E transect was chosen. Equal exposure, vigor, size, maturity, and proximity to anemometers and aerosol sampling equipment were considered in tree selection.

Leaves were collected at 1-month intervals during the 1973 growing season. Three leaf types were chosen (when present) for the duration of the growing season (February-September) at each site: windward normal and necrotic leaves, plus leeward normal types. The windward side in all cases was facing the NW. For each leaf type, 3 samples were taken of 20-25 leaves per sample. Through the 5-7-month sampling period, leaves were chosen which had appeared on the trees since the initiation of sampling. In this way, the effect of leaf exposure time to the prevailing winds could be evaluated. Samples were transported to the lab in small closed plastic bags in an ice chest. In the lab, after fresh weight was recorded, each sample was placed in a 100-ml beaker with 50 ml of distilled water and swirled for 30 seconds to remove any external Cl^- from the leaf surface. Leaf samples were dried for 72 hours at 72-75°C after which dry weights were recorded. The samples were then crushed with mortar and pestle and placed in air tight containers. An analysis was then made of the Cl^- and Na^+ amount present in the leaf tissue. Cl^- is calculated as percent sap instead of percent dry weight, so that overestimations of Cl^- would be avoided and also allow comparison of different species and leaf ages (Cassidy 1966).

Internal Cl^- values for both oak species were found to be from 0.01 to 0.11 percent sap for leeward normal leaves; 0.01 to 0.46 percent sap for windward normal foliage; and for windward leaves on which salt burn symptoms could be observed, values ranged from 0.51 to 3.02 Cl^- percent sap. Leaf moisture values were also usually higher for windward leaves than leeward leaves. Cl^- levels were from 2X-8X higher in necrotic leaves than windward normal or leeward normal leaves.

Young foliage which has not been exposed to salt-laden winds is low in Cl^- (figs. 4 and 5). With increased exposure time the Cl^- levels for windward-normal foliage increase until sufficient Cl^- has been absorbed to produce observable salt burn symptoms. Note that at 32.2 km inland, it took 5 months of leaf exposure for *Quercus agrifolia* to produce a salt-burned leaf (fig. 4). One month less of leaf exposure was required to produce necrotic symptoms in *Quercus lobata* foliage at this same distance from the coast. Comparing both oak species at similar distances inland with equal topographic exposure, *Quercus lobata* had a higher rate of foliar Cl^- absorption in windward leaves than did *Quercus agrifolia*.

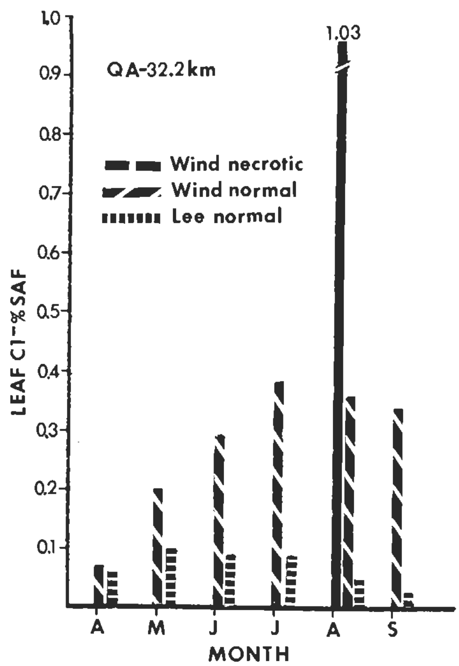

Figure 4--Foliar Cl^- values for *Quercus agrifolia* at a distance of 32.2 km inland from the salt aerosol source. Note that increased leaf exposure time to the salt-laden winds cause increasing amounts of chloride in wind normal leaves.

Figure 5 shows that it took 6 months of leaf exposure to the lower amounts of aerosol contained in the wind at 48.3 km inland before enough Cl^- could be absorbed to produce visual signs of salt burn damage. This is a 2-month longer exposure time than for *Quercus lobata* at the 32.2 km site. *Quercus agrifolia* at the

48.3 km site showed no necrosis symptoms, with windward normal leaf Cl^- amounts being only slightly greater than the low Cl^- levels in the leeward leaves.

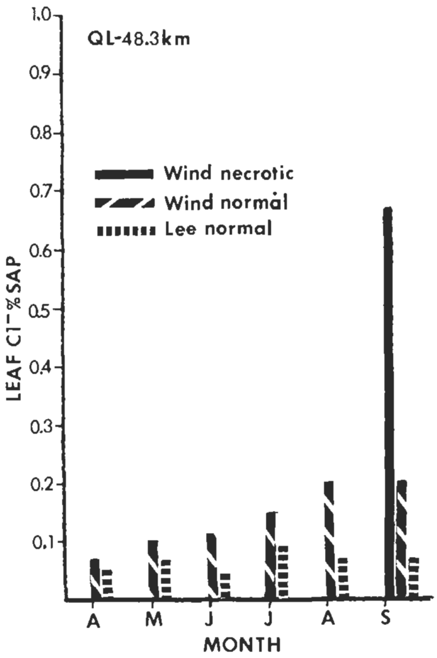

Figure 5--Foliar Cl^- values for Quercus lobata by month of leaf exposure time at a distance of 48.3 km inland from the salt aerosol source.

At the 72.4 km control site where both oak species show no asymmetrical growth, the foliar Cl^- levels for both oak species remain identical for windward and leeward leaves, never becoming greater than 0.04% Cl^- percent sap.

MECHANISM FOR DIFFERENTIAL Cl^- ABSORPTION RATES BETWEEN THE TWO OAK SPECIES

The fact that at 28.2 km inland Quercus agrifolia has a normal canopy and Quercus lobata still exhibits an asymmetrical form demonstrates that these two oaks have differing responses to similar aerosol levels. The leaf Cl^- concentration required for necrotic symptoms to be produced is the same for both oak species. The differing growth forms may therefore be explained in terms of varying rates of foliar Cl^- absorption.

The fact that Q. lobata has a faster rate of foliar Cl^- absorption and is thus more sensitive to salt laden winds is due to several leaf morphological traits.

1. When subjected to similar wind speeds, the leaves of Quercus lobata tend to flutter more in the airstream than do leaves of Quercus agrifolia. This is due to the fact that Quercus agrifolia has a shorter petiole and is a more xeric leaf type than Quercus lobata. This action can cause cracks in the leaf cuticle and therefore increase the rate of Cl^- uptake (Karschow 1958, Boyce 1954).

2. Observation indicates that Quercus agrifolia leaves are not as wettable as those of Quercus lobata. This is due to the smooth thick cuticular surface and lack of dense concentrations of stellate hairs on the upper and lower leaf surfaces of Quercus lobata. Salt solution beads up and runs off much more rapidly on Quercus agrifolia. This has been described by others (Boyce 1954).

3. Leaves of Quercus agrifolia are more xeromorphic in nature than those of Quercus lobata. The leaves are more rigid as a result of increased amounts of supportive tissue. They have a thicker epidermal layer. The fact that xeric leaf morphology gives increased tolerance to salt spray has been observed by others (Salisbury 1805, Wells and Shunk 1938, Wells 1939, Moss 1949, Edlin 1943 and 1957, Oosting 1945, Kurauchi 1956, Martin 1959).

4. The difference in abundance of hairs found on the leaf surface of the two species suggests a mechanism for the differences found in their relative tolerance to sea-salt aerosol. This hair covering which is much more abundant on Quercus lobata has a multipurpose function in regard to foliar absorption of salts. It provides more surface area for the impaction of aerosol particles, plus more surface area in contact with the salt solution for subsequent possible absorption through the hairs.

5. Another possible explanation is that foliar absorption does not occur through the hairs themselves but via the plentiful supply of ectodesmata provided at the base of these tufted hairs (Franke 1967). These structures are found only in certain regions of the cuticle including rich supplies found in epidermal cells at the base of hairs (Martin and Juniper 1972, Franke 1967, Hull 1964).

Increased hair density would, therefore, imply increased numbers of ectodesmata. Quercus lobata with its greater hair density would thus potentially contain more sites for foliar absorption.

Besides the above morphological factors which could possibly cause Quercus lobata to have a greater foliar absorption rate, relative humidity also affects ion absorption rate. High relative humidities (above 75 percent) not only keep salt in solution on leaf surfaces but also permit the waxes of the cuticle to be in their most swollen state and thus more permeable for entry of external solutions (Woodcock 1949, Cadle 1966, Jacobs 1937, Winkler and Junge 1971, Martin 1959, Roffman 1973). As humidity decreases, salts crystallize out, with Cl^- remaining in solution the longest and hence providing a greater probability for leaf absorption (Harding, Miller and Fireman 1958).

Relative humidities were measured in the Santa Ynez Valley for a 6-month period and found to be above 75 percent at coastal sites (16.1 km) 82 percent of the time and at inland sites (28.2 km) for only 69 percent of the time.

In order to test the possibility that Quercus lobata has a greater foliar Cl^- absorption rate than Quercus agrifolia and also to see if relative humidity plays a role in rate of Cl^- uptake, a long-term differential relative humidity experiment was designed. Oak seedlings of both oak species were grown in the greenhouse until mature foliage was produced. Seedlings were from 10-20 cm in height. Plants were sprayed with one application of undiluted sea water until their leaves were just moist but not dripping. (Application comparable to field conditions.) One-half the plants for each species were placed in different sections of the greenhouse under varying humidity ranges. The high humidity greenhouse ranged between 60-93 percent, while the low humidity greenhouse was 38-60 percent. Thirty-six plants of each species were used. Three plants of each species were removed at specific intervals, washed, weighted, dried and analyzed for Cl^- content. Controls were sprayed with distilled water. Half the controls were analyzed immediately after spraying; the other half were left in their respective environments until the termination of the experiment. The results appear in figure 6.

A differential foliar absorption of Cl^- exists between Quercus lobata and Quercus agrifolia, the former species being less tolerant. Higher humidities produced greater rates of Cl^- uptake than lower humidities.

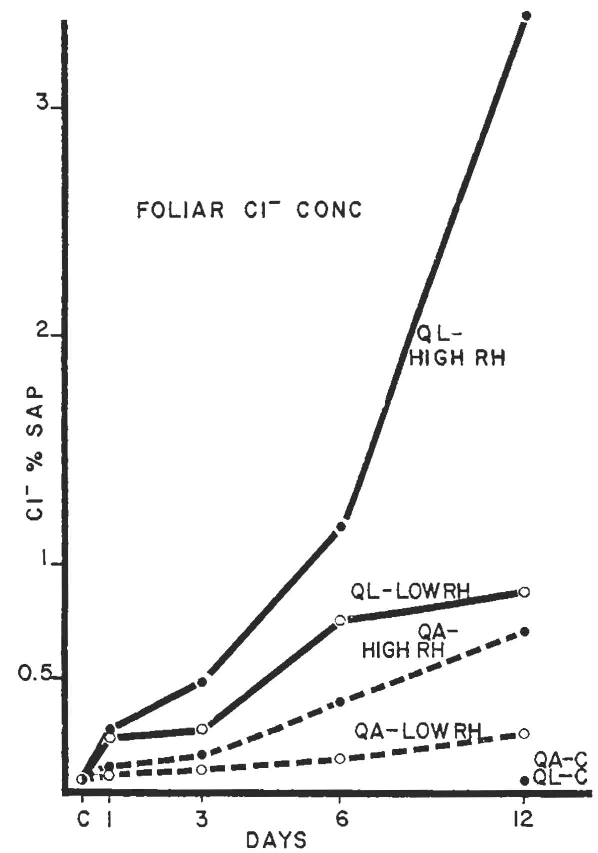

Figure 6--Leaf Cl^- concentrations of oak foliage following various lengths of exposure to foliar applied sea water spray at 2 different humidity ranges. QA= Quercus agrifolia; QL = Quercus lobata; RH = relative humidity; C = control.

Similar experiments over 24-hour periods demonstrated similar results. Others have found this same phenomenon in crop plants (Swain 1972).

CONCLUSION

The routine far inland advection of sea-salt aerosol along N-S oriented coastlines in California by the prevailing westerlies and postfrontal high pressure ridges causes abnormally high Cl^- aerosol values up to 48 km inland. The Cl^- ion is filtered out by the vegetation, NW-facing leaves receiving greater aerosol amounts than SE-facing leaves. High relative humidities in the valleys keep the aerosol in solution on leaf surfaces and maintain swollen leaf cuticles for maximum potential of Cl^- foliar absorption. Once absorbed, the Cl^- ion is transported to leaf margins and leaf necrosis symptoms become visible. Other Cl^- ions are transported to apical buds with resulting shoot tip death and leaf abscission. The same phenomenon continues, producing a pruned, asymmetrical growth form, the degree of lean proportional to the amount of salt spray absorbed. *Q. lobata* (Valley Oak) exhibits a greater degree of lean, away from the aerosol source, than *Q. agrifolia* (Coast Live Oak) at similar distances and exposures inland. This effect is due to the more mesic nature of the leaf and the presence of stellate hairs on the leaf surface. These morphological features cause Cl^- to be more rapidly absorbed by *Q. lobata* leaves and this is reflected in greater death of windward leaves and twigs which eventually produces a greater degree of lean than observed in *Q. agrifolia*.

Salt spray has been found to have an effect on tree growth symmetry of *Q. lobata* up to 50 km inland and on foliage leaves up to 60 km inland on a seasonal basis. Sea salt aerosol should not only be considered as a retarding factor when analyzing coastal strand situations but also when studying areas such as oak woodlands much further inland where vegetational responses can be observed.

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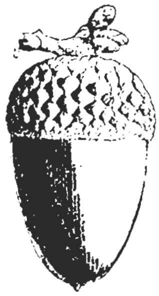

Quercus douglasii

Tolerance of Oaks to Flooding[1]

Richard W. Harris, Andrew T. Leiser, and Robert E. Fissell[2]

Abstract: Mature blue oaks (Quercus douglasii) and valley oaks (Q. lobata) growing on alluvial soils in central California withstood flooding for 50 to 98 days each of three years with little or no tree loss. Blue oak on shallower residual soils suffered 50 per cent mortality each year with similar flooding.

INTRODUCTION

Established native oaks have the reputation of being sensitive to changes in their soil environment, even changes considered improvements for many plants. Almost without exception, moisture and aeration changes account for most of the difficulties.

Oaks, therefore, were of particular interest when we began studies in 1967 on the flood tolerance of woody plants in the drawdown zones of several central California reservoirs. The gross-pool levels of two reservoirs (Black Butte, north of Orland, and Terminus, east of Visalia) were raised (at least 13 and 25 feet respectively, above their original designed levels. We also surveyed Andrus and Brannan Islands in the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta two years after they were flooded in 1972.

Blue oak, Quercus douglasii, was the most numerous oak at the two reservoirs. Nine large valley oaks, Q. lobata, were at Black Butte and a few mature interior live oaks, Q. wislizeni, grew at Terminus. Valley oak and pin oak, Q. palustris, were on Andrus and Brannan islands.

1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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This report based on a cooperative research program between the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, the U.S. Forest Service, and the University of California, Davis, under U.S.F.S. Research Grant Supplement #70 to Contract No. A 5fs-16565.

Most of the flooded trees at Black Butte were growing on a well-drained (when not flooded) alluvial fan. Most of the trees at Terminus were on shallow, residual, hillside soil. Those in the Sacramento-San Joaquin delta were on a well-drained, fine-textured organic soil.

At the two reservoirs, the lower trees were flooded beginning in early to mid-May. Andrus and Brannan islands were flooded beginning June 21, 1972.

RESULTS

Black Butte Reservoir

Fifteen of 16 mature blue oak trees survived 50 to 98 days of flooding during three of the four years they were flooded to a maximum depth of 8 to 10 feet of water over the ground (Table 1, fig. 1). Sixty-nine per cent survived flooding 96 to 110 days two of the years.

All of the valley oaks survived inundation for periods ranging from 63 to 110 days in 1967, Table 1. The maximum depth of water was between 5 and 12 feet.

Shoot growth of blue oak averaged about 25% more during each of the first three years of flooding than they did each of the two years before being flooded. Shoot growth was complete each year in early May before the trees were flooded. Trees on higher ground not subject to flooding but within 10 feet (elevation) of the 1967 high-water mark made at least 50 per cent more growth after flooding began than they did previously. Vertical areas of bark were killed on trunks of many blue oaks subjected to flooding. Callus growth was vigorous, cracking the dead bark on surviving trees (fig. 2).

Fig. 1. Valley oak (*Quercus lobata*), left, and blue oak (*Q. douglasii*) on alluvial soil at Black Butte Reservoir in April 1969. The two trees were flooded at least ninety days in 1965 and 1967 and forty days in 1966 and 1969. Valley oaks leaf out earlier than blue oak.

Fig. 2. The bark on a number of flooded blue oak died in vertical strips. Note ridges of bark between two dead areas. Callus growth is vigorous. Black Butte, 1969.

Terminus Reservoir

Flooding for 68-86 days (20-30 ft. depth) in 1967 and 72-76 days (10-15 ft. depth) in 1969 killed half of the blue oak trees each year, Table 2. The maximum depth of water was 20 to 25 feet in 1967 but only 5 to 10 feet in 1969.

Shoot growth of surviving blue oaks was greater on flooded trees compared to that of the same trees on higher ground not flooded. Number of shoots were not noticeably affected unless the branch was submerged. Branches died if completely submerged longer than two weeks. Bark was killed on flooded trees similar to those at Black Butte.

The few interior live oaks all died if water covered the soil around their trunks for longer than one week.

Andrus-Brannan Islands

Both pin oaks survived flooding to a depth of 10 feet for 92 days. All nine of the valley oak trees survived 61 days of flooding to a depth of 4 feet.

Other United States Studies

Five species of oak tolerant to flooding were reported in two to six studies reviewed in a survey of such studies in the United States (Whitlow and Harris, 1978), Table 3. Seven species were found to be intolerant to flooding in 1 to 4 reports. Reports on six other species were either inconclusive, contradictive, or indicated the species were only slightly tolerant.

Several oak species appear to be tolerant to prolonged periods of flooding; others quite sensitive. Even though the soils were saturated for these long periods, the water was not stagnate so that aeration apparently was sufficient.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations made in 1969 have been supported by observations since. These were for recreation site specifications based on an expected 50% survival of trees flooded at maximum gross pool levels for newly constructed reservoirs.

1. Remove all interior live oak, *Quercus wislizenii*, below expected maximum gross pool.

2. Leave blue oak, *Q. douglasii*, which will not be flooded to more than 75% of their height at the mean gross pool in the drawdown areas on previously dry (xeric) hillsides which may be flooded for 80 days or less and on more moist (mesic) alluvial fans which may be flooded for 100 days or less.

3. Valley oak, *Q. lobata*, should take equal or greater flooding than blue oak. Its maximum tolerance was not reached by 100 days of flooding of trees on an alluvial fan.

4. Limbs at elevations where 2 weeks or more of flooding is likely could be removed at time of site development or after death by flooding.

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Table 1. Survival of blue and valley oaks following inundation of Black Butte Reservoir, California, 1965-70

Maximum water depth (1967) ft.	Days water covered soil under trees				Blue oak			Valley oak	
					Live trees	Survival[2/]		Live trees	Survival[2/]
	1965	1966	1967	1969	1965	1967	1969	1965	1969
					no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
0-2[1/]	0	0	0-15	0	11	11	11	-	-
2-4	0-1	0	16-62	0-6	24	24	24	-	-
4-6	2-56	0	63-71	7-39	18	18	18	1	1
6-8	57-90	0	72-87	40-54	11	11	11	4	4
8-10	91-95	0-51	88-98	55-64	16	15	15	2	2
10-12	96-100	52-65	99-110	65-74	13	9	9	2	2
12-13	101-103	66-72	111-123	75-80	5	2	2	-	-

[1/] Trees were grouped into different elevation groups based on the 1967 flooding. Length of flooding and tree numbers within an elevation group row are for the same trees.

[2/] Survival was determined the spring after the year of flooding indicated.

Table 2. Survival of blue oaks following inundation at Terminus Reservoir, 1967-70

Maximum water depth (1967) ft.	1965	1967	1969	Live trees 1966	Survival, spring after flooding			
					1967		1969	
				no.	no.	%[2/]	no.	%[3/]
0-5[1/]	0	0-34	0	6	6	100	6	100
5-10	0	35-47	44-47	8	7	90	5	71
10-15	0-17	48-56	72-76	11	10	91	5	50
15-20	18-28	57-67	80-87	7	6	86	2	33
20-30	29-14	68-86	93-114	12	6	50	1	16

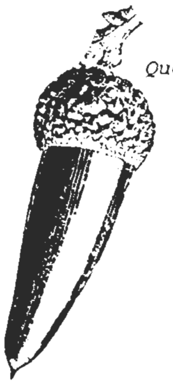
[1/] (#1 above)

[2/] Per cent of trees alive in 1966.

[3/] Per cent of trees alive in 1967.

Table 3. Observations in the United States as to flooding tolerance of oak species in native stands, or laboratory and field tests (Whitlow and Harris, 1978).

Species	Common name	Number of reports			
		Tolerant	Slight Tolerance	Intolerant	Uncertain
Q. lyrata	Overcup	6			
Q. nigra	Water	3			
Q. nuttallii	Nuttall's	2			
Q. palustris	Pin	4			
Q. macracarpa	Bur	3		1	
Q. rubra	Red	1		4	
Q. alba	White		1	1	
Q. biocolor	Swamp White		1		
Q. falcata	Spanish		1	3	
Q. marlandica	Black jack			2	
Q. montane	Chestnut			1	
Q. muehlenbergii	Chinquapin			3	
Q. prinoides	Dwarf Chinquapin			1	
Q. stellata	Post			4	
Q. velutina	Black			3	
Q. shumardii	Shumard				2



Quercus lobata

Animal Damage to Valley Oak Acorns and Seedlings, Carmel Valley, California[1]

James R. Griffin [2]

Abstract: I sampled acorn production by mature valley oaks and studied predation on the acorn crop and resulting seedlings. Birds harvested much of the crop from the tree crowns. Insects ruined 20 pct of the mature acorns that hit the ground. Still some 200 viable acorns/m^2 may fall under productive trees in good years. In absence of cattle and deer these acorns remain on the ground until rodents harvest most of them in the winter. Inside a deer exclosure accessible to rodents about one seedling/m^2 germinated and grew, but these seedlings rarely survived rodent predation for more than 4 years. Pocket gophers were the most important predator in this area. When rodents were excluded, as many as 24 seedlings/m^2 grew; over half survived for 3 years.

INTRODUCTION

Public concern about the shortage of young valley oaks (Quercus lobata Née) is growing. In large portions of California's oak woodland few saplings are present to replace the veteran valley oaks dying of natural causes or being destroyed by urban and agricultural development (Griffin 1977, Steinhart 1978). Although the problem of low natural regeneration has been publicized, only limited research has been devoted to its causes.

Oak woodlands around Carmel Valley typify the regeneration problem. Since 1967 I have studied valley oak reproduction on a variety of small plots at the Hastings Natural History Reservation. In this paper I discuss acorn and seedling conditions on these plots over a longer time span than previously reported (Griffin 1971, 1976) and add new data obtained from rodent exclosures.

DAMAGE TO ACORNS

Bird Predation

Birds remove much of the maturing acorn crop from valley oak crowns. In poor years they may harvest all the crop before it falls. Acorns picked by acorn woodpeckers (Melanerpes formicivorus) are lost to oak regeneration; woodpeckers drop few acorns while eating them fresh or when storing them where they cannot germinate. Throughout the oak woodland scrub jays (Aphelocoma coerulescens) are important acorn consumers. Other Corvidae are locally important. At Hastings scrub jays have removed acorns from individual valley oaks at rates exceeding 400/hour. These acorns however, are not all lost to regeneration. Scrub jays store acorns in the ground and litter, and the numerous acorns which are not found and eaten later are effectively "planted."

Insect Losses

Several types of insects damage valley oak acorns (Brown and Eads 1965). Filbertworms (Melissopus latiferreanus) and filbert weevils (Curculio occidentis) infest many mature acorns; however, such larvae in the acorns do not always prevent germination. The only data I have on the extent of crop loss to insects is from one set of long-term acorn traps (four 0.25 m^2 traps under each of four trees). Over an 8-year period about 21 pct of the fully developed acorns that dropped into the traps were clearly non-viable due to insect damage.

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[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, Calif., June 26-28, 1979.

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Seasonal losses, mainly due to filbert weevils, ranged from 0 to 31 pct.

Mammal Damage

Despite insect and bird losses, acorns accumulate beneath valley oaks during October and November of good seasons. Trap data show that more than 200 viable acorns/m^2 may fall from productive trees. The four trees in the acorn trap survey averaged 34 viable acorns/m^2 (range 7-74 acorns/m^2) over a 9-year period. But these acorns do not remain on the ground long if unprotected. In pastures cattle eat many, and over the entire oak woodland black-tailed deer (Odocileus hemionus) aggressively forage for acorns. At Hastings only rarely are valley oak acorns lying on the ground by January, even after bumper acorn crops.

My predation studies give some data on the loss of acorns on the ground in the absence of cattle and deer. All studies were run under the same valley oak within a large deer exclosure (Griffin 1976). In the first study 233 naturally occurring acorns on four 25 X 25 cm quadrats were watched starting in Novmeber 1970. Few acorns disappeared until pocket gophers (Thomomys bottae) became active near the quadrats in February 1971. By March only 103 (44 pct) of the acorns remained.

In the second study 200 acorns from under the tree were arranged into five groups of 40; half of each group was covered by a screen cage to exclude birds. Most of the unscreened acorns were damaged soon after placement in November 1971. Although the punctures on these acorns looked like scrub jay pecks, no jays were ever seen "pecking." This type of damage did not occur again. Pocket gophers were also active at the start of this study. By March 1972 no acorns remained on the quadrats.

In the last two studies 250 acorns were arranged into 25 groups of 10 with half of each group covered to exclude birds. The numbers of acorns on the quadrats were:

Date	Open quadrats	Covered quadrats
Nov. 1975	125	125
Jan. 1976	1	30
March 1976	1	18
Nov. 1976	125	125
Jan. 1977	31	65
March 1977	16	36

In these last two studies acorns disappeared sooner from the open than from the screened quadrats, but there was no evidence that birds were involved. Birds did not take acorns from nearby open rodent exclosures at this time. Possibly deer mice (Peromyscus spp.) foraged over the unscreened areas sooner than the screened areas, although they had no trouble getting under the screens. In the third study deer mice left partially eaten acorns in 10 of 25 screened quadrats. There were active gopher holes in eight of the 25 screened quadrats in the third study and active holes in 20 out of 25 quadrats in the last study.

Of the 933 acorns monitored in these studies 756 (81 pct) were eaten on the spot or carried away. Most of the remaining acorns germinated. Seventy of the germinating acorns effectively rooted and produced seedlings, but none of the seedlings survived continuing rodent predation.

DAMAGE TO SEEDLINGS

Planted Seedlings

In 1967 during a dry winter, 16 germinating acorns were planted in a grass plot (Griffin 1976). The seedlings in this south slope savanna died by early summer. The following autumn I planted 160 acorns in the same grass plot. Despite starting in a wet winter, seedling survival was poor, and by the eleventh season no seedlings remained. In the winter of 1967 I also planted 16 acorns in an adjacent cleared plot. These seedlings without grass competition grew large enough to attract pests. Browsing by brush rabbits (Sylvilagus bachmani) and stem girdling by flatheaded borers (Chrysobathris mali) contributed to the death of all seedlings in this plot by the eighth season.

On a north-facing woodland site I planted 16 acorns in 1967 in a cleared exclosure (Griffin 1976). In this cool, shady plot all the seedlings grew well for two seasons, but later stem damage by borers and browsing by rabbits caused some mortality and slowed height growth. In the eleventh season survival was 38 pct; heights averaged 19 cm (range 7-39 cm).

In 1973 I planted 960 acorns using three treatments in five habitats. Two treatments were within rodent exclosures at each habitat. However, rodents penetrated the exclosures and compromised the results. The unprotected treatments in which deer and small mammals had free access are worth mentioning. Sixty-four acorns were planted in each of five unprotected plots. At the end of the fifth season no seedlings remained in four plots. In the fifth plot, on the north-facing woodland mentioned above, five heavily browsed seedlings survived. Thus, less than 2 pct of 320 unprotected seedlings remain; the tallest is 7 cm high.

Natural Seedlings

My study of natural valley oak seedling survival involved a healthy mature tree in a savanna habitat (Griffin 1976). This area was part of an old hayfield which had been uncultivated and ungrazed for 40 years. Despite this lack of "ranching" disturbance, the oaks in this habitat have produced no saplings during those 40 years. The study tree is now within a 0.2 ha deer exclosure and has an 11 m^2 rodent exclosure under the outer edge of its canopy. This oak is consistently the most productive tree monitored in the acorn trap survey. Even though the crop failed in two out of nine seasons, it averaged 74 viable acorns/m^2 (range 0-207 viable acorns/m^2).

In 1971 I started marking each seedling with plastic flagging and aluminum tag on a small stake offset from the stem. The 1970 acorn crop was so abundant that I could not keep up with all the new seedlings, but over 300 were marked. Virtually all seedlings appearing each season since have been inventoried (Table 1). Seedlings were checked several times each season, and those with live rootcrowns in the fall, regardless of shoot condition, were counted as survivors. Since 1971 I marked a total of 825 seedlings in the large area accessible to rodents under the tree. At least 330 seedlings started in the small rodent exclosure during the same period (the exclosure was not fully rodent-proof until 1974).

Too many seedlings were involved to keep frequent records on the condition of every seedling year after year. The most detailed data on the fate of seedlings was from the 1975 acorn crop (Table 2). Few of these seedlings died because of competitive or allelopathic effects of the grass cover; they died because predators ate them. Outside the exclosure only four of 120 seedlings germinating in 1976 were found dead in "intact" condition. Gopher digging was associated with all other missing seedlings. Some seedlings in poor health may have been eaten by gophers before they could die, and gophers may have dug up and destroyed some dead seedlings before I could count them as dead. But the circumstantial evidence suggests that gophers are by far the major source of seedling mortality here.

Within the exclosure 106 out of 251 seedlings germinating in 1976 died during the following three seasons. Many of the dead seedlings had been browsed by grasshoppers. Since the first two seasons were the driest on record at Hastings, the 58 pct survival in dense grass cover is impressive. As of 1978 this tiny exclosure had 192 live seedlings. Even with heavy insect mortality in the future, the plot is vastly overstocked. Just one of the large healthy seedlings that started in 1974 should be able to replace the parent tree.

CONCLUSIONS

Under Carmel Valley conditions viable acorns fall from many trees in many seasons in spite of heavy losses to birds and insects. When cattle and deer are excluded, the acorn supply often exceeds the capacity of rodent

Table 1-- Valley oak seedling survival inside and outside a rodent exclosure surrounded by a deer exclosure; maximum number starting in a given season and surviving in successive seasons

	RODENTS						NO RODENTS					
		Survivors, end of season						Survivors, end of season				
Date	Start	1	2	3	4	5	Start	1	2	3	4	5
	No./m^2											
1971	1.3	0.7	0.4	0.3	<0.1	0						
1972	0.2	0.1	0.1	<0.1	0							
1973	0.1	0.1	<0.1	0								
1974	<0.1	<0.1					0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
1975	?	0					0	0				
1976	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1			23.7	19.0	16.4	13.7		
1977	0.6	0.4	0.1				3.0	0.8	0.5			
1978	0.7	0.5					4.1	3.4				

Table 2-- Condition of valley oak seedlings from the 1975 acorn crop inside and outside a rodent exclosure surrounded by a deer exclosure during three growing seasons

Seedling condition	RODENTS			NO RODENTS		
	1976	1977	1978	1976	1977	1978
			No./m^2			
DEAD OR MISSING						
Positive gopher damage, seedling within fresh gopher hole	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1			
Probable gopher damage, fresh gopher hole near marker, seedling missing	0	0.1	<0.1			
Possible gopher damage, seedlings and marker lost in gopher digging	0.2	0.1	0.1			
No rodent damage, seedling intact	0	<0.1	<0.1	4.7	2.6	2.6
ALIVE						
Stem dead, root alive	0.1	<0.1	0	2.1	3.3	0.6
Leaves dead or browsed, stem alive	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	2.1	6.4	0.7
Stem with live leaves	0.2	<0.1	0	15.4	6.7	12.4

predators. The remaining acorns germinate, and seedlings grow. On exposed south aspects seedling survival is nil; on north aspects or in partial shade seedlings are able to survive in grass cover even in dry years, up to $1/m^2$. But the seedling supply seldom exceeds the capacity of rodent predators. Rarely do unprotected seedlings survive for more than a few years. Although several rodents and other small mammals browse seedlings, pocket gophers cause the greatest damage. When rodents are excluded, seedling survival is much higher. In favorable habitats seedling density in rodent exclosures soon exceeds $10/m^2$. Even though these seedlings will experience insect losses, an excess of saplings will result.

Local seedling damage by small mammals, particularly by pocket gophers, can prevent the development of valley oak saplings. When seedlings did achieve sapling size in the past, either the supply of acorns and seedlings must have been great, the small mammal damage to seedlings must have been less, or some combination of the two. I doubt that the acorn supply was greater then unless insect losses were lower. My opinion is that small mammal damage is now at a very high level.

Why small mammal levels are now so high must remain speculative, but the introduction of highly nutritious herbs (seeds of Avena spp., roots of Erodium spp., etc.) into the oak woodland may have improved the habitat for many rodents. Whether the current seedling predation problem is a permanent threat to valley oaks is not clear. These trees which grow for centuries can wait a long time for the right combination of regeneration conditions.

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Products

Quercus douglasii

Birds of California Oak Habitats—Management Implications[1]

Jared Verner[2/]

Abstract: About 110 species of birds can be observed during the breeding season in California habitats where oaks form a significant part of the tree or shrub canopy. Many of these birds use the oaks for foraging, nesting, or perching, and many regularly eat acorns. A guild approach to management, with selection of appropriate indicator species, is recommended. Management of oak habitats for birds should emphasize maintenance of mixed-species, uneven-aged stands where sites permit, and should provide for a continuing, abundant supply of acorns. Large, old trees are particularly important to birds, because they provide a wider array of foraging sites, tend to produce more acorns, and are best suited to excavation of cavity nests. Where present, a shrub layer should be maintained. Management plans for oak stands must consider adjacent, non-oak sites, because many bird species found there regularly exploit oaks.

INTRODUCTION

An estimated 15 to 20 percent of California's land base supports plant communities in which oaks (Quercus spp.) comprise a significant portion of the tree or shrub canopies, or both.[3/] About 110 bird species occupy California oak habitats during the breeding season, so that the management of oak stands in a manner that will not unduly depress any bird species' numbers is truly a formidable task.

The several species of oaks represent a wide variety of sizes and shapes, from shrubs to large trees. Some species are deciduous, others are evergreen. Some have dense crowns, allowing little light to penetrate to the ground, although light easily filters through the canopies of other species. The various species differ in bark texture, leaf sizes and shapes, and in many features of their flowers and fruits. Students of avian ecology know that differences of these kinds are vital to habitat selection by different species of birds, particularly with reference to their foraging ecologies. Each bird species differs in one or more ways from all others in the kinds of places it seeks its food, or in the manner it obtains the food, or both. In spite of the variety within and between oak habitats, however, Small (1974, p. 205) writes that "the differences in the quality of bird life are not as great." In a general sense, Small's statement is true, but differences do exist in the bird species composition of different types of oak woodlands, and birds use different oak species in different ways. Perhaps more than anything else, Small's statement serves to underscore our general lack of knowledge about the important relationships between birds and oaks in California.

In preparing this report, I was repeatedly disappointed by the lack of adequate information. It seems that the most valuable

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[1/]Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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contribution to be made here is to catalog the areas in which our limited knowledge prevents sound management of California oaks for the maintenance of bird populations.

This paper is confined to those species of birds that use California oak habitats during the breeding season. I believe proper management of oaks for breeding birds only should provide adequately for those species that use oaks at other times of the year. Densities of birds in oak habitats are considered--the data show this to be one of the weakest points in the knowledge needed by managers. Information is provided on the ways in which birds use oaks, and management of oak habitats for maximum benefit to birds is discussed. My approach is necessarily qualitative, as the required quantitative information simply is not available for the vast majority of questions of interest to land managers.

BIRDS OF CALIFORNIA OAK HABITATS

Assembling a list of bird species that use oak habitats in California is complicated by the realities of vegetation. Oak habitats commonly are adjacent to other quite different habitats with different complements of birds that make use of the oaks. Oaks often share the canopy with other species of trees that attract bird species that might otherwise be absent. The nature of the understory vegetation--percent cover by shrubs and herbs--profoundly affects the composition of the avian community. Seasonal availability of water is also important.

The list of bird species (table 1) was compiled from a number of sources. Miller's (1951) assignment of California birds to various habitat types was the primary reference. Included are all species he specified as using oak woodlands and savannahs. A few additional species were added from Small (1974), and from annual breeding bird censuses taken in cooperation with the National Audubon Society. Because they are not usually regarded as birds of oak habitats, several species on the list require explanation.

Many birds occur regularly in oak stands because their preferred habitat type regularly occurs together with oaks (table 1). For example, Miller did not indicate that California thrashers or wrentits exhibit any selectivity for savannah or oak woodland types. Both species show first preference for chaparral. Miller, however, did include Bewick's wren and rufous-sided towhee in his oak woodland list; these species also show first preference for chaparral. In my opinion, because chaparral so frequently intermixes with oak stands, all of these species should be considered in plans for oak management. Censuses of breeding birds in oak habitats (table 1), for example, reported breeding by nine of 14 species assigned first preference for chaparral by Miller (1951). Censuses did not include the ranges of two other chaparral birds--California condor and mountain quail--and the California thrasher probably had finished nesting by the time censuses were begun.

Twenty-four species, including the green heron, wood duck, and black phoebe, were classed by Miller to have primary affiliation with riparian sites. Breeding was confirmed for 13, and only three were not observed on any census. Use of oak stands by most of these species depends on an associated riparian habitat.

Species that show primary preference for conifer forests--Miller's coastal, montane, and subalpine types--sometimes include available oak stands within their territories. We find some species on the list, therefore, that may be a surprise to some ornithologists; for example, the pileated and white-headed woodpeckers, olive-sided flycatcher, mountain chickadee, pygmy nuthatch, brown creeper, winter wren, golden-crowned kinglet, and pine siskin. Some of these species were observed--even confirmed as breeders--on a number of the censuses of breeding birds in oak habitats, particularly in habitats along the coast (table 1).

If we consider the variety of growth forms taken by oaks, the widespread distribution of oak habitats in California, and the frequent association of oak habitats with other types, it is not possible to put together an unambiguous list of bird species dependent upon oak habitats in California. Given the list in table 1, an ornithologist experienced with California birds might wish to begin dropping out those species whose association with oak types is clearly peripheral. These might include, for example, the green heron, ring-necked pheasant, black phoebe, cliff and rough-winged swallows, cactus wren, golden-crowned kinglet, yellow-rumped warbler, yellow-breasted chat, and white-crowned sparrow. Another ornithologist might have different choices. Perhaps some would even expand the list to include such species as the great blue heron (*Ardea herodias*) and great egret (*Casmerodius albus*) because they sometimes establish rookeries in valley oaks (*Quercus lobata*)[4,5] and live oaks (*Quercus agrifolia*).[6]

Another approach would be to compile a list based on the frequency of occurrence of species in the various sites sampled for breeding birds (table 1). Rufous-sided towhees, for example,

Table 1--Breeding bird species associated with California habitats in which oaks (*Quercus* spp) comprise a substantial part of the canopy.

Species	Habitat selection[1]		Breeding censuses[2]					Oaks used for...		References[3]
	Rank	Preferred type	A	B	C	D	E	Food	Nesting	
Green Heron (*Butorides virescens*)		Lacustrine waters				33	6		Open nest	Dawson 1923
Wood Duck (*Aix sponsa*)		Lacustrine waters				33	6	Acorns[f][4]	Secondary cavities	Bent 1923, Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Barrett and others[5]
Turkey Vulture (*Cathartes aura*)	1	Savannah	25			33	12			
California Condor (*Gymnogyps californianus*)	5	Cliffs, chaparral								
White-tailed Kite (*Elanus leucurus*)	3	Riparian woodland				33	6		Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1937, Waian 1973
Sharp-shinned Hawk (*Accipiter striatus*)	3	Montane forest								
Cooper's Hawk (*Accipiter cooperii*)	2	Riparian woodland		20		33	12		Open nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Fitch and others 1946
Red-tailed Hawk (*Buteo jamaicensis*)	1	Savannah			20	33	12		Open nest	Ritter[6]
Red-shouldered Hawk (*Buteo lineatus*)		Riparian woodland							Open nest	Dawson 1923, Ritter[6]
Swainson's Hawk (*Buteo swainsoni*)	1	Savannah							Open nest (uncommon)	Bent 1937
Golden Eagle (*Aquila chrysaetos*)	1	Savannah							Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1937
American Kestrel (*Falco sparverius*)	1	Savannah			60	33	24		Secondary cavity	Verner[7], Ritter[6]
California Quail (*Lophortyx californicus*)		Chaparral	50	100	60	67	71	Acorns[d]		Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951, Leopold 1977
Mountain Quail (*Oreortyx pictus*)	2	Chaparral						Acorns[d]		Bent 1932, Martin and others 1951
Ring-necked Pheasant (*Phasianus colchicus*)		Grassland				33	6	Acorns[c]		Bent 1932, Van Dersal 1940, Barrett and others[5]
Turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*)		Oak woodland						Acorns[f]		Bent 1932, Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951
Band-tailed Pigeon (*Columba fasciata*)	1	Oak woodland	50	20			18	Acorns[f], new leaf buds	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1932, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Neff 1947, Martin and others 1951, Fry and Vaughn 1977
Mourning Dove (*Zenaida macroura*)	1	Savannah	50	80	80	100	76	Acorns[a]	Open nest	Van Dersal 1940
Roadrunner (*Geococcyx californianus*)		Desert scrub			40	33	18		Open nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Barn Owl (*Tyto alba*)	3	Cliffs, grassland			20		6		Secondary cavities	Bent 1938
Screech Owl (*Otus asio*)	1	Oak woodland	25	20		33	18		Secondary cavities	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Great Horned Owl (*Bubo virginianus*)	1	Oak woodland	25	40		33	24		Open nest	Bent 1938
Pygmy Owl (*Glaucidium gnoma*)	3	Coastal forest		20		33	12		Secondary cavities	Bent 1938
Spotted Owl (*Strix occidentalis*)	3	Coastal forest							Open nest, secondary cavities	Bent 1938
Long-eared Owl (*Asio otus*)	2	Riparian woodland								
Saw-whet Owl (*Aegolius acadicus*)	3	Montane forest								
Black-chinned Hummingbird (*Archilochus alexandri*)	2	Riparian woodland			80		24		Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Anna's Hummingbird (*Calypte anna*)	2	Chaparral	50	100	80	100	82	Foliage insects, sap	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1940, Ervin[8]

Table 1--Breeding bird species associated with California habitats in which oaks (Quercus spp) comprise a substantial part of the canopy. (continued).

Species	Habitat selection[1]		Breeding censuses[2]					Oaks used for...		References[3]
	Rank	Preferred type	A	B	C	D	E	Food	Nesting	
Allen's Hummingbird (Selasphorus sasin)		Chaparral	50	80	20		41		Open nest	Bent 1940
Common Flicker (Colaptes auratus)	3	Riparian woodland	25	60	60	67	53	Acorns[d], insects from bark & wood	Primary cavities	Dawson 1923, Bent 1939, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Martin and others 1951
Pileated Woodpecker (Dryocopus pileatus)		Subalpine forest		20			6	Acorns[a], insects from bark & wood		Van Dersal 1940, Barrett and others[5]
Acorn Woodpecker (Melanerpes formicivorus)	1	Oak woodland	50	40	80	100	65	Acorns[g], sap, bark insects, perch for hawking	Primary cavities	Beal 1911, Dawson 1923, Neff 1928, Bent, 1939, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Martin and others 1951, Bock 1970, MacRoberts and MacRoberts 1976
Lewis' Woodpecker (Melanerpes lewis)	1	Oak woodland						Acorns[e], perch for hawking	Primary & secondary cavities	Bent 1939, Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951, Bock 1970
Hairy Woodpecker (Dendrocopos villosus)		Montane forest	50	60			29	Acorns[a], insects from bark & wood		Bent 1939, Van Dersal 1940, Barrett and others[5]
Downy Woodpecker (Dendrocopos pubescens)	2	Riparian woodland	50	20	40	67	41	Acorns[b], insects from bark & wood	Primary cavities	Bent 1939, Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951
Nuttall's Woodpecker (Dendrocopos nuttallii)	1	Oak woodland		40	100	100	59	Acorns[a], sap, insects from bark & wood	Primary cavities	Dawson 1923, Bent 1939, Miller and Bock 1972, Barrett and others[5]
White-headed Woodpecker (Dendrocopos albolarvatus)		Montane forest							Primary cavities	Bent 1939, Verner[7]
Eastern Kingbird (Tyrannus tyrannus)	1	Savannah								
Western Kingbird (Tyrannus verticalis)	1	Savannah			20	33	12	Perch for hawking	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1942
Cassin's Kingbird (Tyrannus vociferans)	1	Savannah						Perch for hawking	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1942
Ash-throated Flycatcher (Myiarchus cinerascens)	3	Pinyon-juniper woodland		80	80	100	65	Foliage insects, perch for hawking	Secondary cavities, natural cavities	Bent 1942, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Black Phoebe (Sayornis nigricans)		Cliffs, riparian woodland		20	20	67	24			
Western Flycatcher (Empidonax difficilis)	4	Coastal forest	100	80	20		53	Perch for hawking	Knot holes	Dawson 1923, Bent 1942, Root 1967
Western Wood Peewee (Contopus sordidulus)	3	Montane forest		60	60		35	Perch for hawking	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1942
Olive-sided Flycatcher (Nuttallornis borealis)		Montane forest	75				18		Open nest	Bent 1942
Violet-green Swallow (Tachycineta thalassina)	4	Montane forest	75	20		33	29		Secondary cavities	Newman and Duncan 1973, Verner[7]
Tree Swallow (Iridoprocne bicolor)		Riparian woodland	25				6			
Rough-winged Swallow (Stelgidopteryx ruficollis)		Cliffs, grassland	25			33	12			
Cliff Swallow (Petrochelidon pyrrhonota)		Cliffs, grassland	25				6			
Purple Martin (Progne subis)	2	Coastal forest							Secondary cavities	Grinnell and Miller 1944
Steller's Jay (Cyanocitta stelleri)	4	Montane forest	100	100			53	Acorns[f], foliage insects	Open nest	Beal 1910, Van Dersal 1940, Bent 1946, Martin and others 1951
Scrub Jay (Aphelocoma caerulescens)	1	Oak woodland	50	80	80	100	76	Acorns[f], bark & foliage insects	Open nest	Beal 1910, Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Martin and others 1951, Root 1967

Table 1--Breeding bird species associated with California habitats in which oaks (*Quercus* spp) comprise a substantial part of the canopy. (continued).

Species	Habitat selection[1/]		Breeding censuses[2/]					Oaks used for...		References[3/]
	Rank	Preferred type	A	B	C	D	E	Food	Nesting	
Yellow-billed Magpie (*Pica nuttalli*)	1	Savannah				33	6	Acorns[a]	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Lindsdale 1937, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Barrett and others[5/]
Common Raven (*Corvus corax*)	7	Cliffs, grassland	25			33	12	Acorns[a]	Open nest (rare)	Dawson 1923, Barrett and others[5/]
Common Crow (*Corvus brachyrhynchos*)	2	Riparian woodland			20	33	12	Acorns[b]	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Martin and others 1951
Mountain Chickadee (*Parus gambeli*)		Subalpine forest						Acorns[b], foliage insects	Secondary cavities	Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Martin and others 1951
Chestnut-backed Chickadee (*Parus rufescens*)	3	Coastal forest	100	60			41	Bark & foliage insects	Secondary cavities	Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Dixon 1954, Root 1964, Hertz and others 1976
Plain Titmouse (*Parus inornatus*)	1	Oak woodland	25	80	80	100	71	Acorns[d], bark and foliage insects	Secondary cavities	Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Martin and others 1951, Dixon 1954, Root 1964, 1967
Bushtit (*Psaltriparus minimus*)	1	Oak woodland	75	60	100	100	82	Foliage insects	Suspended "sock"	Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1946, Root 1967, Hertz and others 1976
White-breasted Nuthatch (*Sitta carolinensis*)	2	Montane forest		40	40	100	41	Acorns[e], bark insects	Secondary cavities	Van Dersal 1940, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1948, Martin and others 1951, Verner[7/]
Pygmy Nuthatch (*Sitta pygmaea*)		Montane forest	50				12			
Brown Creeper (*Certhia familiaris*)		Subalpine forest	50	20			18	Bark insects	Natural cavities under bark scales	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Wrentit (*Chamaea fasciata*)		Chaparral	75	40	40		41	Foliage insects	Open nest	Mailliard 1902, Dawson 1923, Bent 1948
Winter Wren (*Troglodytes troglodytes*)		Coastal forest	100				24			
House Wren (*Troglodytes aedon*)	1	Oak woodland		80	80	33	53	Foliage insects	Secondary or natural cavities	Grinnell and Miller 1944, Root 1967
Bewick's Wren (*Thryomanes bewickii*)	4	Chaparral	100	60	100	67	82	Foliage insects	Natural cavities	Root 1967, Verner[7/]
Cactus Wren (*Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus*)		Desert scrub			20		6			
Cañon Wren (*Catherpes mexicanus*)		Inland cliffs			20	33	12			
Mockingbird (*Mimus polyglottos*)	1	Savannah		20	20	33	18	Foliage insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923
California Thrasher (*Toxostoma redivivum*)		Chaparral		20	20	33	18	Acorns[c]	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951
American Robin (*Turdus migratorius*)		Montane forest	75	40		33	35	Foliage insects	Open nest	Ritter[6/]
Hermit Thrush (*Catharus guttata*)		Subalpine forest	50	20			18	Acorns[a]	Open nest	Van Dersal 1940, Bent 1949, Barrett and others[5/]
Swainson's Thrush (*Catharus ustulata*)		Riparian woodland	75	20	20		29			
Western Bluebird (*Sialia mexicana*)	1	Oak woodland	25		60	33	24	Mistletoe berries, perch for hawking	Secondary cavities	Bent 1949, Verner[7/]
Golden-crowned Kinglet (*Regulus satrapa*)		Coastal forest	25				6			
Blue-gray Gnatcatcher (*Polioptila caerulea*)	1	Oak woodland		20	20	33	18	Foliage & twig insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1949, Root 1967, 1969

Table 1--Breeding bird species associated with California habitats in which oaks (*Quercus* spp) **comprise a substantial part** of the canopy. (continued).

Species	Habitat selection[1/]		Breeding censuses[2/]					Oaks used for...		References[3/]
	Rank	Preferred type	A	B	C	D	E	Food	Nesting	
Phainopepla (*Phainopepla nitens*)	2	Desert scrub			20	33	12	Mistletoe berries, perch for hawking	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1950, Walsberg 1977
Loggerhead Shrike (*Lanius ludovicianus*)	1	Savannah				33	6		Open nest	Bent 1950
Starling (*Sturnus vulgaris*)		Riparian woodland		20	60	100	41	Acorns[b], foliage insects	Secondary cavities	Van Dersal 1940, Barrett and others[5/], Verner[7/]
Hutton's Vireo (*Vireo huttoni*)	1	Oak woodland	100	100	40	33	71	Foliage & twig insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Bent 1950, Root 1967
Solitary Vireo (*Vireo solitarius*)	2	Montane forest		80			24	Foliage insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944
Warbling Vireo (*Vireo gilvus*)	2	Riparian woodland	100	40	20	33	47	Foliage insects	Open nest	Bent 1950, Root 1967
Orange-crowned Warbler (*Vermivora celata*)	2	Chaparral	75	80	60		59	Foliage insects	Open nest	Bent 1953, Root 1967
Nashville Warbler (*Vermivora ruficapilla*)	2	Montane forest						Foliage insects		Bent 1953
Yellow Warbler (*Dendroica petechia*)		Riparian woodland			40		12	Foliage insects		Root 1967
Yellow-rumped Warbler (*Dendroica coronata*)		Subalpine forest	25				6	Foliage insects		Bent 1953
Black-throated Gray Warbler (*Dendroica nigrescens*)	1	Oak woodland	25				6	Foliage insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1953, Root 1967
Yellow-breasted Chat (*Icteria virens*)		Riparian woodland			20		6			
Wilson's Warbler (*Wilsonia pusilla*)		Riparian woodland	75	20	20		29			
Western Meadowlark (*Sturnella neglecta*)		Grassland			20	67	18	Acorns[b]		Barrett and others[5/]
Hooded Oriole (*Icterus cucullatus*)	2	Riparian woodland						Foliage insects		
Northern Oriole (*Icterus galbula*)	2	Riparian woodland		20	80	33	35	Foliage insects	Pendant nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1958, Newman and Duncan 1973
Brewer's Blackbird (*Euphagus cyanocephalus*)	1	Savannah				33	6		Open nest	Dawson 1923, Newman and Duncan 1973
Brown-headed Cowbird (*Molothrus ater*)	4	Riparian woodland	50		40	67	29			
Western Tanager (*Piranga ludoviciana*)	4	Montane forest		20			6		Open nest	Bent 1958
Black-headed Grosbeak (*Pheucticus melanocephalus*)	2	Riparian woodland	50	60	60	33	53	Catkins, foliage insects	Open nest	Bent 1968
Lazuli Bunting (*Passerina amoena*)		Chaparral		40			12	Foliage insects	Open nest (rarely)	Dawson 1923, Bent 1968
Purple Finch (*Carpodacus purpureus*)	3	Coastal forest	100	60	20		47	Acorns[a], foliage insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Van Dersal 1940, Bent 1968, Barrett and others[5/]
House Finch (*Carpodacus mexicanus*)	1	Savannah		20	100	67	47	Foliage insects	Open nest, secondary cavities	Dawson 1923, Bent 1968
Pine Siskin (*Carduelis pinus*)		Subalpine forest	50				18	Foliage	Open nest	Bent 1968
American Goldfinch (*Carduelis tristis*)		Riparian woodland	75				18	Acorns[a]	Open nest (uncommon)	Grinnell and Miller 1944, Barrett and others[5/]
Lesser Goldfinch (*Carduelis psaltria*)	1	Savannah		20	80	67	41		Open nest	Dawson 1923
Lawrence's Goldfinch (*Carduelis lawrencei*)	1	Oak woodland			40		12	Oak gall insects	Open nest	Dawson 1923, Grinnell and Miller 1944, Bent 1968
Rufous-sided Towhee (*Pipilo erythrophthalmus*)	5	Chaparral	100	100	100	33	88	Acorns[c], foliage insects		Van Dersal 1940, Martin and others 1951, Davis 1957, Bent 1968

Table 1--Breeding bird species associated with California habitats in which oaks (*Quercus* spp) comprise a substantial part of the canopy. (continued).

Species	Habitat selection[1]		Breeding censuses[2]					Oaks used for...		References[3]
	Rank	Preferred type	A	B	C	D	E	Food	Nesting	
Brown Towhee (*Pipilo fuscus*)	2	Chaparral	50	80	100	67	76	Acorns[a], foliage insects	Open nest	Davis 1957, Bent 1968, Rothstein[9]
Rufous-crowned Sparrow (*Aimophila ruficeps*)		Chaparral		20	20	33	18	Foliage insects		Bent 1968
Dark-eyed Junco (*Junco hyemalis*)	5	Subalpine forest	50	100	40		53	Foliage insects		Root 1967
White-crowned Sparrow (*Zonotrichia leucophrys*)		Chaparral	25				6		Open nest in scrub oaks	Bent 1968
Chipping Sparrow (*Spizella passerina*)	3	Montane forest	25				6	Foliage insects		Root 1967
Song Sparrow (*Melospiza melodia*)		Riparian woodland	50	20	40		29	Foliage insects		

1/ Habitat types classified and ranked by Miller (1951) according to bird species preferences. If no number is entered in the "rank" column, it indicates that Miller did not consider the species to show any preference for oak woodland or savannah.

2/ Percent of sites where each species was recorded during the breeding season; values underlined indicate breeding detected. A = Coastal Marin Co., 4 sites, 8 counts; B = San Francisco Bay Area, 5 sites, 10 counts; C = South Coastal Area, 5 sites, 8 counts; D = Central Valley Area, 3 sites, 7 counts; E = All sites combined. Sources: Hutchinson and Hutchinson (1944, 1945, 1946, 1947), Pugh (1956, 1961), Shepard (1962, 1963), Cogswell (1966, 1973), Robert (1966), Perrone (1970), Remsen (1971), Tangren (1971, 1972), Koenig (1972), Manolis (1972, 1974), Stewart (1972a, 1972b, 1973a, 1973b, 1974, 1975, 1977), Steiker and Maas (1973), Winkler (1973), Bontrager (1974), McKinnie (1974), Loveless and Loveless (1977). In addition, two counts done in 1978 in digger pine/blue oak woodlands in Madera County have been included in the Central Valley Area data (J. Verner and L. V. Ritter, unpubl.).

3/ References pertain to food habits or to nest sites, or both.

4/ Designate proportions of the species' annual diets comprised of acorns, as follows: a = undetermined proportion, b = 0.5 to 2 percent, c = 2 to 5 percent, d = 5 to 10 percent, e = 10 to 25 percent, f = 25 to 50 percent, g = greater than 50 percent.

5/ Barrett, R. H., J. W. Menke, M. E. Fry, and D. Mangold. 1976. A review of the value of hardwoods to wildlife in California with recommendations for research. Final report, submitted to Tahoe National Forest, USDA Forest Serv. Unpubl. typescript. 45 p.

6/ Personal communication. Lyman V. Ritter, PSW Forest and Range Experiment Station, Fresno, (March, 1979).

7/ Personal observations of the author. San Joaquin Experimental Range, Madera Co., Spring, 1978.

8/ Personal communication. Stephen H. Ervin, Calif. State Univ., Fresno, (March, 1979).

9/ Personal communication. Stephen I. Rothstein, Univ. of Calif., Santa Barbara, (March, 1979).

were observed on 15 of 17 sites (88 percent) and in all four zones--Coastal Marin County, San Francisco Bay Area, South Coastal Area, and Central Valley Area (table 1). Fourteen other species were observed in all four zones. These are, in descending order of percent of sites where seen, Anna's hummingbird, bushtit, Bewick's wren, mourning dove, scrub jay, brown towhee, California quail, plain titmouse, Hutton's vireo, acorn woodpecker, red-shafted flicker, black-headed grosbeak, warbling vireo, and downy woodpecker. Certainly these are among the most ubiquitous of the species that utilize oak habitats. Twenty-seven species were observed in three of the four zones, and another 21 were recorded in two zones.

4/ Page, D. J. 1970. San Joaquin River rookery study. Special wildlife investigations report. Project W-54-R-2, Calif. Dep. Fish and Game. Unpubl. typescript. 9 p.

5/ Wilburn, J. W. 1970. Lincoln great blue heron rookery study. Special wildlife investigations report. Project W-54-R-2, Calif. Dep. Fish and Game. Unpubl. typescript. 20 p.

6/ Personal communication. Stephen H. Ervin, California State University, Fresno (March 1979).

DENSITIES OF BIRD SPECIES FOUND IN OAK HABITATS

Management options ideally should consider densities of animal populations that are subject to management activities. The breeding bird censuses (table 1) used the "mapping method," approved by the National Audubon Society and designed to estimate densities of bird populations. One source of bias affecting these estimates, however, is that of individual pairs of birds whose territories overlap the boundary of the study plot. Seldom are overlapping territories mapped out completely, although some value is assigned to them in computing total density of any given species on the plot. The effect of this bias decreases with increasing numbers of territories that are completely within the boundaries of the plot. The bias is exaggerated, therefore, by decreasing plot size, and by large mean territory size in relation to plot size, for any given species. Both effects should influence estimated densities in breeding bird censuses cited (table 1), because some plots were as small as 8.0 acres (3.24 ha), and many bird species breeding in California oak woodlands have territories larger than that.[7]

The possibility of bias in the censuses cited here was tested by regression analysis (fig. 1). Estimated total densities of breeding birds, as a function of plot size, were fitted to linear, exponential, and power curve regression models. Statistically significant ($P < 0.001$) negative correlations were found in each case: linear model, -0.80; exponential model, -0.81; power curve model, -0.80. The best fit to the data, therefore, cannot be judged by the correlation coefficient. By visual inspection, the power curve fit is the best fit to the data points (fig. 1).

This analysis suggests that estimated breeding bird densities reported in the censuses used (table 1) probably are subject to substantial bias from plot size variation. Reducing plot size from 32 to 8 acres (13 to 3.2 ha), for example, would inflate estimated bird densities by about 2.7 times. Calculated extrapolation of the curve (fig. 1) shows some tendency for the curve to flatten out as the plot size approaches 50 acres (20 ha), but even plots as large as 32 acres are too small to escape the bias.

The curve (fig. 1) suggests that total density of territorial males in California oak woodlands during the breeding season probably is on the order of 1295 per square mile ($500/km^2$). Estimated density by species, however, is beyond the scope of this paper. We need further analyses of the effects of plot size and other variables that can influence density estimates. We also need samples from more sites in each of the various, identifiable types of oak habitats in California, so that each type can be analyzed individually.

7/ Personal observation of the author. San Joaquin Experimental Range, Madera County, Spring 1978.

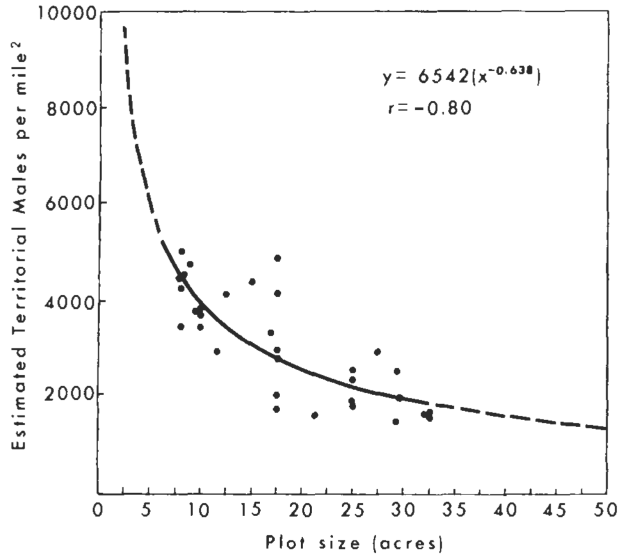

Figure 1--Relationship between plot size and estimated density of territorial males, as calculated from breeding bird censuses (table 1). Dashed portions of the curve are calculated extrapolations from the data.

HOW BIRDS USE OAKS

Oaks are used by birds for feeding and nesting. They also provide elevated perches for resting, surveillance of territory, or watching for prey. Of all the species listed (table 1), at least 30 include acorns in their diet, and at least 45 obtain insects from oak foliage, twigs, bark, or wood. Nine species catch aerial insects by launching from perches in oaks, at least three eat sap, and at least two consume significant quantities of berries from mistletoe growing on oak trees. The list identifies 49 species that build open-cup nests in oaks, two that build suspended nests, six that excavate their own nest cavities, and 20 that use natural cavities or cavities excavated by other species. Altogether the list specifies feeding or nesting uses of oaks for 91 different species of birds (82 percent of the total). No doubt many of the remaining species also use oaks, but because many writers omit reference to the kinds of trees used for feeding or nesting, this information is not available. Moreover, the data on use of oaks were derived from only a partial survey of the literature and personal knowledge. Several species indirectly derive value from oaks. Hawks and owls, for example, consume many prey species that obtain food or nesting cover from oaks, or both.

A general overview such as this unfortunately does not quantitatively assess avian use of oaks. We have little information on the details of foraging by birds in oaks, although proper management of oak stands for birds requires that we know which oak species are most important to foliage gleaners (species that pick insects from foliage surfaces), bark feeders, and others, and whether or not seasonal variations affect species' preferences. We need to know more about bird preferences for acorns of different oak species, and the quantity of acorns consumed by birds in various California oak types. We need to know preferred nest trees, either for open or cavity nesters, and what characteristics tend to make an oak of a given species better for excavation of nest cavities. All of these areas are fertile for research into how we might better incorporate the needs of birds into management plans for oaks.

Although the literature on details of the ecology of birds in relation to oaks is meagre, some outstanding exceptions exist. Two examples are briefly mentioned here, because they set the standard of quantitative excellence we should seek in future studies of bird species and bird communities in California oaks. The first example considers a single species, the acorn woodpecker, which is probably the most oak-dependent bird in North America and one that has received considerable attention from students of avian biology. The second example involves analysis of a portion of an avian community, specifically the foliage gleaners in a coastal oak forest in Monterey County.

The Acorn Woodpecker

Acorn woodpeckers have been studied in detail in California (Ritter 1938, MacRoberts and MacRoberts 1976). Only selected portions from the MacRoberts' study are mentioned here, as these relate more directly to the kinds of questions addressed in preparing management guidelines. Unless otherwise cited, the data used here are from MacRoberts and MacRoberts (1976).

Acorn woodpeckers are highly social birds, forming cooperative groups ranging in size from two to 15 individuals (mean between five and six) at the Hastings Natural History Reservation, Monterey County. An area of about 4.25 square miles (11 km^2) supported 50 to 60 such groups, yielding a rough estimate of 71 birds per square mile (28/km^2). This number did not vary much during the MacRoberts' four seasons of study.

Members of a group, except young fledglings, collectively defended the group's all-purpose territory, which usually was occupied permanently, and which ranged in size from 8.7 to 22.2 acres (3.5 to 9 ha). "Territory size is probably determined by the nutritional requirements of the group...(as) it correlated with group size." When the acorn crop failed within a group's territory, the group abandoned its territory.

The birds bred cooperatively, each group typically having only one active nest at a time within its territory. The majority of group members participated in incubation, brooding, and feeding young. Yearlings were less attentive at the nest than were older birds. "At Hastings the reproductive rate was between 0.2 and 0.3 young fledged per adult per year. Only about 60% of the groups breed and only about 40% of the groups fledged young." About half of the fledged young disappeared within their first year, and most of these losses were probably attributable to hawks.

Nestling diet consisted almost exclusively of insects, although acorns comprised the major share of the diet of acorn woodpeckers during most of the year (fig. 2). The acorn woodpecker is best known for its fascinating acorn storing behavior. Acorns of all oak species were used. The birds excavated storage holes just large enough to house one acorn each, concentrating the holes in "granaries" consisting of large, living or dead trees. A sample of 26 groups at Hastings averaged about 4100 functional storage holes in their granaries, with a maximum of about 11,000. Granaries there averaged 2.1 per group, with a range from one to seven. Eighty-eight were located in valley oaks (*Quercus lobata*), 17 in blue oaks (*Quercus douglasii*), five in California sycamores (*Platanus racemosa*), two in black oaks (*Quercus kelloggii*), and one in willow (*Salix* spp.). Granary trees were measured (table 2). Utility poles and fence posts also were used occasionally, and other types of granary trees have been reported in the literature, including pines (*Pinus* spp.), true firs (*Abies*), redwoods (*Sequoia sempervirens*), and eucalyptus (*Eucalyptus* spp.). Ritter (1938) suggested that almost any dead tree, tree with deep dry bark, or building was selected as a granary.

Gutierrez and Koenig (1978) analyzed characteristics of acorn woodpecker granary trees in two California pine-oak woodlands. They reported that each group territory always included at least one main storage tree and "often one or more secondary storage trees. They prefer pines but use oaks where pines are scarce." Storage trees usually were dead or dying. "When initially selected, granary trees

Table 2--Dimensions of trees used as granaries by acorn woodpeckers at Hastings Reservation, Monterey County (from MacRoberts and MacRoberts 1976)[1/]

	D.B.H.		Height	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
		Inches		Feet
Valley oak	39.0 (99)	11.0 to 60.2 (28 to 153)	47.6 (14.5)	7.9 to 78.7 (2.4 to 24.0)
Blue oak	25.6 (65)	11.0 to 35.4 (28 to 90)	37.7 (11.5)	10.2 to 60.0 (3.1 to 18.3)
Sycamore	29.1 (74)	14.2 to 50.4 (36 to 128)	53.8 (16.4)	31.5 to 78.7 (9.6 to 24.0)
Black oak	24.4 (62)	18.9 to 29.9 (48 to 76)	44.3 (13.5)	39.4 to 49.2 (12.0 to 15.0)
Willow	19.7 (50)		39.4 (12.0)	

[1/]Values in parentheses are centimeters for D.B.H. and meters for height.

are often living, but because they are the largest and often the oldest trees in the area they are likely to contain rotten limbs in which roosts as well as storage holes can easily be drilled. Such a tree is also likely to die before its neighbors, thus providing the birds with additional storage space and increasing the percentage of dead storage trees in use at any one time."

Gutierrez and Koenig took several measurements from trees in nine group territories at Plaskett Ridge and ten at Cone Peak, Monterey County. Their measurements included all storage trees and the largest nonstorage pine tree in each group's territory. They concluded that "the woodpeckers select the largest tree in a given area" as their primary granary. "Such a choice not only provides the most space for storage holes to be drilled.., but also locates the granaries either in open areas or (as in pine-oak woodlands) above the surrounding canopy; acorn woodpeckers are rarely found in areas which do not provide such openness."

Acorn woodpeckers also eat significant quantities of sap from about early February through early September (fig. 2), drilling holes in selected oaks specifically for gathering sap. "Each group has within its territory several localized areas where borings are made. The same holes are used each year with a few new ones added. Sap hole construction is a communal affair and all members of the group use them." All oak species in the Hastings Reservation study area were exploited for sap.

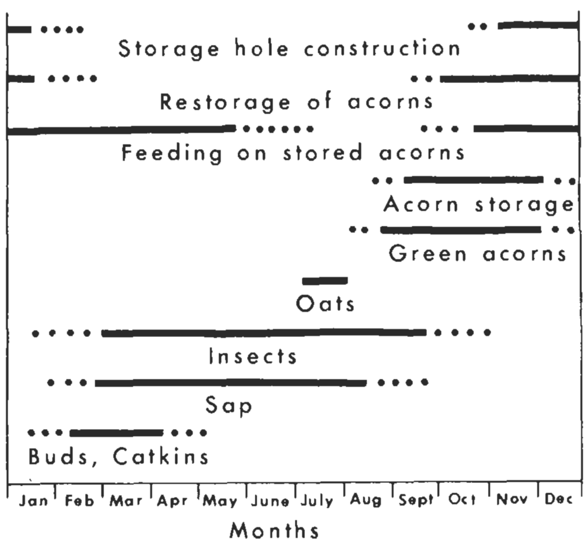

Figure 2--Annual food cycle of acorn woodpeckers at Hastings Reservation (adapted from MacRoberts and MacRoberts 1976).

Acorn woodpeckers also consume significant numbers of insects, mainly in spring and summer. Beal (1911) and Neff (1928) found 23 percent insects in stomach samples of acorn woodpeckers taken at all times of the year. Insects are captured mainly by flycatching, as these woodpeckers rarely glean insects from wood or foliage surfaces or bore into wood to obtain subsurface insects. Minor amounts of other foods are eaten, such as oat seeds, oak catkins, fruit and, perhaps also, leaf buds and pistillate flowers. Grit is consumed daily and often comprises a significant portion of the stomach contents.

These studies of the acorn woodpecker provide the kinds of facts needed in management. Population densities are estimated; general biology is outlined; food resources are identified (quantitative data are given in Beal [1911] and Neff [1928]); and characteristics of trees selected for acorn storage are discussed. At the community level, management requires many of the same details. The study by Root (1967) of foliage-gleaning species at Hastings Reservation gives useful details about the food resources of several bird species and limited information on population densities. Root's paper is possibly the best community-level analysis in California oak woodlands.

The Foliage-gleaning Guild

Root (1967) defines a guild "as a group of species that exploit the same class of environmental resources in a similar way." A guild groups together species that are not necessarily closely related taxonomically. Members of a guild overlap in one or more dimensions of their ecologic niche. The species Root studied in oak woodlands at Hastings all spent significant amounts of time picking insects from surfaces of oak leaves or bark, or both. "To be considered a member of the foliage-gleaning guild in the oak woodland, the major portion of a bird species' diet had to consist of arthropods obtained from the foliage zone of oaks" (Root 1967).

Five species identified as members of the guild during the breeding season were the plain titmouse--but it barely met Root's criteria for this guild, because such a large proportion of its food consisted of "plant material and arthropods living on bark,"--the blue-gray gnatcatcher, Hutton's vireo, warbling vireo, and orange-crowned warbler. Other foliage-gleaners occasionally foraged in the oaks adjacent to their preferred chaparral or riparian sites. Included in this group were the bushtit, black-throated gray warbler, and yellow warbler. Scrub jays, house wrens, Bewick's wrens, dark-eyed juncos, and chipping sparrows, typically ground feeders, also occasionally foraged in oak foliage.

The blue-gray gnatcatcher, warbling vireo, and orange-crowned warbler migrated from the Hastings Reservation for the winter. The resident plain titmouse and Hutton's vireo were joined in the foliage-gleaning guild for the winter months by ruby-crowned kinglets and yellow-rumped warblers. Root's quantitative analysis of the foraging activities of the guild was confined to the breeding season. A section of his study area covering about 70 acres (28.3 ha) had seven pairs of plain titmice, ten to eleven pairs of blue-gray gnatcatchers (based on maps for May 1 and June 27, 1963), two pairs of Hutton's vireos, four pairs of warbling vireos, and four pairs of orange-crowned warblers.

All five species subsisted primarily on insects of the orders Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, and Hymenoptera, and all regularly foraged in both deciduous and live oaks. Only the plain titmouse "regularly fed upon plant material: seeds and plant fragments were found in 13 of the 16 stomachs examined."

Foraging maneuvers were gleaning (prey resting on substrate, bird standing on a perch), hovering (prey resting on substrate, bird in the air), and hawking (both prey and bird in the air). In terms of foraging strategies, the plain titmouse and the orange-crowned warbler were nearly identical (fig. 3). The two vireo species were very similar, but the blue-gray gnatcatcher stood apart from the other two species pairs. The pairs, however, were not similar in preferred foraging substrates (table 3) and prey selection (table 4). Foraging niches among members of the same foraging guild were diversified, as we see in this example, and, in ecological studies, this is the rule rather than the exception. This sort of diversification is thought by many ecologists to result from interspecific competition, although this is a debated issue. The fact that concerns us here, however, is that, as a result of diversification, birds harvest insects and other invertebrates from all or nearly all of their refugia in any given ecosystem, whether it be an oak woodland or a marsh.

The two studies summarized here highlight some of the kinds of information--population densities, feeding habits, and nesting habits--needed to effectively manage California oak habitats for maintenance of avian communities. More importantly, however, Root's (1967) study of the foliage-gleaning guild at Hastings Reservation provides a way of looking at animal communities that can substantially facilitate their management. The guild approach allows us to group species according to common ecologic requirements, so it should be possible to identify indicator species for each of the various guilds distinguishable in the animal community. The orange-crowned warbler may be a suitable indicator for the foliage-gleaning guild at Hastings Reservation, for example, because more than 90 percent of its foraging attacks are directed at the foliage. It might even be a good indicator for bark feeders, because maintenance of plenty of foliage will necessarily include maintenance of bark. By assuring that populations of the indicator species are being properly maintained, the manager may be reasonably assured that guild associates of those indicator species are also doing well, and the management task is simplified.

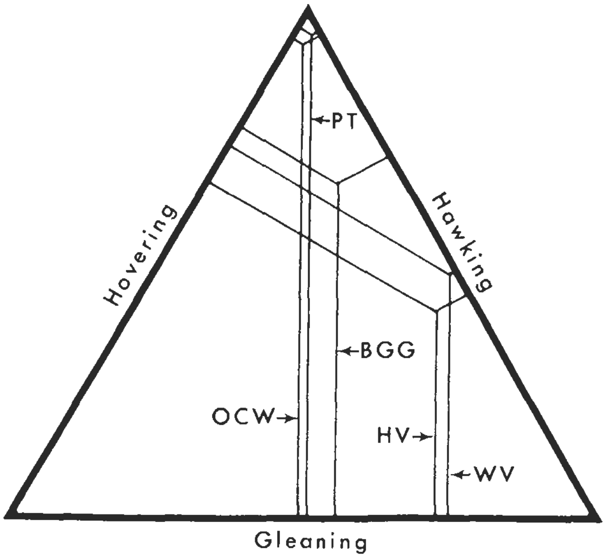

Figure 3--Foraging maneuvers of birds in the foliage-gleaning guild in oak woodlands at Hastings Reservation (PT--plain titmouse, BGG--blue-gray gnatcatcher, HV--Hutton's vireo, WV--warbling vireo, OCW--orange-crowned warbler). The length of each arm of the coordinates is in direct proportion to the percentage of each species' use of the three designated foraging tactics (adapted from Root 1967).

EFFECTS OF BIRDS ON OAKS: A NEGLECTED AREA

Virtually no systematic studies have been done on the effects of birds on California oaks. On the positive side, a few bird species store acorns for later consumption by burying them, usually singly, in widely scattered spots. Griffin (1971, 1976) reported that scrub jays, Steller's jays, and yellow-billed magpies bury large numbers of acorns at the Hastings Reservation, and Baptista[8/] believes plain titmice also may bury some acorns. Many of these acorns, however, are never recovered by the birds and later may germinate. The actual significance of this behavior in maintaining oak stands is totally unknown, although Grinnell (1936) discussed the potential significance of birds as up-hill planters of oaks.

Because birds consume insects, damage to trees by insects may be reduced. Literature that relates this point specifically to California oaks is not available. Studies in other timber types are available, however, and many of these have been summarized by Wiens (1975) and DeGraaf (1978). The general conclusion is that birds probably do not control insect populations or even suppress serious outbreaks of damaging insects once such outbreaks are in full swing. The main effect may be the prevention of serious outbreaks (DeGraaf 1978).

Possible negative effects of birds on oaks also have been neglected by researchers. Birds consume mistletoe berries and probably disperse the parasite in their feces. Excavation of oaks by birds for insects, nest cavities, acorn storage holes, or sap collecting holes probably increases tree vulnerability to invasion by pathogens and insects. Oaks and birds, however, have coexisted for millions of years, so it is difficult to imagine that these negative effects need give us much cause for concern. Nevertheless, research needs to be done to assess possible negative effects of birds on oaks.

MANAGEMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Effective management of California's oak habitats must provide for the rich avifaunas associated with them. We need to know how avian communities respond to various manipulations of oak habitats. Limited research in this field has been done in the Eastern United States, but practically none has been done in the West. Most oak types in the East receive substantially more precipitation than most oak woodlands in California. Moreover, Eastern oaks are managed for timber production on a scale much larger than in California. These facts suggest that we should not apply results of Eastern studies to management of Western oaks.

Oaks provide numerous, varied resources, as discussed so forcefully in this symposium. Priorities among the products and values

[8/]Personal communication. Luis Baptista, Occidental College, Los Angeles (March 1979).

Table 3--Attacks at various substrates in oak trees during the breeding season by members of the foliage-gleaning guild[1/] (from Root 1967)

	Herbs	Twigs	Air	Foliage
Plain titmouse	11.2	47.6[2/]	0	41.3
Blue-gray gnatcatcher	0	3.2	13.3	83.5
Hutton's vireo	0	19.6	6.5	73.8
Warbling vireo	0	6.6	1.6	91.8
Orange-crowned warbler	0.6	1.9	0.6	96.9

[1/]The foliage-gleaning guild includes all species that obtain a significant portion of their food supply by picking insects from surfaces in the foliage layer.

[2/]Includes picking at lichens and fruit.

Table 4--Arthropods in diets of foliage-gleaning species, based on prey identified in stomach samples (from Root 1967)

	Prey identified	Hemiptera	Coleoptera	Lepidoptera	Hymenoptera	Other
	Number			Percent		
Plain titmouse	81	13.2	55.3	6.5	10.2	14.8
Blue-gray gnatcatcher	287	36.0	32.3	7.1	13.8	10.8
Hutton's vireo	134	11.9	29.8	24.6	22.4	11.2
Warbling vireo	213	10.3	15.0	62.0	6.6	6.1
Orange-crowned warbler	46	47.8	6.5	37.0	4.3	4.3

associated with oaks must be established and clearly stated in plans for any given management unit. That is, goals must be set. It is not my purpose to build a case for managing all our oak habitats for maximum benefit of birds, although this may be a selected goal in some instances. Rather, I believe that negative effects on all resources, including birds, should be minimized whenever we choose to manipulate our native environments in any manner.

Provision for birds in managed oak stands requires that sufficient numbers of trees be available to supply the foraging, nesting, perching, and cover needs of birds in the community. Especially important also is that there be enough acorns. I believe, however, that we tend to overemphasize management of oaks for acorn production as wildlife food, forgetting that oaks provide important habitats for more bird species that do not depend on acorns than for species that do. Proper timing of project activities on a management unit also is important because of the annual cycles of birds and the regeneration capabilities of oaks.[9/] Management must also concentrate on foraging and nest site requirements of birds, as adequate provision of these needs most likely will provide adequate perches and cover for birds in our oak woodlands.

Foraging Requirements

Birds find food on all parts of oaks--the trunks, branches, twigs, buds, flowers, and foliage. The full spectrum of potential foraging substrates is best provided by mixed-species, uneven-aged stands. Live oaks particularly should be maintained in those stands now containing them, as they provide foliage for cover and as an important foraging substrate for many species during the winter months.

Reid and Goodrum (1957) suggest the need to provide suitable oaks of mixed ages within the home ranges of species using them. Because some bird species in California oak woodlands may have territories as small as 2 or 3 acres, a properly managed stand should have a continuing supply of oaks suitable to birds on every 1- or 2-acre parcel. In some instances, however, even widely scattered trees in savannah habitats may meet the nesting requirements for several pairs of the same species, particularly ground feeders that nest in trees. Rothstein,[10/] for example, reported finding single oaks near Shandon, San Luis Obispo County, with three or four northern oriole nests and several nests of Brewer's blackbirds. "On the other hand, the only tree in such areas may consistently have a western kingbird nest, but only one."

Mistletoes that parasitize oaks supply berries as an important source of food for some species, most notably the phainopepla. Control of mistletoe in oaks may be vital to maintaining tree vigor, but complete elimination of mistletoe could have a significant negative effect on populations of at least a few bird species. Some compromise may be necessary.

Acorn Consumption

Acorn consumption by birds in California oak habitats has not yet been quantified adequately, partly because we lack suitable estimates of the densities of bird species that eat acorns, and partly because we lack accurate figures on the weight of acorns normally consumed by various species during a year. Several researchers have attempted to estimate minimum acorn needs for wildlife (including mammals as well as birds) in Eastern and Southeastern oak forests. Shaw (1972) summarized this work, and concluded that about 100 lb per acre (112 kg/ha) of acorns "(total tree-crown production) is a reasonable goal when acorn-consuming game and nongame species are considered." Whether or not this value is a realistic ball-park figure for California habitats is not known. As in many of the Eastern studies, however, wildlife in California's oak habitats have been observed to remove all acorns from traps even in heavy production years (Griffin 1976). This heavy use of acorns suggests that the needs of animals in the West may not be too different from those in the East.

If this is true, then, we may next ask whether or not managers can reasonably set a goal of producing an annual yield of acorns for wildlife at 100 lb per acre in California's oak woodlands. Recent studies by the California Department of Fish and Game[11/] show that acorn production on that order of magnitude probably is a modest expectation, on most sites at least. Dry weight yields of fallen acorns in blue oak stands ranged from 9 to 191 lb per acre (10.1 to 214 kg/ha), and in interior live oak (*Quercus wislizenii*) stands from zero to 97 lb per acre (109 kg/ha). One canyon live oak (*Quercus chrysolepis*) stand produced 1960 lb per acre (2195 kg/ha), and black oak stands ranged from zero to 1543 lb per acre (1727 kg/ha). Values differed enormously between years on the same site, but further work is needed to adequately characterize this variability. If wildlife consume most or all fallen acorns, even when yields approach 2000 lb per acre, production of 100 lb per acre may not be an adequate goal. Before we accept this value uncritically, it must be thoroughly researched for wildlife in California oak types.

Acorn production by most California oak species is not high every year. Pro-

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9/ Murray, L., J. A. Lorenzana, W. J. Bradley, and W. R. Thornton. 1973. Black oak management plan, Mendocino National Forest. Unpubl. typescript. 23 p.

10/ Personal communication. Stephen I. Rothstein, University of California, Santa Barbara (March 1979).

11/ Graves, W. C. 1976. The dependency of upland game on oak mast production. Progress report on upland game investigations. Project W-47-R-24, Calif. Dep. Fish and Game. Unpubl. typescript. 16 p.

duction tends to be high at 2-year, 3-year, or irregular intervals (Sudworth 1908, Wolf 1945). Different species are not necessarily synchronized in the timing of high and low production years. Management to ensure adequate acorn production on any given site, therefore, can be increased by mixed-species stands of oaks.

Barrett and others[12] suggest that sources of measured variation in acorn production "probably include at least: 1) tree genetics, 2) trap position under canopy, 3) tree size (crown cover), 4) tree shape (dominance), 5) tree age (DBH), 6) site (plot), 7) regional environment (area), 8) annual weather." At least some of these variables may be incorporated into management planning to increase acorn production. Size and shape of the crowns of more productive trees (genetic differences?, site differences?), for example, might be improved for acorn production by selective removal of appropriate neighboring trees. Stands may be managed to assure a sufficient number of older trees, which tend to be the most productive (Shaw 1972). McDonald (1969) found that black oaks do not produce viable seeds before 30 years of age, and not until they are about 80 years old do they produce acorns in large quantities. High production levels may then be maintained at least to an age of 200 years.

As to acorn consumption, Gutierrez and Koenig (1978) recommend that acorn granary trees be maintained for acorn woodpeckers. This recommendation is not restricted to oaks, because the woodpeckers use other species of trees too. Existing granary trees should be identified and spared whenever tree cutting or removal of any kind is planned. Because the birds apparently prefer the largest trees in an area as granaries, old, large living trees should be spared. "The number of potential storage trees retained in an area should at least be equal to, and preferably located near, snags presently in use as granaries."

Nest Site Requirements

Managing oak stands to provide ample nesting sites for birds suffers presently from a lack of quantitative information on preferred tree species and optimum tree sizes, shapes, and states of decadence. As with adequate provision of foraging substrates and acorn production, maintenance of mixed-species stands is important, because different bird species exhibit different preferences for nest cover. Older, larger trees should be available for cavity nesters, and uneven-aged stands should be planned to provide for replacement of fallen cavity trees. In my experience, snags--dead or partly dead trees--are less critical to cavity nesters in oak woodlands than they are in other timber types; most nest cavities at the San Joaquin Experimental Range, in Madera County, are in living blue oaks.

[12] Barrett, R. H., J. W. Menke, M. E. Fry, and D. Mangold. 1976. A review of the value of hardwoods to wildlife in California with recommendations for research. Final report, submitted to Tahoe National Forest, USDA Forest Serv. Unpubl. typescript. 45 p.

The Guild Approach

After enough data have been accumulated on the feeding and nesting behaviors of birds in California oak habitats, we should classify the bird species by guilds and take a guild approach to management. The next step is to select suitable indicator species for each guild, and regularly inventory populations of indicator species to determine population trends over long periods of time.

This presupposes suitable inventorying methods for oak habitats. Such methods need to be researched within constraints of providing reliable population trends, if not reliable estimates of densities, and being time and cost efficient. Inventorying should be done before and after all sorts of management treatments in all sorts of oak habitats to assess impacts. Particularly important in this regard may be any activity that affects understory vegetation, especially the shrub layer. Shrubs are required by a number of bird species commonly associated with oaks, so shrub removal may have a large impact on the number of bird species able to use an oak stand.

Consideration of Adjacent and Included Habitats

Plans for management units that include, or are adjacent to, other habitat types must consider the additional bird species such habitats attract. Earlier discussions pointed out that several species of birds regularly exploiting oak habitats do so only because their preferred habitat is available in the area. Twenty species listed in table 1 show first preference for riparian sites and another 14 show first preference for chaparral. These two habitats are frequently associated with oak woodlands in California, and some bird species preferring them are exhibiting downward population trends. The National Audubon Society publishes in alternate years a "Blue List" of species for which available field data indicate declines of a magnitude deserving attention. Those from table 1 that are cited in the 1978 Blue List (Arbib 1977) for the Pacific coastal area are, by preferred habitat type: 1) Riparian woodland - Cooper's hawk, red-shouldered hawk, yellow warbler, and yellow-breasted chat; 2) Savannah - Swainson's hawk; 3) Coastal forest - purple martin.

Summary of Specific Recommendations

Multiple-use management of oak stands likely can accommodate the requirements of birds if all of the following general recommendations are incorporated into the management plans.

- Concentrate on the feeding and nesting requirements of breeding birds, as adequate provision for them will likely satisfy the other needs of birds in oak woodlands--including those of migrants and winter residents.
- Use the guild approach, including selection of suitable indicator species.
- Maintain mixed-species, uneven-aged stands, especially allowing for live oak retention.
- Provide a continuing supply of oaks, generally distributed on every acre or 2-acre parcel of the management unit that presently supports oaks.
- Provide a continuing supply of large, old trees, especially those with a good record of high acorn production.
- Manage for a mean annual production of at least 100 lb of acorns per acre, until further research establishes a better estimate of wildlife's needs.
- Provide an ample shrub layer where one occurs in existing oak stands, and consider the possibility of establishing shrubs in stands from which they were removed in the past.
- Consider needs of oak-using species from different, adjacent habitat types.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Lyman V. Ritter assisted with the literature review. Drs. Luis Baptista, Stephen H. Ervin, and Stephen I. Rothstein critically reviewed the manuscript and supplied some of the information used in table 1. Gary P. Eberlein did the regression analyses that formed the basis for figure 1. To all I express my sincere appreciation.

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Quercus agrifolia

Acorn Storage by Acorn Woodpeckers in an Oak Woodland: An Energetics Analysis[1]

Walter D. Koenig[2]

Abstract: Acorn woodpeckers (*Melanerpes formicivorus*) are a major harvester of acorns throughout California, eating them as they mature and caching them in storage trees each fall. At Hastings Reservation in central coastal California, a population of 120 to 130 birds stored an average of 43,600 acorns (344 per bird) each year. These acorns provide an estimated caloric content of edible material of 180,500 kcal, only about 6 to 7 percent of the total yearly metabolic requirements of the woodpecker population. These data are sufficient to indirectly provide a reasonable estimate of average acorn production in the study area.

The pattern of acorn storage by the acorn woodpecker and other major acorn harvesters in California contrasts with harvesters of piñon pine nuts (primarily Clark's nutcrackers and piñon jays) in the Southwest. Nut storage by both these species apparently results in significant dispersal of seeds, whereas most of the acorn harvesters in California effectively predate the acorns they pick. Equally contrasting are the adaptations of the mast-producing trees in the two communities. Piñon pines exhibit characteristics promoting seed dispersal by birds, while oaks in California do not appear to have evolved comparable mechanisms.

INTRODUCTION

The pattern of energy flow within natural ecosystems can provide useful insights into the factors influencing population dynamics and community organization (Wiens and Innis 1974). Here I present an energetics analysis of one component of the California oak woodland community. The approach I will take is preliminary and limited, but could readily be expanded to include more species in the acorn consumer guild, leading to a more complete evaluation of their impact on oak ecology and population dynamics.

The acorn woodpecker (*Melanerpes formicivorus*) is one of the most characteristic birds of oak and pine-oak woodlands throughout western North America. The birds live in permanently territorial family groups of between two and fifteen individuals; their diet is diverse, including flying and bark-crawling insects, sap, wild oats, fruit, vertebrates, oak buds and flowers, and acorns. They do not bore into wood as do most other woodpecker species. Acorns, which are the single most important item of their total diet, are eaten directly off the trees from the time they ripen in the fall until none remains. In addition, acorn woodpeckers have a unique way of coping with food shortage during the winter. Each group of birds defends a storage tree, or granary, within which acorns are stored individually in holes (MacRoberts and MacRoberts 1976, Gutiérrez and Koenig 1978). Stored acorns are a crucial resource. Not only are birds unable to remain resident on their territories through most winters without access to them, but also reproduction the following spring is impossible for groups whose stores have been exhausted during the winter (Koenig 1978). Acorn woodpeckers are most dependent on acorns during the fall and winter (approximately September to March), but groups with stored acorns remaining continue to use them through the spring and summer.

METHODS

Data were collected as part of a study of the ecology and social behavior of the acorn woodpecker at Hastings Natural History Reservation, Monterey Co., central coastal California. Approximately 25 groups of acorn woodpeckers were banded and censused beginning in fall of 1971, permitting accurate estimates of population size. Between July 1974 and September 1978 the number of stored acorns in each granary at Hastings was counted at bimonthly intervals. Beginning in the winter of 1975-76, I took random samples of stored acorns from accessible sections of each granary. These were identified to species (five are common in the area: *Quercus lobata* Née, *Q. agrifolia* Née, *Q. douglasii* H. & A., *Q. kelloggii* Newb., and

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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Q. chrysolepis Liebm.), dried for several months, shelled, and the cleaned cotyledons weighed. In 1975-76, only the total weight of the acorn sample was taken for each group of acorn woodpeckers. In the other two years acorns were divided first by species and then by degree of insect damage. Each set thus obtained was then weighed separately. These data permitted estimation of the total number and proportion of acorns of each species stored by the woodpecker population, the mean weight of undamaged acorns, and the average amount of insect damage that occurred to stored acorns of each species.

The energy consumption of acorn woodpeckers was estimated from values of existence metabolism (Pimm 1976) corrected for the increased costs of normal activity and digestive inefficiency (Wiens and Innis 1974). The caloric content of acorns was estimated using an average 9.7 kcal/gm for lipid content and 4.2 kcal/gm for the remaining material; average lipid content for acorns of each species are from Tucker[3]. Estimates of acorn production were gleaned from the literature.

RESULTS

Table 1 lists the estimated total numbers of stored acorns cached by acorn woodpeckers at Hastings for each of the three years. The relative proportion of the total made up by each of the five species of oaks varied considerably from year to year; however, the total number of stored acorns was relatively constant, ranging between 42,000 and 45,000 ($\bar{x}$ = 43,607), or about 344 acorns/bird/year. Table 2 summarizes the total estimated number of acorns of each species stored, along with the mean weight, amount of insect damage, total weight of stored acorns, caloric content per gram and per acorn for each species, and total caloric content of all stored acorns averaged for all data. After correcting for insect damage, the total average weight of stored acorns was 39 kg/year. In total, the estimated caloric content of stored edible material averaged 180,500 kcal/year.

These values represent the average maximum total energetic content of stores. Maxima were generally counted in December or January when acorn fall was complete. Prior to this, during a period of about four months beginning when acorns first begin to mature, acorns are eaten directly off the trees rather than from the granary (or, alternatively, those taken from the granary are replaced by newly harvested acorns).

The estimated metabolic requirement of the acorn woodpecker population at Hastings was compared with the caloric value of stored acorns (table 3). The proportion of the total metabolic requirement (TMR) of the population accountable in stored acorns is surprisingly low--only 6 to 7 percent. Even considering only the eight months of the year during which acorns are *not* available directly from the trees, stores account for only 10 or 11 percent of their remaining TMR. The relatively constant proportion of the TMR met by stored acorns during the study suggests that this proportion is usually not limited by the acorn supply itself, which varied considerably during the three years[4].

[3] Unpublished data; J. Tucker, Dept. Botany, Univ. California, Davis.

[4] Unpublished data; J. Griffin, Hastings Reservation, Univ. California, Carmel Valley, California.

Table 1 -- Yearly variation in species composition of acorns stored by acorn woodpeckers at Hastings Reservation

Year	Percent of all stored acorns					Total(N)
	Q. agrifolia	*Q. lobata*	*Q. douglasii*	*Q. kelloggii*	*Q. chrysolepis*	
1975-76	5.0	17.0	51.4	18.1	8.4	45470
1976-77	27.1	34.3	15.6	15.2	7.9	41927
1977-78	19.5	50.3	21.6	8.0	0.6	43425
Mean	16.9	33.7	30.0	13.8	5.6	43607

These data are readily convertible to energy flux per unit area. The approximate size of the study area is 247 ha, of which about 70 percent consists of oak woodland or forest in which oaks are common. Thus, given an average TMR for acorn woodpeckers at Hastings of 2,810,000 kcal/year and acorn reserves of 180,000 kcal/year (tables 2 and 3), the mean TMR of the population is about 11,400 kcal/ha/year while the energy stored in granaries amounts to 730 kcal/ha/year. Table 4 lists the percent of total acorn production which would be stored in granaries given these estimates and an acorn crop of four different orders of magnitude. The proportion of the acorn production stored in granaries ranges from a high of 22 percent given a crop of 1 kg/ha to 0.02 percent if the crop were 1000 kg/ha.

Using these values the relationship between acorn production and the TMR of the acorn woodpecker population can also be estimated (table 4). In this case, given an average crop of 1 kg/ha, the TMR of the population would be over three times the total acorn production. Given a crop of 1000 kg/ha, the TMR of the population would be only 0.3 percent of the acorn production.

The actual fraction of the total acorn production which is used by acorn woodpeckers is dependent not only on the production itself but also on the proportion of their diet made up of acorns. Early studies based on stomach content analyses suggested that this proportion might be as high as 50 to 60 percent (Beal 1911, Neff 1928), far higher than the proportion suggested by the data on acorn storage discussed above. However, I feel that these early figures are certainly overestimates, both because of the relatively slow digestive rate for seeds such as acorns compared to other softer material consumed by acorn woodpeckers, thereby biasing stomach content analyses (see Custer and Pitelka 1976), and also because of the difficulty in assessing the importance of sap, a food resource only recently shown to be important for acorn woodpeckers (MacRoberts 1970). If half the diet of the population during the storing months of September to December is made up of acorns and only stored acorns remain after that time, acorns would then make up about 25 percent of their total diet. Then, if the acorn crop averaged 10 kg/ha, woodpeckers would consume approximately 9 percent of the total crop, and less than 1 percent if the crop averaged 100 kg/ha (table 4).

DISCUSSION

Problems in Estimates of Acorn Production

Though each step of this analysis is an approximation, the greatest uncertainty is in the estimation of acorn production

Table 2 -- Mean weight, insect damage, and caloric content of acorns stored by acorn woodpeckers

	Q. agrifolia	*Q. lobata*	*Q. douglasii*	*Q. kelloggii*	*Q. chrysolepis*	Total
Total number of acorns stored	7,370	14,696	13,082	6,018	2,442	43,607
Mean weight of undamaged acorns (gm)	1.00	1.10	1.06	1.14	1.43	---
Mean percent of cotyledon eaten by insects	17	15	23	17	21	---
Mean edible weight (gm)	0.83	0.93	0.82	0.95	1.13	---
Total weight of stored acorns (kg)	6.10	13.73	10.69	5.71	2.75	38.97
Kcal/gm	5.16	4.44	4.41	5.01	4.51	---
Kcal/stored acorn	4.27	4.15	3.60	4.75	5.08	---
Total caloric content of stored acorns (kcal)	31,500	60,900	47,100	28,600	12,400	180,500

(table 4). Obtaining such estimates is a difficult but essential challenge to future ecologists interested in oak communities. Values reported by Wolf (1945) suggest that in good years acorn production of California oaks may reach 2000-6000 kg/ha wet weight, or about 1300-3500 kg/ha dry weight. More recently, Graves (1976, 1977) reported preliminary values of acorn fall in Sierra foothill communities of 0 to 2200 kg/ha dry weight. At Hastings Reservation, acorn falls of 0 to 98 acorns/m^2 (about 0 to 1100 kg/ha of edible cotyledons) below four valley oaks (*Quercus lobata* Née) over a 9-year period have been recorded[4/].

Table 3 -- Energetic requirements of acorn woodpeckers at Hastings Reservation

	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78
Mean number of birds in the study area	131.6	122.9	126.3
Total metabolic requirements of the population (kcal/year)[1/]	2,910,000	2,720,000	2,790,000
Caloric content of stored acorns (kcal)	214,000	183,000	169,000
Percent of TMR met by stored acorns	7.3	6.7	6.1
Percent of MR met by stored acorns during period when acorns are not available	11.0	10.0	9.8

[1/] Estimated using Pimm's (1976) equation for existence metabolism with a mean body weight of 80 gm, air temperature 13°C, and 13 hr photoperiod. Digestive efficiency was estimated as 70 percent and the cost of normal free ranging activity as 40 percent above existence metabolism.

These data indicate wide variation in production from year to year, species to species, and even from tree to tree. These fluctuations vary over at least two to three orders of magnitude and range up to a maximum of possibly over 1000 kg/ha. It is unlikely, however, that acorn fall would average this high over an area of mixed terrain and habitat covering several hundred hectares such as is of interest here. On the other hand, the values cited are for acorn fall, *after* crown-harvesters have already removed all the acorns they were able to take. Thus, though the range in production values used in Table 4 are probably representative of the variability shown in oak woodlands in California, there is as yet no data with which to estimate the average production over a relatively wide area of any California habitat.

However, the data presented here on the metabolic requirement of the acorn woodpeckers allow a rough estimation of probable average acorn production. If 25 percent of the diet of acorn woodpeckers consists of acorns, a proportion which no doubt varies from year to year but is

Table 4 -- Relation of acorn production to use by acorn woodpeckers

	Mean acorn production (dry weight)			
	1 kg/ha	10 kg/ha	100 kg/ha	1000 kg/ha
Edible production (kcal/ha)[1/]	3,400	34,000	340,000	3,400,000
Percent of production stored by acorn woodpeckers	21.5	2.2	0.22	0.02
TMR of the population divided by total acorn production	3.4	0.34	0.03	0.003

[1/] Estimated using an inedible shell weight averaging 30 percent of dry weight and an average caloric content of 4.8 kcal/gm for cotyledons.

probably a reasonable estimate, the woodpecker population would have to consume 85 percent of a total acorn crop averaging 1 kg/ha. This is clearly unrealistic. At 10 kg/ha, woodpeckers would consume about 9 percent of the total acorn crop, still improbably high but low enough to allow at least a few other acorn consumers to coexist with them. Consideration of the metabolic requirements of these other acorn users, including crown harvesters (other birds and squirrels), ground predators (deer, rats, and mice), and parasites (various insects), would provide an excellent means of estimating total average acorn production.

Contrast of Oak and Piñon Pine Communities

A fascinating comparison of these data is possible with that of Vander Wall and Balda (1977) for the harvesting and caching of piñon pine (*Pinus edulis* Engelm.) by Clark's nutcrackers (*Nucifraga columbiana*) in northern Arizona. These authors estimated that a population of about 150 birds cached between 3,300,000 and 5,000,000 nuts/year, compared to only 44,000 acorns/year stored by the Hastings population of about 125 acorn woodpeckers. The total weight of harvested nuts was calculated to be between 685 and 1028 kg for the nutcrackers compared to only 39 kg for the woodpeckers. Finally, Vander Wall and Balda estimated that each bird stored between 26,000 and 39,000 kcal/year in nuts, 2.2 to 3.3 times the amount of energy needed to survive through the six months of winter during which they eat the seeds. In contrast, each acorn woodpecker stored on the average only 1,420 kcal/year in acorns, only 10 to 11 percent of the MR for the remaining eight months during which acorns are not available in the trees.

These differences suggest that the acorn woodpecker-oak interaction is very different from that of Clark's nutcrackers and piñon pines. Nutcrackers harvest more energy than they need and presumably the recovery rate of seeds they cache is low. Acorn woodpeckers harvest only a fraction of their TMR, invest a great deal in maintenance of these stores, and recover virtually all the material they originally store.

These contrasts are reflected in the life-histories of both the birds and of the trees. In terms of the former, both Clark's nutcrackers and piñon jays (*Gymnorhinus cyanocephalus*), a second major harvester of piñon nuts (Balda and Bateman 1971, Ligon 1978), harvest nuts in large flocks of 100 to 300 birds. Flocks of both species are nomadic and may move long distances to find and store nuts. Recovery rate of cached nuts is low and at least some eventually germinate.

The major crown-harvesting acorn consumers in California follow different exploitation patterns. Acorn woodpeckers, as discussed above, live in relatively small, stable family groups which defend permanent territories. Only if the acorn crop fails entirely within a group's home range do they move elsewhere. Few acorns stored by acorn woodpeckers gain the chance to germinate, though a small number are dropped by the birds prior to being stored in a granary.

Scrub jays (*Aphelocoma coerulescens*) are also territorial and sedentary, though temporary feeding assemblages of 50 or more birds may form in order to harvest acorns from localized areas with heavy crops[5/]. Scrub jays cache acorns in the ground, however, and thus are probably important to acorn dispersal (Grinnell 1936). Three other crown-harvesting acorn consumers in California, Lewis' woodpeckers (*Melanerpes lewis*), band-tailed pigeons (*Columba fasciata*), and common crows (*Corvus brachyrhynchos*), are similar to nutcrackers and pinon jays in that they are nomadic and aggregate into flocks in the fall (Bock 1970, Grinnell *et al.* 1918). However, none of these species store acorns in the ground or in a way likely to result in acorn dispersal.

There also appear to be striking adaptive differences between the oaks and piñon pines. Piñon pines exhibit characteristics which can be interpreted as adaptations for seed dispersal by nutcrackers and piñon jays. Among these characteristics are a high lipid content of seeds (about 60 percent compared to less than 20 percent for acorns), high visibility and distinct seed coloration, relatively large seed size compared to other pines, and synchronized production of seed crops over wide geographic areas (Vander Wall and Balda 1977, Ligon 1978). No comparable coadaptations are evident among California oaks; if anything, the tannins of acorns are likely to have evolved as a deterrent to avian harvest and dispersal. Little investigation has been done on any of these factors in oak communities, however. It would clearly be profitable to examine interspecific variation in acorn size, lipid content, tannin content, and synchrony of acorn production in terms of the potential role of these factors in either promoting or hampering harvest and dispersal.

In conclusion, I wish to emphasize the importance of two factors to the understanding of oak ecology. First is the potential usefulness of an energetics approach, preferrably quantifying the energetic investments and constraints of both producers (the oaks) and consumers (acorn harvesters). Second is the importance of coadaptations between producers and consumers in determining the observed pattern of the energetic investment of the oaks. We cannot understand the ecology of oaks nor manage them intelligently without consideration of the species which live off them and disperse them.

[5/] Personal observation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

J. Davis and J. Griffin read the manuscript and offered helpful comments. Access to the unpublished data of J. Griffin and J. Tucker was appreciated. Final preparation of the manuscript was made possible by T. Kaehler and the Shy Computer Corporation. Financial assistance was provided by the National Science Foundation and the Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, University of California, Berkeley.

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Annual Oak Mast Yields from Visual Estimates[1]

Walter C. Graves[2]

Abstract: A method for visually estimating mast yields is described. Results of three years of field testing and application are listed. Practical application of the method for management and research is discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Seventeen species of oaks occur in California. They provide an important element of habitat association for many wildlife species. The annual mast or acorn crop produced by a single species or in combination with associated species contributes significantly to the food supply of wildlife. Dependent species include tree squirrels (Sciurus griseus), wild turkeys (Meleagris galloparo), band-tailed pigeons (Columba faseiata), mountain quail (Oreortyx picta), valley quail (Lophortyx californicus), wood ducks (Aix sponsa), mallards (Anas Platyrhynchos), wild pigs (Sus scrofa), bear (Ursus americanus), deer (Odocoileus hemionus), acorn woodpeckers (Melanerpes formicivorus), Steller's jays (Cyanocitta stelleri), and scrub jays (Aphelocoma coerulescens).

Because of the recognized importance of oak associations and acorns to wildlife, the California Department of Fish and Game has been conducting an oak-wildlife relationship study since 1975. The major objective is to develop oak management plans for both public and private lands that provide proper cover and food for wildlife. Similar studies have been reported in other states on other species of oaks (Goodrum et al. 1971).

The first step toward meeting the study objective was to monitor annual acorn production per individual tree and per area. Individual tree production data were to be correlated with physical tree measurements, while area production data was to be correlated with annual changes in selected wildlife species and wildlife population levels. Seed traps (Downs and McQuilkin 1944) were used to obtain initial production data from randomly selected trees. Acorn yield data collected in this manner were extremely variable and led to several modifications in the study (Graves 1977).

One major change was to select sampled trees based on some knowledge of potential to produce acorns. This was accomplished by designing and field testing a method to visually classify acorn production. This paper describes that procedure.

METHODS

1. Four classes for acorn production of individual trees were defined as follows:
    - Class #1 - No visible acorns (Score 1)
    - Class #2 - Acorns visible after very close examination. Maybe only one or two are observed (Score 2)
    - Class #3 - Acorns readily visible, but they do not cover the entire tree and the limbs do not appear to bend from their weight (Score 3)

1/Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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Class #4 - Acorns readily visible and covering the entire tree; limbs appear to sag from weight of acorns (Score 4)

2. Instructions for classifying each individual tree were as follows:

a. Walk up to the tree and note that acorns are either readily visible or not visible.

b. If acorns are not readily observed, the tree is either a Class 1 or a Class 2. Walk around the tree and look for acorns. Use field glasses if necessary. If no acorns are observed, the tree is a Class 1. If one or more acorns are observed, the tree is a Class 2. Record the class on a data sheet and go to the next tree.

c. If acorns are readily observed, the tree is either a Class 3 or 4. Walk around the tree to see if acorns are found all over the tree. If they are well distributed around the tree, the tree is a Class 3. Also, if the acorns are only on one side or in one area, the tree is a Class 3. If the acorns occur in clusters of two, three, or more, all around the tree, it is a Class 4. In this class, the limbs are often bending from the weight of acorns. Record data and go to the next tree.

3. Three or more observers classified the same sample of 150 trees to determine variation between observers.

4. Blue oak (Quercus douglasii) trees on a 60,000-acre ranch were randomly selected(by driving along roads, stopping at .2 mile intervals, and classifying the nearest five trees)and sampled in groups of 100 to determine adequate sample size needed to estimate acorn production for a given area.

5. Visual classes were compared to samples of acorns collected in 0.2 m^2 seed traps to relate the visual classes to some quantitative value. Wire-framed seed traps with burlap sacks were placed under two Class 1, sixteen Class 2, 46 Class 3, and 36 Class 4 trees. The number of trees sampled per class were predetermined from the expected range in dry weight of acorns collected per tree per class, expressed as a percentage of the total expected range for all classes. Physical tree measurements were recorded for each of these sampled trees.

6. Application of the method to obtain trend data for various geographic areas and oak species throughout the state was initially tested in 1976 with continued surveys in 1977 and 1978, using the described classes with the following instructions:

a. Based on your subjective knowledge of oak distribution in your area, select representative area or areas for each oak species. Mast production varies from one slope to another. Therefore, the sample should include trees from various slopes and elevations.

b. Selection of trees should be on a random basis at preselected stops along roads or equal distances along walking transects. Do not select trees because of size, form, or obvious presence of acorns. Trees should be away from roadways to avoid unnatural edge effect.

c. Classify 100 trees of each species per wildlife management unit.

RESULTS

Variation in classifying individual blue oak trees occurred with three observers. They independently classified the same 150 trees, and all three classified 74 percent of the trees the same. Two observers were in agreement on the classification for the remaining 26 percent with the third observer placing the tree one class above or below the other observers. The most frequent discrepancy occurred between Class 1 and Class 2 trees. This variation between observers in individual tree classification became insignificant in the overall average production class for the 150 trees with averages of 2.25, 2.23, and 2.25.

Variation in the average tree class of 100 trees was less than one percent as additional groups of 100 randomly selected trees were classified. The first group of 100 trees had an average production class of 2.25. When the second 100 trees were added to this for a sample of 200 trees, the average class was 2.27 and remained the same with the addition of another 100 trees.

There was a significant (t test with P=.05) difference based on both sample weight and number of acorns per sample between Class 2, 3 and 4 trees (table 1). No acorns were collected from Class 1 trees. The number of acorns collected per trap correlated positively (r=0.59, P=.05) with the visual class. There was no significant difference in the range of the DBH (Diameter Breast High-a measurement of basal area) for trees

Table 1--Acorn trap summary data per tree class

	Class 2(16)[1]	Class 3(46)	Class 4(36)
Mean acorns/trap ± Standard error (Range)	1.2± .76 (0.44-1.96)	5.0± 2.15 (2.86-7.14)	19.0± 5.7 (13.23-24.76)
Mean wt. gm /trap (Range)	1.2± .83 (0.37-2.03)	10.6± 4.13 (6.47-14.70)	42.4± 11.02 (31.60-53.20)

1/Number of trees sampled.

Table 2--Average acorn yield class by species, county, and region, 1978

County	All Species	Blue Oak	Black Oak	Brewer Oak	Canyon L. Oak	Coast L.Oak	Garry Oak	Interior L. Oak	Scrub Oak	Valley Oak
Tehama		1.35(328)[1]								
TOTAL	1.35(328)	1.35(328)								
El Dorado	1.82(355)		1.71(300)		2.41(55)					
Glenn-Colusa	1.02(300)	1.00(100)	1.05(100)	1.00(*)	1.10(*)[2]			1.05(*)		1.00(100)
TOTAL	1.45(655)	1.00(100)	1.55(400)	1.00(*55)				1.05(*)		1.00(100)
Napa	1.32(1116)	1.07(217)	1.67(82)				1.00(500)	1.89(317)		
Mendocino	1.42(217)		1.65(77)				1.34(98)	1.21(42)		
Lake	1.65(2956)	1.22(490)	1.61(1097)	1.92(137)	1.71(45)		1.13(401)	2.19(528)		2.12(258)
San Luis Obispo										
Monterey	1.43(500)	1.16(200)				1.13(100)		2.54(100)		1.16(100)
Santa Clara	1.03(1200)	1.00(300)	1.04(200)					1.04(400)		1.03(300)
Sonoma	2.12(381)		1.85(82)				1.37(83)	2.52(216)		
TOTAL	1.33(6370)	1.13(1207)	1.55(1538)	1.92(137)	1.71(45)	1.13(100)	1.11(1082)	1.88(1603)		1.48(658)
Stanislaus	1.03(240)	1.03(240)								
Madera	1.00(100)	1.00(100)								
TOTAL	1.02(340)	1.02(340)								
COMBINED TOTALS										
1978	1.45(7695)	1.14(1975)	1.55(1940)	1.92(137)	2.09(100)	1.13(100)	1.11(1082)	1.88(1603)		1.42(758)
1977	1.70(7388)	1.72(1811)	1.68(2588)	1.83(227)	1.85(432)	1.86(200)	1.50(699)	1.66(584)	1.23(70)	1.74(772)
1976	2.05(3067)	1.80(678)	1.84(960)	2.92(100)	2.89(211)	2.30(100)	2.00(220)	2.09(480)	1.29(7)	2.32(311)

1/Number in parentheses indicates sample size.

2/Sample size unknown.

in each visual class, with ranges of 32-132 for Class 2, 98-162 for Class 3, and 124-236 for Class 4 trees.

Application of the visual method to monitor acorn yields on a statewide basis shows an observed decline in mast production for most species and administrative regions (tables 2 and 3). Sampling intensity varied between observers, and only limited data was available for some species. Therefore, no statistical analysis of the data was attempted.

Table 3--Combined average yield classes of all oak species by county and region for 1976, 1977, and 1978

COUNTY	1976	1977	1978
Siskiyou	2.47(100)	1.85(300)	
Humboldt		1.87(116)	
Trinity	1.46(155)	1.45(165)	
Tehama	1.81(476)	2.27(350)	1.35(328)
REGION 1	1.83(731)	1.94(931)	1.35(328)
El Dorado	1.44(300)	1.33(352)	1.82(355)
Placer	1.74(100)	1.78(400)	
Glenn-Colusa	2.43(700)	1.50(600)	1.02(300)
REGION 2	2.10(1100)	1.54(1352)	1.45(655)
Mendocino	2.37(300)	1.83(185)	1.42(217)
Lake	2.32(76)	1.59(2815)	1.65(2956)
San Luis Obispo		2.39(500)	
Monterey	1.80(100)	1.78(500)	1.43(500)
Santa Clara	1.66(160)	1.42(345)	1.03(1200)
Napa			1.32(1116)
Sonoma			2.12(381)
REGION 3	2.10(636)	1.70(4345)	1.33(6370)
Stanislaus	1.48(100)	1.42(260)	1.03(240)
Madera	2.56(100)	1.37(100)	1.00(100)
REGION 4	2.02(200)	1.41(360)	1.02(340)
San Bernardino		1.64(200)	
San Diego	2.60(200)	2.41(200)	
Riverside	1.93(200)		
REGION 5	2.26(400)	2.02(400)	*

* = Sample size unknown.
Number in parentheses indicates sample size.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The visual classification method for estimating acorn production for a given tree or area is easily adapted to many oak management or research needs. With very little direction or training, several observers can classify acorn production in a given geographical area or in several areas using a uniform classification system. The method works well on all mast-producing species that were sampled. The untrained observers found the method easy to follow and applicable to their areas and various species of oaks. The significant correlation between the visual class and measured acorn production suggests that the visual classification system could be used to quantify annual acorn production, providing some information including basal area, stems per acre, average canopy height, and crown cover per acre on the tree stand and area is available. We intend to collect quantitative data and visually classify trees on our blue oak study area through at least one more good acorn year in order to correlate the visual classification to quantitative mast production. We also intend to follow the same procedure with black oak (Q. Kelloggii) during a good mast year. Questions asked are: What constitutes an average or above average mast crop? Are the same trees that produce one good year the same ones that produce during the next good year? These questions can be answered only after several years of data are available.

Assuming that the strong correlation exists between visual class and quantitative measurement of mast production for all oak species, the visual method can be used as a research and management tool. The researcher can use it to measure mast production in conjunction with food habits, body condition, reproductive levels, and population trends of selected wildlife species. The visual classification can be used to sample a larger number of trees over a much larger area than the more expensive and time-consuming conventional seed trap method. Provided that trees are classified and marked during good mast years, the land manager can use the method as a tool for selecting good mast-producing trees of various sizes and age classes to be retained during logging and thinning operations for the benefit of wildlife and for natural reseeding of the area.

The Department of Fish and Game will continue to use this method to monitor acorn production throughout the state. The annual data and trend information will be used in conjunction with deer, bear, and pigeon research. It will be used to forecast trends in squirrel populations and pigeon concentrations. As more data become available through our research, we intend to incorporate the visual classification method into oak management plans for public and private lands as a tool for selecting good mast-producing trees to be left during thinning and logging operations.

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Quercus kelloggii

Mammals of California Oak Habitats—Management Implications[1]

Reginald H. Barrett[2]

Abstract: A review of published literature on 169 terrestrial mammal species and 15 species of oaks in California established that at least 60 mammals may use oaks in some way. Thirty-eight mammals cannot or do not utilize oaks and 71 species need further study. It is proposed that ongoing land management practices affecting oaks be monitored to determine the effect of such practices on mammal populations. There are no published studies clearly documenting the effect on a mammal population of removing oaks from a site in California.

INTRODUCTION

Approximately 20 million acres or 20 percent of California is vegetated with some combination of 6 species of oaks and related mast producing trees and shrubs. It is not surprising then that a major proportion of the state's mammalian fauna utilizes oaks for food and cover.

A number of vegetation or habitat classification schemes has been devised for the state (Jensen 1947, Munz and Keck 1959, Cheatham and Haller 1975, Kuchler 1977, Barbour and Major 1977), and one can find lists of mammals that may be associated with most of these habitat types (Grinnell and Storer 1924, Grinnell and Linsdale 1930, Grinnell 1933, Grinnell et al. 1937, Hamilton 1939, Sumner and Dixon 1953, Brown 1957, Ingles 1965). Rather than repeat such lists here, I will review the relationships of oaks and mammals in California by extracting from the published literature on both oaks and mammals of the state information on: 1) the overlap in the ranges of 15 oak species and 169 terrestrial mammal species; and 2) the type and degree of utilization of oaks by these mammals. An important result of this exercise has been the realization that for most of these 169 mammals we do not know whether they utilize a given oak species, much less if they are strongly dependent on any of them.

RANGE OVERLAP

On the assumption that to interact two organisms must have overlapping distributions, I compared the ranges of 15 oaks (including tan oak[3] (Sampson and Jesperson 1963, Griffin and Critchfield 1972) with those of 169 terrestrial mammals including 11 introduced species (Ingles 1965, Burt and Grossenheider 1976). Of the 2,535 potential interactions (Appendix I), 56 percent could be considered as cases in which a mammal species might interact with an oak (table 1). Forty-four percent were cases in which the respective ranges did not overlap, consequently interactions are impossible. However, only 3 percent of all cases, or 5 percent of the cases with some overlap, could be documented from the literature as ones in which the mammal species actually utilized the specific oak for food or cover. Thus 53 percent of all cases need further study. Some additional information may exist but not in published form readily available to land managers.

For many mammals the literature indicated use of oak in general, or documentation was available for use of oaks outside of California (Van Dersal 1940, Martin et al. 1951, Ingles 1965). Considering this information as well as that above, 60 mammals or 35 percent of the 169 total may use oaks directly or indirectly (table 2). This group includes the 21 mammals listed by Barrett et al. (1976). Thirty-eight mammals cannot or do not utilize oaks and 71 species need further study according to this analysis.

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[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, Calif., June 26-28, 1979.

[2] Assistant Professor, Department of Forestry and Resource Management, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.

[3] Scientific names of oak species are given in Appendix 1.

Types of Utilization

Oaks provide thermal or escape cover for at least 55 California mammals (Ingles 1965, Barrett et al. 1976, Verner and Boss, in press). For example, grey fox[4] and bobcat may use dense oak chaparral as thermal cover (Grinnell et al. 1937).

Table 1--*Interactions and potential interactions between 169 terrestrial California mammal species and 15 California oak species, including tan oak*

	NUMBER OF CASES	PERCENT
POTENTIAL INTERACTIONS (15 x 169)	2,535	100
DOCUMENTED STRONG DEPENDENCE OF 5 MAMMALS ON OAK SPECIES FOR COVER OR FOOD	16	1
DOCUMENTED UTILIZATION OF OAK SPECIES BY 55 MAMMALS FOR COVER OR FOOD (EXCLUDING CASES OF STRONG DEPENDENCE)	51	2
DOCUMENTED INTERACTION	67	3
OVERLAP OF MAMMAL AND OAK SPECIES RANGES BUT NO DOCUMENTED USE OR OTHER INTERACTIONS (CASES IN NEED OF FURTHER STUDY)	1,168	46
MINIMAL OVERLAP OF MAMMAL AND OAK SPECIES RANGES	195	7
NO PUBLISHED DATA	1,363	53
NO OVERLAP OF MAMMALS' RANGE WITH OAK SPECIES' RANGE (EXCLUDING CASES BELOW)	925	37
NO OVERLAP OF 12 MAMMALS' RANGES WITH ANY OF 15 OAK SPECIES	180	7
NO INTERACTION	1,105	44

Raccoons may use hollow oaks as den sites or escape cover (Grinnell et al 1937). Black bears may den under the roots of large oaks (Piekielek and Burton 1975). Fallen oaks make good cover for deer mice and striped skunks (Ingles 1965). Of course, in most of these cases the mammal is not restricted to oaks and could substitute similar vegetation. In this sense these species are not dependent on oaks per se. However, in many cases where oaks are being altered or eliminated, no satisfactory substitutes are available. Gray squirrels and fox squirrels are probably the California mammals most dependent on oaks for cover, but even they may use trees other than oaks for den sites.

Oaks provide considerable browse for many small and large mammals despite the fact that most oaks have substantial amounts of tannins or essential oils in their leaves (Mackie 1903, Van Dersal 1940). Voles, pocket gophers, and deer all forage on the leaves and twigs of many oak species, especially young seedlings (Martin et al. 1951, Griffin 1971). Even dry leaves of the deciduous oaks may provide food for deer (Leach and Hiehle 1957). As Griffin has illustrated elsewhere in this symposium, the foraging of mammals may be a significant factor inhibiting growth and even survival of oaks, particularly in the case of young trees (Mellanby 1968, Griffin 1971). The browsing domestic livestock and deer may be the most significant factor inhibiting the regeneration of oaks on California rangelands (Longhurst et al. 1979).

Clearly the greatest importance of oaks to mammals lies in their production of large, edible seeds (Martin et al. 1951, Christensen and Korschgen 1955, Reid and Goodrum 1957). Acorns have a high caloric density (Ofcarcik and Burns 1971, Barrett et al. 1976), and since they are relatively large, it is worthwhile for many mammals to expend considerable energy foraging for them. At least 37 (22 percent)

Table 2 --*Utilization of oak by 169 terrestrial California mammals*

	NO. SPECIES	PERCENT
DOCUMENTED USE OF OAK FOR FOOD OR COVER, DIRECTLY OR INDIRECTLY	60	35
USE OF OAK FOR COVER	55	33
USE OF OAK FOR FOOD	24	14
USE OF OAK FOR BOTH FOOD AND COVER	23	14
POSSIBLE BUT UNDOCUMENTED USE OF OAK	71	43
NO APPARENT USE OF OAK	26	15
NO POSSIBLE USE OF OAK	12	7
TOTAL	169	100

of California's terrestrial mammals are known to utilize acorns. No species may be absolutely dependent on acorns if alternate foods are available, but several species--especially bears, deer, pigs and squirrels--could not maintain normal densities without a fairly regular supply of acorns (Piekielek and Burton 1975, Dasmann 1971, Goodrum 1940, Barrett 1978).

[4] Scientific names of mammal species are given in Appendix 1.

Over much of their range these mammals tend to fluctuate in density according to the annual crop of mast, indicating they are limited by this source of food (Allen 1943, Burns et al. 1954, Uhlig 1956, Duvendeck 1962, Matschke 1964, Barrett 1978).

The utilization rate of mast crops by mammals has rarely been measured, but my own observations throughout California suggest that acorns other than those of tan oak rapidly disappear once they have dropped. Acorn utilization usually approaches 100 percent where deer, pigs or bear occur. Consequently, the density, age structure, dispersion pattern, and species composition of oaks within the home range of a mammal strongly dependent on acorns will undoubtedly influence the density and productivity of that species.

With this in mind, wildlife biologists have provided the following recommendation for maintaining oak dependent wildlife:

1) maintain a 25 to 50 percent canopy cover in oaks,
2) maintain a basal area of 200 to 2000 ft^2 per each 40 acres,
3) maintain a mixture of age classes including older, more prolific seeders,
4) disperse oaks in 0.5⁻ to 5-acre aggregations.

A mixture of deciduous and evergreen oaks is preferable because this tends to provide a more even production of mast (Reynolds et al. 1970, Goodrum et al. 1971, Connell et al. 1973). From the viewpoint of oak regeneration, however, a pulsed seed crop is desirable. The widespread occurrence of irregular seed production is presumably a result of long coevolution of both oaks and their seed predators (Sudworth 1908, USFS 1948, Harper 1977). Squirrels, like jays, not only eat acorns but disperse them, thus playing a double role in the ecology of oaks.

Oaks may be important to some mammals by supporting oak dependent fungi, lichens, mistletoe, galls or insect species required or preferred by these mammals (Van dersal 1940, Ingles 1965). There is much more to be learned about such relationships. Another indirect relationship is that between the larger mammalian carnivores and oaks. Although carnivores in general are relatively catholic in their food preferences, some species such as the mountain lion prefer deer which may be dependent on oaks. Thus a productive oak woodland or shrubland should support not only a dense deer herd but a healthy lion population as well. A comparison of mountain lion distribution in California (Koford 1977) with that of oaks (Griffin and Critchfield 1972) suggests this relationship.

In the analysis of oak-mammal interactions I also considered which oak species seemed to be utilized most commonly by California mammals (Appendix I). The top 6 oak species included valley oak, interior live oak, California black oak, canyon oak, coast live oak and blue oak (table 3). Of these, apparently the most likely to be reduced by human activities are valley oak, black oak and blue oak. The human activities concerned are agricultural crop production, timber production, and livestock production respectively.

Table 3. *Importance of oak species to California mammals based on the number of documented interactions between each oak and 169 mammals.*

OAK SPECIES	NO. CASES	PERCENT
VALLEY OAK	14	21
INTERIOR LIVE OAK	13	19
CALIFORNIA BLACK OAK	7	11
CANYON OAK	6	9
COAST LIVE OAK	6	9
BLUE OAK	5	7
SCRUB OAK	4	6
OREGON OAK	3	4
LEATHER OAK	3	4
HUCKLEBERRY OAK	3	4
ENGELMAN OAK	1	2
DEER OAK (SADLER OAK)	1	2
TAN OAK	1	2
TURBIN OAK (SHRUB LIVE OAK)	0	0
PALMER OAK (DUNN OAK)	0	0
TOTAL	67	100

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

Several California mammals are strongly dependent on oaks, many others utilize oaks to some degree, and even more species simply are not known well enough to make conclusions about their relationships with oaks. Several important oak species, while still common now, may be significantly reduced in numbers in the foreseeable future due to human activities and to influences of domestic and wild mammals. Therefore, land managers should reconsider their objectives in light of societies' future needs and modify their programs accordingly. If it is determined that a reasonable population of each native California mammal should be maintained in most portions of their pristine ranges, land managers must

1) determine cause and effect relationships between oaks and mammals (not to mention wildlife in general), and
2) develop management programs to interface societies' needs for crops, timber and livestock production with needs for wildlife conservation.

I suggest that the primary need at this time is to document the requirements of California wildlife for oaks. The most practical and efficient way to do this is to monitor present oak manipulation practices as well as the proposed practices outlined above. Such a program of monitoring wildlife responses should be considered part of management costs (Leopold 1978). Monitoring must be carried out with proper consideration for experimental design, adequate sample size and appropriate criteria for measurements. I suggest the relative abundance of each mammal species should be considered as a minimum.

I am not aware of any published studies that have adequately determined cause and effect relationships between oaks and mammals in California. The present is the time to begin a series of monitoring studies if there is to be any time to modify existing management procedures before many alternatives are foreclosed. In the meantime, managers must be satisfied with a hodgepodge of subjective recommendations based on generally unsubstantiated claims.

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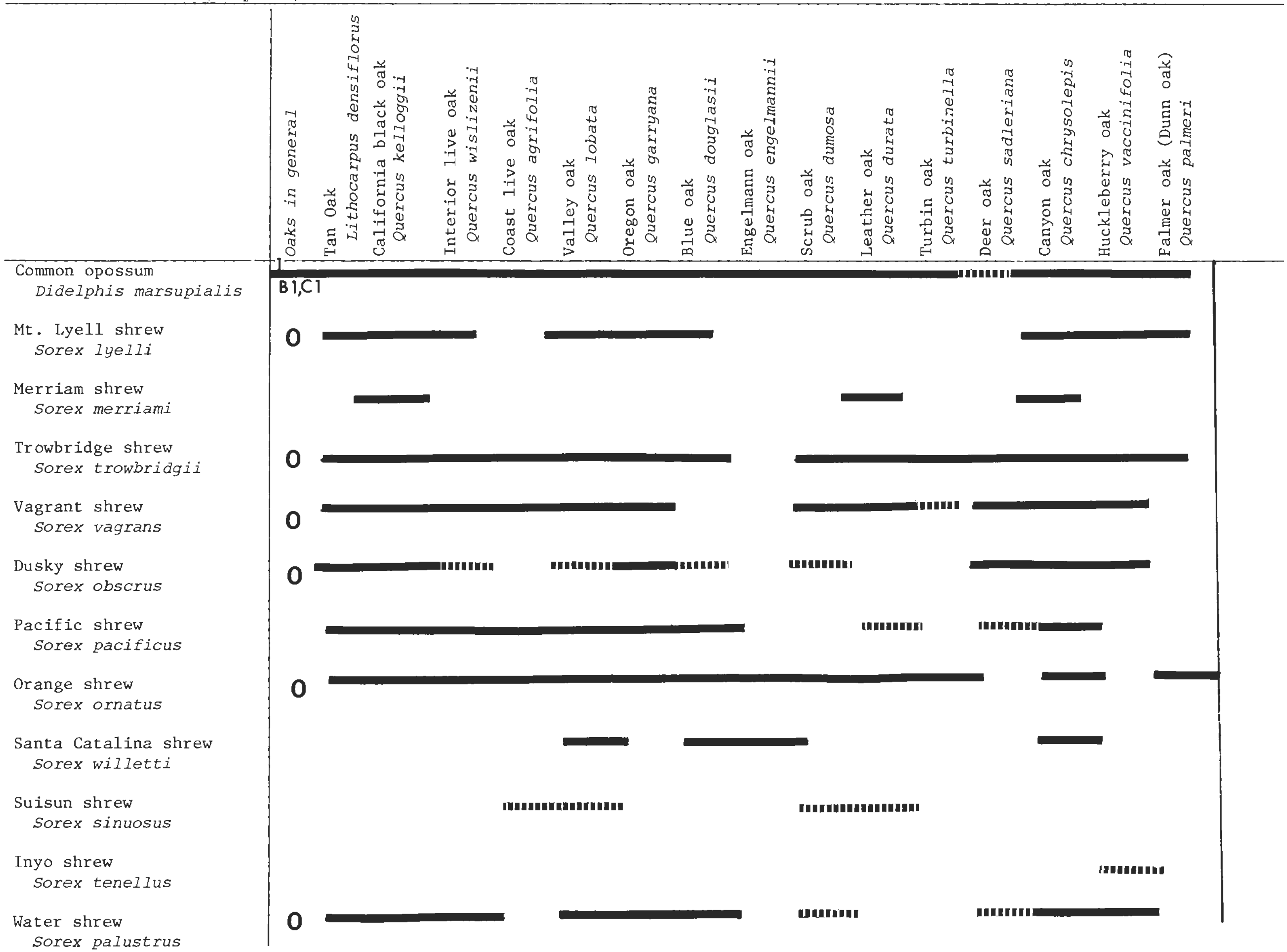
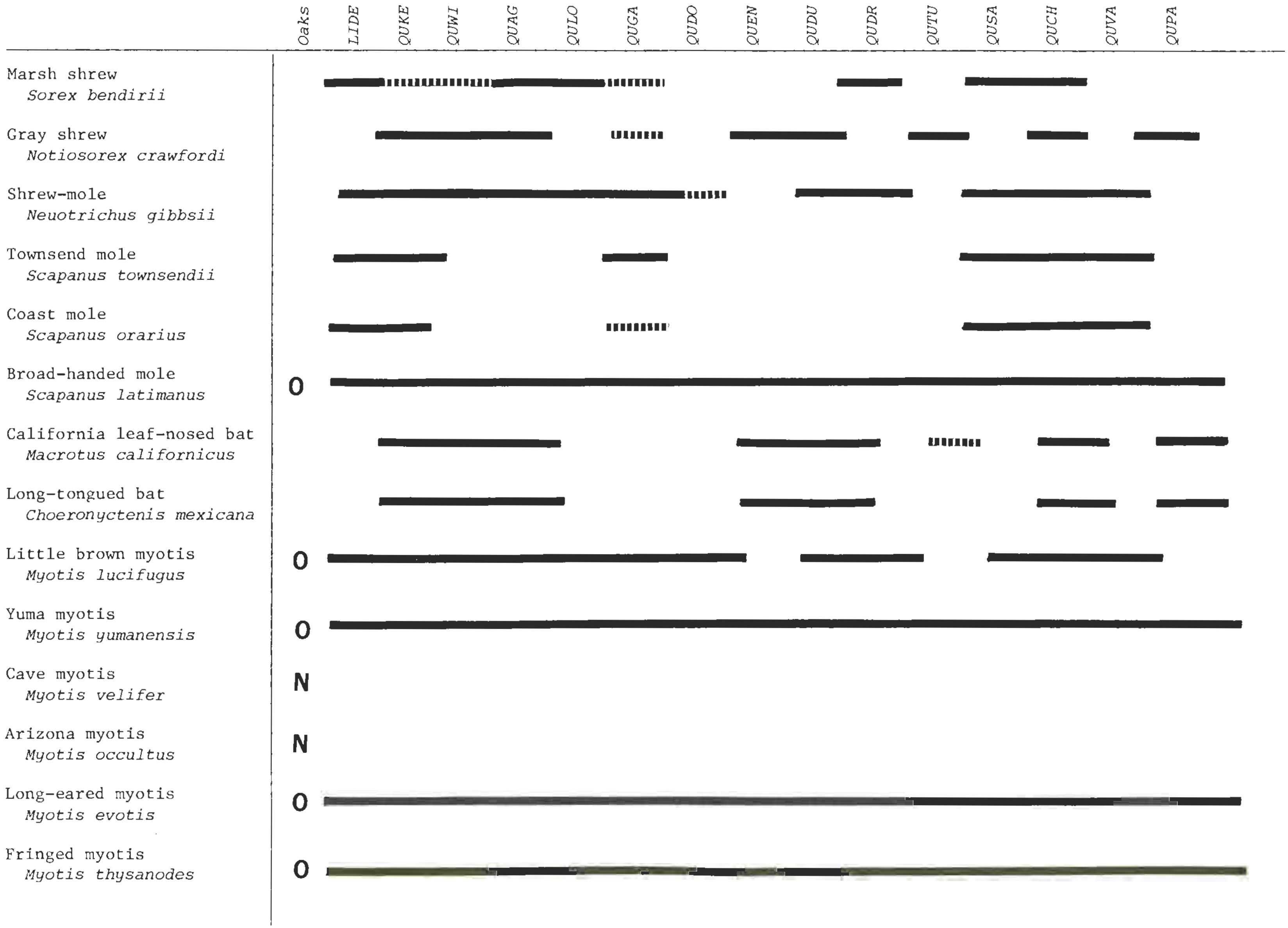
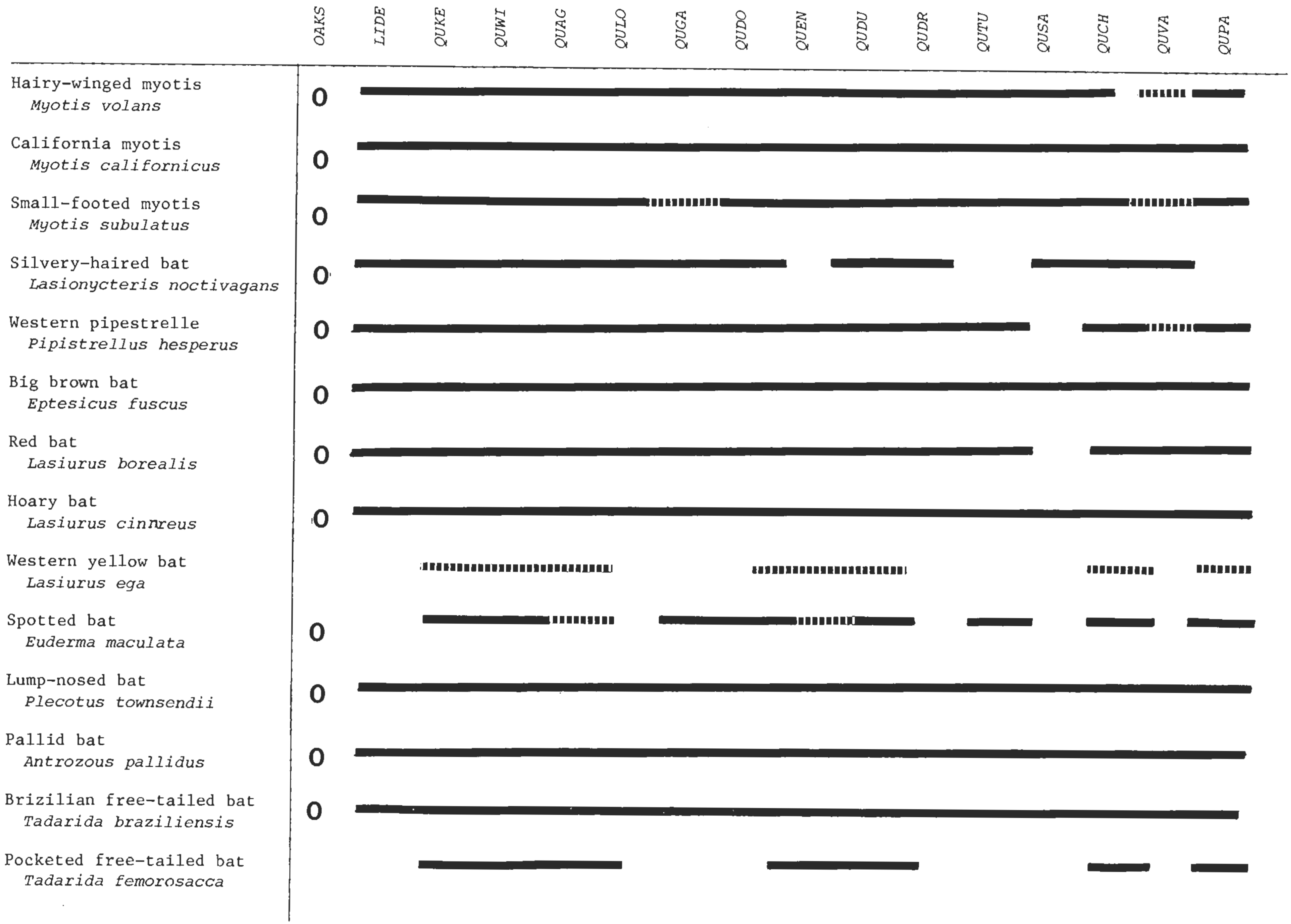
Appendix I--*Matrix of potential and documented interactions between 169 terrestrial mammals and 15 oaks in California. Documentation was derived from sources reviewed by VanDersal (1940), Martin et al. (1951), Ingles (1965), Barrett et al (1976) and Verner and Boss (in press).*



Appendix I--*page 2.*

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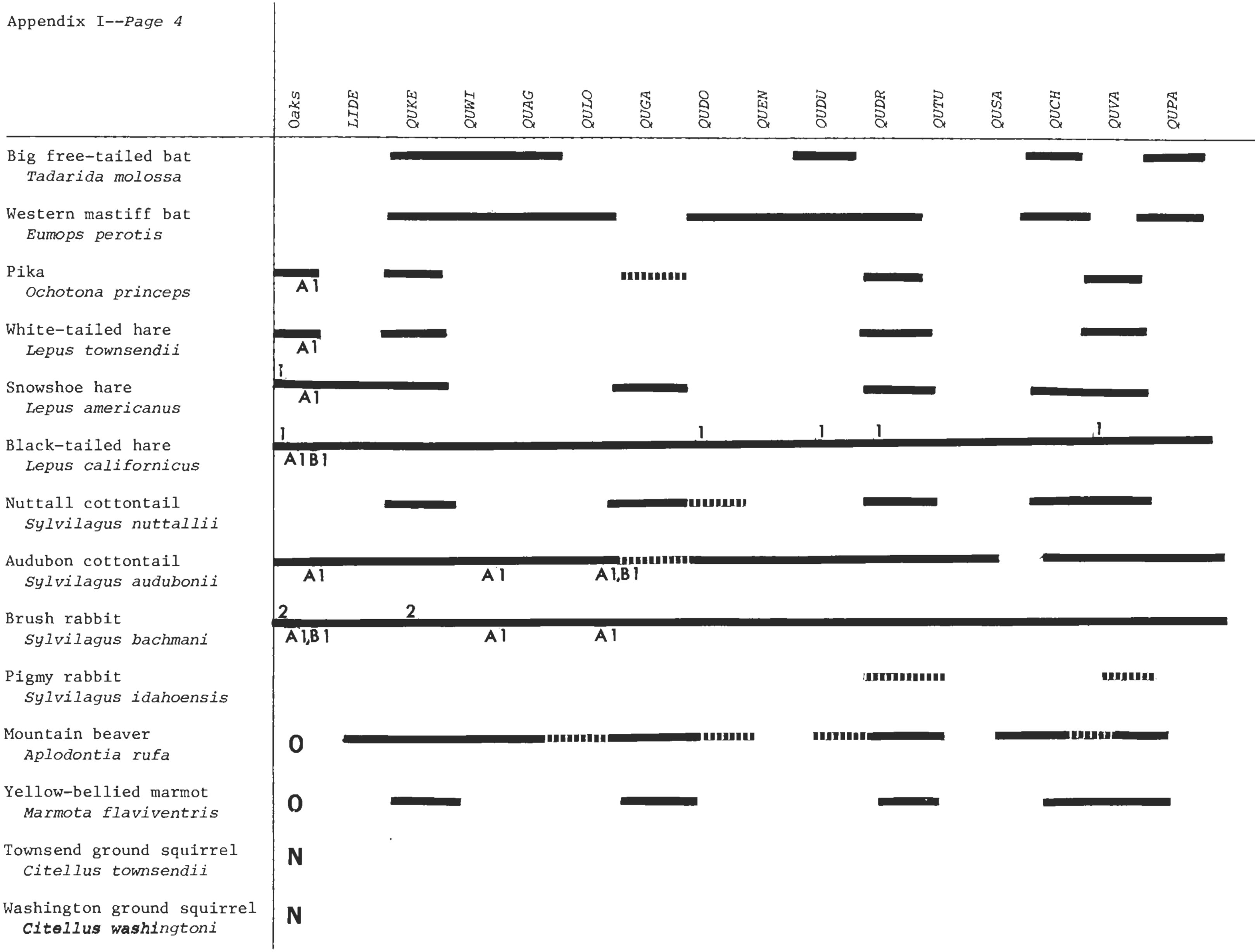
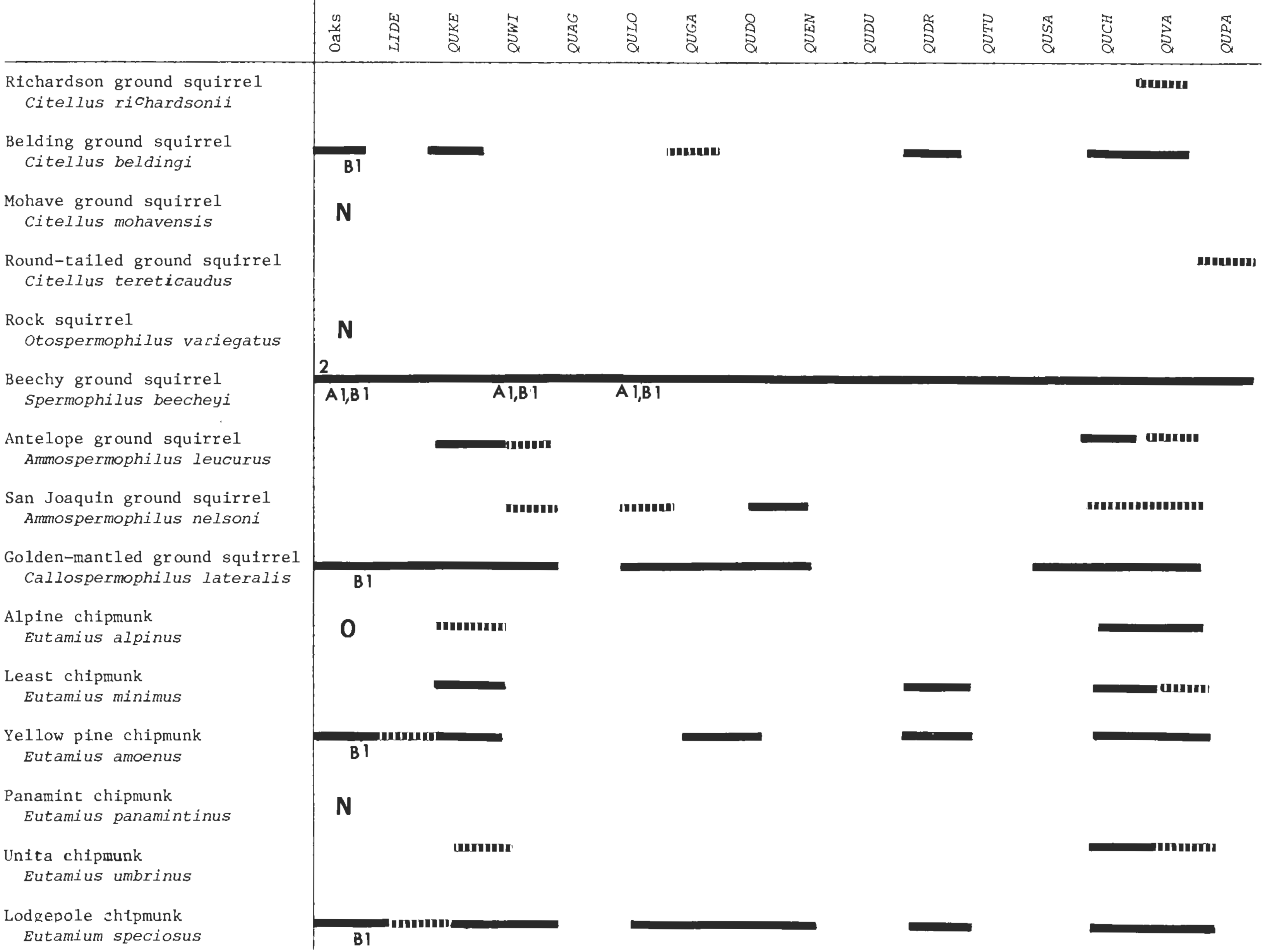
QUKE
QUWI
QUAG
QULO
QUGA
QUDO
QUEN
QUDU
QUDR
QUTU
QUSA
QUCH
QUVA
QUPA
Hairy-winged myotis *Myotis volans*
California myotis *Myotis californicus*
Small-footed myotis *Myotis subulatus*
Silvery-haired bat *Lasionycteris noctivagans*
Western pipestrelle *Pipistrellus hesperus*
Big brown bat *Eptesicus fuscus*
Red bat *Lasiurus borealis*
Hoary bat *Lasiurus cinnreus*
Western yellow bat *Lasiurus ega*
Spotted bat *Euderma maculata*
Lump-nosed bat *Plecotus townsendii*
Pallid bat *Antrozous pallidus*
Brizilian free-tailed bat *Tadarida braziliensis*
Pocketed free-tailed bat *Tadarida femorosacca*
O

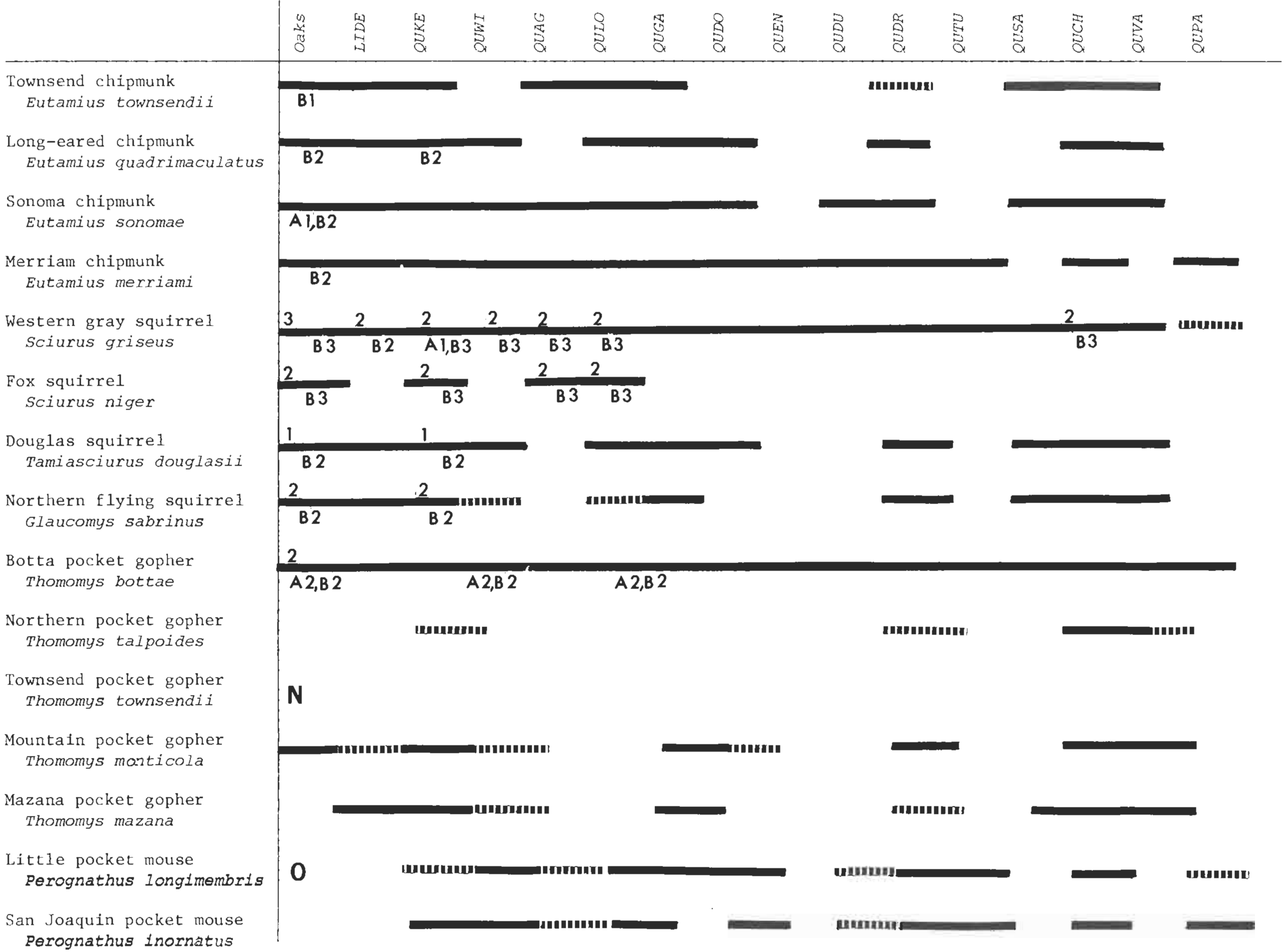
Appendix I--*Page 4*



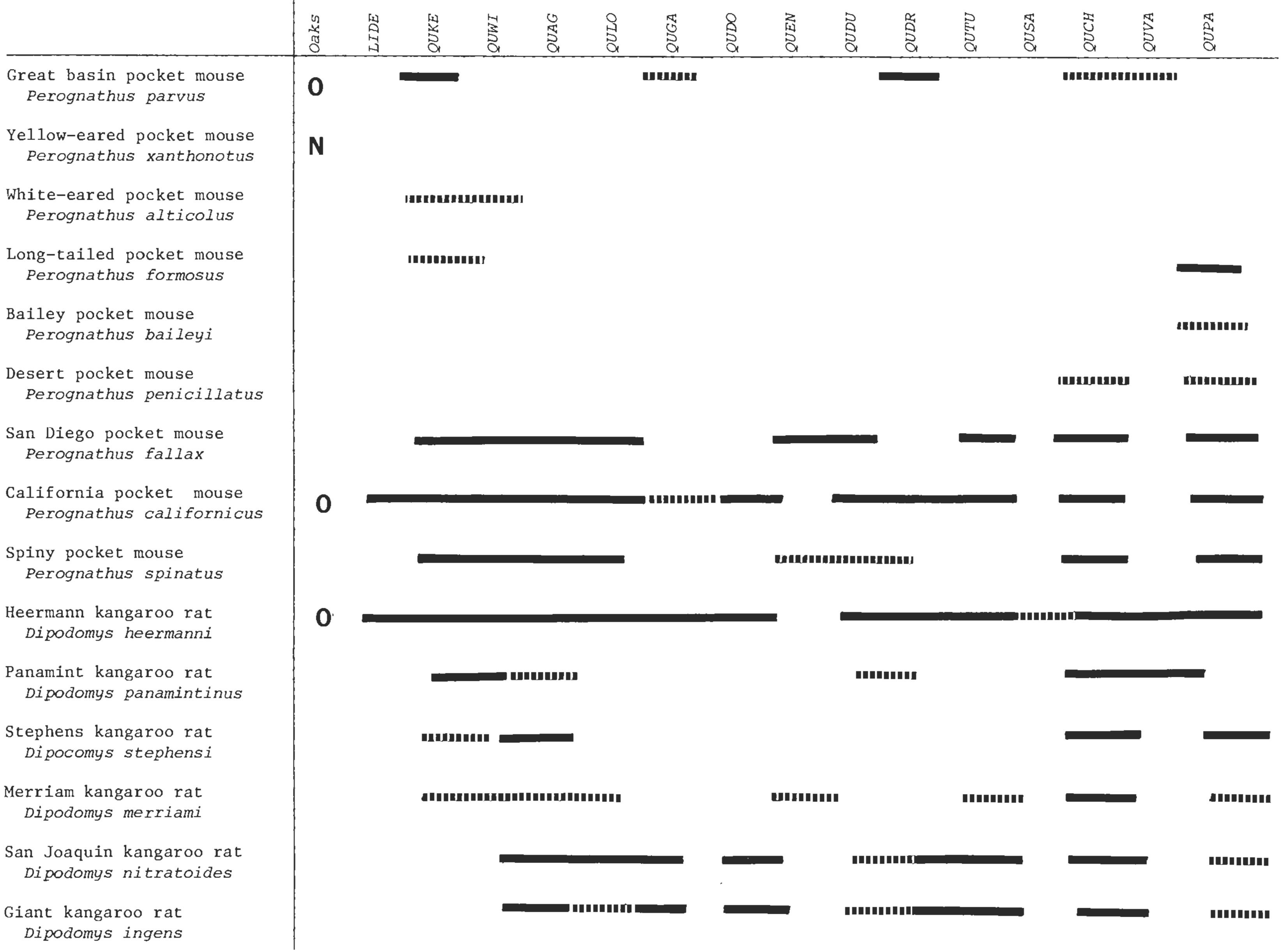
Appendix I--*page 5*



Appendix I--*page 6*



Appendix I--*page 7*



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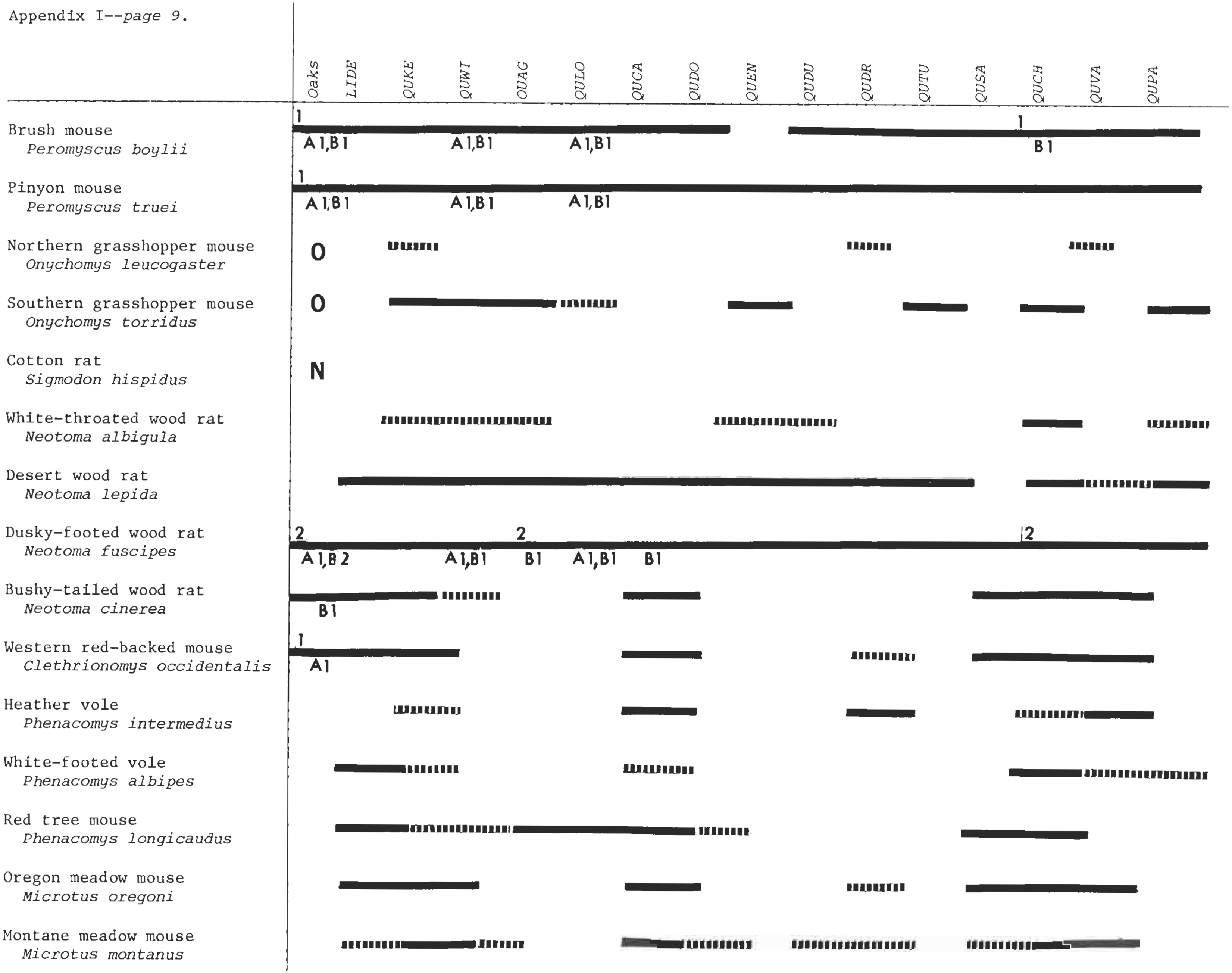

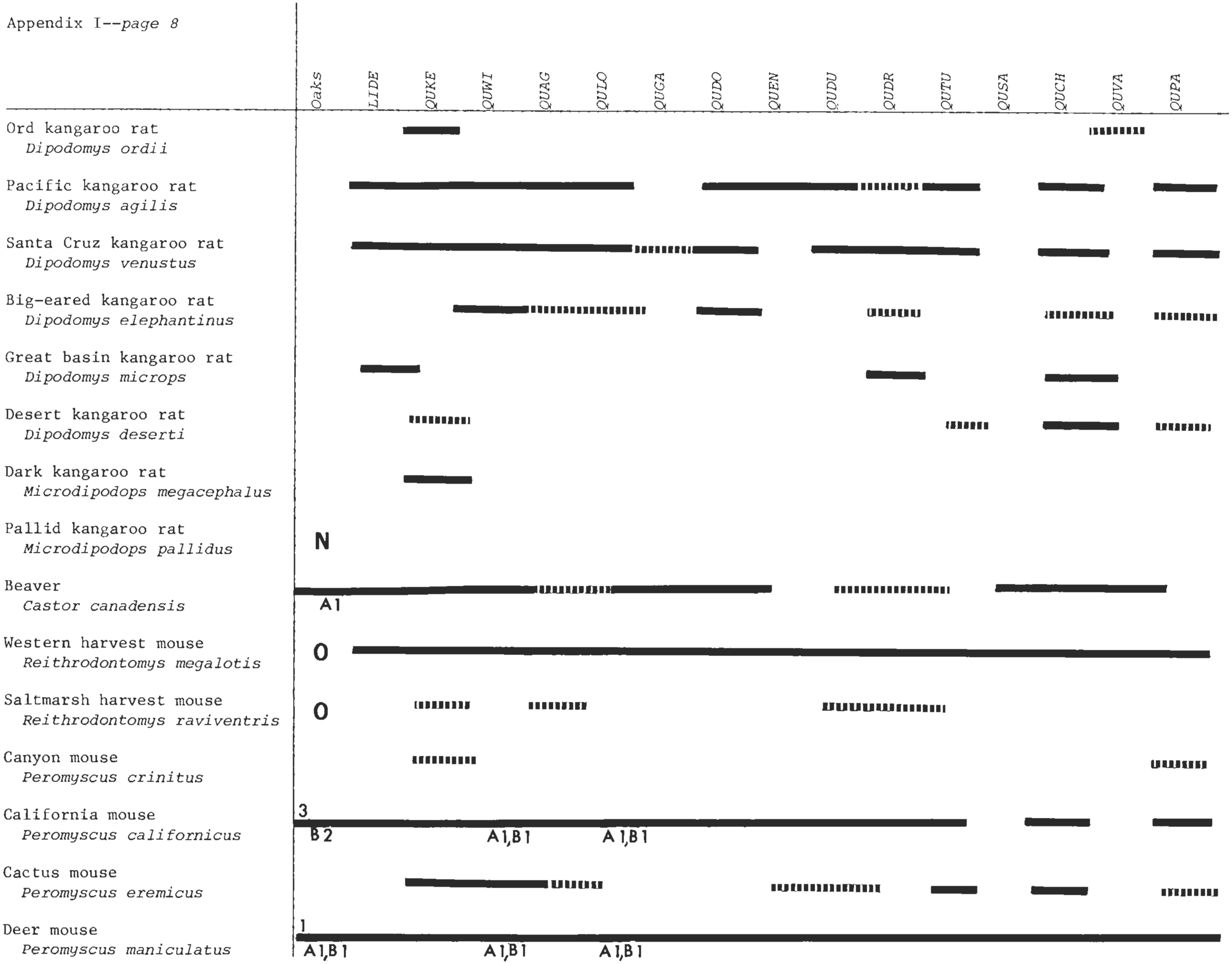
Oaks
LIDE
QUKE
QUWI
QUAG
QULO
QUGA
QUDO
QUEN
QUDU
QUDR
QUTU
QUSA
QUCH
QUVA
QUPA
Ord kangaroo rat
Dipodomys ordii
Pacific kangaroo rat
Dipodomys agilis
Santa Cruz kangaroo rat
Dipodomys venustus
Big-eared kangaroo rat
Dipodomys elephantinus
Great basin kangaroo rat
Dipodomys microps
Desert kangaroo rat
Dipodomys deserti
Dark kangaroo rat
Microdipodops megacephalus
Pallid kangaroo rat
Microdipodops pallidus
N
Beaver
Castor canadensis
A1
Western harvest mouse
Reithrodontomys megalotis
O
Saltmarsh harvest mouse
Reithrodontomys raviventris
O
Canyon mouse
Peromyscus crinitus
California mouse
Peromyscus californicus
3
B2
A1,B1
A1,B1
Cactus mouse
Peromyscus eremicus
Deer mouse
Peromyscus maniculatus
1
A1,B1
A1,B1
A1,B1

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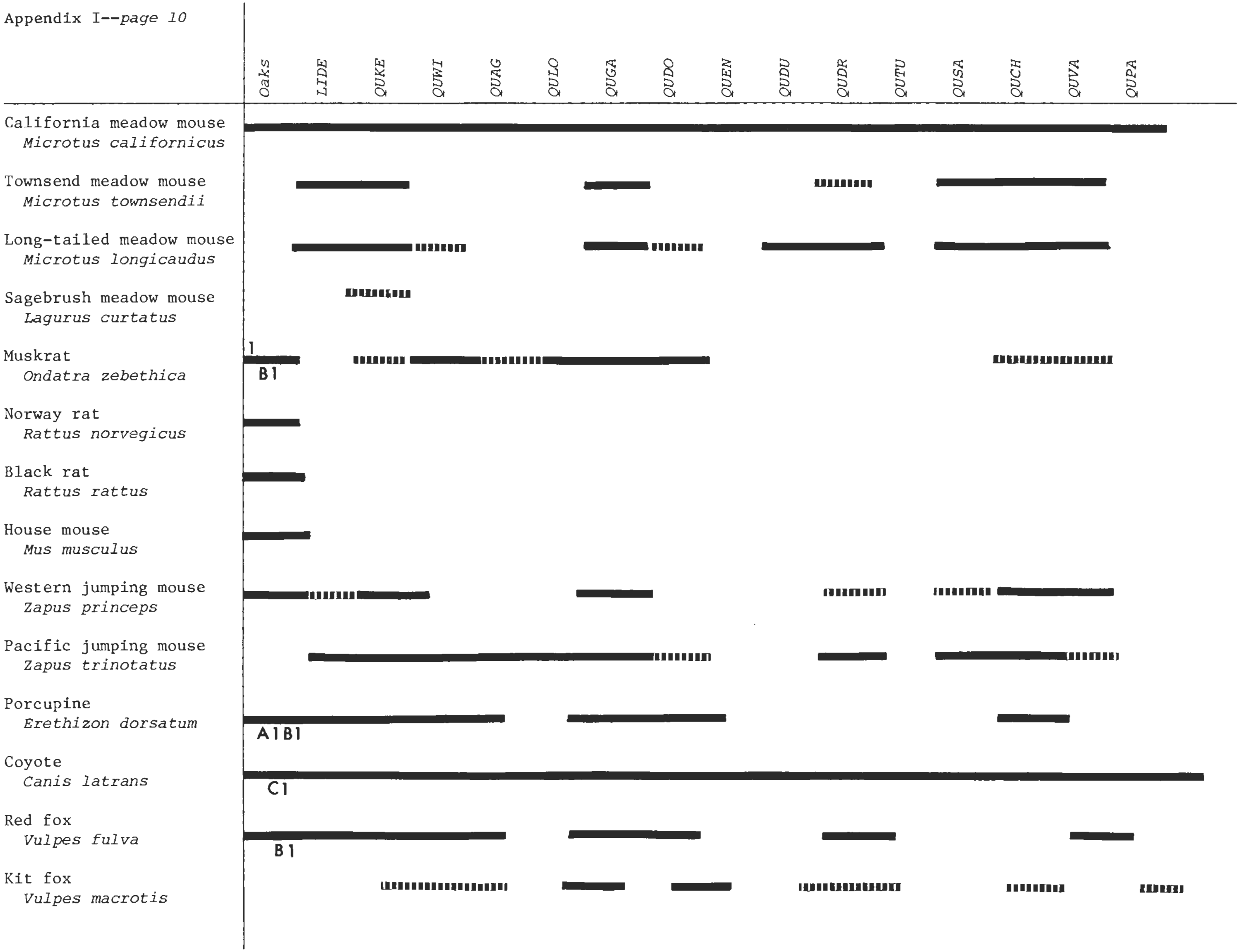
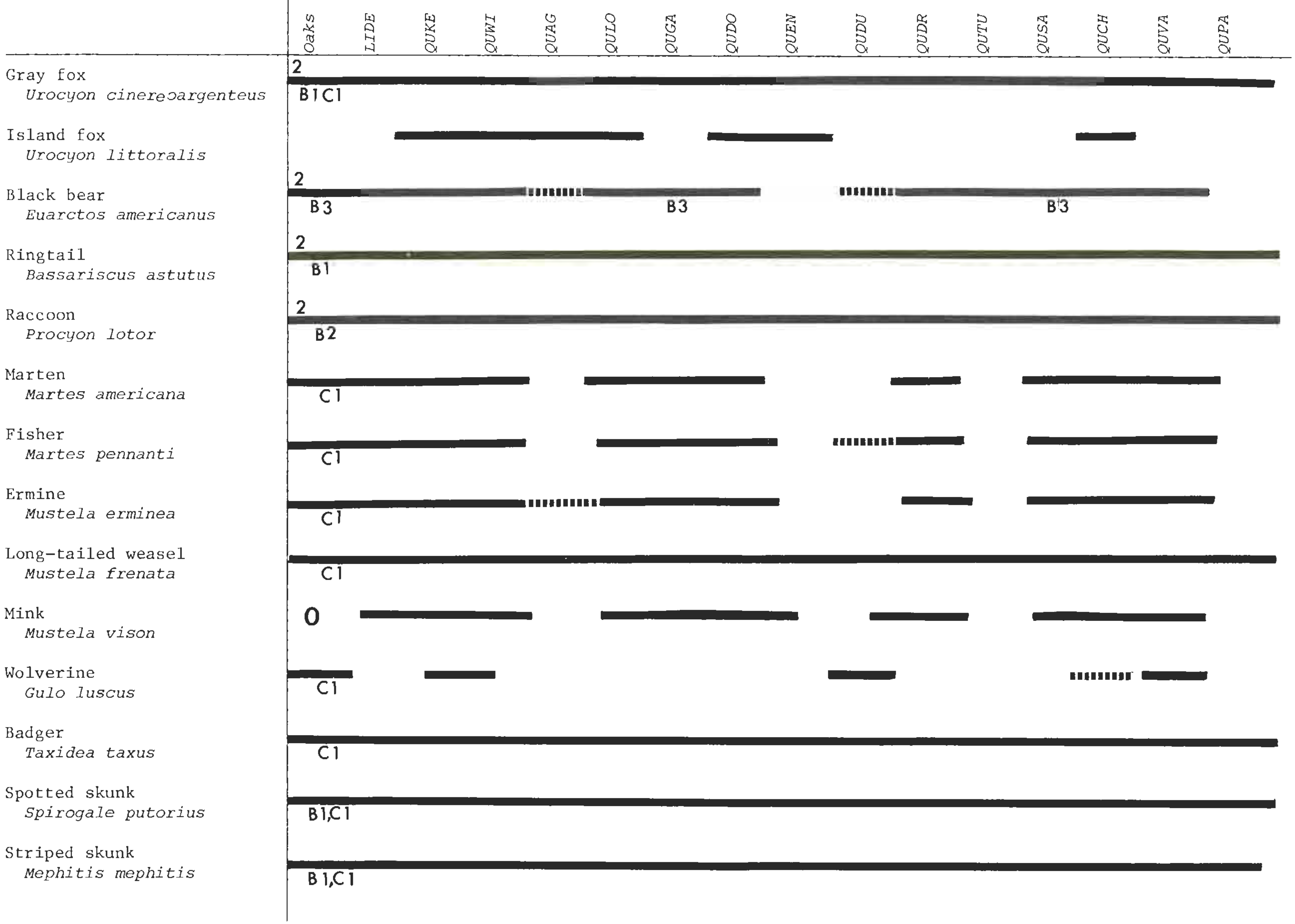
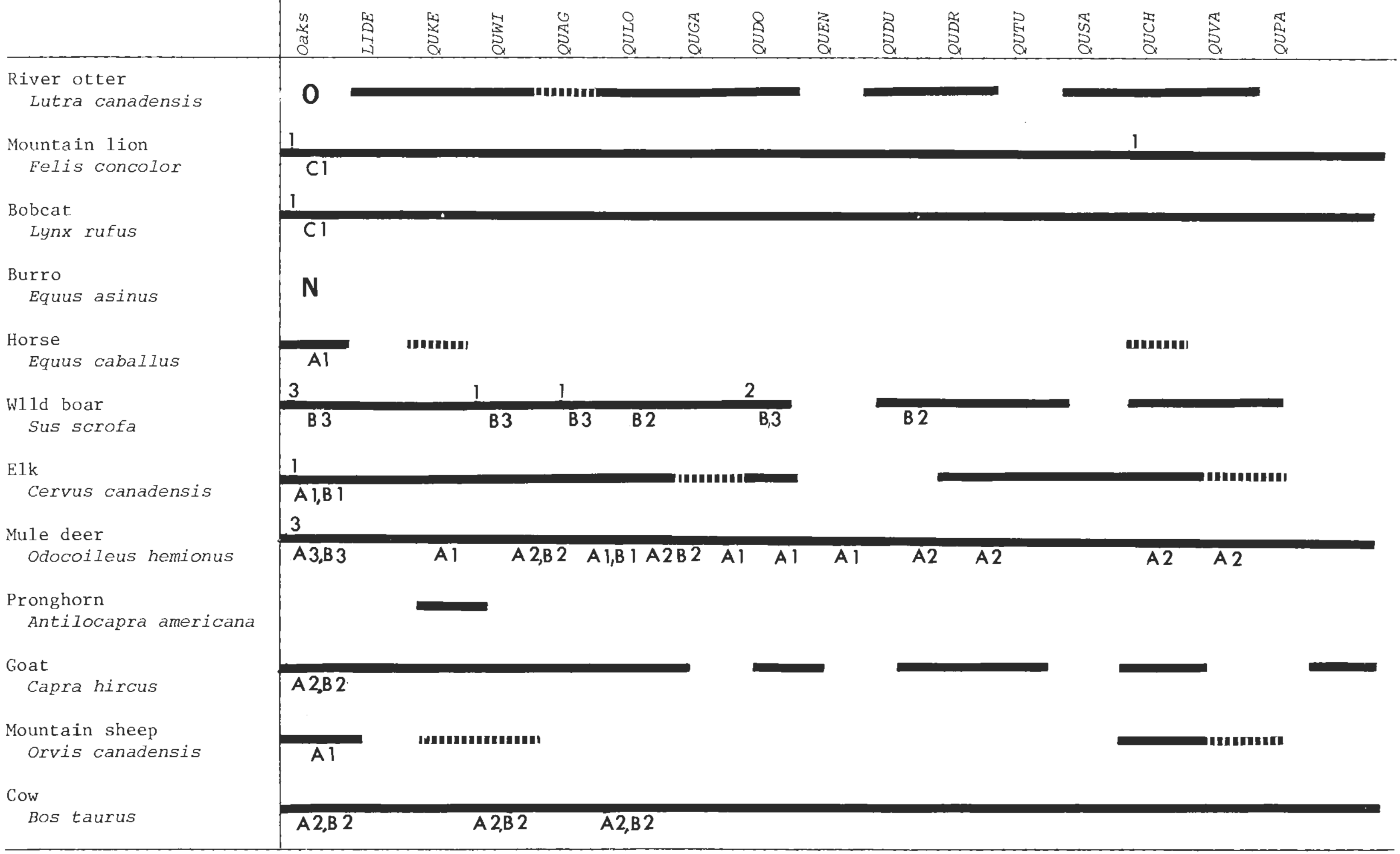


Appendix I--*page 11*





N - No range overlap with any oaks
O - No apparent use of oaks despite range overlap
▮▮▮▮- Minor range overlap with oak species
▬- Substantial range overlap with oak species, numerator indicates documented use as cover, denominator indicates documented use as food (1 = light use; 2 = moderate use; 3 = heavy use; A = foliage, roots, fungi; B = mast; C = indirect use)

Quercus kelloggii

Ecological Relationships Between Southern Mule Deer and California Black Oak[1]

R. Terry Bowyer[2] and Vernon C. Bleich[3]

Abstract: Some ecological relationships between southern mule deer (Odocoileus hemionus fuliginatus) and California black oak (Quercus kelloggii) are examined in the Cuyamaca Mountains, San Diego County, California. Data are presented suggesting that high deer densities adversely affect regeneration of California black oak. Mule deer consume nearly all acorns produced, and have a substantial negative impact on seedlings and sprouts which arise from fallen trees. A hypothesis is advanced to explain the probable evolution of existing deer-oak relationships. The ramifications of the continued decline of black oak stands are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

There is a vast body of literature dealing with the ecology of mule deer (Odocoileus hemionus) in California (for example, see Dixon 1934, Leopold et al. 1951, Linsdale and Tomich 1953, Longhurst et al. 1952, and Taber and Dasmann 1958). Most researchers have noted the importance of oaks (Quercus spp.) in the diet of these ungulates; however, there is little quantified information concerning the impact of deer on oaks. Moreover, the most complete studies have dealt with deer inhabiting the Sierra Nevada and North Coast Ranges, while comparative data for deer occupying ranges in southern California are unavailable. The purpose of this paper is to examine and quantify specific ecological relationships between southern mule deer (O.h. fuliginatus) and California black oak (Q. kelloggii) in montane southern California.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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3/ California Department of Fish and Game, P.O. Box 1741, Hemet, CA 92343.

STUDY AREA

This study was carried out on East Mesa, Cuyamaca Rancho State Park, San Diego County, California. East Mesa is located in the Cuyamaca Mountains at an elevation of 1,525 m, and receives approximately 1,000 mm of precipitation annually, including 950 mm of snow fall. Summer temperatures rarely exceed 35°C and winter lows seldom fall below - 10°C.

East Mesa encompasses 800 ha and consists of extensive upland meadows interspersed with thin fingers of oak and pine habitats. The entire area is surrounded by dense, old-growth chaparral. Upland meadows are situated in hydric areas and oak and pine stands occur on rocky, mesic sites. Old-growth chaparral predominates in xeric areas.

The meadows are characterized by annual grasses and forbs, including cheatgrass (Bromus tectorum), ripgut (B. diandrus), six-weeks fescue (Festuca octoflora), red-stemmed filarree (Erodium cicutarium), tumble mustard (Sisymbrium altissimum), western ragweed (Ambrosia psilostachya), and slender-wooly buckwheat (Eriogonum gracile). Deer grass (Muhlenbergia rigens), sedge (Carex sp.), and rush (Juncus sp.) occur in wet portions of meadow habitat. Large concentrations of tumble mustard, a valuable deer forage species, also are found in meadows with high soil moisture. Wild oats (Avena barbata) are common on drier sites adjacent to oak and pine stands. California buckwheat (Eriogonum fasciculatum) occurs on the periphery of meadows. Isolated patches of rose (Rosa californica) and chokecherry (Prunus virginiana) also are present in meadow habitat. Small islands of native perennial grasses, Agropyron trachycaulum, Bromus marginatus, Calamagrostis densa, Elymus glaucus, and Sitanion hystrix, occur amid broad expanses of annual exotics, but only rarely.

Oak habitat is comprised predominantly of California black oak, but coast live oak (Quercus agrifolia) and a scrub form of interior live oak (Q. wislizenii frutescens) also are present. Squaw bush (Rhus trilobata) and snowberry (Symphoricarpus mollis) dominate understory shrubs. Soft chess (Bromus mollis) and ripgut occur beneath the oaks and in forest openings. Mexican manzanita (Arctostaphylos pungens) and occasionally Jeffrey pine (Pinus jeffreyi) also occur in this habitat type. Coffeeberry (Rhamnus californica) often inhabits ecotonal zones between oak and meadow.

Pine habitat is composed largely of Jeffrey pine. Within pine stands, California black oak and coast live oak occur at low densities, the latter being more common. Mexican manzanita also is present. Yarrow (Achillea millefolium), phlox (Leptodactylon pungens), and California brome (Bromus marginatus) occur beneath the pines.

Chaparral habitat is characterized by chamise (Adenostoma fasciculatum), mountain mahogany (Cercocarpus betuloides), mountain lilac (Ceanothus greggii, C. leucodermis and C. palmeri), redberry (Rhamnus crocea), holly-leaved cherry (Prunus ilicifolia), pink-bracted manzanita (Arctostaphylos pringlei), and white sage (Salvia apiana).

METHODS

Oak densities were estimated using a combination of toe point (Wood et al. 1960) and nearest neighbor (Cottam and Curtis 1956) sampling techniques. Results are based on 1,944 toe points. Diameter at breast height (DBH) and browse line height (BLH) measurements were obtained for 210 California black oaks from seven areas on East Mesa. DBH measurements were made at a height of 150 cm. If an oak branched below that height, only the largest branch was measured. BLH was obtained by recording the lowest new growth available to deer. DBH measurements also were taken from 60 dead California black oaks.

Deer utilization of 93 black oaks was determined by counting the number of "bites" available to deer, and noting the actual number of "bites" removed (Mackie 1970). Furthermore, 200 samples of black oak new growth were clipped, and leader lengths as well as weights of new growth removed by deer were determined.

The abundance and timing of drop for the black oak acorn crop was estimated using five protected 0.22 m^2 plots and 20 unprotected plots of the same size. Data on acorn removal by deer were obtained by sampling within a 49.21 m^2 exclosure that allowed the entry of all wildlife except deer. Estimates of the summer densities of southern mule deer are based on direct observation of 1,401 deer. Plant nomenclature is according to Munz (1974).

RESULTS

Density estimates based on nearest neighbor calculations suggest there are 3,500 California black oaks on East Mesa. In oak habitat, these trees occur at a mean density of 48 oaks/ha, while in pine habitat the mean density is 12 oaks/ha. Approximately 200 southern mule deer inhabit East Mesa.

The most apparent impact of mule deer on black oaks is the conspicuous browse lines on many of these trees (fig. 1). Of the 93 black oaks examined at the end of summer, 96 percent exhibited signs of deer browsing. New growth on the remaining 4 percent of these oaks was too high to be available to deer. Black oaks provided a mean of 289 leaders of new growth available to deer on each tree. Forty-six percent of all available leaders showed evidence of deer utilization. The mean length and dry weight of unutilized black oak leaders were 59 mm and 0.31 g respectively. The mean length and dry weight of utilized leaders were 39 mm and 0.18 g. Thus, deer use of new growth totaled 34 percent by length and 43 percent by dry weight. In

Figure 1--California black oak with a conspicuous browse line from deer overutilization.

aggregate, deer removed 20 percent (by dry wt) of all available new growth. We have calculated that 17 g (dry wt) of new growth per oak, or 58.83 kg (dry wt) of black oak in toto were eaten by deer on East Mesa during summer (Jul-Sep). These data suggest that an average deer consumes about 3.2 g (dry wt) of black oak foliage and twigs during this period.

It is evident that black oak stems and leaves are not preferred forage. Almost all browsing by these mule deer occurs during summer when forbs (primarily tumble mustard and red-stemmed filaree) dry out and become unpalatable[4]. Even during summer, southern mule deer take less than 30 percent browse in their diet[4]. Yet, deer densities are sufficiently high that even this low level of utilization causes considerable damage to black oaks. In addition to removing new growth from mature trees, deer adversely affect black oak seedlings. During the spring of 1977, these seedlings numbered 6/ha in oak habitat. However, in areas of heavy deer use, no seedlings survived past early July. Moreover, our data suggest that there has been almost no seedling survival in these oak stands in the last 25 years. Only when acorns germinate within dense patches of squaw bush or snowberry are they not substantially damaged or completely consumed by deer.

Where oak and pine habitats adjoin, pine seedlings, which deer do not eat, are encroaching upon traditional oak habitat. Unless the elimination of black oak seedlings by deer over-browsing is reduced substantially, the conversion of oak to pine habitat appears to be a strong possibility.

Finally, mule deer influence black oak recruitment by consuming large numbers of acorns. Longtime residents of the Cuyamaca Mountains recall that the 1978 acorn crop is the largest in memory. The majority of black oak acorns was dropped on October 2 and 3, 1978. The number of viable acorns produced during fall is estimated at 6,440/oak or 309,100/ha. Yet, wildlife consumed over 85 percent of this mast by October 20 (fig. 2). All acorns had been removed from the 20 unprotected plots by the end of November (fig. 2). Acorns remaining within the exclosure suggest deer consumed 94 percent of the acorns removed by wildlife. Thus, an average deer ingested approximately 315 acorns/day during fall, which would total 1.21 kg (dry wt)/deer/day. Indeed, acorns are preferred over all other forage, and all deer rumen samples examined during fall contained a large percentage of acorns[4].

[4] Unpublished data, R. Terry Bowyer, School of Natural resources, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

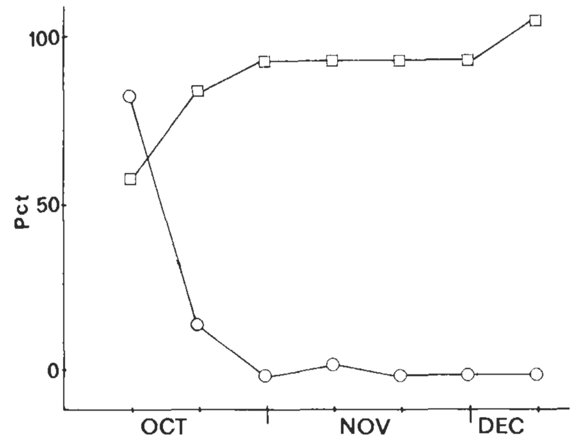

Figure 2--Percentage of total acorns dropped by 10-day periods from 1 October through 10 December, 1978 (open circles), and the cumulative percentage of available acorns removed by wildlife during this same period (open squares).

Root rot (Armillaria sp.) is evident on many older black oaks on East Mesa[5]. This condition may predispose these decadent oaks to severe damage during wind and ice storms. Indeed, Staley (1965) has implicated Armillaria as a secondary factor contributing to the decline of *Quercus ruber* and *Q. coccinia*. This problem is less pronounced in areas of lower deer density on East Mesa, as downed oaks typically stump sprout. However, where large numbers of deer occur, these sprouts are eaten back and eventually die.

There was no significant difference (χ^2= 2.35, $p>0.05$, 1 df) between the mean DBH of living black oaks ($\bar{x}$=63.7 cm) and the mean DBH for dead ones ($\bar{x}$=70.5 cm) throughout oak habitat. This suggests that many black oaks may be in imminent danger of being lost from the population.

The impact of deer on black oak was further assessed by comparing seven areas of varying deer densities with the corresponding DBH and BLH measurements of black oak. Significant positive correlations were found between deer density and both DBH and BLH (fig. 3). Moreover, the percentage of black oaks less than 150 cm in height in each area was negatively correlated with deer density, but not significantly (fig. 3). No black oaks less than 150 cm in height were found in areas where summer deer densities exceeded a total of 2.4 deer/ha (fig. 3), which includes all oak habitat on East Mesa.

[5] Personal communication from Joe Agozino, Resource Ecologist, California Department of Parks and Recreation, San Diego, California.

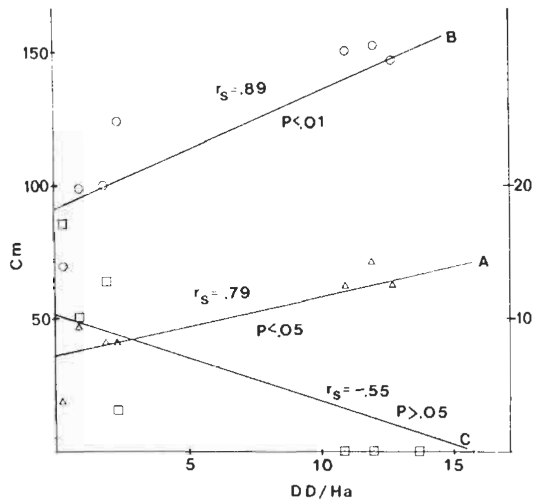

Figure 3--Regressions of DBH (line A, triangles), BLH (line B, circles) and percentage of trees less than 150 cm in height (line C, squares) for California black oak on total deer days of use per hectare (DD/Ha) during summer months. Regression equations for lines A, B, and C are $Y=2.12x + 35.66$, $Y=4.34x + 90.75$, and $Y= - 0.66x + 10.05$, respectively. r_s=Spearman rank correlation.

DISCUSSION

We hypothesize that the current relationships between southern mule deer and California black oak are linked to environmental changes which occurred approximately 25 years ago. Thus, we have attempted to reconstruct the range history of East Mesa through discussions with long-time residents and Park personnel, and by examining Park files.

Grazing pressure by cattle on East Mesa was relatively light during the first half of the 20th century. But, in the mid-1950's, the original objective of running Cuyamaca Rancho State Park as a cattle ranch was used to secure a lease permitting the grazing of 300 cattle on Park land. The majority of this livestock was pastured on East Mesa. The impact of cattle overgrazing on East Mesa's plant communities was catastrophic (fig. 4). A concerted effort by Park personnel finally resulted in the removal of cattle from East Mesa, but not before overgrazing had wrought dramatic changes. It is likely that this damage to the range contributed to the replacement of native perennial grasses by introduced annual forbs and grasses, as well as leading to tremendous increases in the densities of ground squirrels (Spermophilus beecheyi) and perhaps pocket gophers (Thomomys bottae).

Figure 4--Cattle overgrazing and range deterioration on East Mesa in December, 1955.

Simultaneously, other environmental permutations were further influencing East Mesa's plant communities. During the late 1940's and early 1950's, wildfires burned vast areas of chaparral adjacent to East Mesa. These fires created large tracts of newly available and productive deer habitat, and likely resulted in a population irruption of these animals. We know of no other environmental changes which might explain this increase in the deer population. However, burned chaparral declines rapidly in nutrient value, and provides suitable deer habitat for only about five years (Biswell 1961, Biswell et al. 1952, Dasmann 1956, and Taber and Dasmann 1958). As the chaparral once again became dense and the shrubs less palatable, it no longer would support this massive number of deer. Thus, we hypothesize an influx of large numbers of deer from the chaparral to East Mesa. Residents of this area recall seeing groups of several hundred deer on East Mesa during this period. Yet, this was considerably more deer than East Mesa was capable of supporting. DBH measurements suggest that the last black oak seedlings in oak habitat were established sometime prior to this period of heavy use by deer and cattle.

The removal of cattle from East Mesa allowed the recovery of plant species which were not preferred by deer. Most spectacular was the rejuvenation of stands of native deer grass which the cattle had nearly eliminated. Unfortunately, the browselines on many shrubs and trees, and the lack of black oak seedlings, went largely unnoticed by Park personnel. Eventually, the deer population came to a new equlibrium at perhaps half its previous size. Today, groups of even 40 deer are observed only infrequently on East Mesa.

The decrease in the deer population from levels attained in the 1950's is probably the major reason for deer damage going unnoticed for so many years. The general opinion was that a decreasing deer population must be well below carrying capacity, and therefore unlikely to cause further serious range problems. But, present deer densities are more than sufficient to prevent black oak regeneration for most areas of East Mesa. Furthermore, the current deer population is probably substantially larger than under pristine conditions. Oak groves on East Mesa are hundreds of years old, and it is difficult to explain the existence of these multiple-aged stands without postulating lower deer densities when they were established. Indeed, Amaral (1978), Peterkin and Tubbs (1965) and Stoeckler et al. (1957) demonstrated that grazing mammals are capable of almost completely preventing regeneration of other tree species.

The ramifications of this decline in the black oak population are enormous. Even if management practices designed to perpetuate black oaks were implemented immediately, the proliferation of multiple-aged stands could take decades. Moreover, the adverse impact of the loss of oak habitat on the myriad of wildlife species that rely on mast for food and/or oaks for nesting and cover (Graves 1977) may be immense.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are indebted to James Geary for granting permission to conduct research in the Park, and for arranging for the collecting permits. Joe Agozino freely shared his substantial knowledge of range ecology and was a source of constant support. Mike Cox, Mike Curto, Randy Rabb, Bobby Vaughan and Steve Wexler helped with most of the vegetation sampling. This study was supported by the California Department of Parks and Recreation, Mr. and Mrs. Darrell V. Bowyer, Mr. and Mrs. Walter T. Johnson, Sigma Xi, John C. May Memorial Fund, and Federal Aid in Wildlife Restoration Project W-26-D (California), "Wildlife Habitat Development."

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Quercus douglasii

Trends in Oak Utilization—Fuelwood, Mast Production, Animal Use[1]

John W. Menke[2/] and Michael E. Fry[3/]

Abstract: Trends in oak harvest levels in California were shown to be increasing rapidly. The foods produced by oaks, including acorns, leaves, twigs, and lichens, were monitored for two years in blue oak, California black oak, and interior live oak. Oaks were shown to produce quite variable mast crops, whereas crops of leaves, twigs, and lichens were rather steady in quality.

Analyses of deer rumen content showed that deer rely heavily on oak foods in spring, summer, and fall, especially using acorns, when available, from July through October.

Acorns were shown to be an important dietary supplement for sheep, allowing them to maintain their weight when supplemented at a 20% level in the diet or more.

INTRODUCTION

California's oaks (trees and shrubs of the genus Quercus) are a valuable resource that is largely unmanaged. They constitute a critical habitat component for many wildlife species, and, as a source of good quality fuelwood, they are currently of new commercial value in California.

Fuel From Oaks

Figure 1 compares trends in total reported timber harvest in California with trends in reported fuelwood harvest. These data are from annual California Department of Forestry notes on harvest of California timber operators, 1959 to the present. It is assumed that fuelwood consists primarily of hardwood species (oak, tan oak, madrone, and others). Total timber harvest increased steadily between 1947 and 1953, after which there began a long decline. In contrast, the harvest of fuelwood has generally increased since 1959, turning sharply upward in 1973. The average increase in fuelwood harvest reported between 1972 and 1975 was about 38% per year. Reported fuelwood production declined in 1976 and 1977. However, current production remains about 58% above the average annual production reported between 1959 and 1973.

As fuelwood production increased, the cost of fuelwood also rose. From 1944 to 1966 the average price per cord of oak fuelwood was $18, slightly higher if delivered to the buyer's yard (Reveal 1944; Grah 1953, 1955; Gilden 1957, 1959; Dost and Bemis 1966). Today, oak fuelwood harvested in the north coast counties and brought by truck to the San Francisco Bay area is often sold for as much as $100 per cord.

In light of the increased demand for fuelwood and other hardwood products, new emphasis must be placed on the many significant relations between oaks and other forest and range resources.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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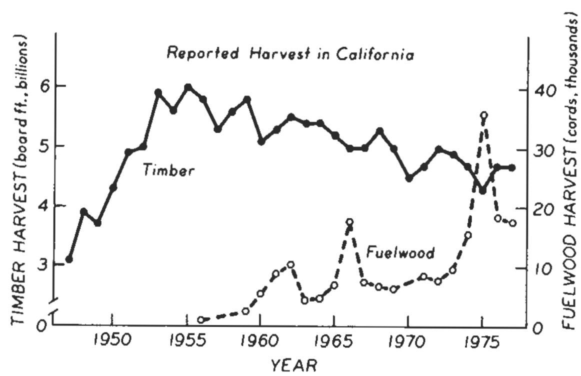

Figure 1--Total timber production as compared with fuelwood production in California.

Utilization of Oaks by Wildlife and Livestock

Several of California's most important game species consume oak browse and acorns to an appreciable extent (Barrett and others 1976, Dixon 1934, Fry and Vaughn 1977, Leach and Hiehle 1957, and Stienecker 1977). Here and elsewhere in the United States the availability of acorns has been correlated with success or failure of reproduction in certain wildlife species (Barrett and others 1976, Burns and others 1954, Korschgen 1955, Matschke 1964).

Van Dyne and Heady (1965) studied the botanical composition of sheep and cattle diets on mature annual range in Mendocino County, California. Leaves and acorns of blue oak (Q. douglasii), black oak (Q. kelloggii), valley oak (Q. lobata) and interior live oak (Q. wislizenii) were found in 60% or more of the diets and composed 4 to 12% of the dietary weight. Longhurst and others (1979) studied the interrelations of deer and domestic sheep in parts of Mendocino and Lake Counties, California, where sheep were found to consume oak leaves and/or acorns nine months out of the year.

Nutritive Quality of Acorns and Oak Browse

Gordon and Sampson (1939) discussed the composition of blue oak acorns relative to other California foothill range vegetation. Wolf (1945) reported the moisture, protein, carbohydrate, fiber, and ash content of acorns of several California oak species. Protein, fat, and tannin values were reported by Dasmann (1971) for four species of western oak. The results of those studies are summarized by Barrett and others (1976). Similar data on oak browse was reported by Makie (1903) and Gordon and Sampson (1939). In general, acorns are shown to be high in carbohydrates and crude fiber, and low in protein and ash. Oak browse is relatively high in both protein and carbohydrates, although the presence of tannin may reduce protein digestibility.

In California, acorns produced by oaks of the foothill woodlands ripen and fall to the ground from late August to November, thereby becoming available to wildlife and livestock at a time when other range forage has matured and lost much of its nutritive quality. The importance of acorns as forage for wildlife and livestock lies in its ability to provide large quantities of energy when other range forage may be low in caloric value.

From 1975 to 1977, studies were conducted at the University of California's Hopland Field Station, Mendocino County, to define further the ecology of oaks on foothill rangelands. This paper presents the following: 1) measurements of acorn production in three oak species; 2) monthly nitrogen and phosphorus levels in oak leaves, twigs, and acorns, plus oak-associated lichens; and 3) data on the use of oak forage by deer and domestic sheep.

STUDY AREA

The University of California's Hopland Field Station is in southeastern Mendocino County on the west slope of the Mayacmas Mountains. Elevations range from 150 to 915 m (500-3000 feet). The dominant vegetation types are oak savannah with an understory of introduced annual grasses, oak woodland, and chaparral. Average annual precipitation of 890 mm (35 inches) falls primarily as rain, between October and March.

METHODS

Acorn Production and Nutrient Analysis

The production of acorns and oak litter was monitored over two years in three oak species (blue oak, California black oak, and interior live oak). Production was assessed with a modification of the funnel-type acorn trap described by Easley and Chaiken (1951) and Gysel (1957). The modified trap consisted of a woven-fence-wire barrel 0.6 m (2 feet) in diameter and 0.9 m (3 feet) high. Steel fence posts were driven into the ground and wired to the trap to prevent disturbance by wind or livestock. The trap was then fitted with a heavy polyethylene liner. The top of the trap was not screened. It was felt that the depth of the trap and the presence of the liner would prevent pilferage by wildlife. Weights were placed in the bottom of the trap to keep the top open during windstorms. Small drainage holes prevented rain water from accumulating.

Trees were selected on the basis of: 1) the species of oak desired; 2) ease of access from main roads; and 3) conformity with typical growth patterns. Traps were placed one per tree beneath the canopy without regard to distance from the bole or aspect (Burns and others 1954, Christisen and Korschgen 1955). Thirty-three traps were divided evenly among the three oak species.

During the first acorn season, traps were visited and their contents collected every one to two weeks. By the end of December of the first year (1975) the interval between collections was extended to four weeks and remained so throughout the remainder of the study. When collected, the contents of each trap were separated and oven-dried at 77 C to a constant weight. The contents of each bag were sorted and weighed into four categories (1) acorns; 2) leaves; 3) twigs; and 4) lichens) and finely ground (30-mesh) in a Wiley mill. Nitrogen levels were determined by the Kjeldahl colorimetric method. Phosphorus levels were determined by atomic-absorption spectrophotometry.

Use of Oak by Deer and Domestic Sheep

The seasonal nature of oak forage use by black-tailed deer (Odocoileus hemionus columbianus) was determined by postmortem analysis of rumen contents of 61 adult deer collected over a period of two and one-half years between the summer of 1975 and fall of 1977. Percent composition (volume basis) of all food items was based upon visual estimates (Korschgen 1962). Recorded values represent the mean percent estimate for a given forage species during a given month. In the raw data, all estimates lower than five percent were recorded as trace (T). In computing the monthly mean values, trace values were treated as zero percent.

The use of oak forage by domestic sheep was studied in a pen feeding trial. The objective was to assess the effect of acorns as a late-season dietary supplement. The trial was designed as a factorial experiment. Thirty-two ewe lambs of the Targhee type were divided randomly among four treatment groups. Each treatment was replicated once. All animals were fed a base ration of maintenance quality (6.15% crude protein) consisting of barley straw (74.4%), alfalfa (21.1%), and molasses (4.5%) in a pelleted form. In addition to the base ration, three treatment groups received acorns at rates of 10, 20, and 30% by weight of total feed allowed per day. The fourth group, a control, received only the base ration. Each animal received three pounds of feed per day. All feed not consumed during a 24-hour period was removed from the troughs and weighed before additional feed was issued. All animals were weighed every seven days, and blood samples taken. Blood was collected from the jugular vein and separated with a centrifuge, and the serum was decanted and frozen. Blood-chemistry parameters studied were blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and blood serum cholesterol (BSC). BUN was measured by the autoanalyzer method of Skeggs (1957) and Marsh and others (1957). BSC was measured by the colormetric method of Zlatkis and others (1953). The trial lasted 41 days.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Acorn Production

Figure 2 summarizes acorn production in the three species studied. In the first year of sampling, blue oak produced many more acorns than either black oak or interior live oak. Sound acorns of all species began falling in late August, but the majority of sound acorns fell in October and November. Seed fall in all cases was lowest in March. In the first year, total blue oak acorn production was 4.80 times that of black oak and 2.75 times that of interior live oak.

In the second year, acorn production declined in all species. Production was greatest by interior live oak, but this species still produced only 57% of the crop of the previous year. Blue oak showed the greatest decline in production, being only three percent of the previous year. Black oak remained the poorest producer in both years.

Immature acorns of black oak and live oak began falling in May. Seeds mature over two growing seasons for these two species, and the early loss of immature seeds in the second year was thought to be due largely to mechanical disturbance of the canopy by wind and rain. Immature and insect-damaged acorns of blue oak, which require a single season to mature, began

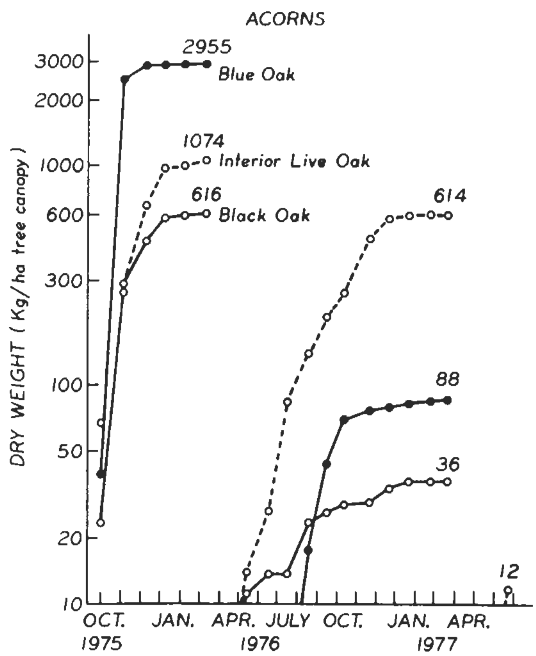

Figure 2--Cumulative (April-March) annual acorn production of blue oak, interior live oak, and black oak canopies (note log scale).

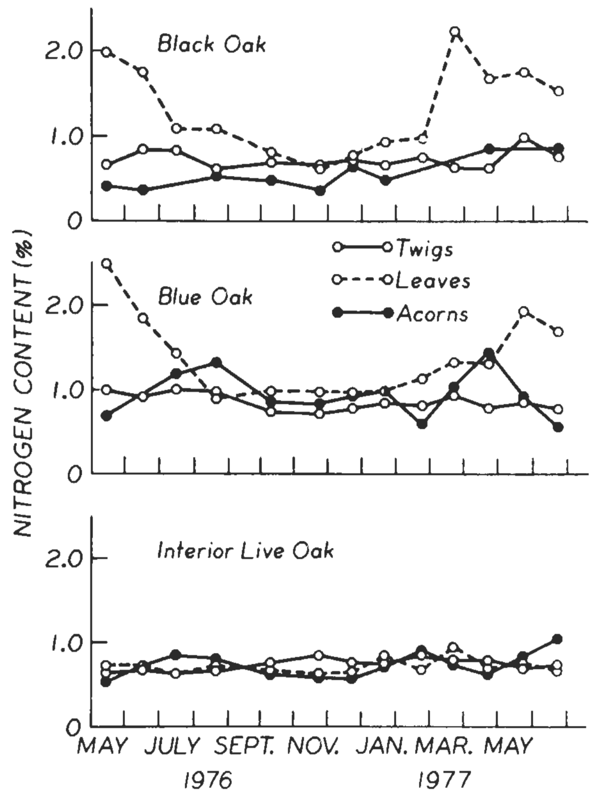

Figure 3--Seasonal nitrogen levels in the twigs, leaves, and acorns, of three oak species.

falling in July in the second year. In all cases, as in the first year, the majority of sound acorns fell in October and November.

Acorn productions were largest in 1975, when average blue oak acorn production reached 2955 kg (6515.7 lb) per hectare (2.47 acres) of canopy. The values were lowest in 1976, when average black oak acorn production measured only 36 kg (79.3 lb) per hectare of canopy.

Nutrient Analysis

Figure 3 shows the seasonal levels of nitrogen in oak twigs, leaves, and acorns. These data, derived from samples taken of material falling naturally from the canopies of trees, are therefore of significance more with respect to nutrient cycling than as a measure of forage quality. Nevertheless, with blue oak and black oak, both deciduous species, the nitrogen content of leaves in spring does suggest a significant source of crude protein for ruminant animals. Nitrogen values of two percent and above represent crude protein values of more than 12% (% nitrogen x 6.25 = % crude protein). Crude protein values of this magnitude approach the dietary requirement of adult deer and domestic sheep during gestation and lactation, and therefore are well above the level required for simple body maintenance (Church and Pond 1974, Dasmann 1971). The nitrogen content of the leaves of interior live oak, an evergreen species, varied little seasonally, lacking the high spring peaks found in the deciduous species. The highest values were recorded from spring samples, but these did not exceed the one percent level. The year-long crude protein content of live oak leaves remained below seven percent. The nitrogen content of twigs and acorns varied little and remained low throughout the year in all species.

Figure 4 shows the seasonal phosphorus content of oak leaves, twigs, and acorns. Phosphorus levels showed two annual peaks, one in spring and one (less pronounced) in late fall. This was true for all three species but was most prominent in the deciduous oaks. Blue oak and black oak leaves showed phosphorus levels exceeding 0.1 percent throughout most of the year. Phosphorus levels exceeding 0.2 percent

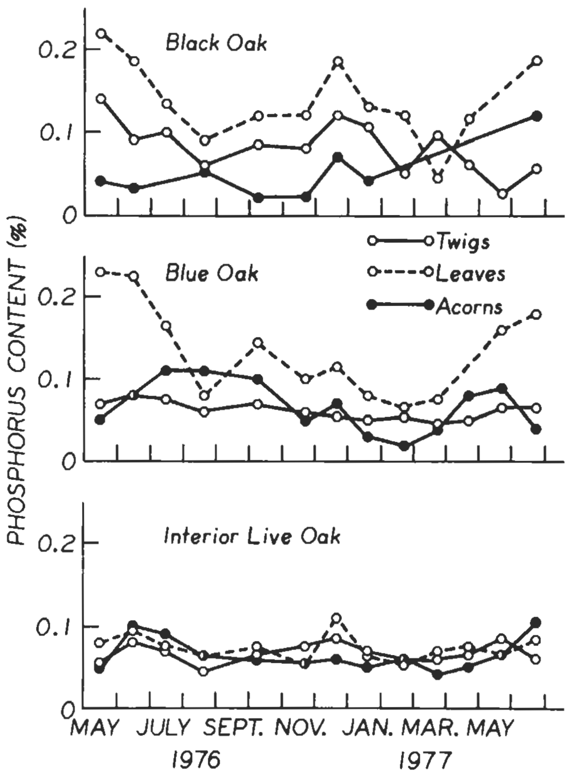

Figure 4--Seasonal phosphorus levels in the twigs, leaves, and acorns of three oak species.

were recorded in the spring. Phosphorus levels of 0.16 percent are considered adequate to meet the gestation requirements of domestic sheep and are probably adequate for deer as well. The phosphorus content of twigs and acorns was generally lower than that for leaves in all three species. Live oak phosphorus levels were generally lower than either blue oak or black oak in all sample categories throughout the year. The spring and late-fall phosphorus peaks in live oak reached only slightly more than 0.1 percent.

Figure 5 shows monthly nitrogen and phosphorus values derived from a pooled seasonal sample of oak-associated lichens. Genera represented in the sample include Ramalina, Evernia, Parmelia, and Usnea. The seasonal nitrogen content of lichens remained very stable. No perceptible spring nitrogen peaks were observed. Nitrogen levels remained at about 1.5 percent throughout the year. Lichens thus represent a potential crude protein source of about nine percent for ruminant animals.

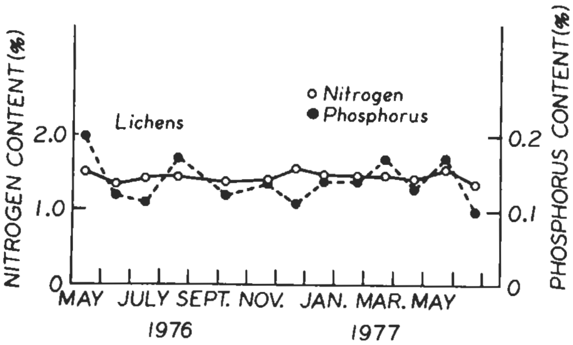

Figure 5--Seasonal nitrogen and phosphorus levels in lichens falling from oak tree canopies.

Phosphorus levels in oak-associated lichens were similar to those in the leaves of deciduous oaks. Spring values reached 0.2 percent. Values fluctuated over the remainder of the year but did not fall below 0.1 percent. There was no late fall peak in the phosphorus content of lichen as observed in the leaves, twigs, and acorns of oak.

Deer Use of Oak Forage

Rumen content analyses showed the use made of oak browse (leaves and twigs) in all months of the year (table 1). Average **monthly** consumption of oak browse by deer ranged from 2.5 percent (in March) to 50.2 percent (in August). Year-long consumption of oak browse averaged 21.5% per month. The frequency of occurrence of oak browse in deer diets expressed on a seasonal basis is shown in Table 2. Oak browse occurred most frequently in summer diets (100%) but was also very prominent in fall diets (91.6%). Although 75% of spring and winter diets contained oak browse, the actual quantities consumed were lower than in summer and fall diets. Winter diets contained up to 10% oak browse, and spring diets had up to 30%. In contrast, summer diets contained up to 85% oak browse and fall diets up to 60%.

Acorns in quantitites of 5 percent or more appeared first in samples collected in July. Quantities consumed and frequency of occurrence increased through October and then dropped sharply (table 1). Trace amounts were recorded in December, January, and March samples. Acorns were absent from spring diets. The greatest quantities of acorns were present in samples collected in September. Of the six samples analyzed for September three contained acorns in amounts

Table 1--Food habits of Columbia black-tailed deer, Hopland Field Station, Mendocino County, California.

FOOD ITEM	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG	SEPT	OCT	NOV	DEC
Acorns	T		T				2.5	14.6	38.3	33.3	6.9	T
Oak leaves and twigs	5.0	2.6	2.5	3.4	14.0	35.0	41.3	50.2	29.8	29.9	29.3	15.0
Blue oak	2.5		T				14.4	15.0	0.8	7.5		5.0
Black oak	2.5			T			6.9	17.0	0.8	10.0		
Interior live oak			0.8	1.7	2.0		3.1	3.9	T	5.8	10.3	5.0
Unid. + other oak		2.6	1.7	1.7	12.0	35.0*	13.8	13.7	28.2	10.0	18.9	5.0
Other woody plants	55.0	53.9	14.1	26.6	7.0	35.0	15.6	11.3	9.2	6.7	26.0	16.6
Grasses	27.5	41.0	61.7	35.8	22.0	15.0	28.8	14.6	20.0	25.8	27.5	46.7
Filaree		1.3	15.0	12.5	18.0	T	2.5	T		2.5	6.9	18.3
Legumes		T	2.5	8.3	22.0	15.0	T	T	1.7	T	T	T
Other forbs		T	0.8	6.6	15.0	T	1.9	T	0.8	T		T
Lichens	T	1.3	3.3	6.7	2.0		6.3	6.3	T	0.8	3.4	T
Fungi	12.5	T	T	0.8			0.6	0.5	T	T	T	3.3
Total % composition of major food items	100	100	99.9	100	100	100	99.5	97.5	99.8	99	100	99.9
Number of samples	2	4	6	6	5	2	8	10	6	6	3	3
Number of forage items (includes trace items)	14	15	20	23	27	11	37	35	24	28	19	15

* All scrub oak (*Q. dumosa*).

Table 2--Frequency of occurrence of oak browse and acorns in the seasonal diet of black-tailed deer, southeastern Mendocino County, California.

Food Item	Spring (April-June)	Summer (July-Sept.)	Fall (Oct.-Dec.)	Winter (Jan.-Mar.)
Oak browse	75%	100%	91.6%	75%
Acorns	0%	87.5%	75%	16.6%
No. of samples	13	24	12	12

of 85, 90, and 100% by volume. October rumen samples also contained large quantities of acorns.

Frequency of occurrence of acorns in October diets was 100%, with quantities ranging from 10 to 20% by volume.

Figure 6 shows the average seasonal composition of deer diets on the Hopland Field Station as determined through rumen content analysis. In winter, deer relied upon other forms of woody browse and grass and showed little use of oak. Small quantities (5% or less) of cured leaves from deciduous oaks (black oak, valley oak, and blue oak) were found in the diet at this time of year, and only trace amounts of acorns. Dixon (1934) also reports the use of cured black oak leaves by deer in California.

The spring diet was very diverse, with forbs constituting the largest single forage category, and nearly equal amounts of grass, oak browse, and other woody browse were consumed. The most prominent species of oak in spring diets were chaparral oak species, scrub oak (Q. dumosa), and shrub live oak (Q. wislizenii var. frutescens). Acorns were entirely lacking.

In the summer, deer showed a strong preference for oak browse and acorns. These two forage items together constituted about 60% of the diet. Woodland oak species constituted the majority of the oak forage component. Seven species of oak forage were found in summer diets.

Fall diets contained less oak browse and fewer acorns than summer diets; however, these two forage items combined provided 36% of the dietary volume.

Sheep Feeding Trial

Table 3 summarizes average weekly weight gain, blood urea nitrogen and serum cholesterol values observed in 32 ewe lambs fed various levels of acorns during a 41-day feeding trial. The control group, which received only the base ration with no acorn supplement, lost weight at the rate of nearly one pound per animal per week (-0.86 lb/wk). Treatment group one (10% acorn supplement) also lost weight, although less than the control group (-0.18 lb/wk). Treatment group two (20% acorn supplement) showed no weight change, while treatment group three (30% acorn supplement) gained weight at 0.32 lb/wk.

Blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and serum cholesterol are used as indicators of condition in ruminant animals. BUN reflects generally the amount of digestible protein in the animal's diet, whereas serum choles-

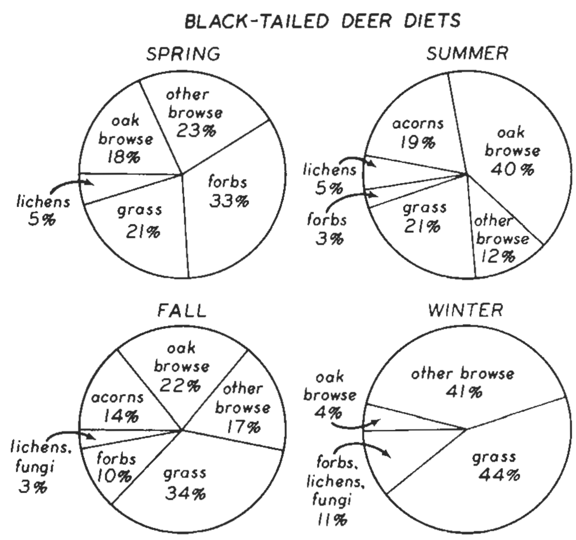

Figure 6--Average seasonal dietary composition of deer on the Hopland Field Station.

Table 3--Average weekly gain, **blood** urea nitrogen, and serum cholesterol values of sheep fed various levels of acorns during a 41-day feeding trial.

Response	Acorn supplement level (percent of diet)			
	0	10	20	30
Average weekly gain (lbs/wk)	-0.86	-0.18	0.00	0.32
Average blood urea nitrogen (mg %)	15.3	15.2	12.8	12.0
Average serum cholesterol (mg/dl)	82.3	83.4	90.6	92.4

terol is a measure of the energy component (i.e., fats and carbohydrates). BUN values were highest in the control animals and declined with increasing acorn supplement. Serum cholesterol values were lowest in the control animals and increased as acorn supplement increased. The inverse relation of BUN and serum cholesterol was believed to be a function of the low-protein, high-carbohydrate, and solid-fat composition of the acorn. In addition, the presence of tannin in acorns may reduce protein digestibility.

Since acorns may make up 15-20% or more of the diet of black-tailed deer in summer and fall, this food resource is clearly an important one. An intake level of 20% or more in the diet appears to be adequate for yearling sheep to maintain their body weight while seasonal forage conditions are poorest. The value of acorns in the diet is probably at least as great in deer as it is in sheep.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Fuelwood harvest, including oaks, has generally increased since 1959, turning sharply upward in 1973. The average increase in fuelwood harvest between 1972 and 1975 was about 38% per year, and with increasing energy costs greater harvests are probable.

Blue oak, California black oak, and interior live oak production of acorns and litter (leaves, twigs, lichens) were monitored for two years. During a good mast year,blue oak, interior live oak, and black oak respectively produced 2955, 1074, and 616 kg/ha of tree canopy; while during a poor year they respectively produced 88, 614, and 36 kg/ha of tree canopy. Nutrient-content analyses showed that oak leaves and twigs can supply the dietary requirements of ruminants for protein and phosphorus in spring and fall and that oak-associated lichens supply a rather steady year-long 9% crude protein source.

Rumen-content analyses on 61 black-tailed deer showed that acorn quantities in the diet of 5 percent or more appeared first in July, and quantities and frequency of occurrence increased through October and dropped sharply in November. Oak-associated foods accounted for more than 60% of the deer's diet in summer and more than 36% in fall on the Hopland Field Station.

Thirty-two yearling ewe lambs were fed 0, 10, 20, or 30% of their diet as acorns in a 41-day feeding trial simulating fall field conditions. Acorns were shown to be a valuable dietary supplement since animals in the zero-level group lost 0.86 lb/week while animals in the 30% acorn supplement group gained an average of 0.32 lb/week. The high-carbohydrate and solid-fat composition of the acorn, as well as high tannin level, was suggested as the reason for the inverse relation between blood urea nitrogen and serum cholesterol responses over the range of acorn supplements fed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank Mr. Doug Updike, University of California, Davis; Mr. William Grenfell, California Department of Fish and Game; and Ms. Audrey Goldsmith, University of California, Berkeley, for their help in deer food habits analyses; the University of California, Davis, Department of Animal Science for BUN analysis; and special thanks to Mr. Al Murphy, Chuck Vaughn, and the entire staff of the Hopland Field Station for assistance throughout the project.

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Quercus douglasii

Livestock Utilization of California's Oak Woodlands[1]

D. A. Duncan[2] and W. J. Clawson[3]

Abstract: California's oak woodlands are important to the range livestock industry. Among interactions between oaks and livestock are effects of grazing on oak regeneration and the canopy effect of oaks on the herbaceous understory. Oak leaves and acorns vary in value according to species and other factors, as browse and food for livestock and wildlife.

Key words: Oak woodlands, livestock utilization, browse, mast, range livestock

INTRODUCTION

The oak woodlands of California are an important source of range forage for the State's livestock industries, even though the oaks themselves play a minor role. It is estimated (Biswell 1956) that out of the 17.5 million acres which provided 80 percent of the forage for domestic livestock raised on California wildland, 7.5 million acres were woodland-grass. In addition, some 3 million acres of woodlands are usually dominated by oaks. The total of more than 10 million acres of oak woodlands, a figure which corresponds to other estimates in the literature (Wieslander and Jensen 1946), include the foothills, which have been referred to as "the most important range area within the State" (Bentley and Talbot 1951).

The San Joaquin Experimental Range (Madera County) includes areas typical of much of the California oak woodlands, which have been described as being "in the lower portion of the woodland zone between the treeless plains below and the higher brushy and timbered belts" (Hutchison and Kotok 1942). It is "open and everywhere accessible to livestock...with scattered trees and bushes, and occasionally dense clumps of shrubs. The lower ground cover, consisting chiefly of annual grasses and herbs...is made up of a large number of different species." This description applies to much of the California oak woodlands.

The oak woodlands have been historically linked with California's vast livestock industry. The early Spanish missions and rancheros were often located in the oak woodlands of the Coast Range. After the discovery of gold in the western Sierra foothills, the oak woodlands again supported an expanding livestock industry to supply meat to the miners, as homesteads and ranch developments spread throughout the State.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

A recent treatment of California's oak woodlands by Griffin (1977) provides an excellent summary of knowledge of the area and its regional differences. Earlier, based on the "plant communities" of Munz and Keck (1959), Griffin and Critchfield (1972) identify three oak woodland associations--foothill woodland, northern oak woodland, and southern oak woodland. The northern oak woodland of the north Coast Ranges is characterized by the presence of the Oregon white oak (*Quercus garryana*), with an associated livestock industry comprised of both sheep and cattle

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producers operating the year around. At the other end of the State, the southern oak woodland is characterized by the presence of the Engelmann oak (Q. engelmannii) and coast live oak (Q. agrifolia) and much of it is not grazed. The relatively small livestock industry is mainly beef cattle production including both year-round cow-calf and seasonal stocker operations.

The foothill woodlands are more extensive and cover a vast area of the great Central Valley and lower elevations of the Coast Range. Blue oak (Q. douglasii) and digger pine (Pinus sabiniana) characterize the community, with neither species ranging far beyond this particular type (Griffin and Critchfield 1972). There are many other species of oaks present, including the valley oak (Q. lobata) and interior live oak (Q. wislizenii) in the north, coast live oak in the south coast, and California black oak (Q. kelloggii) at higher elevations. The livestock industry in the south Coast Ranges is centered around beef cattle production involving both year-round, cow-calf, and seasonal stocker operations. The foothill woodlands of the western Sierra foothills have historically been used on a seasonal basis rather than for year-round operations. These have been heavily used during the winter and spring flush of growth; the cattle have been moved to the upper elevations, mostly on Federal grazing permits, or to irrigated and dryland pastures down in the Central Valley. Livestock production, again, is primarily beef cattle, with more stocker cattle present in the southern foothills than in the north. Another distinctive type of livestock operation occurs in the northern and northwestern foothills of the Sacramento Valley. Both sheep and cattle are grazed in this area during the winter and spring growing season. The livestock are transported to southern Oregon or to the Sierra-Cascade mountain ranges during the summer and early fall.

Although cattle are now the most important, other species of livestock also use California's oak woodlands. Many of the horses in California are in the oak woodlands area; they are used in livestock operations and, increasingly for pleasure. In swine production, acorns were utilized until economic factors curtailed this type of extensive management. The Madera County Historical Society (1968) notes, "At the time placer mining first penetrated the area, farming and ranching were already becoming established. Hogs evidently were more important than cattle until barbed wire was available in the mid-1870's, making large cattle herds more practical. Sheep, however, were more numerous than cattle through the 1880's." Now wildhog hunting ranks second in popularity among California's big game animals. Wildhog habitat is often associated with the oak woodlands (Barrett 1978). Of a relatively small number of range goats in California (Spurlock and others 1978), there are probably more in the areas of heavy brush than in the oak woodlands.

Man's search for desirable places to live is probably the greatest constraint on use of the oak woodlands for livestock production. The climate and scenic beauty of the oak woodlands make them highly attractive for human habitation. It is estimated that Madera County has lost at least 10 percent of its oak woodlands to subdivisions (McDougald 1979). As one travels the central coast or the Sierra foothills, this settlement pattern is seen repeating itself. Many other land uses (military reservations, water storage, natural preserves, etc.) limit opportunities for grazing on the oak woodlands.

Most quantitative information relating livestock production to the oak woodlands comes from three experimental areas. The oldest is the San Joaquin Experimental Range which was established in 1934 by the Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. The University of California, Division of Agricultural Sciences, operates the Hopland Field Station, established in 1951, and the Sierra Foothill Range Field Station, established in 1964. Summaries of the livestock research and a list of publications for the San Joaquin Experimental Range are found in Wagnon and others (1959) and Duncan (1975), and for Hopland in California Agriculture (Univ. Calif. Agric. Exp. Stn. 1976).

OAKS AND LIVESTOCK

Oaks and livestock affect each other's welfare in many ways. For example, oaks serve as a source of shade for domestic livestock during hot weather. The need for shade is well known (McDaniel and Roark 1956), but is difficult to quantify in terms of animal production and will not be discussed here.

Regeneration

The browsing of young trees by livestock has often been cited as the cause of poor or no oak regeneration. Exclusion of cattle in several instances for a rather long period did not bring about any instant oak regeneration, however. A considerable increase in digger pine and buck brush (Ceanothus cuneatus) was noted in the Natural Area at the San Joaquin Experimental Range, which has been protected from grazing and fire since 1934, (Woolfolk and Reppert 1963), but no increase in oaks was reported. Photographs indicated extremely little change in older blue oaks over periods of more than 20 years. In another paper in this Symposium, Griffin noted exclusion of cattle on the U. C. Hastings Natural History Reservation in Monterey County did not result in oak regeneration.

In discussing lack of the blue oak seedlings and young trees in Kern County, Twissleman (1967) reasoned that poor oak reproduction was probably a combination of drought, livestock browsing, and the inability of young seedlings to compete with introduced annual plants. He suggested prolonged drought might be the most significant of the above factors.

The effect of combined sheep and deer use on oak regeneration at the Hopland Station was discussed by Longhurst and others (1979). After only 5 years of protection 554 oak seedlings were counted per acre, compared to none in the grazed area. The authors conclude that "with virtually no replacement of oak stands under the combined weight of deer and sheep use, this important source of browse and mast will gradually be reduced as trees mature and die."

There is no doubt that consumption of acorns by domestic livestock and many species of wildlife greatly reduces the number of acorns that might possibly become trees. In addition to acorn use by domestic animals, which will be discussed in more detail, acorns are very important diet items for quail and ground squirrels (Glading and others 1940, Shields and Duncan 1966, Schitoskey and Woodmansee 1978).

Observations of recent events on the San Joaquin Range provide an example. A severe drought in 1977 resulted in scanty forage, but blue oaks produced a good crop of acorns. Ground squirrels were repeatedly seen securing acorns up in the oaks in an ungrazed area; the few acorns that reached the ground were consumed by deer. Although the following year was wet, few seed were left for oak regeneration.

Canopy Effect on Forage

In many foothill areas in central California, the difference in amount and kind of herbaceous vegetation under the canopy of oaks, especially blue oak, is readily apparent even to the casual observer, especially in the winter and early spring. The canopy effect of the various oaks of course varies regionally, and definitely is influenced by the density of the oak trees. A summary of work in northern California, noting that removal or reduction of blue oaks increased forage production, is presented by Kay and Leonard in a paper in this Symposium. A discussion of the effects of blue oak on forage production and nutritional quality in central California may be found in the Symposium papers of Holland, and Holland and Norton, and the picture is quite different from areas studied by Kay and Leonard. In earlier reports, Holland (1973, 1976), noted that in central California herbaceous vegetation production was 40 to 100 percent greater under blue oaks than in open grasslands. Many of the data in Holland's reports were collected on the San Joaquin Experimental Range in Madera County. In a severe drought year on the Experimental Range considerably more herbage was noted under the blue oak canopies than in open areas (Duncan and Reppert 1960). This was confirmed over a period of seven years, and herbage growth was observed to begin earlier, and plants to stay green longer, underneath blue oaks (Duncan 1967). Also, observations and utilization records showed that cattle preferred forage under blue oaks, both in green and dry seasons. Discussion with ranchers indicate that in some other areas of the State, cattle apparently do not show this preference.

OAKS AS BROWSE AND MAST

It is difficult to estimate the value of the oak species as browse. Sampson and Jespersen (1963) pointed to the difficulty of identifying the oak species of primary browse importance because grazing animals in different situations vary in their choice of species. Interior live oak, California scrub oak (Q. dumosa), blue oak and California black oak were seen as being the more palatable in most situations, however. Listed as secondary are the Oregon white oak, canyon live oak (Q. chrysolepis) and huckleberry oak (Q. vaccinifolia). The food value of coast live oak and valley white oak is probably mainly in the acorns. Browse ratings of several oak species are listed for domestic livestock and deer (table 1).

An estimated 1 to 2 percent of the forage utilized by domestic livestock year after year was obtained from all browse plants on the San Joaquin Experimental Range (Hutchison and Kotok

Table 1--Summary of browse ratings of oak species for domestic livestock and deer[1/]

Species (*Quercus*)	Common Name	Overall Browse Value[2/]				
		Cattle	Horses	Sheep	Goats	Deer
Q. agrifolia	Coast live oak	5	5	4-5	4-5	3-4
Q. chrysolepis	Canyon live oak	5	5	5	5	3-4
Q. douglasii	Blue oak	4	4-5	3-4	3-4	1-2
Q. dumosa	California scrub oak	4-5	5	4	2-4	1-2
Q. garryana	Oregon white oak	4-5	5	4-5	4-5	2-3
Q. kelloggii	California black oak	2-4	4-5	3-4	3-4	1-2
Q. lobata	Valley white oak	4	5	4-5	4-5	3-4
Q. vaccinifolia	Huckleberry oak	4-5	5	4-5	4-5	3-4
Q. wislizenii var. *frutescens*	Scrub interior live oak	4	5	3-5	3-4	1-2

1/ Adapted from Sampson and Jespersen 1963.

2/ Overall rating symbols are: 1 = excellent, 2 = good, 3 = fair, 4 = poor, 5 = useless.

1942). These species do provide some green material as a source of protein, phosphorus, and possibly vitamin A during the summer when the herbaceous forage is mainly dry. The species most commonly browsed are the California blue oak, interior live oak, and California buckeye (*Aesculus californica*), in that order.

Hopland Field Station sudies (Van Dyne and Heady 1965) with sheep and cattle during the months of July, August, and September indicated that more than 5 percent of the field-harvested forage in late summer was fallen leaves and acorns of *Quercus* species, which occurred in 60 percent or more of the animal diets and composed 4 to 12 percent of the diet by weight. Sheep diets in the late summer frequently contained newly-fallen acorns, and field observations indicated that both cattle and sheep browsed on the low-hanging branches and on fallen twigs and leaves. The Hopland pastures had been grazed by sheep for several years, so that there was a browse line at approximately 4 feet. Thus, it would appear that more browse was available to cattle than to sheep, but on the average cattle and sheep selected about the same amount.

Also reporting on work at the Hopland Station, Longhurst and others (1979) presented findings on the use of oak mast and leaves by the range herbivores, on mast production, and the effect of the grazing animals on oak regeneration. In general, they found deer consumed more acorns and relied more on browse than sheep. For a 5-year period, average acorn production from blue oak trees was about 13 lb/per tree/per year, and the amount of acorns by year varied from less than 2 lb to over 55 lb/per tree. Similar wide variations in acorn production have been observed by workers at the San Joaquin Experimental Range. More detailed treatments of mast production and/or animal use are presented by Menke and Fry, and by Graves in other Symposium papers. Barrett (1978) lists acorns as the most important food item of feral hogs inhabiting oak woodland in the Sierra foothills.

On the San Joaquin Experimental Range, cattle definitely do browse to some extent on the oaks, and seem to prefer blue oak to interior live oak. Observations by the senior author indicate the opposite preference is shown by deer. Hutchison and Kotok (1942) and Wagnon and others (1959) have surmised browsing of oaks and other woody vegetation results in adequate provision of vitamin A even in periods when there is no green herbaceous material available.

In the central part of the State's oak woodlands, both domestic livestock and many species of wildlife consume acorns when available. Considerable attention has been paid to acorn use by cattle because of an abnormal congenital condition, described by Hart and others (1932) which has existed in cattle on the foothill ranges for many years. The deformity is more common in the oak belt, and usually occurs in poor feed years; the name "acorn calves" for deformed animals originated from the general impression that the deformities resulted from the dams' consuming excessive amounts of acorns during the gestation period. In describing early acorn-feeding trials at the San Joaquin Experimental Range, Wagnon and others (1942) stated their preliminary results indicated acorns were not the primary factor in causing "acorn calves".

In a bulletin entitled "Acorn Calves", Hart and others (1947) reported on long-term studies and said the name was incorrect. They concluded that examination of fifteen years of data on acorn calves showed the condition is nonhereditary, and that it is due to maternal nutritional deficiency, probably occurring between the third and sixth month of gestation. They also stated the specific deficiency or deficiencies involved had not been ascertained. Since the acorn calves had occurred without the dams' having access to acorns, it was evident that their ingestion was not the direct causative agent. They concluded by stating, "Acorns may be a contributing factor, however, when they are the main ingredient of the diet, by preventing the formation or utilization of some dietary essential. A consistent, constructive policy of livestock management, with supplemental feeding that will enable the breeding cows to produce maximum percentage calf crops and calves of optimum weaning weight, can be counted on practically to eliminate acorn calves."

Reporting on early acorn-feeding trials at the San Joaquin Experimental Range, Wagnon and others (1942) noted marked differences in the palatability of acorns from different live oak trees in 1936. In August, consumption of acorns was 3 or 4 pounds per day, and by September, cows were eating 14 to 18 pounds per head daily. Consumption increased to as much as 37 pounds per day for one cow. In describing the reasons for a series of studies on acorns as cattle feed Wagnon (1946) noted that of the various species of trees on California rangelands oaks are easily the most abundant, and the occasional large crops of acorns are readily eaten by range cattle. These years of heavy mast have been of concern to many stockmen, and among the deleterious effects attributed to heavy feeding on acorns are deformed calves, abortions, death from impaction, and weight losses. Wagnon noted, however, that some cattlemen claim that the cattle gained weight. Usually the greatest weight losses occurred in cattle consuming acorns just prior to the onset of winter, when feed conditions were poor. He summarized the chemical content of acorns of several oaks (table 2), and his studies demonstrated that heavy ingestion of low-protein acorns when the

Table 2--Chemical analysis of acorns from five different species of oak[1/]

	Blue oak *Quercus douglasii*	Live oak *Quercus wislizenii*	Black oak *Quercus kelloggii*	Valley oak *Quercus lobata*	Scrub oak *Quercus dumosa*
			Percent		
Moisture	40.75	29.80	37.60	40.57	44.58
Crude Protein	3.03	3.08	3.43	2.82	2.29
Crude Fiber	7.08	11.24	14.07	7.84	7.96
Fat	4.77	14.47	11.05	4.25	3.42
Nitrogen-free Extract	43.39	40.40	32.71	43.44	40.65
Ash	0.98	1.01	1.14	1.08	1.10
Calcium	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.09
Phosphorus	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.05
Tannins	3.61	4.60	1.81	3.85	5.15

[1/] From Wagnon 1946.

forage was dry and also low in protein resulted in rapid weight loss. However, providing a protein supplement counteracted any ill effects and promoted gains when the forage was poorest. When green forage was available, acorns gave good results. He summed up his results as, "Thus with adequate supplemental feeding, acorns can become a very important feed resource instead of a decided liability."

Wagnon (1960) described a series of studies in which cattle were fed oak leaves in addition to acorns, to gain insight into the old question and differences of opinions among stockmen whether acorns were harmful or good cattle feed. Results were not conclusive, but providing a protein supplement to range cows grazing on dry forage and eating blue oak acorns resulted in weight gains as he had reported earlier (Wagnon 1946) and cows receiving no supplement lost weight.

Gordon and Sampson (1939) noted that the crude protein content of blue oak leaves on the San Joaquin Experimental Range varied from 30 percent for young leaves to 10 percent for mature leaves. However, Sampson and Jespersen (1963) assigned the blue oak a "poor" browse rating for cattle. No ill effects from feeding blue oak leaves were reported by Wagnon (1960), but he noted that the study animals would not eat the leaves from certain trees. Similarly, they ate acorns from some trees readily, but not those from others.

In a comprehensive report on the behavior of beef cows, Wagnon (1963) noted they spent about 18 percent of the feeding time beneath canopies, as compared to 60 percent on open slopes and 22 percent in swales. He determined that browsing was of practically no importance when green forage was abundant and of minor importance as a source of feed the rest of the year. Animals spent less than 4 percent of the total feeding time browsing.

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

In addressing the question, Can California's oak woodlands be managed for sustained yield?, in this paper, we must look at the sustained yield in terms of livestock utilization of the oak woodlands. There is seldom a simple answer to a complex biological/sociological/economic question, and blanket statements can always be picked apart. In general, however, livestock use of California oak woodlands can probably continue at today's levels without jeopardizing the oak stands. And, with present technology, livestock production could probably be increased. Overall production of livestock in the area probably is, and will be, decreased more by loss of grazing lands to other land uses than by overutilization by domestic livestock and wildlife.

The exclusion of grazing on many acres of the oak woodlands calls attention to one good effect of livestock utilization that is commonly overlooked. This is the reduction of the fuel build-up. Those of us who live in the tinder-dry foothill areas every summer shudder at the idea that the mass of herbage that grows each year should not be used by livestock. The problem of fuel build-up has become more noticeable in recent years as increasing acreage in the oak woodlands has been sold, subdivided, or otherwise removed from grazing. More and more people are moving into areas where more and more fuel is available to carry wildfires.

The effect of oak tree canopy has been treated briefly here. The decision to remove, or thin, or leave oaks undisturbed depends on the objectives of the landowner or manager, and the particular combination of climatic, edaphic, and vegetative features of each individual area. Economic considerations usually enter the picture. But, one thought should be kept in mind--removal of an old oak tree, though perhaps not permanent, has long-lasting effects on the people and all other organisms in the immediate vicinity.

The sustained yields of the oaks themselves are covered only indirectly in this paper. Perhaps the "whys" of little or no oak regeneration in some areas have been brought into focus by this Symposium. Hopefully the interchange of facts, ideas, and opinions will help us make better informed decisions leading to more rapid strides in gaining a realistic understanding of the problem, what is causing it, and in developing ways of obtaining oak regeneration where desired.

California's oak woodlands have been, are, and probably will continue to be an important area in which the range livestock industry can, under proper management, produce a considerable proportion of the food and fiber products needed to meet the demands of the population of the State.

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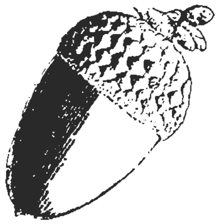

Quercus douglasii

Effect of Blue Oak on Rangeland Forage Production in Central California[1]

V. L. Holland [2]

Abstract: Evidence presented in this investigation indicates that the current practice of eliminating blue oaks to increase rangeland forage is not a beneficial management practice. Forage production under blue oaks is often double that of adjacent open grassland. Furthermore, after the trees die or are killed, forage yields decrease to levels comparable to the less productive open grassland. The increased forage yield under blue oaks indicate that in order to maintain current rangeland production, existing trees should be preserved. Finally, a management plan should be implemented to assure successful future reproduction of blue oaks.

INTRODUCTION

Blue oak (Quercus douglasii H. & A.) is a deciduous white oak (subgenus Lepidobalamus) endemic to California. It is the main tree species on several million hectares of land and covers an estimated 6.5 percent of the land area of California (Murphy and Crampton 1964). Restricted to the rather dry foothill woodland regions of California, its distribution pattern forms a ring around the Central Valley (Griffin and Critchfield 1972).

Some range managers consider blue oak undesirable in areas used for cattle or sheep grazing. One of the main reasons is that blue oak reportedly reduces the quality and quantity of forage growing beneath the trees (Murphy and Berry 1973, Murphy and Crampton 1964, Johnson et al. 1959). As a result, these investigators have advocated eliminating blue oak from foothill rangelands as a means of increasing livestock forage. The elimination of blue oak has occurred over thousands of hectares of land by bulldozing, burning, girdling, cutting (and used as cord wood), or by chemical treatment with 2, 4-D and 2, 4, 5-T applied in axe cuts or even by aircraft spraying (Leonard and Harvey 1956, Leonard 1956, Johnson et al. 1959, Murphy and Crampton 1965, Dal Porto and Carlson 1965, Murphy and Berry 1973).

In contrast to these previous studies, observations in many areas of California indicate clearly that forage production is greater under blue oaks than in open grassland. This paper reports the results of an investigation carried out in the foothills of the central Sierra Nevada and South Coast Ranges on the effects of blue oak on rangeland species composition and forage production. Also discussed is the change in forage production and composition after a tree dies. Nutritional quality of the forage is discussed in a companion paper (Holland and Morton 1979).

STUDY AREAS

Forage production under blue oak trees (both living and dead) and in adjacent open grassland was measured in detail at the U.S. Forest Service San Joaquin Experimental Range (Madera County) and the U.C. Hastings Natural

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1/Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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History Reservation (Monterey County). Forage production of two other sites was measured in San Luis Obispo and Kern Counties with essentially the same results (Holland 1973) but are not discussed in this report.

The San Joaquin Experimental Range (SJER) is located near the center of the state in the Sierra Nevada foothills, 45 kilometers north of Fresno at an elevation of about 360 meters. The specific study site within the SJER was located in the natural area, a 32-hectare parcel set aside in 1934 to remain in its natural state and to serve as a check against management treatments applied in other areas of the range.

The 772-hectare Hastings Reservation is located in the Carmel Valley of the central south coast ranges at an elevation of about 525 meters. It was established in 1937 and, except for a 40-hectare horse pasture, has been protected from grazing since that time. The reservation lies some 32 kilometers inland from the coast, at the upper end of the Carmel Valley, between the Santa Lucia Mountains and the Sierra de Salinas Range. The specific sampling sites are all within 1.6 kilometers north-northwest of the headquarters.

Both study sites have a Mediterranean warm summer climate. The mean annual precipitation at the SJER is about 483 millimeters with known extremes from about 229 to more than 813 millimeters. Hastings Reservation's average annual precipitation is about 508 millimeters with known extremes of about 304 to 1051 millimeters. Of the two years of this investigation, 1970-71 was slightly below average at both sites while the 1971-72 season was among the driest since records have been kept (since 1934 at the SJER and 1939 at U.C. Hastings Reservation). Annual precipitation in millimeters for the two years is listed below:

	1970-71	1971-72
SJER	401.3	242.0
Hastings	450.2	304.2

The temperature regimes at the two sites are also similar except that temperatures are slightly more moderate at Hastings Reservation due to its proximity to the ocean. Mean temperatures for the two study sites in degrees centigrade are as follows:

	Mean Minimum		
	Jan.	July	Annual
SJER	0.4	16.0	7.6
Hastings	1.5	10.3	5.2

	Mean Maximum		
	Jan.	July	Annual
SJER	11.8	36.8	23.8
Hastings	15.5	31.8	22.3

Soils at both sampling sites are noncalcic brown soils with a sandy loam texture. The forage samples collected at SJER were on Ahwahnee sandy loam. At the Hastings Reservation sampling was carried out both in Tierra sandy loam and Crafton sandy loam and the results combined. More detailed information on climate, microclimate, soils and specific locations of study sites are available (Holland 1969, 1973).

METHODS

Forage production measurements were conducted at the end of the growing season when plant growth had terminated and the annuals were starting to dry (early May, 1971, and mid-April, 1972). At both sites forage production was measured under three randomly selected, living trees, a dead tree, and in adjacent open grassland. There were no cattle or sheep grazing. Forage was sampled at two meter intervals along transects leading out from the trunks of the trees in east, west, north, and south directions into the open grassland. Herbaceous vegetation was clipped in a 0.1 square meter area at ground level. Clippings were sorted as to species, dried at 105°C for 24 hours, and weighed.

For the dead trees, quadrats within a 6-meter radius of the trunk were considered "under" the tree. This distance was chosen because it appeared from the size of the tree trunk and dead branches that the canopies of these trees had extended for at least this distance. The dead tree at Hastings Reservation had died in 1945. It is not known when the tree at SJER had died, but it is believed that it had been dead for a minimum of 30 years.

In two years, 96 quadrats were clipped under living blue oak trees, and 32 within 6 meters of the trunk of dead trees at both sites. In open grassland 64 plots were sampled at SJER and 76 at Hastings Reservation. All plots from their respective areas were combined and averaged (Tables 1 and 2). Species accounting for 1 percent or more of the total forage production are listed, whereas those contributing less than 1 percent are combined as "other species".

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At both SJER and at Hastings Reservation, forage production was significantly higher under both living and dead trees compared to open grassland. At the Hastings Reservation (Table 1), production was about 60 percent higher under living blue oaks and about 80 percent higher "under" the dead tree compared to open grassland. Under living trees, *Bromus diandrus*, *Avena fatua*, and *Bromus mollis* comprised 86.8 percent of the total production. "Under" the dead trees *Bromus diandrus*, *Avena fatua*, *Erodium botrys*, and *Hordeum leporinum* accounted for 78.8 percent of the total production. In open grassland, Erodium botrys, Bromus mollis, Avena fatua, and Bromus diandrus accounted for nearly 80 percent of the total production.

Results obtained at SJER were similar to those of Hastings Reservation (Table 2). Total forage production under living trees was more than 100 percent higher than that of the open grassland. However, total forage production "under" the dead tree, while still about 50 percent greater than that of open grassland, was reduced by 42 percent compared to that under living trees (Table 2). Bromus diandrus, Bromus mollis and Bromus arenarius accounted for over 90 percent of the total production under both living trees and the dead tree. Bromus diandrus was the dominant contributing 69-76 percent of the total production. In open grassland Bromus mollis, Erodium botrys, Bromus diandrus, and Festuca megalura comprised 84 percent of the total production.

In comparing 1970-71 to 1971-72 (which was a very dry season), it was found that forage production at Hastings Reservation was reduced from an average of 350.9 gms/m^2 in 1971 to 243.6 gms/m^2 in 1972 (a reduction of 30 percent) under blue oak trees. Forage production in open grassland was also reduced by about 30 percent (219 gms/m^2 in 1971 to 152.2 gms/m^2 in 1972). In both years production was over 60 percent higher under blue oak trees compared to open grassland.

At SJER forage production was also reduced in the drier 1971-72 season but only by about 16 percent under trees (407.3 gms/m^2 in 1971, 344.3 gms/m^2 in 1972) and 21 percent in open grassland (209.5 gms/m^2 in 1971, 166.9 gms/m^2 in 1972). In both years forage production was more than 100 percent higher under the trees. No significant changes in species composition were noted in comparing the two years at either of the study sites.

In contrast to previous studies (Murphy and Crampton 1964, Johnson et al. 1959, Murphy and Berry 1973), in which forage production was reported to be less under blue oaks than in open grassland, these data clearly indicate that forage yield is significantly higher under both living and dead blue oak trees when compared to that in open grassland. This higher production, although affected by a complex of environmental factors, seems most significantly a result of more favorable physical and chemical soil properties and a more favorable, moderated soil temperature range (Holland 1969, 1973).

Soil physical properties under blue oak are altered by deposition and decomposition of litter (as well as decay of roots) from both blue oak and herbaceous plants. This gives the soil a higher humus content which results in a more distinct aggregate structure, greater water holding capacity, greater friability, and lower bulk density (Holland 1969). Chemical soil properties are also altered by increased humus in the soil which is a major source of nutrient holding capacity of the soil. As a result, soil under blue oak is higher in nitrogen, phosphorus, magnesium, calcium and potassium as well as having a higher cation exchange capacity and electrical conductivity compared to soils in adjacent open grassland (Holland 1973). All of these soil features, along with the moderated soil temperatures which reduce frost damage in the winter and drying in the late spring, result in a microhabitat more favorable for plant growth and forage production.

Murphy and Crampton (1964) and Johnson et al. (1959) reported that forage production is less under living blue oaks; however, after the trees are killed with 2, 4-D or 2, 4, 5-T, forage yield increased to about twice that of the open grassland. In contrast, the data presented above indicate that forage production is significantly higher under both living and dead blue oak trees. Furthermore, once the tree dies, although there may be a short term increase in forage production, forage yield in the long term gradually decreases. This can be shown clearly by comparing forage production (in gms/m^2) at varying distances (0, 2, 4 and 6 meters) from the trunks of living and dead trees. At SJER the results are as follows:

Distance	Live Tree	Dead Tree	Percent Difference
0m	402.2	422.7	+5.1
2m	371.9	291.3	-27.7
4m	348.8	183.0	-90.6
6m	380.1	164.4	-131.2

Results at Hastings Reservation are similar:

Distance	Live Tree	Dead Tree	Percent Difference
0	176.4	460.5	+263.0
2	362.4	327.0	-10.8
4	350.6	226.9	-54.5
6	319.7	241.4	-32.4

These data indicate that the increased forage yield extends to the edge of the canopy (6 meters) of living trees and then decreases significantly and abruptly outside the canopy in open grassland. Open grassland forage yields averaged 185.7 gms/m^2 at Hastings Reservation and 179.7 gms/m^2 at SJER. By comparison, forage production "under" dead trees was higher than under living trees only next to the trunk and decreased significantly 2 to 6 meters from the trunk. This indicates that the circle of increased forage yield under blue oaks gradually decreases after the tree dies (in this case about 30 years). For example, at both the 4 and 6 meter distances forage production was 32 to 131 percent lower "under" dead trees than under living trees at the same distances. In fact, it was reduced to the point that it was not significantly different from that of the less productive open grassland (Tables 1 and 2).

Species	Live Trees		Open Grassland		Dead Tree	
	gms/m^2	pct.	gms/m^2	pct.	gms/m^2	pct.
Avena barbata	4.6	1.5	3.0	1.6	3.9	1.2
Avena fatua	40.0	13.5	21.8	11.7	45.6	13.6
Amsinckia intermedia	2.9	1.0	0.1	0.1	8.1	2.4
Bromus arenarius	5.3	1.8	2.5	1.3	6.4	1.9
Bromus diandrus	192.1	64.6	17.4	9.4	53.0	45.5
Bromus mollis	25.9	8.7	32.5	17.5	20.3	6.0
Erodium botrys	3.9	1.3	69.1	37.2	43.3	12.7
Festuca megalura	1.5	0.5	11.0	5.9	0.3	0.1
Galium aparine	1.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	2.0	0.6
Hordeum leporinum	8.5	2.9	0.1	0.1	22.9	6.8
Hypochoeris glabra	0.7	0.2	2.9	1.6	0.8	0.2
Lolium temulentum	3.5	1.2	0.1	0.1	0	0
Rumex acetosella	0.1	<0.1	9.7	5.2	19.2	5.7
Other species	7.9	2.4	15.3	8.1	11.2	3.3
	*				*	
TOTAL	297.2	100.0	185.7	100.0	336.0	100.0

Table 1--Average seasonal yield of forage growing under living and dead blue oak trees compared to that in open grassland on Tierra and Crafton sandy loam, Hastings Reservation (1971, 1972). *Significantly higher than open grassland to 0.05 level, using one-way analysis of variance. (Sample sizes and methods given in text.)

Species	Live Trees		Open Grassland		Dead Tree	
	gms/m^2	pct.	gms/m^2	pct.	gms/m^2	pct.
Amsinckia intermedia	0	0	0	0	12.2	4.6
Bromus arenarius	26.8	7.1	10.2	5.7	11.0	4.1
Bromus diandrus	285.0	75.9	34.4	19.1	183.5	69.2
Bromus mollis	31.2	8.3	57.1	31.8	45.5	17.1
Erodium botrys	13.0	3.5	41.4	23.0	3.6	1.4
Festuca megalura	8.6	2.3	18.2	10.1	2.1	0.8
Hordeum leporinum	3.7	1.0	0	0	2.6	1.0
Hypochoeris glabra	0.5	0.1	6.1	3.4	2.6	1.0
Other species	6.9	1.9	12.3	6.9	2.1	0.8
	*				*	
TOTAL	375.7	100.1	179.7	100.0	265.2	100.0

Table 2--Average seasonal yield of forage growing under living and dead blue oak trees compared to that in open grassland on Ahwahnee sandy loam, San Joaquin Experimental Range (1971, 1972). *Significantly higher than open grassland to 0.05 level, using one-way analysis of variance. (Sample sizes and methods given in text.)

Previous investigators have also suggested that species that occur under blue oak trees are less desirable than those of open grassland and by eliminating blue oak the quality of the forage would improve. My results indicate that even after a tree has been dead for thirty years or more, little change in species composition occurs (Tables 1 and 2). These same results were reported by Murphy and Crampton (1964) who wrote, "There is no clear trend as to whether removal of oak favors desirable forage grasses, soft chess and slender wild oats, nor completely removes the less desirable ripgut and mouse barley". Further, Duncan and Clawson (1979) have found that cattle actually prefer the forage under blue oak to that of the open grassland, indicating that perhaps those species found under trees are desirable. Also, in contrast to previous reports, my data indicate that when compared in terms of dry weight (gms/m^2), desirable forage grasses such as Avena barbata, Avena fatua and Bromus arenarius produced significantly more forage under blue oaks than in open grassland (Tables 1 and 2). It is also of significance that the less desirable Hordeum leporinum had a greater production "under" the dead tree than under living trees at Hastings Reservation (Table 1). A detailed report of the effect of blue oak on forage nutritional quality is presented by Holland and Morton (1979).

CONCLUSION

Data presented in this report indicate that the current practice of eliminating blue oak to increase rangeland forage production is not a beneficial management practice in the central California foothills. Forage production under blue oaks is significantly higher than that of adjacent open grassland. In addition, annual range plants start growing earlier and continue to grow longer at the end of the forage season under blue oaks. These characteristics, along with the increased nutrient content of the forage (Holland and Morton 1979), indicate that not only should the existing blue oaks be preserved, but a management plan should be implemented to assure successful future reproduction of blue oaks on rangelands to maintain the long term beneficial effects of blue oak on rangeland production. Without such a program, there will be a gradual decline in rangeland production, in rangeland soil fertility, and in an essential wildlife habitat, all of which will create serious management problems for future generations.

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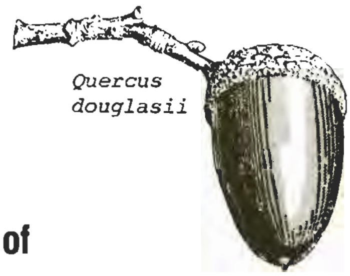

Effect of Blue Oak on Nutritional Quality of Rangeland Forage in Central California[1]

V. L. Holland and Jimmy Morton[2]

Abstract: Forage quality in open grassland and under blue oak trees (Quercus douglasii H. & A.) in central California foothills were compared. The results show that herbaceous plants growing under blue oak trees yield significantly higher levels of total nitrogen, crude protein, phosphorus, potassium and biomass. After the trees die, forage nutrient levels decline to levels found in adjacent, open grassland. The data indicate that removal of blue oaks to "improve rangeland" may lead to long-term decreases in both nutritional quality and yield of foothill rangeland forage.

INTRODUCTION

Removal of blue oak (Quercus douglasii H. & A.) and conversion to open grassland has been advocated as a method of increasing quality and quantity of forage for livestock in foothill rangelands of California (Johnson et al. 1959, Murphy and Crampton 1964, Murphy and Berry 1973). These investigators, working in northern California, have reported that forage production is lower under blue oaks than in open grassland and that cattle prefer forage of open grassland to that under blue oaks. Further, they report that after trees are killed with 2, 4-D, forage yields under treated trees increase to levels higher than those of open grassland. These same investigators report increased palatability and desirability of forage under 2, 4-D treated trees just three weeks after treatment. The reasons for this increased palatability and desirability of the forage are not clear. There was little change in species composition and no significant differences in nutritional quality of the forage under trees treated with 2, 4-D compared to forage under living trees (Johnson et al. 1959, and Crampton and Murphy 1964).

In contrast, Holland (1973, 1979) and Duncan and Clawson (1979), working in central California, found forage production to be 15 to over 100 percent higher under living blue oaks than in open grassland. Herbaceous plants under blue oaks started growing earlier, continued to grow longer at the end of the growing season, and remained green after the grasses and forbs in the adjacent, open grassland had completely dried. Further, Duncan and Clawson (1979) reported that cattle prefer the forage under blue oaks to that of open grassland, even in the summer when forage in both areas is dry. Holland (1973, 1979) found that death or removal of blue oak trees results in a gradual decline in forage production. This decline led to forage levels comparable to those of the less productive open grassland.

This study was initiated for three purposes: (1) to further examine the contradictory reports on the effect of blue oaks on quality and quantity of foothill rangeland forage, (2) to examine the nutritional quality of forage under blue oak compared to that of open grassland, and (3) to determine changes in nutritional quality of forage following tree death.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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METHODS

The study site selected was at U.C. Hastings Reservation (Monterey County), the same as that used by Holland (1973, 1979). Forage from under three of the four trees studied previously, including the dead tree (which died in 1945), were used in this study. The sites in the open grassland were also the same. This was done so that the species composition reported by Holland (1973, 1979) could be used and compared to the forage nutritional quality findings in this study. All forage samples were collected on Tierra sand loam. More detailed information regarding soils, climate, species composition, and site location is available (Holland 1973).

Samples were collected toward the end of the growing season (April, 1974) when plant growth had nearly terminated. Herbaceous vegetation was clipped in 0.1 square meter areas at ground level along a transect that extended out from the base of each tree to the open grassland. For the living trees, forage was sampled at 2-meter intervals. For the dead tree, 1-meter intervals were used. This resulted in a total of nine samples from under living trees, eight from the open grassland and six within five meters of the trunk of the dead tree, which was considered "under" the tree. The canopy of the dead tree appeared to have at least a 5-meter radius when it was living.

Each bulk plant sample was dried at 60°C for one week and then weighed to the nearest 0.01 gram. The samples were then ground to a fine powder and percentages of total ash, nitrogen, crude protein, calcium, phosphorus, and potassium were measured. Ashing was done in a Blue-M Lab-Heat Muffle Furnace. Nitrogen was determined using the boric acid modification of the Kjeldahl procedure (Anon. 1955). Crude protein was calculated using the same method as Johnson et al. (1959). Calcium and phosphorus concentrations were determined using a Norelco SP 90 atomic absorption spectrophotometer. Colorimetry was used to determine the phosphorus concentration. Methods used are based on those of Berry and Johnson (1966), Humphries (1956), and Johnson and Ulrich (1959) and are described in detail by Morton (1974). All data were analyzed statistically using one-way analysis of variance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results indicate that forage growing under living or dead blue oak trees differs in several ways from forage growing in open grassland (Table 1). Forage production was significantly higher under the tested trees than in open grassland. Only percent ash and calcium content (both percentage and total uptake) yielded comparable results under the trees and in open grassland. Percent total nitrogen and percent crude protein yielded similar results under the dead tree and open grassland, but much higher values under the living trees. Total uptake (gms/m^2) of total nitrogen, crude protein, and both percent and total uptake of potassium and phosphorus were all higher under living and dead trees than in the surrounding grassland.

These data indicate that the forage production under blue oak trees is not only higher than in open grassland but is also nutritionally superior. Similar results were obtained in a recent study at the U.C. Sierra Foothill Range Field Station (Kay and Leonard 1979). These investigators found forage under living blue oak trees was higher in percent nitrogen, phosphorus and sulfur than that of open grassland or "under" trees killed with 2, 4-D. However, because they report lower forage yields under living blue oak trees, total nutrient uptake in the forage (gms/m^2) was lower than that of open grassland or "under" dead trees. In contrast, our data show that nutrients were higher both in percentage and uptake because of the higher yield under living trees.

Data presented in this study indicate that nutrient levels in the forage decline following tree death. Note that percent nitrogen and crude protein were lower in forage from "under" the dead tree than in that under the living trees but were not significantly different from the levels of open grassland. Both nutrients were significantly higher in forage under living trees. Potassium and phosphorus also show declines "under" the dead tree (Table 1).

Further evidence of decline in forage nutrient content following tree death can be seen by comparing nutrient uptake at various distances from the trunks of living trees and the dead tree. These data (Table 2) indicate that average nutrient content of forage within two meters of dead and living tree trunks, although higher next to the trunk of the dead tree, are comparable. However, at distances greater than two meters from the trunk, nutrient levels in forage "under" the dead tree decrease abruptly to levels comparable to open grassland. In contrast, the higher nutrient content of forage under living trees remains consistently high to the edge of the canopy (6 meters) before declining abruptly into open grassland. Forage growing more than 2 meters from the trunk of living trees but still under the canopy is more than twice as high in nitrogen, crude protein, phosphorus and potassium as that growing at comparable distances "under" the dead tree (Table 2). In fact, forage samples collected 4 and 5 meters from the dead tree trunk are about the same in nutrient content as those of open grassland. This indicates that the circle of increased nutrient uptake in forage under blue oak trees gradually decreases after the tree dies (in this case the tree has been dead for about 30 years).

	LIVE TREES		DEAD TREE		OPEN GRASSLAND	
	gms/m^2	%	gms/m^2	%	gms/m^2	%
Yield	184.1[1]	-	199.8[1]	-	118.5	-
Ash	17.4[1]	9.7[2]	20.0[1]	10.5[2]	12.7	10.7
Nitrogen	3.05[1]	1.68[1]	2.91[1]	1.34[2]	1.30	1.07
Crude Protein	19.04[1]	10.53[1]	18.20[1]	8.38[2]	8.13	6.70
Calcium	0.98[2]	0.55[2]	1.32[2]	0.71[2]	1.11	0.89
Potassium	3.45[1]	1.79[1]	3.07[1]	1.40[1]	1.22	0.92
Phosphorus	0.43[1]	0.24[1]	0.39[1]	0.18[1]	0.19	0.14

[1]Significantly higher than open grassland (0.05 level).
[2]Not significantly different than open grassland.

Table 1. Mean total yield, nitrogen, crude protein, calcium, potassium and phosphorus of forage growing under living oak trees, a dead tree (within 5 meters of the trunk) and grassland at U.C. Hastings Reservation, Monterey County, California.

	NITROGEN		CRUDE PROTEIN		PHOSPHORUS		POTASSIUM	
Distance (Meters)	Live Trees	Dead Tree	Live Trees	Dead Tree	Live Trees	Dead Tree	Live Trees	Dead Tree
0	3.57	4.23	22.30	26.46	0.47	0.65	3.67	5.13
2	2.90	2.82	18.10	17.64	0.47	0.48	3.84	3.24
4	3.24	1.50	20.30	9.38	0.46	0.18	3.10	1.35
5	-	1.33	-	8.29	-	0.15	-	1.26
6	2.88	-	17.99	-	0.41	-	3.56	-
>6	1.30		8.13		0.19		1.22	

Table 2. Mean dry weight of total nitrogen, crude protein, phosphorus and potassium in gms/m^2 found in forage at varying distances from the trunk of living and dead trees. The six-meter distance was under the tree canopy. Beyond six meters was open grassland.

The higher yield and nutrient content of forage under blue oak is in response to a complex of microhabitat conditions created by the trees. However, the most important feature involved is probably the increased level of soil nutrients under trees (Holland 1973). Nutrient uptake by plants is largely a function of soil nutrients. As soil nutrient levels increase, so do the percentages of nutrients in the plant tissue, and consequently the total uptake by the plants. Bentley et al. (1958), in a study conducted at the San Joaquin Experimental Range, reported that herbaceous plants growing in plots fertilized with a mixture of superphosphate and sulfur were higher in crude protein, calcium, and phosphorus than those growing in unfertilized plots.

Blue oak trees accumulate nutrients from deep in the soil and redistribute them on the surface largely beneath the canopy, primarily through litter fall (although leaching of nutrients through rainwater drip and stemflow may be important). Litter from the trees (as well as the herbaceous plants) falls to the soil surface, is mixed into the mineral soil via animal activity, decomposes and releases nutrients into the soil. This results in a higher level of nutrients (including nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium), organic matter, and cation exchange capacity in soil under trees compared to open grassland (Holland 1973). Because soil nutrients are more readily available under trees, forage production and forage nutrient uptake are higher than those of open grassland. Other factors such as greater soil water holding capacity, moderated soil temperature and more favorable physical soil features under blue oaks also play a role (Holland 1969, 1979).

After the tree dies, the reservoir of nutrients created by blue oaks can apparently be maintained for several years by the decay of the dead tree and the nutrient cycles of the herbaceous plants which are higher in biomass and nutrients than those of open grassland. Nutrient content gradually decreases as the nutrients from the dead tree are released and utilized by the forage. The loss of continuous nutrient input from living trees results in a decline of the nutrient content in the soil and forage, and a loss in herbaceous production. Eventually this area will decline to levels comparable to the less productive open grassland.

In summary, forage under blue oaks has a higher productivity and is higher in nutrients than that of open grassland. Following tree death, nutrient content in the forage decreases and eventually reaches levels comparable to open grassland. This indicates that removal of blue oaks to improve rangeland forage is not a beneficial practice in the foothills of central California. Blue oaks improve quality and quantity of rangeland forage for livestock and wildlife. In addition, they provide needed shade (Duncan and Clawson 1979), moderate soil and air temperatures (Holland 1969), improve rangeland soils (Holland 1973), and provide essential wildlife habitat (Graves 1977, Shields and Duncan 1966, Schitoskey and Woodmansee 1978). Therefore, continued removal of blue oaks from foothill rangelands will have many detrimental effects. If the overall integrity of the foothill woodland ecosystem is to be maintained, programs to properly manage blue oaks must be implemented.

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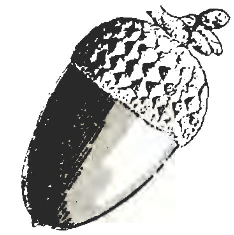

Quercus douglasii

Effect of Blue Oak Removal on Herbaceous Forage Production in the North Sierra Foothills[1]

Burgess L. Kay and O. A. Leonard[2]

ABSTRACT: Herbaceous forage production beneath blue oak trees increased when the trees were killed. Forage yields were greater in 11 years of the 13 years following treatment, averaging 66 percent if the roots were killed and 45 percent if only the tops were killed. Percent increases were greatest in the driest years. Yields when trees and roots were killed > tops only removed > naturally occurring grassland > under live trees. When trees were killed the botanical composition improved and total ground cover increased. Uptake/acre of nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur increased. Bulk density of soil increased. Possible reasons for the changes are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Studies in northern California have demonstrated that herbaceous forage production can be increased at least fourfold by removing the overstory of blue oak trees (Quercus douglasii H. & A.) (Johnson et al. 1959; Murphy and Crampton 1964). The improved forage yields have been shown to exceed those of adjacent grasslands (Murphy and Crampton 1964). The increases are explained as resulting from the improved availability of light, moisture, heat, and soil nutrients. Also suggested as increasing yields was the stimulatory effect of low concentrations of 2,4-D exuded from the tops of dying trees killed by the cut-surface method (Leonard et al. 1965). Recorded changes in species composition following tree removal were listed as improving forage quality (Murphy and Crampton 1964).

This progress report presents the first 14 years of measurements following tree removal.

[1] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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Figure 1--Experimental area before trees were treated. Photographed May 15, 1964, at the peak of the herbaceous growing season.

PROCEDURE

The site chosen is a gentle north slope at the UC Sierra Foothill Range Field Station, at an elevation of 1,750 ft. on the east side of the Sacramento Valley. Annual rainfall during the study averaged 27 inches and varied from 10 to 42 (table 1). Soil is mapped as an Auburn, Las Posas, Sobrante complex. All are red soils derived from greenstone with a clay-loam surface. Depth varies from shallow to moderate with some soils underlain by clay. All have stones independent of the green-stone parent material.

The 4-acre study area was fenced to exclude deer, sheep, and cows. All trees were mapped and measured for stem diameter and canopy size. Calibration measurements of forage were made in May of 1963, seven months before the tree-removal treatments were applied, to determine a logical sample size and experimental design. Forage yield was measured beneath 92 trees at the end of this growing season. Six hundred and eighty one-foot-square samples were clipped to ground level and oven-dried. Samples were taken from transects on both the north and south sides of each tree at 1.5 ft from the stem and every 3 ft to the edge of the canopy. Two to seven samples (mean of three) were taken on each transect, with two to four accounting for 88% of the transects. After the calibration period the study area was divided into four replications of about one acre each, and the three treatments and two controls (A-E listed below) were applied to blocks within each replication. Each treatment or control consisted of at least 10 trees to be included as transects in the yield sampling plus all other trees within the one-fourth acre, so as to reduce the edge effect of the observations. In addition to the live trees (untreated areas left as a control) (A) and naturally occurring openings or grasslands (B) which were generally less than 1000 ft^2 and may or may not be influenced by the trees, there were three treatments applied in December 1964: sprouting stumps (C) trees sawed about 6 inches aboveground and removed; trees sawed and removed and the stump painted with 2,4-D amine to prevent sprouting (D); and cut surface treatment (E) in which 2,4-D amine was placed in continuous horizontal cuts which penetrated the cambium layer (Leonard 1956). The trees in (E) fell after rotting in three to five years and were removed from the site.

Green-forage samples were taken near the end of each growing season for all years. The earliest harvest was on April 22, 1970, and the latest on June 2, 1975. Sampling after the calibration year was from a permanent transect on the north side of each of 10 trees or stumps in each treatment of each replication. Square ft samples were taken 1.5 ft from the stem and every 3 ft thereafter to the edge of the canopy. The number of ft^2 samples averaged 33/treatment, for a total of 533, plus 50 samples (10 or more/replication) used to sample the grasslands (B). The samples were oven-dried before weighing.

To determine whether significant phosphorus was released by the decomposition of roots and litter, soil phosphate phosphorus was sampled in the top six inches of treated and untreated areas both 13 and 16 months after the treatments were applied. The bulk density of the soil was sampled 14 years after treatment.

Forage composition and ground cover were measured by the step-point method and combined to obtain ground cover by species (Evans and Love 1957). Forty points were taken in each treatment of each replication on transects within the treatment. Measurements began in the calibration year (1964) and continued through 1974.

Residues of 2,4-D were recovered from the roots in the zone 1-2 ft from the stem 172 days after treatment by digging a stump from treatments A, C, D, and E. 2,4-D amounts were determined by the cotton bioassay method (Leonard et al. 1962) and compared with the amount of 2,4-D in rainfall previously collected beneath cut-surface-treated trees (Leonard et al. 1965).

Recognizing that the herbaceous cover of annual plants would die each season, and the accumulation of residue represents an unnatural condition, efforts were made to remove the current season's growth after it had matured and the seed shattered. In the summer of 1966 the study area was pastured by cows, and in 1970 through 1973 by sheep. Animals were in the area for only a 30-day period in the early summer. Utilization of this dry forage was unreliable and so was discontinued. In the years 1974 and later the general area of the transect was mowed and the forage removed in September, ensuring that an adequate seed source remained.

Data were analyzed by analysis of variance each year for forage yield, species and chemical composition, uptake of N, P, and S, and soil bulk density. Mean data for all years were compared by a split-plot analysis with years as the main plots.

RESULTS

Calibration

Mapping the area showed there were 150 trees/acre averaging 11.1 inches in diameter measured 24 inches aboveground. The diameters varied from 4 to 36 inches, with only one tree/acre exceeding 22 inches. There were no trees smaller than four inches. Canopy radius averaged 9.2 ft on the south side of the trees, and 7.4 ft. on the north, with the radius on the south side being equal to or greater than that on the north for 78% of the trees.

Forage samplings showed no difference in yield between the north and south sides or between samples closest to the stem and farthest from the stem. Therefore all future transects were located only on the north side of the trees. Average yield was 1,480 lb/acre.

Forage Yield

Tree-removal treatments were applied early in the growing season (December 1964) and did not result in significant changes in forage yield in the following spring (1965). Forage yield was 1,420 lb/acre) under live trees (A) and 1,720 lb/acre on grasslands (B). Forage yields for all subsequent years appear in Table 1.

Yields were significantly increased in the first full growing season following treatment (1966), from 960 lb under the live trees (A) to 2,170 lb under the cut-surface-treated trees (E). This 126% increase in forage exceeded the grassland yield (B) and was slightly higher than the stump treatments (C or D), which appeared to be depressed by sawdust accumulated from tree removal. This depression lasted for only one year.

Yield increases were significant in 11 of the 13 years following treatment, averaging 67% for the cut surface treatment (F), 65% for stumps plus 2,4-D (D), and 45% for the sprouting stump (C). The grasslands (B) averaged 21% more than under the live trees (A). Relative yields were A < B < C < D or E (significant at the 0.01 level). Mean yields of D and E are not different.

The relative yield difference between live trees (A) and all tree-removal treatments (C-E) was greatest in the driest year, 1977, when rainfall was 63% below average. This indicates the importance of competition between trees and herbaceous forage for available moisture. Variation in yields between years was nearly twice as great under live trees (A) as on the cut-surface treatment (E). Variation was from a minimum of 390 lb/acre, in 1977, to a maximum of 2,170 lb, in 1971, for the live-tree area (A), and 1,040 and 3,230 for the cut-surface treatment (E) in those same years. This is a 5.6-fold variation under the live trees (A), compared with a 3.1-fold variation on the cut-surface treatment (E) and 4.2 on the grassland area (B). Although the difference in yield between years was highly significant, there was no significant interaction between years and treatments.

Botanical Composition

Total ground cover (all species) for the 10-year period was greater on all cleared treatments (B-E) than the live trees (A), with the newly cleared areas (C-E) greater than the natural openings (B), which, in turn, averaged greater than the live-tree area (A) (table 2). Because

Table 1. Effect of tree treatments on forage yields for the 13 years following treatment. Precipitation data are shown at bottom of table

	Year													
	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	Mean ± S.E.
	Tens of pounds/acre													
A Live trees	96	138	96	176	113	218	140	203	191	130	115	39	190	142 ± 14
B Grassland	158	229	173	236	144	254	128	209	204	168	139	60	184	172 ± 14
C Sprouting stumps	185	222	154	248	178	314	225	214	263	213	165	77	229	230 ± 16
D Stumps + 2,4-D	195	232	186	290	203	352	255	247	296	259	206	91	246	235 ± 18
E Cut-surface	214	224	205	335	195	324	226	240	299	247	202	104	264	237 ± 17
LSD .05	29	58	37	55	47	72	49	NS	52	64	37	32	NS	14
.01	41	--	52	77	65	102	69	--	73	90	52	46	--	19
Precipitation (in.)	21	38	22	42	31	29	18	40	41	24	13	10	34	27

Table 2--Mean percent ground cover by species groups and total cover for period 1965-1974

	Grass	Legume	Other	Total
	Percent			
A Live trees	22	4	9	35
B Grassland	27	4	12	43
C Sprouting stumps	31	6	15	52
D Stumps + 2,4-D	32	5	15	52
E Cut-surface	32	16	15	53
LSD 0.05	5	NS	4	6
0.01	7	NS	5	8

of the sawdust the ground cover was lower around trees removed by sawing (C and D) than on the grassland (B) (1965) and the cut-surface (E) (1965 and 1966). In the cut-surface treatment (E) the trees were removed as they fell in later years, so there was never a reduction in ground cover.

Grass cover (1965-1974) was greater on all clearing treatments (B-E) (average 32% cover) than on the live tree area (A) (22%). Most of the increase was in soft chess (*Bromus mollis* L.), with a small increase in ripgut brome (*B. diandrus* Roth.).

Legumes (mostly *Trifolium* sp.), a small component of the ground cover, were not changed significantly by tree removal (C-E). Other forbs were increased slightly. There was an increase in tarweed (*Madia gracilis* Keck.) and a reduction in geranium (*Geranium molle* L.).

The difference between years in ground cover (total, grass, legume, and forbs) was

Table 3. Percent nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and sulfur (S) in forage, and total uptake of these elements/acre 1966-1978[1/]

	N	Total P	PO_4 P	Sulfate S
	Percent in forage			
A Live trees	1.54	.273	.186	.132
B Grassland	1.34	.235	.148	.122
C Sprouting stumps	1.37	.247	.160	.117
D Stumps + 2,4-D	1.33	.222	.145	.116
E Cut-surface	1.34	.221	.138	.120
LSD 0.05	.04	.016	.016	.007
0.01	.06	--	.022	.009
	Average uptake (lb/acre/year)			
A Live trees	21.3	3.9	2.4	1.91
B Grassland	24.9	4.0	2.5	2.28
C Sprouting stumps	27.5	5.4	3.3	2.50
D Stumps + 2,4-D	29.5	5.3	3.1	2.65
E Cut-surface	30.4	5.2	2.9	3.00
LSD 0.05	4.8	0.7	0.7	0.45
0.01	6.4	0.9	0.9	0.60

[1/] Except PO_4P, which is for 1967-1977 only.

highly significant (0.01 level), as was the interaction between years and treatments.

Chemical Composition

Percent in the forage of nitrogen, phosphorus (total and phosphate), and sulfur was greatest beneath live trees (A) (table 3). There was generally a maturity difference between open (B-E) and shade-grown plants at the time of harvest, which would account for the difference.

Total uptake/acre of all elements measured was significantly increased by all tree removal treatments (C-E), but did not differ between live trees (A) and natural openings (B).

There was a highly significant difference between years in percent of all measured elements as well as a significant interaction between years and treatments for the percent nitrogen and sulfur.

Soil Phosphorus

Available phosphorus, extracted from the top 6 inches of soil by 0.5 molar bicarbonate solution at pH 8.5 and expressed as ppm phosphorus in the soil, ranged from 12.6 to 18.0 in January 1966 (13 months after tree removal) and 5.9 to 9.4 in April 1966. There was no significant difference between treatments (A-E) at either date.

Bulk Density of Soil

Measured 14 years after treatment, soil collected from beneath live trees (A) was significantly lower (0.05 level) in density (1.074) than soil from natural openings (B) (1.183) or on cut-surface-treated areas (E) (1.179). Measurements were made near field capacity, and there was no difference in water-holding capacity. The difference was noticeable in walking on the area, with the tree-covered area being relatively spongy.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Forage yield increases were consistent and long-lasting. Measurements will continue in an effort to determine just how long they will persist. The increases to date are much less than previously reported, however (Johnston et al. 1959; Murphy and Crampton 1964). The trees in this study were larger than those in the above studies (11.1 in., compared with 7.5 and 8.0 in.). The number per acre was intermediate--150, compared with 115 and 225. Herbaceous ground cover under the trees was identical in this and the study by Johnson et al. (1959). Rainfall was intermediate, 27 inches, compared with 20-25 and 37 inches. The elevation was much higher (1,750 ft vs. 500 and 900 ft). The growing season was probably longer in this study because of the higher elevation and north slope. The growing seasons would start at the same time but maturity may be 15-20 days later than at 500-900 ft at this field station.

In determining the potential of a tree-covered area for increased forage production from tree removal it may be best to compare yields under the live trees with open areas. This and other studies in northern California indicate that the increased yield can be expected to equal or exceed yields in the grassland areas. Murphy and Crampton (1964) indicate about a threefold difference between a tree and grassland area before the treatment that gave 400-650% increases when the trees were killed. By comparison, the study reported here shows only a 17% difference between grasslands and tree-covered areas, and a 67% increase from removing trees. Not all areas will indicate increased yields. Holland (1973) found that production under blue oak trees in Madera Co., some 170 miles south of this study area, was 60 to over 100% higher than that of an adjacent open grassland.

Shade (light intensity) cannot be completely ruled out as a factor in reduced forage production beneath trees. However, the shade of the dead trees in the early years after cut-surface treatment (E) did not reduce yields below those from removing the tree and treating the stump (C). Leonard et al. (1965) suggest that the leaves of blue oak do not develop until after most of the herbaceous growth has occurred, thus eliminating shade as a factor.

Competition with the living tree, perhaps for moisture and nutrients, may be a factor, as evidenced by the difference in yield between treated stumps (D) (roots killed) and allowing stumps to sprout (C) (Table 1). Also, production was greater beneath standing dead trees (E in early years) than standing live trees (A).

The increase in yield in excess of grassland areas (B) following tree treatment (C-E) may be due in part to nutrients released by decomposing roots. Forage increases were greater where roots were killed (D or E) than where roots were not killed (C).

Total uptake of nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur) was greatest in all tree-removal treatments (C-E), possibly indicating greater availability. Soil phosphate measurements apparently were not precise enough to detect increases. However, these samples were only from the top six inches and may have failed to measure the contribution of the tree roots, which are abundant at 8-20 inches (Leonard et al., 1965). The lowest levels of soil phoshorus measured are suggestive of a possible deficiency.

The standing live trees contributed to reduced soil bulk density, and their removal resulted in increased density even with minimal livestock use. Animals were present only a few times, and then only in the dry summer months, so their influence on bulk density should have been minimal.

A stimulatory effect of low concentrations of 2,4-D seems unlikely. Leonard et al. (1965) measured 2,4-D in rainfall under cut-surface-treated trees and found small amounts in the first year after treatment, but none after one year. Roots measured in this study 1-2 ft from the stump contained 0.040 ppm and 0.011 ppm from the cut-surface (E) and 2,4-D-treated stump treatments (D), respectively, measured 172 days after treatment. The 2,4-D may have increased the rate of decomposition and resulting availability of plant nutrients.

The changes in botanical composition following tree removal generally improved forage quality. Of greatest importance was the increase in soft chess. The compositional changes might have been quite different if the area had been grazed in winter and spring, as is the common practice. An increase in legumes and other forbs could be expected if grazed.

The lesser variation between years in forage production on grassland or tree-removal treatments than on tree-covered areas is of great value to a livestock operator. The reduced variation may be of as much value as the increase in total forage production that results from tree removal.

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Quercus douglasii

Oak Trees and Livestock—Management Options[1]

Alfred H. Murphy[2/]

Abstract: In California, approximately 10 million acres of woodland-grass type offer opportunities for modification of the tree cover to improve their use in livestock management. Research projects on oak-grasslands at the Hopland Field Station, over the past decade, have provided information for the improvement of quality and quantity of range forage on mixed oak-grass vegetation, impacts of tree removal on water productivity, and the expectation of soil movement on various geologic formations by removal of tree cover.

INTRODUCTION

Most rangeland livestock operations are confronted with the economic fact of obtaining the best returns from grazing lands. While yield and composition of forage is influenced by weather, soil, water, exposure, and plant cover, man can encourage those plants that best meet his production needs. On many acres of California rangelands, oak trees have a major impact on the productivity of the forage system.

Of California's 68 million acres of wildlands, Love (1967) estimates that 10 million acres are in the woodland-grass type; he infers that 10 percent could be improved in value by 12 times, and 50 percent by three times, while the remaining 40 percent would have limited improvement potential. In a grazing study with sheep at the Hopland Field Station, Murphy and Berry (1973) stated that the removal of oak trees increased the value of livestock products by five-fold. In the foothills of the Sacramento Valley, Bell (1960) reported a five-fold increase in dry feed and a four-fold increase in forage protein production per acre where blue oaks were killed by the cut-surface treatment. Plant species composition study under treated oaks by Murphy and Crampton (1964) indicated that the shade-tolerant forb species were eliminated by killing the oaks, while several of the better forage grasses increased. In a watershed conversion study from oaks to herbaceous cover, Pitt (1975) reported both increases and decreases in percentage composition of both desirable and less desirable forage species.

Removal of trees and brush from rangelands significantly influenced the water yield pattern of treated areas. An extensive review of watershed management studies by Burgy and Papazafiriou (1971) revealed a preponderance of evidence and virtually unanimous conclusion that the reduction of vegetation density....will result in increased total water yield. The replacement of deeply rooted plants with shallow-rooted grasses and forbs make greater amounts of water available; Burgy (1967) attributes this to reduced transpiration and smaller interception loss.

The aim of this paper is to point out some of the facts of tree management developed at the Hopland Field Station and their influence on vegetation, livestock, and water. These facts can be useful in decision making for landowners and managers who use the land for livestock production and where oaks are part of the rangeland plant community.

THE HOPLAND FIELD STATION

The Hopland research station of the University of California consists of 5,358 acres

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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(2170 ha), located in Mendocino County's central coastal mountains. The greater part of the land area is represented by vegetational types that include oak trees. The woodland-grass type amounts to 36 percent of the area which is characterized by a scattered overstory of blue oaks (*Quercus douglasii* H. & A.), valley oaks (*Q. lobata* Nee), and interior live oaks (*Q. wislizenii* A. DC.), and an understory of grasses and forbs. In contrast, dense woodland covers approximately 22 percent of the Station area and consists of the aforementioned oaks plus black oaks (*Q. kelloggii* Newb.) Oregon oaks (*Q. garryana* Dougl.), and several other oaks of limited abundance. In part of this dense woodland are two prominent hardwoods--madrone (*Arbutus menziesii* Pursh.) and California bay (*Umbellularia californica* H. & A.)--with very little herbaceous vegetation found beneath their dense canopy. Other vegetative areas of the Station include 23 percent in open grass, 15 percent in brush, and the balance of 4 percent in minor categories (Heady 1961).

Climate is characterized as cool, mean temperature 43° F (6.1° C), and wet from November to April, with annual precipitation of about 37 inches (940mm); the balance of the year is usually warm, mean temperature 65.4° F (18.6° C), and dry with limited rainfall.

Soil varies in depth to 6 feet (1.8m), on benches but mostly are 1 to 3 feet (.3 to .9m) on moderate to steep slopes and include 18 different series (Josephine, Laughlin, Los gatos, and Sutherlin are most prevalent), located in an elevation range of 500 (153m) to 3,000 (915m) feet. Generally the soils decrease in depth with increased elevation and this depth often determines the character of the woody plant population (Gowans 1958).

Generally the herbaceous vegetation will yield an average of 2,000 pounds per acre (2240 kg/ha) dry weight (DW) but yearly flucuations vary from 1,300 to 3,600 pounds per acre (1455 to 4032 kg) DW depending on climatic variable. Most all of the plants making up the herbaceous cover are annual grasses, clovers, and other forbs, with perennial plants having a minor role.

STUDIES AT THE HOPLAND FIELD STATION

For a 20-year period (1958-1978), annual forage yield determinations have been collected from pastures with open ground and under tree canopy. These pastures represent the low to mid-elevation areas, 600 to 1,200 feet (183m to 366m), with soil depth of 1 to 3 feet (.3 to .9m), slopes up to 50 percent, and mostly south to west exposure; yield averages of the open ground were 2,400 pounds per acre (2688 kg/ha) DW, whereas the yields under an oak tree canopy were 1,400 pounds (1568 kg) DW or a reduction of 1,000 pounds (1120 kg) DW due to tree competition. Composition of vegetation in the two types were as follows:

Vegetative Type	Open Ground	Under Tree Canopy
	------percent	cover------
Annual grass	64	53
Forbs	23	36
Legumes	13	7
Perennial grass	--	4

Under the tree canopy such grasses as ripgut (*Bromus rigidus* Roth.) and dogtail (*Cynnsorus echinatus* L.) were dominant; they are considered as poor quality forage plants.

HYDROLOGIC STUDY

Perhaps in terms of major impact on land areas, the hydrologic study of watershed management at the Hopland Field Station gives the most comprehensive view of the effect of tree removal. Over a 25-year period,intensive management studies relating to vegetation, grazing use, soil, and water have been observed.

Two watershed areas--210 and 60 acres (85 and 24 ha)--had water yield, runoff, erosion, forage, and livestock data collected during three testing periods--pre-treatment, treatment, and post-treatment. The pre-treatment period represented the watershed condition before any changes were applied. The treatment period involved reduction of trees and shrubs by cutting, chemical treatment, and fire followed by seeding of grasses and legumes. The final phase was evaluation of treatments by the collection of hydrologic data, sheep grazing use, and forage production.

The conversion process in the 60-acre Watershed I was rapid, by falling the trees, burning the debris, and seeding grasses and clovers during the period of June to September, whereas in the 210-acre Watershed II the trees were killed by applying 2,4-D amine by the cut-surface method around the tree trunks. Five years after the tree treatment, a summer controlled burn was used to remove dead, woody debris followed by seeding with grasses and legumes.

Forage Production

Sheep were used to measure the effect on forage,with animal unit months (AUM) as the measure of production; before, during, and after the tree treatments. In both watershed treatment methods, the increases were similar; before treatment the average grazing capacity was 50 AUM, following conversion from woody cover to herbaceous cover it increased to 300 AUM. The major increase in feed production occurred on areas where tree canopy was dense and little herbaceous cover was present; approximately half of the acreage was classed as dense. The improved forage condition was not only achieved by reduction of tree competition but by substituting grasses and legumes that were capable of producing as well or better than the resident species.

Water Yield

Benefits derived from tree removal also included an increase of water yield either by surface or sub-surface flow. Research by Lewis and Burgy (1964) determined that oak trees will extend roots through fractured rocks to depths in excess of 70 feet (21.4m). In tree covered areas, where the density of trees was 150 to 500 per acre, the removal of trees increased water runoff per year from 2 to 13 inches (5.1 to 33cm) in an eight year period (Burgy and Papazafiriou 1970). The average increase of total runoff attributable to tree removal management was found to be in the order of 50 percent as compared to pretreatment amounts.

Interception losses in shrubs and trees are higher than for grasses and forbs. Also, when plants with deep roots, that remain in leaf during most of the year, are replaced by shallow-rooted plants with short growing season, the reduction of evapotranspiration losses results in an increase in water yield (Burgy and Papazafiriou 1971). This was demonstrated in Watershed II, where an intermittent stream became perennial after vegetative conversion from trees and brush to grasses and forbs. This evapotranspiration reduction resulted in the increase and extention of base flow through the dry season.

Variations in watershed response to tree removal is well illustrated in these two areas. Geophysical drilling revealed that Watershed I had extensive fracturing of rock structure allowing water drainage out of the area by subsurface flow whereas in Watershed II the clay and rock underlying the surface were impervious, holding water near to the surface. In Watershed II the increase of available water due to tree removal was thus expressed as stream flow. Previous to tree treatment the stream flow ceased by July, whereas following tree treatment the stream was characterized by a perennial flow. In Watershed I, where sub-surface drainage was good, the increase in available water was not expressed as visible stream flow. Increased water flow in Watershed II resulted in greater channel erosion and scouring. The higher soil moisture resulted in many zones of soil saturation causing creep deformation in a number of sites. It was also observed that if the soil was saturated, earth tremor shocks caused liquefaction to occur (Burgy *et al.* 1971). These erosion conditions did not develop in Watershed I after tree removal, as sub-surface water drainage out of the area prevented soil saturation.

CONCLUSIONS

The removal of oak tree cover will modify the rangeland ecology; thus the new conditions must be assessed to determine the value of tree cover modification. In many situations forage quality and quantity will improve, springs and stream flow will increase, and an economic return can be obtained if the tree material is harvested for firewood. If a large percentage of the trees are killed, under some geologic situations, erosion will increase in terms of channel scouring as well as by land slips. The browse value of oaks within reach of grazing animals will be lost and the Fall acorn crops will be reduced. It is important that rangeland operators fully assess the changes that will result from tree removal to determine whether they will benefit his future land use plans.

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Quercus chrysolepis

Energy Yield Potentials of California Oaks and Other Wood Biomass[1]

Al Groncki [2/]

Abstract: California oaks are a significant part of natural biomass stands in California that are capable of producing up to 30 million tons of dry wood per year. Managing the commercial and non-commercial oak stands with consideration of environmental needs could produce positive management benefits with incidental direction of oak biomass into a variety of possible alternative energy production processes.

INTRODUCTION

There is an increasing awareness of the potential various forms of wood biomass hold as a renewable energy resource (Howard 1974, Alich 1976, Howlett 1977). New plants using wood energy for heat, steam, and electricity production are being considered throughout the nation. Research for the conversion of wood to liquid or gaseous fuels is being funded by Federal and State governments and by private industry and educational institutions.

Nationally we produce 1.25 Quads[3/] of energy from wood. Preliminary estimates indicate a potential of 8.3[4/] Quads of energy from wood. The Forest Service predicts that 5.2 of these Quads will be realized. This will amount to 7% of the Nation's energy needs. Estimates, however, have been made from resource information that was collected for conventional convertible wood products. Information collected for total biomass production may change these estimates.

In California, preliminary estimates based on incomplete data indicate we are producing 30 million dry tons of unused forest biomass each year. We do not know how much of this is recoverable because of unknown harvesting and transportation costs and environmental considerations. Management regimes for California's oaks, as an example, have not been designed, and is one reason for this symposium.

Thirty million tons represent 0.51 Quads or 7.8 percent of California's annual energy budget (Craig, et. al. 1978) of 6.5 Quads (based on 1975 figures).

Where do California oaks fall into this scheme? California hardwoods are expected to yield 3.5 million dry tons of biomass annually, or approximately 11.4% of the total 30 million tons of estimated biomass production. The oaks are a significant part of the hardwood resource. The above figures assume a hardwood culture dedicated to more economically valuable product uses than energy. The 3.5 million tons consists of estimated logging residues from commercial hardwood stands, and managed biomass harvesting from non-commercial stands.

Hopefully this Symposium and other research and inventory work will provide better data in the near future in the following categories:

1. Acreage of commercial oak stands.
2. Acreage of non-commercial oak stands.
3. Delineation by species, volume and size classes by conventional inventory standards and total above-and below-ground biomass standards.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

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3/ 1 Quad = 1 quadrillion BTU's or 1×10^{15} BTU's.

4/ National Framework for Energy from Biomass, U.S. Forest Service, Washington D.C., May 25, 1977, Unpublished draft.

RELATIVE EFFICIENCY OF WOOD AS FUEL

Wood as fuel contains approximately 8,500 BTU's per pound or 17,000,000 per ton. These figures vary somewhat within species because of contained extractives, but generally can be used. Bark is closer to an average of 9,000 BTU's per pound or 18,000,000 per ton.

These figures are for dry wood. Green wood unfortunately contains high percentages of water. Green wood generally contains as much water by weight as solid wood substance. The relative efficiency of wood as a fuel is complicated significantly by the presence of this water. It increases handling and transportation costs, and decreases the efficiency of the combustion process. If used in a green state, roughly 20-30% of the contained BTU's will be used to drive off the water. Air drying and the use of waste stack heat can increase the relative efficiency of combustion. The combustion of dry wood in conventional boilers compares favorably with oil and coal. Because more wood is required for equal heat outputs, there is some increase in storage, handling, and size of combustion equipment required for burning wood.

Dry wood has a boiler efficiency of 80.08% (Curtis, 1978) wood at 15% Moisture Content has an efficiency of 78.08%.

Wood at 30% Moisture Content has an efficiency of 76.08.

Wood at 60% Moisture Content has an efficiency of 72.07%.

Wood at 100% Moisture Content has an efficiency of 66.72%.

Oak is preferred firewood for home consumption because it is dense and therefore contains more BTU's per cubic foot than Ponderosa Pine, although Ponderosa Pine actually contains more BTU's per pound. Since wood is often purchased on a weight basis in industrial operations, pine is a better buy than oak. Since wood is bought on a volume basis for home use, oak is a better buy than pine, although price adjustments are generally made to accommodate these differences in BTU content. Table 1 below illustrates some of these relationships for some of our Western species.

Table 1 - Densities and Heating Values for Some West Coast Species

Species	Density Dry lb./cu. ft.	BTU/lb	Higher Heating Value-Dry BTU/cu.ft.
Douglas Fir	38	8,900	249,000
Ponderosa Pine	24	9,100	218,000
Lodgepole Pine	24	8,600	206,000
Red Alder	23	8,000	184,000
Ore. White Oak	37	8,110	300,000

The use of wood stoves for space heating, cooking,and heating water has increased significantly in the last few years. Firewood permits in California from Forest Service Ranger Stations totaled 78,304 cords in 1972, and 329,634 in 1977, a 420% increase. It is difficult for the homeowner to evaluate the effectiveness of the various wood-burning stoves. Comparative efficiency tests have not yet been published, although some are being conducted by the Department of Mechanical Engineering at Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama.

Without this comparative information, there are three things you should look for in a good stove:

1. It should be air tight.
2. It should provide for secondary combustion of fuel gases.
3. It should provide refractory brick lining.

A good reference is the Woodburners Encyclopedia (Shelton and Shapiro, 1976.) This reference discusses the pros and cons of most of the models presently on the market. It also gives good information on safety, which should be a primary concern of yours if you are going into home wood heating. Consult your local county building inspector for installation specifications, and then follow a rigid maintenance program.

TECHNOLOGY OF INDUSTRIAL WOOD COMBUSTION

The combustion of wood by industry has undergone many changes in recent years. Some modern combustion units are smokeless and operate unattended. A brief review of the various types of systems in use will illustrate the broad range available today.

Dutch Oven

Many old furnaces and some new ones use this system in which the fuel is burned in a pile. The rate and efficiency of combustion is regulated by the design and use of over-and under-fire air. Too much primary air under the fire lowers the combustion temperature and produces more unburned particulates. Not enough over-fire air prevents the secondary combustion of particulates and gases. A properly designed furnace provides the proper amounts of each kind of air, and some means of collecting and burning all particulates.

If particulates are not burned, then they must be collected in precipitators, wet scrubbers, or bag house collectors to meet air pollution standards. These same comments apply to many of the other systems described here.

Moving Grate Systems

There is a wide variety of systems in which the fuel is burned on a grate that moves in some fashion. There are dumping grates, reciprocating grates, and moving grates. The intent is to spread the fire in a uniform manner and to dispose of ash efficiently. There is a wide range of combustion efficiency depending on the design of the furnace and the use made of air to obtain complete combustion.

Suspension Systems

These are systems that use currents of air to suspend the fuel while it is being burned. There are simple suspension systems as well as more complex horizontal or vertical vortex or cyclonic systems. Some use a single combustion chamber and some use secondary chambers for combustion or to trap unburned particles and return them for additional combustion.

Fluidized Beds

These systems employ vertical air flow and a bed of sand or other material to keep fuel in constant agitation or suspension. They can vary greatly in size. The largest units will consume 250 tons of hog fuel per day. Although hogged fuel or chips are desirable, solid wood may also be burned.

Fluidized bed systems, though expensive, have several advantages. They can burn very wet fuels and they are very flexible. They may fire boilers directly, may provide direct heat for heating or drying systems, or may produce gas for turbines or subsequent combustion. A disadvantage is they are very expensive and usually only justified for very large operations.

Pyrolysis

Pyrolysis, or destructive distillation, is the combustion of material with a minimal amount of oxygen. Low-temperature pyrolysis produces gas, charcoal, and pyrolytic oils. High-temperature pyrolysis or gassification produces low BTU gas, mostly carbon monoxide, but some methane and hydrogen also.

The low temperature pyrolysis permits the production of a mixture of char and oil that may be hauled to some other location for combustion. It may be further gassified, mixed with fuel oil for combustion, or processed chemically.

High-temperature pyrolytic gases can not be transported any significant distance. They may be used to operate gas turbines, fire steam boilers, or to operate internal combustion engines, either for shaft horsepower or to run electric generators.

Products of both processes may be used to create other chemicals such as ammonia or methanol.

Chemical Systems

A variety of chemical systems exist to convert wood to methanol, ethanol, furfural, acetic acid, ammonia, oil, crude sugars and animal feeds. Some of these systems are: acid hydrolysis, wet oxidative hydrolysis, fermentation, carboxylase and hydrogassification.

Hybrid Geothermal

This is a system designed to use the vast amounts of low-temperature geothermal fluids found in the Western U.S. in combination with a wood-fired steam system. Geothermal fluids are used to dry hogged wood material and pre-heat boiler feedwater. The boiler feedwater is then super-heated in a wood-fired boiler and used to generate electricity.

Pelletization

A number of pelletizing processes exist. Pellets range in size from animal feed to presto-logs. The pellets may be used in any of the processes described above and in themselves do not constitute a new technology, pelletizing having been used since 1923. They do decrease transportation costs because the wood in pellets must be reduced to about 15% moisture content (dry basis). The increase in density also reduces the size of necessary storage facilities, and provides a transportable product for home fireplaces and campground fires. The experts in this field do not anticipate much use for pelletizing in industrial applications in the future because the advantages are not great enough to justify the expense of pelletizing.

Chemical Derivatives

In addition to destructive distillation processes for converting wood to chemicals, wood and foliage contain a great number of valuable chemical extractives. A quote from J.E. Stone of the Canadian Forest Service illustrates the potential that exists for chemical uses of wood and exemplifies another attitude toward utilizing wood for energy (Carlisle 1976).

"Using a complex organic substance merely for its calorific value is one of its crudest uses . . . It takes no cognisance of the chlorophyll, carotene, vitamins, protein, essential oils, etc. in the foliage. No cognisance of the beautiful fibre structure of wood. No cognisance of the polymeric properties of the cellulose molecule, of the fact that 60 percent or more of the wood is carbohydrate, or that lignin is an aromatic phenolic polymer with many interesting properties . . . It is a treasure house of structural and chemical components which should be exploited to their fullest extent." He further suggests that surplus trees and their components should be put into a process stream in which the highest value components are removed sequentially. Again we come up against the idea that tree components are possibly too good to burn.

EXISTING AND POTENTIAL ANNUAL WOOD BIOMASS SUPPLIES IN CALIFORNIA

The following data on biomass supplies was developed in 1978 as testimony for the California Energy Commission (Table 2). They requested it for consideration in hearings on siting applications for fossil fuel power plants in the State.

This section covers oak as well as all other sources of wood biomass. Although we have been unable to segregate the oak resource from the other categories of commercial and non-commercial hardwoods, the implications of managing the oaks forces us to the same management concerns.

Material Available With Existing Technology

Category 1 - Mill Residues

The Forest Service projects a total primary mill residue of 7.7 million dry tons (Howard 1974). Stanford Research Institute estimates 4.6 million dry tons (Alich 1976). The Mitre Corportion estimated 8.8 million tons (Howlett 1977). The amount of this residue being used fluctuates with the pulp chip market. We presently estimate 3.0 million tons unutilized. With the increased interest in power generation by primary mills, this surplus will soon decrease to about 1.0 million tons.

This mill residue is primary mill residue from sawmill and veneer mills. It does not include residues from secondary processing facilities such as molding plants, sash and door plants, cabinet and furniture plants and miscellaneous forest industries. Secondary mill residue is reported as a portion of urban wood residue.

A number of sawmills in California are cutting some oak. Cal-Oak in Oroville cuts oak almost exclusively, and they are on this program to talk about their operation. Kimberly Clark, Philo Timber Co., Simonson Timber Co., Schmidbauer Timber Inc. all cut some incidental hardwoods including some of the oaks.

Humboldt County and at least one Company are actively studying the establishment of a hardwood processing plant in Humboldt County.

Category 2 - Woods Residue

The Pacific Northwest Forest and Range Experiment Station has published voluminous data on the volumes of logging slash (Howard 1973), (Adams 1976) & (Grantham 1974). Data has not been developed, however, to predict annual accumulations of logging slash on a statewide basis. SRI estimated 5.1 million tons per year; the Mitre Corporation estimated 4.3 million tons per year. We believe both of these are low and estimate 6.5 million tons based on the following assumptions:

A. 5 billion bd. ft. harvested in an average year.

B. 30 thousand bd. ft. per average acre of harvest.

C. 159,000 acres harvested each year on an assumed clear cut basis.

D. An average residue volume of 40 tons per acre. A significant portion of this logging slash is from understory hardwoods.

Woods residue is any material from the severed tree (excluding the stump) that is not harvested or removed from the site. Woods residue is often categorized by size classes. The minimum diameter size of material most often used in computing woods residue is 4 inches. This for two reasons: (1) the diseconomy of handling smaller material; (2) the need to leave smaller material to maintain nutrient balances.

As stumpage prices increase, utilization standards will become more exact and less residue will be left in the woods. We estimate a decrease of 7% due to increased utilization standards in the woods in the long term. Virtually none of this material is being used now except for firewood and incidental salvage by small portable sawmills. In the long term, most of this material, down to a 4" diameter, will be utilized for energy, particle board, or pulp.

Category 3 - Conifer Thinnings

Fuel loading data from conifer thinnings indicate a range from 7 tons to 48 tons per acre (Maxwell 1976). Using an average of 20 tons per acre, we arrive at a total of 6.3 million tons per year available, assuming thinning 2% of the 15,863,000 acres of softwoods each year. This material is available short and long term. The pulpwood industry in California has never utilized roundwood supplies, and additional pulpwood capacity in California is not anticipated due to environmental constraints. Most of this material is therefore assumed to be available for energy purposes. This data applies to pre-commercial thinning material only. Commercial thinning residue is aggregated with other forms of logging slash.

Category 4 - Dead and Dying

Endemic mortality during an average year approaches 1 billion board feet in California. About 13% of this material has been utilized in the past. Current Forest Service efforts to increase utilization of this material will reduce availability in the long run. Forest Service and State of California policy to retain certain levels of dead trees for cavity-nesting birds and animals will further reduce the long-term availability.

During epidemic insect outbreaks, such as the present one augmented by the drought of 1975-77, vastly increased amounts of dead and dying material are available. An estimated 24 million tons is presently available. Much of this will, however, be used for sawlogs due to the increased Forest Service and industry effort to salvage as much of this material as possible.

In the long term, this amount should decrease as virgin old-growth stands disappear and thinning regimes increase the vigor of young stands. No estimates have been made of volumes of dead and dying hardwoods, though a recent survey on the Six Rivers National Forest[5/] indicates that 75 percent of a total volume of 1,130 MMBF of California Black oak is either dead or live cull.

Category 5 - Urban Residue

Urban residues represent a virtually untapped source of wood fiber. Collection costs have been absorbed and dumping costs add a negative value that is readily recovered. Cities are generators of wood residue as much as forests are. Represented in urban residues are the following categories of material:

Secondary Mill Residues	Crating
Demolition Waste	Tree Maintenance & Removal
Construction Waste	Building Construction

5/ Six Rivers Timber Harvest Scheduling study, 1979, unpublished.

Household waste is not considered. Only those wastes delivered in separate, distinct loads to dumps were considered. The data we have comes from the Kelbro Corporation[6/] which has produced 180,000 tons per year from an area bounded roughly by Sacramento, Yolo, and Placer Counties. These three counties contain 4.2% of the California metropolitan population. An extrapolation to the total metropolitan population in California produces an annual figure of 4.3 million dry tons per year. Much of the residue in this category is hardwood, especially pallets, secondary mill waste, and city tree maintenance material.

Category 6 - Orchard Prunings

Orchard prunings are a readily available resource with negative value. The California Department of Agriculture estimated 2.0 million tons available each year. Some people wish to categorize them with agricultural residues, but they have the same combustion attributes as other wood residues.

Some agricultural companies are already considering using their prunings as a source of fuel for their drying operations, so some of these will disappear in the long term.

Category 7 - Commercial Hardwoods

We assume a developing industry utilizing the commercial hardwood stands in California. Species include Oregon White Oak, Calif. Black Oak, Alder, Big Leaf Maple, Cottonwood, Sycamore, Calif, Laurel, Calif. Valley or White Oak, Tanoak, Chinquapin and Madrone. Our hardwood resources are too valuable to use exclusively as a wood energy resource. Volumes of slash from commercial hardwood stands vary from 50-120 tons per acre based on fuel loading studies done at PNW (Maxwell 1976).

Inventory data on commercial hardwoods has been lacking, because the hardwoods have previously not been important. Recent inventory work on the Six Rivers National Forest[5/] reports 2.3 billion board feet of live, sound, hardwoods, 1.1 billion of which is Tanoak and 331 million board feet of which is Black and White Oak. They report another 2.2 billion board feet of dead or live cull, all of which would be available for energy purposes.

Extrapolation of this data to the three counties of Mendocino, Humboldt and Del Norte counties results in 16-20 billion board feet of hardwoods in just those three counties. Since the better hardwood sites occur on the private commercial forest land, these figures are probably conservative. Also, early harvesting on the private commercial acreage without regeneration and stand improvement practices has resulted in heavy regrowth to hardwoods.

Category 8 - Noncommercial Hardwoods

Fuel loading studies of material in this category conducted on the National Forests[7/] indicate a range from 40 tons to 110 tons per acre occurs in natural stands. We have used a low average loading of 50 tons per acre and a rotation of 40 years. Culminination of mean annual increment of biomass will occur much sooner, somewhere near ten years. We have chosen the longer rotation due to unknown factors of nutrient cycling and reproductive potential to be discussed under Environmental Constraints.

Total biomass available on an annual basis under this regime would be 1.6 million dry tons. A published report that supports these figures was done for the central coast hardwoods (Pillsbury, 1978).

Category 9 - Noncommercial Softwoods

The 7.5 million acres of noncommercial softwoods is represented by such species as juniper, pinon pine, digger pine, and very poor stands of the commercial species such as Ponderosa pine and Douglas fir. By definition, noncommercial softwood stands are stands that are growing less than 20 cubic feet per acre per year. An average growth would probably be closer to ten cubic feet per acre per year. These figures are, of course, based on sawboard inventory standards and not on biomass standards. Assuming, however, that we will not be using whole tree harvesting because of nutrient cycling constraints, we have used a figure of 10 cubic feet per acre per year. While this results in 1 million tons of biomass per year, we feel the need to proceed cautiously in this type as so little is known of the possible consequences of harvest regimes in low-volume, sensitive stands. Harvesting in the pinon juniper type will probably occur to augment the grazing resource.

6/ Unpublished data from KELBRO Corporation, Sacramento, CA.

7/ Unpublished data. Fuel loading studies on individual National Forests in Region 5.

Category 10 - Chaparral

Fuel loading studies by the Riverside Fire Laboratory[8/] indicate a range from 10-46 tons per acre. They also estimate 20 years for a burned-over site to reach optimum loading again. We have used an average of 20 tons per acre and an assumed rotation of 20 years. These assumptions produce an annual production of 7.6 million dry tons per year.

Since harvesting technology has not been developed for chaparral, no estimate has been made of the percentage of this material that will eventually be available.

The figures for all categories project annual total biomass production. Physical, economic, or environmental availability are not considered, nor is the backlog of residue from previous logging and milling activities considered.

MANAGEMENT EFFECTS OF HARVESTING FOR BIOMASS

Managing the forest resource for biomass production as well as higher valued products will involve the areas of fire control, insect and disease management, stand improvement, wildlife management, range, and esthetics.

Fire Control

Substantial resource losses have occurred in California because of wildfire in commercial timber stands. Suppression of these fires has been aggravated by accumulations of slash in timber harvested areas. More complete utilization for energy or other products will help reduce these losses and will also reduce fire suppression costs.

From a fire management standpoint, the use of slash, dead and dying trees, and thinning waste for fuel can only be beneficial. Backlog slash from inadequately treated harvest areas of the past is still a substantial problem as there are an estimated 200,000 acres of this material on National Forest land. Current National Forest timber sales are not a problem as more complete fuel treatment is performed.

Utilization of timber sale residue for energy will provide an economic incentive for fuel treatment on both National Forest and private land. It would reduce the existing discrepancy in treatment standards by land ownership. Benefits would include a reduction in resource losses and fire suppression costs as well as energy yields.

Harvest of biomass from chaparral and other noncommercial sources is another matter. Management regimes have not been established, and harvesting technology has not been evaluated. We believe that the feasibility of energy projects with a short planning horizon should be based on material sources available under present technology and present management strategies.

Long-range energy projections can, however, include assumptions about technological development and management strategies and should include chaparral as a potential energy source.

Insect and Disease Management

Forest sites can support an optimum growth of trees without danger of insect activity. When the volume of biomass on an area exceeds this optimum state, stress in trees will develop. Stressed trees will be removed by insect and disease activity if man does not do it first. Site capability is affected by soil depth, parent soil material, amount of rainfall and other factors. Stands adequately managed through periodic thinnings will optimize growth and be immune to insect activity.

Management of noncommercial stands may result in unexpected problems including insect and disease activity. More information on the management of such stands needs to be generated by research and experience.

The off-site burning of forest residue instead of on-site burning will be more attractive from the standpoint of better air quality and reduced forest fuels. Less injury to remaining trees will also be a benefit.

Stand Improvement

Practical forestry includes the practice of thinning stands periodically to decrease competition and soil nutrient drain, especially from less vigorous trees of the stand, and to optimize growth in dominant or crop trees. Thinning as a normal practice in California stands has been discouraged by the

8/ Personal communication - unpublished data.

TABLE 2 TEN CATEGORIES OF WOOD RESIDUE IN CALIFORNIA

CATEGORY	ACREAGE*	VOLUME	ROTATION	ANNUAL AVAILABLE DRY TONS IN MILLIONS[9]	
				SHORT TERM 5 yr	LONG TERM 5 yr +
1. Mill Residue	-	SRI 4.6 MM Tons MITRE 8.8 MM Tons F.S. 7.7 MM Tons	-	3.0 (2.72)	1.0 (0.907)
2. Woods Residue	158,630	SRI 5.1 MM Tons MITRE 4.3 MM Tons F.S. 6.5 MM Tons	-	6.5 (5.90)	4.5 (4.08)
3. Conifer Thinnings	158,630	20 Tons/ACRE	60-120 2% Thinning Regime	6.3 (5.71)	6.3 (5.71)
4. Dead & Dying	15.8 MM	1 Billion B.Ft.	-	2.4 (2.18)	1.5 (1.36)
5. Urban Residues	-	500 Tons/Day (Kellbro Corp. Sacramento, Yolo)	- -	4.3 (3.9)	4.3 (3.9)
6. Orchard Prunings	14,000,000 1973 Data (Calif. State Abstracts)	1.5 Tons/Acre	-	2.0 (1.8)	1.0 (0.907)
SUB-TOTAL (MATERIAL AVAILABLE WITH EXISTING TECHNOLOGY)				24.5 (22.22)	18.6 (16.87)
7. Commercial Hardwoods	2,837,000	50-120 Tons/Acre Average 60	90	0	1.9 (1.72)
8. Noncommercial Hardwoods	1.319,000	40-110 Tons/Acre Average 50	40	0	1.6 (1.45)
9. Noncommercial Softwoods	7,532,000	20 Cu.Ft./Acre/Yr. Assume 10 Cu.Ft./ Acre/Year	Harvest Annual Growth 140	0	1.0 (0.907)
10. Chaparral	7,554,000	10-46 Tons/Acre Average 20 Tons/ Acre	20	0	7.6 (6.89)
SUB-TOTAL (MATERIAL DEPENDENT UPON DEVELOPMENT OF TECHNOLOGY) . .				0	12.1 (10.97)
TOTAL				24.5 (22.22)	30.7 (27.84)

*Acreage figures from U.S. Forest Service forest survey.

9/ Metric tons in parentheses. 1 English ton = 0.907 metric tonnes.
1 metric tonne = 2,204.62 POUNDS.

lack of a market for the products of thinning. Leaving these products on the ground to slowly decay has been prohibitive because of insect and fire threats. The utilization of this material for fuel will have a twofold effect: it will provide fuel from the thinning operations and create faster growth rates in residual stands that will also produce a residue component for fuel purposes. Research studies have indicated a possible doubling of sawlog volume on better sites through planned thinning operations.

A generally more intensive management strategy in commercial timber types will also permit the use of genetically superior stock that will further increase productive capability.

Wildlife Management

The effects of managing for biomass can have profound effects on wildlife, both good and bad. Knowledge of wildlife requirements will permit us to plan judiciously to minimize negative impacts while taking advantage of the positive impacts, as illustrated below:

Commercial forest stands in California still contain many acres of virgin timber that are not prime wildlife habitat. Many chaparral and noncommercial hardwoods stands form impenetrable canopies of low value to wildlife. Management of both these types can increase wildlife populations by:

A. Increasing diversity of habitat and creating greater amounts of edge.

B. Penetration of light in all stands to permit greater production of grasses, forbes, and brush.

C. Creating access in dense chaparral and brush to make new forage, cover and water available.

Precautions need to be taken to provide the following:

A. An adequate number of dead trees to provide for animal dens and cavity-nesting birds. An average of three dead trees per acre in varying degrees of decay will normally support optimum numbers of cavity-nesting birds.

B. Thickets to provide thermal cover in cold weather and fawning grounds in the spring and summer.

C. Adequate downed logs and ground cover for certain species. Two to four logs per acre about 12" in diameter for 40 cubic feet of volume is considered necessary.

D. Minimum road systems to decrease harassment of animals, but also to provide quality hunting experiences.

E. Entry of equipment will need to be restricted during certain times of the year to protect animals during reproductive activities.

Range

The range resource can be significantly increased through management of chaparral and brush systems. Our experience with burned-over chaparral is that about 10 years of good grazing follows the fires. Additional forage can be provided by thinning operations that permit more light to enter stands to produce more grasses and forbs.

Some oak types, such as the Blue and Valley Oaks, will be protected where they form important shade and mast-producing components in oak-grassland ranges.

Range and Wildlife management practices need to be coordinated to provide for both uses.

Esthetics

An additional benefit to forest management will be the improved esthetic qualities of the forest. Dense and chaotic arrangements of slash and brush under commercial stands will be eliminated. A greater diversity of habitat will also increase the non-game species of wildlife that will add to public enjoyment. Young stands will be passable and attractive instead of being impenetrable thickets. Greater control of wildfire and insect epidemics will also add to the esthetic appreciation of the forests.

The use of landscape managment techniques as a tool in the management of the visual resource can do much to make harvest operations blend in with the natural landscape.

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS OF PROPOSED PROJECTS

Harvesting for biomass will have both good and bad effects on the environment.

Man's intrusion into wildland systems usually has a negative effect. We have learned and still are learning to minimize those effects on lands we now consider commercial. Harvesting vegetation as an energy resource will extend our definition of commercial wild land. There are no management prescriptions that can be prescribed carte blanche for all wild lands. Management requirements are site specific and utilization must be tied to the needs of the land.

Some of the obvious effects which need to be planned for and monitored are:

A. Soil compaction will lead to a decrease in infiltration rate of water and a loss of permeability. Compaction will increase runoff, erosion and downstream sedimentation. Compaction decreases survival of germinated vegetative seeds.

Harvesting activities need to be controlled during wet weather to minimize compaction.

Selection of equipment with light load-bearing tracks will help limit compaction to acceptable levels.

B. Reduced vegetative cover will promote both wind and water erosion. Strategic management of cover to provide protection from wind and the effects of running water will be necessary.

Increased siltation from road construction activity is the largest erosion threat. All the experience gained in harvest operations on timber land will have to be applied to protect downstream water values. Downed logs and other vegetation left for wildlife can also serve as physical obstructions to control erosion.

C. Certain micro-ecosystems may be threatened by permitting harvesting areas to become too large. Harvesting prescriptions need to be site specific. Smaller harvest areas will be less economic but will add to vegetative diversity for wildlife and be more attractive.

Certain sites requiring constant vegetative cover will need to be protected from all manipulative activity.

D. Decreased vegetative cover on some sites will result in increased temperatures, drier sites, and reduced vegetative reproduction.

Adequate reproductive knowlege will be necessary to plan for these sites. Nonsprouting species especially will be vulnerable.

E. Nutrient recycling may be a problem on short rotation schedules. On long rotations, adequate mineral and organic nutrients are returned to the soil through leaves, twigs, branches and needles (Zinke 1972). Most of the mineral nutrients found in plants occur in this smaller material. Normal harvest operations also leave this smaller material in the final harvest cut. About three percent of the minerals in the tree are removed in the bole or stem of the tree. This amount is more than adequately replaced from parent soil material. Nitrogen falling with rain and fixed biologically more than adequately replaces the amount removed in long-rotation forestry (Carlish 1976).

Short rotations are, however, another problem and are the reason for the extended rotations suggested for noncommercial categories of biomass. Further research is needed on nutrient recycling problems in short-rotation management regimes.

Whole-tree harvesting likewise poses similar problems of nutrient loss. Thinning operations in long rotation conifer stands do not seem to be a threat but more information is needed on clearcut harvesting of brush and chaparral stands.

F. The regeneration of chaparral stands without fire poses questions that need answering (Philpot 1977):

1. Critical impact on nutrient budgets and productivity.
2. Allelopathic compounds may build up and be maintained leading to lower productivity.

G. Wood has a low sulfur content. Burning it in any of the latest technologically designed furnaces can be done without polluting the surrounding air. Burning it alone or in mixture with coal will reduce the amount of sulfur dioxide, fluorides, and other synergistically formed chemicals that are injurious to man, plants, and animals. Burned alone, it does not require expensive filtration and scrubbing equipment.

Burned in conjuction with coal, it also increases the life of furnace linings and produces a finer, more easily handled ash. (Morford, 1978).

The addition of bark, however, usually results in excessive particulate matter because of included soil particles. Table 3 below illustrates the relative merits of wood to natural gas and oil (Sassenrath 1979).

TABLE 3 Air Contaminant Emission Rates
(Pounds per million BTU heat input)

Air Contaminants	Wood Fuel 10/	Natural Gas 11/	Fuel Oil 1% Sulfur
Particulate Matter		0.1 12/	0.01 0.07
Sulfur Oxides	Nil	0.0006	1.05
Carbon Monoxide	0.6	0.017	0.03
Nitrogen Oxides	0.1	0.7	1.0
Hydrocarbons	0.2	0.001	0.007

Burning fuels with dirty bark included necessitates the addition of wet scrubbers, baghouse collectors or electrostatic precipitators, with wet scrubbers being considered the cheapest and most efficient.

Even though new wood-fired boilers posess environmental and financial advantages to fossil fuel boilers, regulatory requirements are not limited to air pollution requirements.

Proponents of wood-fired systems must consider planning regulations, building codes, water quality approval, solid waste disposal requirements, California Environmental Quality Act review and possibly Coastal Commission approval before construction may proceed.

CONCLUSIONS

Harvesting oaks and other natural biomass for energy purposes presents both opportunities and some very real dangers.

The management opportunities are those we have always associated with ideal forest management as seen perhaps in parts of Europe: an esthetically attractive forest, free of fire and insect problems, with optimum growth.

10/ Values determined by HCAPCD Source Tests.

11/ Values from U.S.-E.P.A. publication AP-42.

12/ Equivalent to 0.04 Grains per cubic foot.

The dangers are those we can envision with a rapidly escalating value for wood fuel that could result in unmanaged and unregulated cutting of natural biomass with consequent soil erosion, loss of wildlife habitat, and other deleterious effects that are unacceptable to the public.

As managers, researchers, teachers, and administrators we all have the obligation to see that we maximize the positive effects of management opportunities while protecting the environment. The vision we should hold before us is of beautiful forests and wild lands, virtually free of fire, contributing in their many ways to a perhaps changed but still good life.

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Quercus chrysolepis

Economics of Utilizing Oak for Energy[1]

Raymond Stine[2/]

Abstract: Utilizing oak as fuel for home heating, as well as commercial energy production, can be shown to be a viable alternative to the use of traditional fuels. An examination of the specific costs involved indicates while the use of oak for commercial energy production is approximately at the break-even point, the production of fuelwood for home consumption is a profitable venture.

INTRODUCTION

Oaks comprise about 80 percent of California's hardwood resource.[3/] It can be shown that oak is an economical source of fuel for energy production, not only for individual consumers, but also for commercial energy generation. This paper describes the economics of using oakwood for fuel in two hypothetical situations: 1. currently for individual homeheating and cooking, and 2. potentially for commercial energy generation.

OAK FUELWOOD FOR HOME CONSUMPTION

Today, more and more people are realizing the current benefits of using woodstoves and fireplaces in their homes for direct heating and cooking, thereby offsetting to some degree their rising energy bills. Thus a growing market exists for oak as a fuelwood for home use.

This economic analysis of fuelwood production describes the typical California foothill firewood operation where the operator cuts, splits, loads and hauls his fuelwood product to an urban woodlot for sale. The average selling price is assumed to be $90.00 per cord (Table 1). We will assume that the production per day for a two-man operation is approximately 6 cords, a haul distance of 100 miles round-trip, and a payload of 16 cords per trip. To ease handling and to decrease hauling costs, the cut wood will be air dried prior to transporting.

Table 1--Average cost for producing one cord of oak fuelwood *

	West Sierra & Coast Range		Eastside Sierra
Cost Factor	Tractor	Cable	Tractor
Stumpage	$10.00	$10.00	$10.00
Harvesting Activities			
Fall	1.58	1.58	1.42
Limb	.79	.79	.71
Buck	1.58	1.58	1.42
Lop	.21	.21	.18
Skid	7.69	14.10	6.93
	$11.74	$18.26	$10.66
Processing Activities			
Cut	10.40	10.40	10.40
Split	11.22	11.22	11.22
Load	6.24	6.24	6.24
	$27.86	$27.86	$27.86
Trucking	$18.77	$18.77	$18.77
General Overhead	$ 3.90	$ 3.90	$ 3.53
Total Costs, F.O.B. Woodlot	$72.38	$78.79	$70.02

* See text for cost assumptions.

[1/] Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

[2/] Wood Energy Forester, California Department of Forestry, 1416 Ninth Street, Sacramento, California 95814.

[3/] Bolsinger, Charles L., Oaks in California's Commercial Forests...Volume, Stand Structure, and Defect Characteristics. (Included in this Proceedings.)

Average selling price Sacramento area (wholesale 1-12-79) = $90.00/cord. Using average selling price, profit equals $11.21/cord for cable and $18.80/cord (average) for tractor sales.

Stumpage Costs

It is assumed that the stumpage price is $20.00 per thousand boardfeet (MBF). It is also assumed that 1 cord equals 500 Bf Scribner Rule. Stumpage will then cost $10.00 per cord.

Harvesting Activities

Costs were adapted from the U.S. Forest Service Timber Appraisal Handbook 1977. These costs include all depreciation on equipment and labor but do not include costs for road construction. To adapt hardwood logging costs from softwood tables, it was decided that the total cost on the average should remain constant although item costs vary. i.e., compared to logging softwoods there is more limbing and lopping during hardwood logging but less bucking prior to skidding. We assumed in this case all additional costs of hardwood logging were cancelled by generally equal cost savings.

Processing Activities

Cutting - For this analysis it was assumed that a person could buck into firewood length 6 cords of wood in an 8-hour day. Using the USFS wage rates of $4.75-$7.30/hr. plus 32.60 percent benefits, the average labor cost equals $7.80/hr.

Splitting - Assuming the average cost of a commercial wood splitter of $2,500 at 10 percent interest plus maintenance costs of 15 percent of the original purchase cost, the splitting costs are:

1. Commercial wood splitter-(5-year life) original cost = $2,500 or $500/year.

   \+

   Interest at 10 percent over depreciation period of 5 years = $1,526.28

   \+

   Maintenance - (includes maintenance, labor, oil, gasoline, lubrication, and hydraulic fluids) = 15 percent of the original purchase price, price per year = $375/year

   Total cost per year = $1,180.26

Production - For this analysis we can assume 6 cords per day as an average and 240 working days per year
= 6 cords/day x 240 days = 1,440 cords/year

$$\text{cost per cord} = \frac{\$1,180.26}{1,440} = \$.82/\text{cord}$$

2. Labor

   As before, labor at $7.80/hr. x 8 hrs./day x 240 days/year gives a total yearly costs = $14,976

   and $\frac{\$14,976}{1,440}$ = $10.40 per cord

   Total splitting costs =
   $.82/cord for equipment
   $10.40/cord for labor
   = $11.22/cord

Loading - At loading production of 20 seasoned cords (stacked in semi-trailer) per day (2 persons), costs equal.
$7.80/hr. x 8 hrs./day x 2 persons
= $124.80/day or
$6.24 per cord

The total processing costs for cutting, splitting, and loading = $27.86/cord.

Trucking Costs

Trucking costs for different road conditions are given in Table 2.

Table 2--Trucking costs - Average cost per cord mile [1/]

Cost Haul Class	Total Haul Over Private or USFS Roads: up to 10 mi.	10 to 30 mi.	30 to 60 mi.	
I	.210	.125	.081	
II	.262	.167	.108	
III	.314	.226	.146	
IV	.420	.292	.189	
V	.630	.441	.285	
VI	.947	---	---	
Cost Haul Class	**Partial or Total Haul Over State or County Roads: up to 10 mi.**	**10 to 30 mi.**	**30 to 60 mi.**	**over 60 mi.**
I	.319	.164	.106	.065
II	.346	.208	.134	.077
III	.426	.268	.173	.099
IV	.507	.329	.213	.122
V	.774	.502	.324	.185
VI	1.117	---	---	---

[1/] Adapted from U. S. Forest Service Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977) using 1 cord = 500 Bf Scribner.

Cost per cord mile average haul includes compensation insurance, social security, other insurance and taxes and depreciation, but not road construction, road maintenance or reloading.

Cost Haul Class I:

Main highways, two or more lanes wide, cement or bituminous concrete surface, excellent alignment and grades not to exceed six percent. Average truck speed approximately 35 miles per hour. Reduce classification to II for sections of adverse grade over four percent.

Cost Haul Class II:

Secondary highways, 2 lane - combined effect of width surface, alignment and grade not so favorable as in I for high speeds. Average truck speed approximately 30 miles per hour. Reduce classification to III for sections of adverse grade four percent to six percent and to IV for sections over six percent adverse.

Cost Haul Class III:

County roads and Forest Service high-standard utilization *-road - -* well-maintained oiled gravel or earth surface - two lane or wide single lane with intervisible turnouts - good alignment (80 feet radius curves) - grades not exceeding eight percent. Truck speed approximately 20 miles per hour. Reduce classification to IV for sections of adverse grade six percent to eight percent and to V for over eight percent.

Cost Haul Class IV:

Forest Service medium-standard truck trails, single lanes with turnouts not always intervisible - fair gravel or earth surface - broken grades up to 10 percent. Truck speed approximately 15 miles per hour. Reduce classification to V for sections of adverse grade over eight percent.

Cost Haul Class V:

Forest Service low-standard truck trails, single lane with inadequate turnouts, unmaintained earth surface - sharp curvature (40 feet radius) - numerous grades up to 12 percent. Truck speed approximately 10 miles per hour.

Cost Haul Class VI:

Poor, steep, crooked roads nearly impassable for logging trucks, single track roads for one way loaded traffic should be considered as two-lane roads.

For illustrative purposes we shall assume:

1. Haul distance = 100 miles round trip.
2. Payload = 50,000 lbs. or 16 cords.
3. Predominantly haul Class III roads on State and county roads.

Trucking costs using USFS table would equal:

10 mi. @ \$.426 x 16 cords =	\$ 68.16
20 mi. @ \$.268 x 16 cords =	\$ 85.76
30 mi. @ \$.173 x 16 cords =	\$ 83.04
40 mi. @ \$.099 x 16 cords =	\$ 63.36
	\$ 300.32/trip
	or \$ 18.77/cord

General Overhead

General overhead figures include scaling but not road construction costs. Adapted from U.S.F.S. Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977).

Total Cost

Total cost figures include equipment depreciation and labor, but do not include costs for road construction and maintenance.

OAK FUELWOOD FOR COMMERCIAL ENERGY PRODUCTION

Anticipating rapidly increasing prices, many sawmills have begun to use more wood chips as boiler fuel to offset higher energy costs and uncertain and interruptable supplies of energy. In fact, currently in California there are 58 lumber mills in 24 counties using wood for on-site production of process steam for operating lumber dry kilns. In addition, the generating capacity of these mills amounts to about 120 megawatts, with an additional 160 megawatts being planned or constructed (See appendix 1). The economic analysis in this example takes the same oak stumpage and working location as in the first example and looks at utilizing it as boiler fuel at an adjacent mill.

For illustrative purposes we let the haul distance be 75 miles round-trip with a 25 ton payload. Interestingly, from actual in-woods chipping performed by the California Department of Forestry, it was determined that possibly the most effective and efficient means of reducing the logs to boiler fuel was to transport this material in log form to the mill where it is put through existing hogging equipment. By processing the logs in this way, the large cost and raw size constraints inherent in using an in-woods chipper, are eliminated. This analysis uses green tons or 50 percent moisture content on a wet basis. Seasoning of wood prior to combustion, reducing moisture content and thus increasing boiler efficiency, may be desirable in this case. Finally, as compared to the first example, this case involves more mechanization and incurs greater capital investment.

Table 3--Average costs per ton of producing heat for steam and/or electricity.*

Cost Factor	West Sierra & Coast Range		Eastside Sierra
	Tractor	Cable	Tractor
Stumpage	$ 3.80	$ 3.80	$ 3.80
Harvesting Activities			
Fall	.60	.60	.54
Limb	.30	.30	.27
Buck	.60	.60	.54
Lop	.08	.08	.07
Skid	2.92	5.35	2.63
Load	1.03	1.88	.93
	$ 5.53	$ 8.81	$ 4.99
Trucking	$ 6.30	$ 6.30	$ 6.30
Unloading & Handling	$ 1.00	$ 1.00	$ 1.00
Hogging	$ 1.50	$ 1.50	$ 1.50
Conversion to Btu's	$ 1.29	$ 1.29	$ 1.29
General Overhead	$ 1.48	$ 1.48	$ 1.48
Total Costs	$ 20.90	$ 24.18	$ 20.22
Equivalent Heat Value = $21.21/ton.			

* See text for cost assumptions.

Using Equivalent Heat Value of $21.21/ton, net economic benefits equal= $2.97/ton for cable and $.35/ton (average) for tractor sales.

Stumpage

Again it is assumed that the stumpage price is $20.00 per thousand board feet (MBF). It is also assumed that there are approximately 5.26 green tons per thousand board feet resulting in a stumpage cost of $3.80/green ton.

Harvesting Activities

Costs were adapted from the U. S. Forest Service Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977) using cord weight of 5,270 pounds (green wt.) and 1 cord equaling 500 board feet Scribner Scale. All costs are included except road construction.

Trucking Costs

Trucking costs, adapted from the U. S. Forest Service Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977), are given in Table 4.

Table 4--Trucking cost per ton mile.[1]

Total Haul Over Private or USFS Roads			
Cost Haul Class	up to 10 mi.	10 to 30 mi.	30 to 60 mi.
I	.08	.05	.03
II	.10	.06	.04
III	.12	.08	.06
IV	.16	.11	.07
V	.24	.17	.11
VI	.36	--	--

Partial or Total Haul Over State or County Roads				
Cost Haul Class	up to 10 mi.	10 to 30 mi.	30 to 60 mi.	over 60 mi.
I	.12	.06	.04	.02
II	.13	.08	.05	.03
III	.16	.10	.07	.04
IV	.19	.12	.08	.05
V	.29	.19	.12	.07
VI	.42	--	--	--

[1]Adapted from U. S. Forest Service Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977).

Cost per ton mile average haul, includes compensation insurance, social security, other insurance and taxes and depreciation, but do not include road construction, road maintenance or reloading.

For illustrative purposes we assumed:

1. 75 mile haul distance - round trip.
2. 25 ton payload
3. Haul class III on State and county roads.

In this **case** - trucking costs would equal:

10 mi. x 25 tons x \$.16/tm = \$40.00
20 mi. x 25 tons x \$.10/tm = \$50.00
30 mi. x 25 tons x \$.07/tm = \$52.50
15 mi. x 25 tons x \$.04/tm = \$15.00
Total \$157.50

$$\frac{\$157.50}{25\text{ tons}} = \$6.30/\text{ton}$$

Unloading and Handling Costs

Actual cost of unloading logging trucks and transporting material to hogging equipment at Michigan-California Lumber Company, Camino, California.

Hogging of Boiler Fuel

Actual cost of hogging woody material at Michigan-California Lumber Company, Camino, California. Includes costs of hogging and transportation of hog fuel to boiler.

Conversion Costs

Conversion to Btu's - using actual cost of conversion of \$0.217/million Btu @ 50 percent moisture content (Michigan-California Lumber Co., Camino, California) - and assuming 4,250 Btu/lb. @ 50 percent moisture content and boiler efficiency of 70 percent. Net useful energy = 4.250 Btu/lb. x .70 = 2,975 Btu/lb. or 5.95 mm Btu/ton. Cost per ton = 5.95 mm Btu/ton x \$0.217/mm Btu = \$1.29/ton at 50 percent moisture content.

Overhead Costs

General overhead figures include scaling but not road construction costs. Adapted from U.S.F.S. Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977).

Total Cost

Total cost figures include equipment depreciation and labor but do not include costs for road construction and maintenance. Adapted from U.S.F.S. Timber Appraisal Handbook (1977).

Equivalent Heat Value

The equivalent Heat Value was calculated from the USDA Forest Service Fuel Value Calculator using actual September 1978 #6 Fuel Oil Value of \$20.01 and assuming a six percent increase to April, 1979 equaling \$21.21.

CONCLUSION

The economic analysis of utilizing California oak for private consumption as well as commercial energy production indicates that in each case the value of each product produced either meets or exceeds its production cost.

LITERATURE CITED

U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Timber Sale Preparation and Appraisal Handbook - FSH2 - 2425 - R5, (1977).

U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Fuel Value Calculator, Developed by A.B. Curtis, Jr. Revised February, 1978.

APPENDIX

Present Wood Derived Power Capacity

A significant amount of energy is already being generated from industrial wood waste. Fifty-eight mills in 24 counties are using wood for power generation in one form or another. Most of the 2,606,700 tons of wood waste being used each year is used for generating steam, either to operate lumber dry kilns or for other process steam uses.

Electricity generation capacity amounts to 123.5 megawatts, with an additional 160 megawatts being constructed or planned. An additional 3 million tons of wood waste is presently being disposed of by incineration or by burial in landfills. Much of this additional residue volume had previously been directed into the pulp market. That market is presently oversupplied and depressed.

A detailed tabulation of wood industries creating and/or using wood waste for power has been compiled by the Solid Waste Management Board, California Department of Forestry, and the California Energy Commission. It is reprinted here.
It is reprinted here as Appendix 1.

WOOD FUELED BOILER LOCATIONS
COMPILED BY STATE SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT BOARD

County	Company Name & Plant Type	Location	Lum. Prod. (10^6/YR 1976)	WW Fuel (W)ood (B)ark	Ind. Boiler Capacities (10^6 Btu/HR)	Total Steam Prod. Cap. (10^3 T/YR)	Total WW Used (10^3 T/YR)	Max. Fuel Boiler Inpt. (T/HR)	Elec. Gen. (MW) (P)roposed (E)xisting
AMADOR									
	Am. Forest Prod.	Martell		WB	17,68	85	57.4	10.7	5 (P)
	SAW		66.7 bf						
	PAR		85 [e] ft^2						
	SPL		68.3[a] ft^2						
	BAR		-						
	P & M Lumber	Pioneer							
	SAW		50 bf						
	BAR		-						
BUTTE	Cal Oak Lumber (SAW)	Oroville	5.5 bf						
	Diamond Int'l (SAW)	Oroville	29 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac	Oroville		W	120	120	26.9	5.6	30-40 (P)
	SAW		200 bf						
	HAR		140[b] ft^2						
	Wickes Forest Ind. (BAR)	Oroville	-						
	Diamond Int'l (RMN)	Chico	-	W	(11)	(11)	9.6	1.1	
CALAVERAS									
	Snider Lumber (SAW)	Wallace	22 bf						
	Brunswick Timber (SAW)	San Andreas	1.9 bf						
CONTRA COSTA									
	Fibreboard	Antioch	pulp						
DEL NORTE									
	Simonson Lumber (SAW)	Smith River	53.5 bf	WB	17	17	9.0	1.0	8 (P)
	McNamara & Peepe Lum. (SAW)	Crescent City	28.8 bf						
	Miller Redwood	Crescent City							
	SAW		42.3 bf						
	SVM		3.7[b] ft^2						
	Northcrest (SAW)	Crescent City	16 bf						
	Simpson Timber	Klamath	20.5 bf						
	Hambro Forest Prod. (PAR)	Crescent City	24.9[e] ft^2	W	33	33	2.5	1.8	
	Westbrook (PLY)	Crescent City							
EL DORADO									
	Golden State Bldg. Prod.	Shingle Springs							
	SAW		36.6 bf						
	SVM		15 bf						
	Placerville Lumber	Placerville			(15)	(15)	19.4	(2.9)	
	SAW		17 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Mich-Cal Lumber	Camino		WB	72,72,144	288	101.4	18	
	SAW		53.4 bf						
	BAR		-						
FRESNO									
	Wickes Forest Ind. (SAW)	Auberry	48.9 bf						
	Am. Forest Prod. (SAW)	Dinkey Creek	28 bf						
	Wickes Forest Ind. (SAW)	Fresno	15 bf						
GLENN									
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Elk Creek	50 bf	WB	13	13	8.7	(2.2)	
HUMBOLDT									
	Arcata Redwood (SAW)	Orick	61.2 bf						
	Cal-Pacific (SAW)	Orick	31 bf						
	Cal-Pacific (SAW)	Hoopa	27 bf						
	Masonite	Hoopa							
	SAW		32.6 bf						
	SVM		75[b] ft^2						
	Cal-Pacific	Blue Lake	-						
	McIntosh Lumber (SAW)	Blue Lake	20.9 bf						
	Simpson Timber (SAW)	Korbel	98 bf	W	24	24	8.6	1.3	20 (P)
	McNamara & Peepe Lum. (SAW)	Arcata	41.8 bf	WB	15	15	1.8	0.9	
	Sierra-Pac	Arcata							
	SAW		41.8 bf						
	SPL								
	Simpson Timber (PLY)	Arcata	120[a] ft^2	WB	91,102	193	37.1	10.8	
	Trend Lumber (SAW)	Arcata	69.3 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac	Samoa		WB	55,340,235,320	950	171.5	50.2	42 (E)
	SAW		88 bf						
	SPL		125[a] ft^2						
	Schmidbauer Lumber (SAW)	Eureka	(37) bf			80[c]			
	Crown-Simpson	Fairhaven	pulp	WB	450	450	149.1	18.9	19 (E) 20-40 (P)
	Humboldt County	Eureka	-						
	Eel River Sawmills (SAW)	Fortuna	75 bf						
	Pacific Lumber (SAW)	Fortuna	30 bf						
	Halvorsen Lumber (RMN)	Alton	-						
	Carlotta Lumber (SAW)	Carlotta	27.6 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Carlotta	54 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Dinsmore	30 bf						
	Pacific Lumber	Scotia		WB	150,250,120, 120,120	760	143.0	42.2	22.5 (E)
	SAW		104 bf						
	SPL		-						
	Eel River Sawmills (SAW)	Redcrest	20.9 bf						
	Georgia-Pac (SAW)	Myers Flat	29 bf						

County	Company Name & Plant Type	Location	Lum. Prod. (10^6/YR 1976)	WW Fuel (W)ood (B)ark	Ind. Boiler Capacities (10^6 Btu/HR)	Total Steam Prod. Cap. (10^3 T/YR)	Total WW Used (10^3 T/YR)	Max. Fuel Boiler Inpt. (T/HR)	Elec. Gen. (P)roposed (E)xisting
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Alderpoint	35 bf						
	Blue Ox Lumber (SAW)	Eureka	0.8 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Big Lagoon	33 bf						
	Simpson Timber (SPL)	Fairhaven		WB	62,62	124	34.2	6.8	
	Louisiana-Pac (PAR)	Arcata	184[e] ft^2	WB	(17)	17	13.9	1.7	
	Twin Harbor (HAR)	Dinsmore	25 ft^2						
	Twin Parks (SAW)	Arcata	7.8 bf						
	Dimmick Forest (BAR)	Garberville	-						
KERN									
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Inyokern	50 bf	WB	22	22	5.2	1.7	
LASSEN									
	Main Ind. (SAW)	Beiber	21 bf						9 (P)
	Trin-CO Forest (SAW)	Little Valley	6 bf						
	Coin Lumber	Susanville		WB	40	40	10.2	(1.8)	3 (P)
	SAW		39.6 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Sierra-Pac	Susanville		WB	26,26,26, 26,60	164	136.8	(8.0)	4-10 (E)
	SAW		96 bf						
	BAR								(?)
LOS ANGELES									
	Birchwood of LA (HPL)	Los Angeles	4[f] ft^2						
	Sunset Plywood (HPL)	Los Angeles							
	Plywood Prod. (HPL)	Santa Fe Springs							
	General Veneer Mfg.	South Gate							
	SPL								
	HVM								
	Plywood Mfg. of Calif.	Torrance							
	SPL		500[a] ft^2						
	HPL		6.5 ft^2						
MADERA									
	AM. Forest Prod. (SAW)	Oakhurst	30 bf						
	Yancey Lumber (SAW)	Madera	22 bf						
	Am. Forest Prod. (SAW)	North Fork	36.5 bf	WB	20	20	10.1	1.5	
	Norby Lumber (SAW)	North Fork	9.4 bf						
	Carney & Co. (BAR)	Madera	-						
MARIPOSA									
	Carter's Sawmill (SAW)	Mariposa	.004 bf						
MENDOCINO									
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Covelo	35 bf	WB	19,19,19	57	22.7	3.2	
	Philo Lumber (SAW)	Laytonville	26 bf						
	Hardwood Products (SAW)	Branscomb	48 bf						
	Hardwood Products (SAW)	Willits	29.4 bf						
	Louisiana-PAC (SAW)	Willits	40 bf						
	Little Lake Ind. (RMN)	Willits	-	W	23	23	(21.4)	1.2	
	Georgia-Pac (SAW)	Ft. Bragg	116 bf	WB	210,210,43, 43	506	165.0	29.6	15 (E)
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Ft. Bragg	40 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Potter Valley	35 bf	WB	66	66	8.4	0.9	
	Hamson Lumber (SAW)	Redwood Valley	(9.3)bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Capella	13.2 bf[c]						
	Masonite (SAW)	Capella	71 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac	Ukiah		W	68	68	21.6	2.7	
	SAW		50 bf						
	PAR								
	Philo Lumber (SAW)	Philo	23 bf						
	Masonite	Ukiah		WB	115,115,235	465	21.4	3.2	
MODOC									
	Suprise Valley Lumber(SAW)	Cedarville	6 bf						
	Calandor Pine (SAW)	Alturas	22 bf	WB	26,5,5	36	25.0	3.5	
	Edgerton Lumber (SAW)	Adin	8 bf						
NEVADA									
	Sierra Mr. Mills (SAW)	N. San Juan	34 bf	W	25,25	50[d]	7.0	3.5	
	Erickson Lumber (SAW)	N. San Juan	5.3 bf						
	Bear River Lumber	Grass Valley							
	SAW		32.7 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Yuba River Lumber (SAW)	Grass Valley	(28) bf						
	Douglas Lumber (SAW) (Fibreboard)	Truckee	44.2 bf	WB	55,93	148	67.2	10	
ORANGE									
	Shelburne Ind. (HPL)	Santa Ana	0.2[a] ft^2						
PLACER									
	Am. Forest Prod. (SAW)	Foresthill	38 bf	WB	40,23	63	23.7	3.9	
	Am. Forest Prod. (SAW)	Foresthill	32 bf						
	Fibreboard (PAR)	Rocklin	60[e] ft^2		65	65	30.0	2.5	5 (P)
	Mountain Milling (SAW)	Rocklin	(62) bf						
	Lausmann Lum. & Mold (SAW)	Loomis	28 bf						
	Brunswick Timber (RMN)	Auburn	-	W	38	38	17.2	2.4	

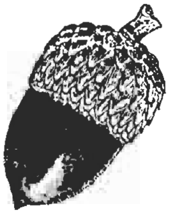
County	Company Name & Plant Type	Location	Lum. Prod. (10^6/YR 1976)	WW Fuel (W)ood (B)ark	Ind. Boiler Capacities (10^6 Btu/HR)	Total Steam Prod. Cap. (10^3 T/YR)	Total WW Used (10^3 T/YR)	Max. Fuel Boiler Inpt. (T/HR)	Elec. Gen. (P)roposed (E)xisting
PLUMAS									
	Collins Pine	Chester		WB	54,54,96	204	81.2	11.5	3 (E)
	SAW		75.6 bf						
	PAR		25[e] ft^2						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Greenville	25 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Crescent Mills	60 bf	WB	28	28	13.9	1.8	
	Sierra-Pac (SAW)	Quincy	36.9 bf		60	60	53.0	8.1	10 (P)
	Essex Lumber (SAW)	Quincy	(25) bf						
	Sierra-Pac (SAW)	Sloat	34.4 bf						
SACRAMENTO									
	Black Diamond (SAW)	Sacramento	47.2 bf						
SAN BERNARDINO									
	Golden Bear Forest Prod.	Redlands							
	SAW		18 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Twin Peaks Timber Prod. (SAW)	Twin Peaks	20 bf						
SAN DIEGO									
	Solana Lumber (SAW)	Solana Beach	(6.2) bf						
SAN JOAQUIN									
	Cal Cedar Prod. (RMN)	Stockton	-		41	41	7.4	1.3	
	Pacific Paperboard	Stockton		paper					
SANTA CRUZ									
	Big Creek Lumber	Davenport							
	SAW		16 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Holmes Lumber (SAW)	Scotts Valley	8 bf						
SHASTA									
	Fibreboard	Burney		WB	39,39	78	44	5.0	
	SAW		40 bf						
	HPL		72[f] ft^2						
	Publisher's Forest (SAW)	Burney	98.5 bf	WB	8,8,8,133	157	111	13.3	
	Calavaras Cement (CEM)	Project City	-				25		
	Champion Int'l	Anderson		WB	122,76,82	280	163.0	16.2	
	SVM		120[a] ft^2						
	SAW		69 bf						
	Sierra-Pac (SAW)	Central Valley	30 bf	WB	38	38	39.4	6.0	
	Collier Lumber (SAW)	Redding	12 bf						
	Hudson Lumber (SAW)	Anderson	30 bf						
	Kimberly-Clark	Anderson		WB	16,16,16, 16,16	80	120.8	11.5	2-4 (E)
	SAW		65 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Paul Bunyan Lumber	Anderson		WB	13	13	27.0	17.4	
	SAW		40.4 bf.						
	BAR		-						
SIERRA									
	Holstrom Lumber (SAW)	Sattley	8.2 bf						
	Sierra-Pac (SAW) ?	Loyalton	50 bf[c]		39	39	26	4.2	
SISKIYOU									
	SWF Plywood	Happy Camp			40	40	36	(5.5)	
	SVM		1.0[a] ft^2						
	SAW		60.7 bf						
	Hi-Ridge Lumber (SAW)	Yreka	30.5 bf						
	Pine Mountain (SAW)	Yreka	28 bf						
	Int'l Paper	Weed			300	28.2	2.7		4.5 (E)
	SAW		79 bf						
	SVM		46[b] ft^2						
	Cooper's Mill	Mt. Shasta							
	SAW		27 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Kimberly-Clark (SAW)	Mt. Shasta	61.6 bf						
	U.S. Plywood (Champion)SAW	McCloud	120 bf	WB	25,25,38,38	126	112	13	3.5 (E)
SONOMA									
	Preston Lumber (SAW)	Cloverdale							
	G & R Lumber (SAW)	Cloverdale							
	Masonite (SAW)	Cloverdale	104.5 bf						
	Berry's Sawmill	Cazadero							
	SAW		6.8 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Calico Hardwoods (SAW)	Windsor	0.1 bf						
	Chenoweth Lumber (SAW)	Bodega	10 bf[c]						
	Sonoma Pacific (SAW)	Schellville	10 bf						
	Louisiana-Pac (RMN)	Cloverdale	-	W	9.3	(9.3)	6.1	(0.9)	
	Cloverdale Prod.	Cloverdale							
	SVM		0.6[b] ft^2						
	SPL		30[a] ft^2						

County	Company Name & Plant Type	Location	Lum. Prod. (10^6/YR 1976)	WW Fuel (W)ood (B)ark	Ind. Boiler Capacities (10^6 Btu/HR)	Total Steam Prod. Cap. (10^3 T/YR)	Total WW Used (10^3 T/YR)	Max. Fuel Boiler Inpt. (T/HR)	Elec. Gen. (MW) (P)roposed (E)xisting
TEHAMA									
	Diamond Int'l	Red Bluff		WB	78,78,78,78	312	170.0	22.3	
	SAW		111 bf						
	SPL		70^a ft^2						
	Louisiana-Pac (SAW)	Red Bluff	88 bf	W	37	37	7.5	2.3	
	Crane Mills	Paskenta		W	18	18	8.8	1.0	
	SAW		25 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Harris-Crestline (SAW)	Corning	13 bf						
TRINITY									
	SWF Plywood (SAW)	Burnt Ranch	32.7 bf	WB	8,16	24	6.3	1.2	
	SWF Plywood	Salver							
	SAW		4.4 bf^c						
	SVM		117^b ft						
	Cal-Pacific (SAW)	Weaverville	20 bf						
	Hyampom Lumber (SAW)	Hyampom	25 bf						
	Sierra-Pacific (SAW)	Hayfork	69.4 bf	W	12,13	25	6.9	1.6	
	Kimberly Clark (SAW)	Wildwood	29 bf^c						
	Brooking's Plywood (PLY)	Salyer			6,8,8	22	2.1	0.5	
TULARE									
	Wickes Forest Prod.	Dinuba							
	SAW		47 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Am. Forest Prod. (SAW)	Johnsondale	21 bf						
	Sierra Pacific	Terra Bella							
	SAW		61.6 bf						
	BAR		-						
TUOLOMNE									
	Halter & Co. (SAW)	Sonora	(15.5) bf						
	Snider Lumber Prod.	Chinese Camp							
	SAW		16.5 bf						
	BAR		-						
	Fibreboard	Keystone	37 bf						
	Fibreboard	Standard		W	130,86	216	104.8	15.7	6-20 (P)
	SAW		78 bf						
	SPL		65.6^aft^2						
	SVM								
	BAR								
	Whitt Mfg.	Sonora	(7.8)bf						
YUBA									
	Diamond Int'l (SAW)	Marysville	40 bf	W	60	60	20.8	(4.1)	
	Erickson Lumber (SAW)	Marysville	39 bf	W	(23)	(23)	24.0	(1.8)	
	Sierra Mt. Mills (SAW)	Comptonville	15 bf						
TOTAL							2,606.7		

Assumptions:
a 3/8" basis
b 1/8" basis
c 1975
d Jeffrey's data
e 3/4" basis
f 1/4" basis

( ) Calculated value based upon:
1. 1 LB wood produces 5 LB steam
2. Boiler operation of 365 days/year 24 hours/day
3. Actual steam production is approx. 75% of capacity
4. Plant production for 310 days/year

Plant Types:
SAW sawmill
PAR particleboard plant
SPL softwood plywood plant
HAR hardwood plant
SVM softwood veneer mill
BAR bark plant
PLY plywood plant
RMN remanufacturing
CEM cement plant
HPL hardwood plywood plant



Quercus kelloggii

Observations on Wildlife Abundance in Several California Black Oak Habitats in Northern California[1]

Steven J. Kerns[2/]

Abstract: To determine the value of oaks to wildlife, five California black oak habitats and two "edge" areas were evaluated from April to June 1977 on the Shasta-Trinity National Forest. In each, sampling techniques included: a 3-acre bird transect, a 16-acre small mammal trapping area utilizing 9 Havahart traps, a small-rodent trapline with 20 Havahart traps, one 660 foot-long deer-elk transect, and one bait station designed to obtain fur samples. Mature oaks with scattered conifers and a moderately heavy understory of shrubs and grasses ranked highest for number of species and abundance of birds, rodents, deer, and elk. Next in importance was the edge between the above type and young oak stands, followed by the edge between mature oaks and conifers.

My first involvement with oaks came in 1977 when a forester asked, "How valuable are California black oaks to wildlife?" A moment later he stated, "sixty thousand acres of black oak on the Shasta-Trinity National Forest are currently categorized as understocked backlog, and thus are subject to conversion to conifers." Because much of this land was suspected of being prime wildlife area, he got my immediate attention.

Soon after his pronouncement, this forester requested input from wildlife biologists to the potential conversion program. The biologists' response was to evaluate which California black oak habitats were most beneficial to a wide range of wildlife species. Between April and June 1977 a 267-acre site representing a typical conversion area became a wildlife observation area. Within it, National Forest and California Department of Fish and Game Wildlife Biologists identified five oak habitats and two transition or "edge" areas utilized by wildlife.[3/]

THE STUDY

This area is located on the east fork of Squaw Creek, which is a major tributary of the Sacramento River. Elevations range from 2,000 to 2,700 feet. Aspect is basically southwest with an average slope of 25 percent. One main draw and several smaller draws make up the drainage. Three permanent water seeps are located within one draw,with the others having only intermittent flows. Although not quantified, some acorns were produced by California black oak in the fall of 1976. At the time of sampling in the study area, all but inviable acorns had disappeared. Newly dug holes and recently broken acorn shells on the ground indicated, however, that viable acorns remained, either buried or hidden under leaves.

Temperatures in the area range from 105 degrees F. in the summers to 15 degrees F. in the winters. Precipitation ranges between 35 and 60 inches each year.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management and Utilization of California Oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.

2/ Wildlife Biologist, Shasta-Trinity National Forest, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Redding, California.

3/ James Gordon, USFS, Modoc National Forest, Alturas, California,and Charles Graves, California Department of Fish and Game, Chico, California, aided in this portion of the study.

Vegetation is highly variable in the area. Large pure stands of any single species are rare. Most of the area is composed of small stands or groups of conifers and oaks. Within each black oak group, age generally is constant. This is because nearly all stands are of sprout origin (McDonald 1969). A major disturbance in the past killed the trees to groundline from where they sprouted to form the trees of today. As disturbance tends to be frequent in this elevation zone, the vegetation is made up of a mosaic of species and age classes.[4/] Often this pattern is indicative of differences in soils, old fire patterns, or local snow storms which cause severe breakage.

An inventory of the observation (study) area was:

Category	Acres	Percent
Unproductive forest land	69	26
Stocked commercial forest land	62	23
Land with commercial size black oak	44	17
Non-stocked commercial forest land	92	34
	267	100

Overall, California black oak comprises about 48 percent of the overstory canopy, with the remainder occupied by conifers, other hardwoods, woody shrubs, and rock outcrops. In addition to the even-aged trees, California black oak stands often contain seedlings and seedling-sprouts and occasionally an old monarch 250 to 350 years old.

Defining and recognizing groups of vegetation proved to be difficult, but eventually vegetational groups of specific stand structure and species composition were identified. These were characterized further by understory plant species. Further refinement of the groupings led to five broad but recognizably different habitats and two major transition or "edge" areas. These were then keyed to specific locations on the ground and described as mature oak, mature conifer-decandent oak, mixed oak-conifer, young oak, mature oak-conifer, mature oak-conifer edge, and mature oak-young oak edge.

4/ McDonald, Philip M. California black oak. In Forest Cover Types of North America. Society of American Foresters. Revised description 1979.

Mature Oak

This area was located on a south aspect with slopes of 10 to 90 percent. The overstory was mature California black oak (80- to 200-years old) which comprised 90 percent of the crown canopy. A few scattered Douglas-firs and ponderosa pines and several snags added variability to the overstory. Understory vegetation consisted of deerbrush, perennial grasses, and a few herbaceous species (fig. 1).

Figure 1--Heavy understory vegetation, well developed crowns and good mast production typify a mature oak stand.

Mature Conifer-Decandent Oak

In this habitat, the overstory was 80 percent with a few remnant overmature oaks (fig. 2). The understory consisted of 80 percent duff and litter, and 20 percent shade-tolerant shrubs such as poison oak, California hazelnut, and California storax.

Figure 2--Only a few decadent oaks remain in the mature conifer stand.

Mixed Oak-Conifer

Twenty percent of this area was rock outcrops and scattered patches of brush and grass. Cover on the remaining 80 percent consisted of small stands of canyon like oak, California black oak, ponderosa pine, and shrub Oregon white oak. In places the understory was extremely heavy with several grasses, deerbrush, shrub Oregon white oak, bigleaf maple, poison oak, and other shrubs being present (fig. 3).

Figure 3--A variable blend of tree and shrub hardwoods, other woody shrubs, and conifers make up the mixed oak-conifer habitat.

Young Oak

Here California black oak, 80- to 100-years old, comprised 90 percent of the overstory. A few small poison oaks and other lesser vegetation were scattered in the understory (fig. 4). The study area consisted of a 16-acre block located on a north-south bearing.

Figure 4--Young oak stands are characterized by a relatively closed canopy with little understory vegetation.

Mature Oak-Conifer

This area was located on a north-south ridge with a south aspect. It consisted of about 25 acres of ponderosa pine and California black oak. Each of these species contributed about equally to canopy cover (fig. 5). The sparse understory of shrubs and grasses, however, was more typical of that found under pines.

Mature Oak-Conifer Edge

California black oak and conifers sometimes occupy different but predictable portions of the landscape. The oak is found on hotter west and south aspects and where the site is of lower quality. Consequently, California black oak will occupy upper slopes and ridgetops with conifers below. Where the mature oaks and conifers meet, a narrow edge habitat is created which often is only 50- to 100-feet wide. Less common, but wider edge occurs when groups of conifers and oaks intermingle, or when they gradually blend together. In this habitat, grasses, California hazelnut, bigleaf maple, and various other shrubs and herbaceous plants grow under an overstory of mature oaks and conifers.

Figure 5--A 50-50 blend of mature California black oaks and conifers is common along the Sacramento River north of Lake Shasta.

Mature Oak-Young Oak Edge

This edge, although narrow, also creates a specific habitat for wildlife. Under the more open stand of mature oaks, the understory is well developed; under the dense young stand, it becomes sparse. Many species of plants are found in this habitat, including a few unique to it.

Within each habitat type, wildlife biologists employed five sampling techniques:

Bird Transects - Each consisted of three acres and 21 monitoring stations. The transect was "read" by spending three minutes at each station and noting the species and location of all birds seen or heard. Transects were visited several times each week from April through June. Birds seen were tallied and plotted on a scaled diagram of the transect. If a bird was consistently observed in a given area, that area was considered as a breeding territory. Next, locations also were noted if they were within the transect boundaries.

Squirrel Traps - Each trapping site consisted of a 16-acre area. This size was recommended by a California Department of Fish and Game biologist as being sufficient to obtain needed information. Nine wire-mesh Havahart traps were systematically located in each. They were baited with walnuts for two weeks before actual trapping to give the squirrels sufficient time to become accustomed to the traps and attracted to the bait. Sampling was done 4 days per week during the study.

Rodent Trap Lines - Each of these lines consisted of 20 Sherman live traps placed at 40-foot intervals. Each line was located in the middle of each bird transect. Peanut butter and oatmeal was the bait. Animals caught, including deer mice, California meadow mice, wood rats, and voles, were recorded, toe clipped, and released.

Deer-Elk Transects - These transects followed that recommended in the U.S. Forest Service Range Analysis Handbook. Ten sampling points were installed along transects at 66-foot intervals and monitored weekly. At each, all elk and deer pellet groups were counted, and all vegetation according to condition, trend, and composition was noted within a 70.5 inch radius. This radius equals 1/400 acre, and with ten plots amounts to 1/40 acre sampled. Collected data gave number of plants and animal-days of use in each acre of sampled habitat.

Fur (Bait) Stations - Six bait stations were hung from tree branches randomly located in different cover types. Each station consisted of salmon wrapped in a burlap sack suspended from a tree limb by wire. Barbed wire was wrapped around the branch on which the bait was hung. Thus fur-bearing "raiders" had to go across the barbed wire to reach the bait.

Because of the preliminary nature of the study and because of budgetary limitations, replications of study areas were not possible. The findings that follow are based on a combination of data from the sampling techniques as well as visual observations.

RESULTS

In this study mature California black oak stands proved to be the most valuable habitat for wildlife. The large, tall trees with well-developed crowns frequently yield large numbers of acorns which are a prime food source for many species of wildlife. The associated understory vegetation also seems to be an important element contributing to the value of the habitat. Where the understory is abundant, there is a large number of wildlife species. Another reason is vertical edge (that created by the stratification of vegetation between the forest floor and the forest canopy). Such edge creates additional niches especially for birds and squirrels (Leopold 1933). This, coupled with a variety of understory plant species and their different berries, seeds, stems, and leaves, combined to create desirable wildlife habitat. Shelter from predators and storms, and suitable microhabitat for resting and breeding are additional reasons. The mature California black oak habitat had the highest use by deer, elk, birds, and small mammals.

The second most important oak habitat for wildlife is the edge between mature oak stands and young oak stands. Here it is the variety in environment and foodstuffs that is important. Mature oaks give openness and hence warmer temperatures, longer visual distances, more plentiful acorns, and a large variety of fruits and greenery from the abundant understory vegetation. Younger oaks tend to form more dense stands and have tight narrow crowns with little space between them. Only a small amount of sunlight is able to penetrate into these dense stands and the environment so formed is cooler and darker than that of the mature oaks. The lower vegetation on the forest floor tends to be sparse and poorly developed. Few acorns or fruits are formed in this environment. In intermediate environments, foodstuffs from the more open and more closed environments are available, although to a lesser degree, as well as foodstuffs from different numbers and perhaps different species unique to the intermediate environment. Bird utilization within the mature oak-young oak edge was nearly the same as in mature stands, but rodent, squirrel, deer, and elk abundance declined.

The third most important habitat is the edge between mature oaks and conifers. This edge can be very sharp with a stand of oaks abruptly ending and a stand of conifers beginning. Often it can be an intermingling of groups, and sometimes even a gentle blending of conifers and hardwoods.

Where the transition is abrupt, the edge effect is found within a very narrow zone but it receives heavy usage as animals move between conifers and oaks. The intermingling of groups, or mosaic edge, is much wider, and within it the highest squirrel populations were observed. The reason seems to be that the combination of oaks and conifers provide excellent aerial pathways, as well as good opportunities for denning, feeding, and loafing. High use also was observed by avian species as well.

The fourth most important habitat is found where young oaks are the dominant cover. Here, the entire stand typically is quite dense, often with a closed canopy. Little sunlight reaches the forest floor, and understory vegetation is limited to scattered plants. This habitat is utilized heavily by birds but very little by small rodents, squirrels, deer, or elk.

The mature oak-mature conifer habitat in which the oak grows as single trees, clumps, or or groves generally is quite dense. Seed production from both conifers and oaks is high and tree seed, rather than seed from understory species, influences the kind and amount of wildlife. Bird and gray squirrel utilization is good within this area. In locales where sunlight penetrates to the forest floor, a few brush and grass species become established and are utilized by deer and small rodents.

The remainder of the habitats studied are used marginally by wildlife as a whole. The mixed oak-conifer assemblage is extremely variable. Large variation in site quality due to strong dissection of the land and a wide variety of slopes and aspects influence the amount and patterning of the vegetation. Shrub Oregon white oak provides a unique cover as it forms an almost impenetrable "jungle" to man or large animals. Acorn production of this shrub in the study area is unknown, but thought to be poor and infrequent. Most, but not all, of the oak trees are young in this area, and thus acorn production overall is low. Species of nearly all the wildlife evaluated in this study utilized this area to some degree. None, however, found it to be preferred habitat. In spite of the large diversity of environments, lack of overstory and understory foodstuffs could have been limiting.

As conifers mature and increasingly occupy the site, the oaks begin to fade from the landscape. In the mature conifer-decadent oak habitat, an abundance of dead wood is found along with a high amount of woodpecker activity. Because the understory tends to be sparse with little food available for wildlife, ground-dwelling creatures are infrequently observed.

Diversity in environment within a given habitat seems to increase use by wildlife. Thus overstory-understory combinations appear beneficial. A much more important factor, however, appears to govern wildlife abundance and use. And that is acorns. Large California black oaks with well developed crowns are consistently part of the three habitats in which the largest number and the most species of wildlife are observed. Indeed, the thought that "acorn production reigns supreme as the greatest contributor to the welfare of forest wildlife" (Shaw 1971) seems to be supported by this study.

Findings from this study, although preliminary, are the best available for the specific area, and have proved valuable for showing relative wildlife abundance in different oak-related habitats. They currently are being used to assess wildlife values on other possible conversion areas.

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Quercus agrifolia

Acorns—Food for Modern Man[1]

Jeanine A. Derby[2]

Abstract: Acorns, fruit of the oak, offer a nutritional potential which has long been overlooked. In bountiful years surplus acorns remain after wildlife needs are met and seed crops are accounted for. The surplus could serve as a supplement to human diets. Through sharing my own experiences with acorns as a food source, I hope to entice others to experiment.

We have learned at this symposium that the acorn is of nutritional value to wildlife. We also know that acorns provided the staple diet for indigenous cultures in California (Balls 1972, Bean and Saubel 1972). Therefore, we can assume a food value to modern man, even though precise nutritional data is meager. Acorns are reported to be high in magnesium, calcium and phosphorus (Crowhurst 1972). When compared to barley and wheat, acorns are slightly lower in carbohydrate and protein content but higher in fat and fiber content (Bean and Saubel 1972), and therefore have a higher caloric content per unit weight than grains. Acorns contain one disagreeable and potentially harmful ingredient, tannin, which has a bitter and astringent taste. Tannin, however, is easily leached out of the acorn.

Native Indian methods of grinding, leaching and drying acorn meal are well documented (Balls 1972, Bean and Saubel 1972). The traditional food product was an acorn pudding or mush, quite tasteless to modern palates. The preparation of acorns can be adapted to modern technology and the product, acorn meal, is quite versatile. To demonstrate, there are acorn cookies for you to sample after the program.

When acorns begin to fall, (usually in October), gather them as they drop from the trees. Float the acorns in water, discarding the floaters and keeping the sinkers. If the acorns will not be processed immediately, store them in a freezer. Cold storage halts the work of tiny larvae which are a natural part of the acorn ecosystem. Removing the outer leathery shell is the most tedious part of processing. Apply pressure with pliers, cracking only the outer shell, and then peel it away. Remove the brown skin from the nut if possible. If the skin clings tightly, submerge the shucked nuts in water for several hours, rolling them between the palms frequently. The skins will loosen and float to the surface. This skin is likely to be high in tannin content and the nuts will leach more rapidly if most of it is removed. The acorn nuts are next ground in a blender to desired fineness. Add nuts to the blender one cup at a time, with a few tablespoons of water. When several cups of acorn meal have accumulated, proceed with the leaching process.

Indians worked in bedrock mortars, ideally near a running stream. Acorns were submerged for leaching or water was poured through a finely woven basket containing the acorn meal. Searching through my house for the equivalent of a flowing stream, I turned to the plumbing system. A cloth bag of acorn meal was submerged in the toilet tank where each flushing renewed the fresh water flow and no water was wasted. Expect brown-colored water in the toilet bowl for a few days while the leaching progresses. When the water is clear, acorns can be removed from the tank and drained. The leaching process can be accelerated by pouring hot water frequently through acorns in a cloth lined colander. The key to any leaching method is to continue until water passing through the acorn meal is perfectly clear. The time will vary depending upon the year and the kind of acorns used.

1/ Presented at the Symposium on the Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks, Claremont, California, June 26-28, 1979.

2/ Forest Botanist, San Bernardino National Forest, Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, San Bernardino, California.

After leaching, the acorn meal must be drained well. It can be used immediately or dried and stored. Dry acorn meal on trays in a low oven (125° F) or leave them for a day or two in a gas oven with no heat other than the pilot light. Stir occasionally to hasten drying. Acorn meal can be sun dried but must be protected from birds and insects. After the meal is thoroughly dry, store it under refrigeration or in a freezer.

I have used several kinds of acorns successfully, including non-natives. *Quercus ilex* and *Q. suber* seem to have a higher tannin content than the native live oaks that I have tried. *Quercus agrifolia*, *Q. chrysolepis* and *Q. kelloggii* all seem equally good to my indiscriminate taste. Many sources report *Q. kelloggii* (California black oak) as a favored species among Southern California Indians.

I have substituted acorn meal for portions of the dry ingredients in breads, crackers and cookies. I find that substitution of acorn meal for up to one third of the flour called for in most recipes will not change the texture of the final product. Oatmeal cookie or muffin recipes are ideal for use with acorn meal. Just substitute acorns for one half of the oatmeal called for in the recipe. With a little experimentation, you too will find satisfaction and good nutrition from using acorns as a supplementary food source. Try it during years of plentiful harvest.

ACORN COOKIES

1 cup brown sugar	2 cups flour
2/3 cup shortening	1/2 tsp nutmeg
2 eggs	1 tsp cinnamon
1 cup buttermilk	1 tsp baking powder
1 tsp. vanilla	1 tsp soda
	1/2 tsp salt

stir in last: 1 cup "quick" oatmeal
1 cup acorn meal

Cream sugar, shortening and eggs. Stir in vanilla, add buttermilk alternately with dry ingredients. Mix well. Stir in oatmeal and acorn meal. Drop teaspoonfuls onto greased baking sheet. Bake 12 minutes at 375° F.

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Quercus lobata

Wood Products from California Oaks, Cal Oak Lumber Company Style[1]

Guy Hall and Richard Allen[2/]

Abstract: In 1965, Cal Oak Lumber Company, with $7,400 capitalization, began utilizing native California oaks as its basic raw material. The then-conventional sawmilling machinery and techniques proved inefficient, wasteful, and only moderately successful. This led to development of the mini-log and mini-mill concept which enabled the processing of a wide variety of hardwood logs, including those of small diameter and excessive crook. Higher utilization in woods and mill, and production of more high-grade material proved the efficacy of the concept. Wood products presently produced are high-grade lumber and pallets plus industrial timbers, sawdust for mulching, and bulk and prepackaged firewood. Cal Oak, as the largest hardwood manufacturer in California, has milled an estimated 70MM board feet of hardwood logs. This paper will primarily deal with the products manufactured from oak logs. Subjects deserving separate attention include hardwood lumber harvesting techniques and species characteristics.

Several California oaks recently have become new and important wood product resources. Development of this resource has been continuous since 1965, largely through the cooperative efforts of Cal Oak Lumber Company, the University of California Forest Products Laboratory, the U.S. Forest Service, and others. As is true with most pioneering efforts, the path is seldom smooth. Many companies, large and small, have previously attempted the development and marketing of western hardwood lumber products. These authors know of no long-term survivors of these numerous attempts except Cal Oak Lumber Company, which unlike the others, depends entirely upon western hardwoods, chiefly oaks, for its raw material base. Over the years, Cal Oak has learned to deal with the relatively high susceptibility of western hardwoods to various types of deterioration during processing. Some of the categories of deterioration include: (a) fungi attacks which cause stain and discoloration of the finished product, (b) collapse and honeycomb during drying, (c) damage by insects (wood borers), (d) end and surface checking of boards, and (e) distortion and warping during drying. This is not to imply that Cal Oak has solved all the various problems of producing and marketing western hardwood products. Indeed, Cal Oak is in a state of continuous research and development, seeking new and better methods and products.

California black oak (Quercus kelloggii), and valley oak (Quercus lobata) are two major western hardwoods which have been developed to commercial sawtimber significance by Cal Oak Lumber Company, with California black oak comprising the bulk of production (fig. 1). Although this paper deals with California oaks, it should be noted that Cal Oak utilizes many other western hardwoods as well. Some of these include: tanoak (Lithocarpus densiflorus), Pacific madrone (Arbutus menziesii), California sycamore

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1/ Presented at the Symposium on Ecology, Management, and Utilization of California Oaks. Claremont, California. June 26-28, 1979.

2/ President and Chief Forester, Cal Oak Lumber Company, Oroville, California. Both are forestry graduates from U.C., Berkeley. Mr. Allen is presently employed by Siller Bros. of Yuba City, CA.

Figure 1--A typical deck of California black oak sawlogs at Cal Oak's mini-mill.

(Platanus racemosa), Fremont cottonwood (Populus fremontii), bigleaf maple (Acer macrophyllum), northern California walnut (Juglans hindsii), willow (Salix spp.), and others.

The commercial development of black oak has reversed previous thinking--the species is now viewed as a valuable resource. Not so long ago it was considered a "weed" and many thousands of dollars and millions of board feet were wasted through poisoning and girdling. Now it is regarded as an asset, creating jobs and incomes for primary industries (harvesting and sawmilling), and raw materials for many secondary manufacturing concerns (pallet manufacturers, cabinet and furniture manufacturers, etc.). An interesting project for an economist would be to quantify the dollar multiplier effect of this raw material. Conservatively, it is at least 10=1, which means that for every dollar spent by Cal Oak, ten dollars are generated into the nation's economy.

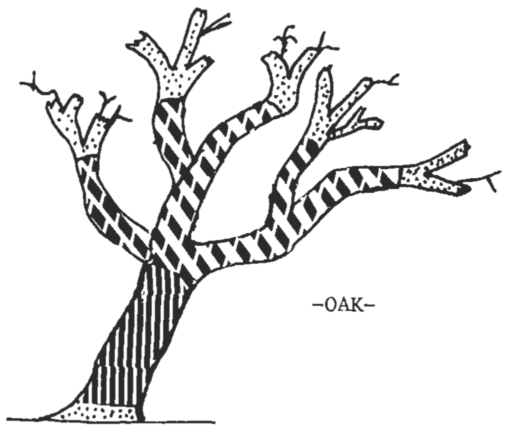
Cal Oak Lumber Company depends largely on California black oak for its raw material base. The wood structure characteristics of this oak are very similar to the Appalachian red oaks. One major difference is growth form. While many commercial eastern oaks produce much of their volume in relatively straight, main stems, a portion of older California black oak volume is found in limbs and branches. Tree trunks are not always straight either.

In its early years, Cal Oak operated a sawmilling operation using conventional mill equipment capable of utilizing only the branch-free straight main stems and occasionally some of the limb material which was of sufficient diameter and length to make a log 10 inches in diameter and 10 feet long. It soon became apparent that conventional mill equipment was wasteful and inefficient. Cal Oak simply was not able to utilize many otherwise sound trees due to crook and/or small diameters, nor was it able to utilize sound limbs and branches. An estimated 37 percent by weight of each tree was being left in the woods.

During 1972-74, Cal Oak designed and constructed an innovative new sawmill. In many respects it is like a conventional mill except that it is miniaturized to handle short logs from 3½ to 8 feet in length. Unlike a conventional bolt mill which also handles short lengths of small-diameter logs, Cal Oak's new mill is not limited to one or two dimensions all cut in one plane, nor is it limited to small diameters. By using a carriage and band-saw headrig, it is capable of sawing logs from 7 to 48 inches in diameter. The headrig also gives the capability of turning each log 360 degrees around its longitudinal axis. Thus the new mill can cut many dimensions selectively for grade and produce lumber of better quality. Logs are sawn specifically to maximize the output of higher grade lumber, and by utilizing short logs, with defects cut out, to produce an abundance of 4 foot "clears". Although much shorter than the conventional 10 to 16 foot board lengths, these have been well accepted by many consumers. The innovation of this system of milling has, of course, created some disadvantages. Most notable is the restriction of lumber length with its associated higher production and handling costs, and a traditional buyer resistance. Nevertheless, advantages overly compensate for the disadvantages.

The capability of cutting shorter than conventional logs also allows utilization of material which by normal sawlog standards would be culled due to crook. Thus more wood is utilized and less is left in the woods. Because the short logs produced are not exactly "bolts" and not really "sawlogs", Cal Oak coined the term "mini-log" to describe them, and the term "mini-mill" to refer to the new mill.

The mini-mill allows Cal Oak to utilize many trees which formerly would not have been harvested, especially those having small diameters and crooked boles (fig. 2). The mini-mill also allows the utilization of limbs and branches, previously left in the woods as waste. Before the mini-mill, Cal Oak utilized only 50 percent by weight of a given tree. Now, it is utilizing about 87 percent by weight of the same type of tree. By combining the 37 percent additional utilization with another 25 to 50 percent additional volume (by weight) from a given stand of previously unmerchantable trees, the mini-mill has increased total utilization of hardwoods by 62 to 87 percent.



Vol. by % Wt.	
50%	Conventional Sawlog
37%	Additional Lumber Utilization by Mini-Mill
13%	Left in Woods, or Recovered as Firewood
100%	

From the 87% of the tree taken to the mini-mill, product recovery is approximately divided as follows:

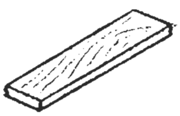
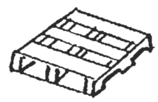
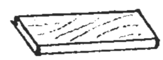
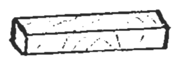
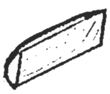
60%		Lumber & Shook, of which	33% is pallets 
			22% is cabinet, furniture, & paneling stock 
			5% is industrial timbers 
			60%
20%		Slabs & Edgings, of which	10% is boxed as market firewood
			7% is sold as bulk firewood
			3% is wasted
			20%
20%		Sawdust & Shavings of which	17% is sold as mulch, etc.
			3% is wasted
			20%
	TOTAL		100%

Figure 2--Western hardwood utilization, mini- mill style 1978, by Cal Oak Lumber Co., Oroville, California.

Figure 3--Pallet shook produced at Cal Oaks mini-mill stacked and waiting for manufacture into pallets.

Most important is that the mini-mill can now produce a significant "overrun" from very difficult logs.

Logs for the mill are purchased on a weight basis with the price per ton varying with grade. The conversion from ton to board feet is about 6.5 to 1. The logs are trimmed, conveyed to the mill and there reduced to short lengths. About 300 to 400 such short logs are sawn in each 8-hour shift, with two shifts usually operating. The total for two shifts is about 25,000 board feet per day, plus 15 to 20 cords of firewood. Yearly production from the mill is about 6 million board feet plus the firewood.

By producing short pieces of precise length, width, and presurfaced thickness, the mini-mill produces pallet shook ready for assembly into pallets (fig. 3). This process alone has eliminated the need for a planing and cut-up process whereby certain desired grades are sized and precision-trimmed from longer lumber. Thus the mini-mill has eliminated the cut-up process, which wasted 20 to 25 percent of the limbs, and now produces graded pallet shook ready for assembly into highgrade pallets. Of course, the high cost of machining associated with the cut-up process also was eliminated. Seven workers are required to operate the "floor" of the mill. Additional personnel for the second shift, for yard, shipping, remanufacture, sales, forestry and overhead bring total employment to about sixty workers.

As shown in figure 2, most of an oak tree is utilized. On a weight basis, Cal Oak's products can be divided into three major categories:

Lumber and shook	60 percent
Slabs and edgings	20 percent
Sawdust and shavings	20 percent

Figure 4--Upper grade oak lumber air drying in preparation for kiln curing.

Figure 5--Cabinet door panels made of upper grade oak are used in high quality kitchen cabinets.

About 60 percent by weight of Cal Oak's mill production is lumber. Of this 60 percent, slightly over one third is recovered as "upper grade" material. After sawing, the boards are carefully piled to permit good air circulation (fig. 4). Boards are air dried for three to eight months, depending on weather, to bring the moisture content down to 24% or less. Ends of the boards have been waxed to avoid checking. They are then placed in a dry kiln for further seasoning. This upper grade material is sold primarily for use in cabinets (fig. 5), paneling and moulding (fig. 6), and furniture (fig. 7).

Figure 6--Upper grade oak is used for molding stock, picture frames and other specialty items.

Figure 7--Two typical oak products, a solid oak table and oak panelling on the wall behind it.

The short "clears" mentioned earlier fit well into the manufacture of most of these products. The remaining two thirds of the lumber produced is lower grade. Most of this balance is utilized at Cal Oak's pallet plant, or sold as pallet shook to other assembly plants. The pallet operation works in conjunction with the mini-mill.

Most people do not realize the importance of pallets in our society. Of all the uses of wood, pallets rank second in the United States. Fully 15 percent of all wood goes into pallets. Pallets from oak are considered the "Cadillac" of such structures (fig. 8). They have to be

Figure 8--A finished oak pallet ready for shipment.

able to stand up to heavy loadings and last for about 4 years. Or, stated differently, oak pallets have a life expectancy of 70 uses as compared to a single use for some pallets.

At Cal Oak, the pallet line includes an automatic stacker and other sophisticated machinery to facilitate pallet assembly. A pallet line costs about $150,000. Four workers will put up 1200 pallets in an 8-hour shift. Each pallet presently sells for about $10.00, and most go to grocery chains.

Slightly over 10 percent of the lower grade is produced as short industrial timbers and blocking (fig. 9). Examples of their uses

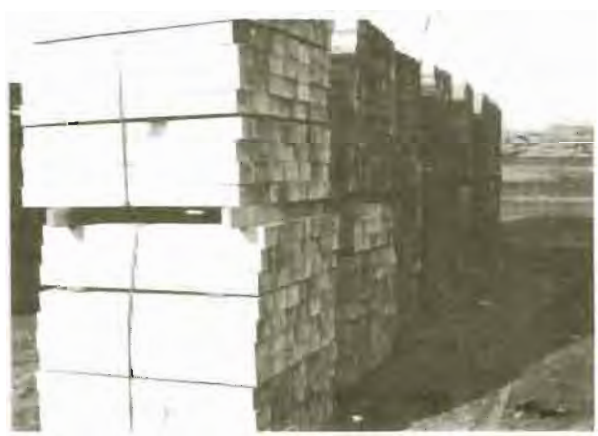


Figure 9--Lower grade oak is cut into short 4 x 6 x 48 inch industrial timbers.

Figure 10--Oak slab firewood (dried, fumigated, and shrink-wrapped in plastic) is packed in 1 cubic foot boxes for retail sale in food markets.

have been in the construction of dock facilities overseas and tunnels of the Bay Area Rapid Transit System.

Merchandising oak firewood has taken some effort. Consumers want a clean, dry, insect-free product with high heat energy. Wood borers often infest dry oak and it is disconcerting to consumers to have the larvae, which resemble small worms, come out of the firewood and crawl around the room. The homeowner's next thought is that the borers will soon be boring in the walls of his house. At Cal Oak the wood is dried, dust and dirt blown off, fumigated, shrink-wrapped in plastic, and stacked in cubic-foot boxes (fig. 10).

About half of the firewood produced by Cal Oak is sold in these boxes to large grocery concerns for retail sale. Naturally, the boxes are shipped on Cal Oak pallets. About 35 percent of the firewood is sold at the mill directly to local consumers, usually in pickup-load quantities. Some $75,000 of such wood is sold annually. About 15 percent of the firewood ends up as waste, but this percentage is decreasing as home heating costs increase.

The remaining 29 percent by weight of mill production is in sawdust and shavings (fig. 11). Over 85 percent of this is either sold or given away as mulch, livestock bedding, or other uses. About 15 percent is waste.

Other wood products from California oaks include split and round firewood produced from forest log residue and reject logs at the mill (as opposed to that produced from mill residue). After logging, parts of each tree remain which are too small, rotten, or crooked

Figure 11--Twenty percent by weight of the Cal Oak mill production is in sawdust and shavings.

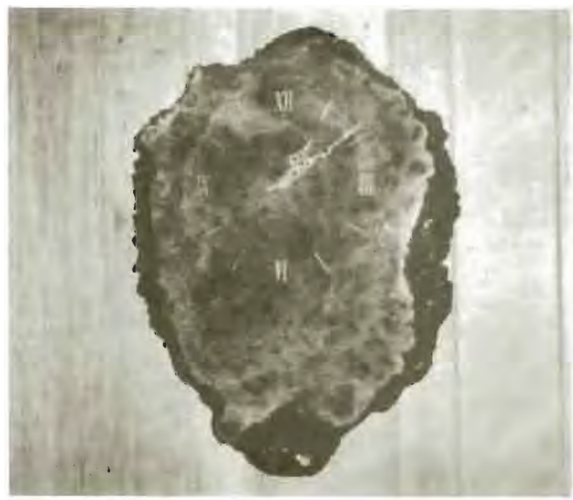


Figure 12--Oak burls can be made into attractive wall clocks.

even for the mini-mill. Some of it can be used for firewood. Cal Oak logging crews work closely with firewood cutters. The cutters take the wood and Cal Oak has less slash to clean up. Burls and twisted-grain slabs of oak are utilized for clocks, tables, plaques, and novelties. Oak burls can be truly beautiful (fig. 12) and good ones are expensive.

California black oak, being a vigorous stump-sprouter and periodically a prolific acorn producer, regenerates naturally especially in areas of commercial harvest. This natural regeneration, in addition to the large volume of smaller, not-yet harvestable stems, which will reach commercial size over the next one or more decades, and a significant volume of currently merchantable oak (supplemented by other hardwoods), gives futurity to Cal Oak's operations. It also warrants Cal Oak's continued sophistication of its product line. Remanufacturing technology and more and better by-product utilization show particular promise. This means that Cal Oak (and any others who enter the western hardwood business) will have to continue to meet the unique challenges presented by California hardwoods. These challenges occur in such areas as stem form, light stand density, environmental considerations, harvesting, transportation, market peculiarities and limitations, and by-product utilization.

It is not enough that Cal Oak alone has successfully established a short, multi-diameter log milling facility; precision-sized shook production direct from the sawmill; short-length upper-grade lumber acceptance; and the first waste-derived grocery shelf oak firewood product acceptable in volume material handling. To continue its success at manufacturing and marketing native California hardwoods, Cal Oak must continue to research and implement new and better ideas to successfully compete in tomorrow's markets.

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1980. **Proceedings of the symposium on the ecology, management, and utilization of California oaks, June 26-28, 1979, Claremont, California.** Gen. Tech. Rep. PSW-44, 368 p. Pacific Southwest Forest and Range Exp. Stn., Forest Serv., U.S. Dep. Agric., Berkeley, Calif.

The symposium, held at Scripps College in Southern California, addressed most aspects of California's vast oak resource. Papers represented four major subject categories: ecological relationships, silviculture and management, damage factors, and products. Both scientific and applied information was presented, including original material not published previously. Individual topics ranged from taxonomy and historical relationships to management of insects and diseases, and various oak products. In California, oaks' value for wildlife, recreation, watershed protection, and esthetics exceeds their value for traditional lumber and wood products.

Retrieval Terms: Quercus spp., California, ecology, silviculture, forest management, forest protection