PLANT ASSOCIATIONS IN THE SUBALPINE MOUNTAIN HEMLOCK ZONE IN SOUTHERN BRITISH COLUMBIA

bу

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B.S.F., The University of British Columbia, 1958 M.F., Yale University, 1959

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ABSTRACT

The vegetation of the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone was studied on 130 sample plots with analytic and synthetic methods of the Zürich-Montpellier school of phytosociology. This thesis describes 14 plant associations, predominantly of vascular plants, from two altitudinal subzones of the Subalpine Zone.

Published radiosonde temperature data, in combination with thermograph data from Mount Seymour, were used to characterize the climate of the zone. In winter, which is the season of maximum precipitation, the freezing isotherm most frequently occurs at altitudes near the lower limit of mountain hemlock. A climatic result is the sharp increase in snow accumulation and duration near the lower limit of this species; an ecological result is the relatively sharp boundary between the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone and the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone.

Thus, the lower limit of the zone is indicated by the presence of mountain hemlock as a component of the forests and the upper limit is marked by the altitudinal "tree limit" of mountain hemlock. The zonal limits were placed at 3000 and 5000 feet in the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn - Cathedral Mountain area near the Strait of Georgia, and at 3700 and 5500 feet in the Paul Ridge - Diamond Head portion of Garibaldi Park. The lowest 600 to 800 feet of the zone are covered with continuous forest of mountain hemlock, amabilis fir, yellow cedar and western hemlock. This continuous forest is designated as the lower subzone.

The upper boundaries of the zone, in contrast to the lower, are irregular as a result of topographic influences on snow duration. Snow accumulation increases with altitude so that near the tree limit mountain hemlock can grow only on prominences or ridges where snow duration is less.

Most early stages of vegetation appear to develop towards the <u>Phyllodoce</u> - <u>Cassiope</u> association in the upper subzone. At altitudes of approximately 5000 feet and over (Alpine Zone), this association occupies mesic habitats where the relief is flat or convex and without seepage. In contrast, this same association occupies concave topographic positions, with temporary seepage, in the Subalpine Zone. Snow duration is approximately the same on this association in both bioclimatic zones. However, because of its occurrence on two distinct topographies it is chionophobous in the Alpine Zone but moderately chionophilous in the Subalpine Zone, when considered in relation to adjacent associations.

The <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> - <u>Rhododendron</u> association is the most successionally advanced in the upper subzone. Near its lower limit, this association occupies mesic habitats but at its upper limit in the Alpine Zone it becomes a 'topographic climax' restricted to warmer exposures or to ridges between areas of Phyllodoce and Cassiope.

In the lower subzone, the <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association is successionally most advanced. Even if a distinct climatic "climax" association is recognized for the lower subzone, there are no tree species limited specifically to this altitudinal level. Both subzones are unified by the same tree species into one Subalpine Zone. Within this altitudinal belt most zonal features of the vegetation are related to the intensity, quantity and duration of snow.

GRADUATE STUDIES

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V. J. Krajina

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

British Columbia is predominantly a forested, mountainous province. The mountain forests, because of their low productivity, have not attracted the same attention as the valley and lowland forests. It is natural that this should be, as the forests of greatest commercial value occur in the lower elevations and the main transportation routes and settlements are found in the valleys.

When our thoughts and activities are so necessarily controlled by the economic, social and political activities in the settled areas of the province, it is easy to overlook the significance of less accessible and less productive areas. However, if the province's forest distribution is considered by area, regardless of commercial value, an entirely different picture emerges.

The area of British Columbia may be divided into five main components: commercial forest cover, 53 per cent of the total area; "rock and barrens", including snow-fields, glaciers and alpine tundra, 22 percent; non-productive tree cover (subalpine), 16 per cent; open range and forests in which cattle grazing is possible, 8 per cent; and less than one per cent in agricultural and urban use (B. C. Forest Service 1957, Haig-Brown 1961).

On a more local scale, forest land occupies 42.3 per cent of the Coast area, with non-forest land and fresh water accounting for the remaining 57.7 per cent (B. C. Forest Service 1957). In comparison, Whitford and Craig (1918) estimated 61 per cent of the southern mainland coast area to be above the merchantable timber line (10,000 board feet per acre). The large area of less productive forest land on the upper slopes of the southern Coast Mountains is the subject of the ecological study described here. Tree cover on this area is not entirely unmerchantable as most of the yellow cedar production comes from relatively high altitudes.

The main purpose of this thesis is to describe the plant associations and the zonal climatic controls in the southern portion of the region described by Rowe (1959) as the Coastal Subalpine Section (SA.3) and by Krajina (1959) as the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone. This objective presumes the need for classification of natural areas.

Despite its early existence as a scientific tool, classification is still evolving. New discoveries often require changes in systems of classification and, as with organic evolution, improvements and increased diversity are the result. One should expect that the need for classification, and the intricacies of classification, should increase as man's knowledge broadens.

However, classification has not assumed the same importance in all fields of intellectual endeavor. A plant physiologist knows the species with which he works and is theoretically able to apply his analytical results to that species in its natural occurrence. At the other extreme is the field of soil science in which techniques of analysis are well developed but where synthesis is only beginning (Kubiëna 1960). In comparison, attempts to classify nature ecologically have been numerous and date back to the last century. Yet soil science and ecology have a startling similarity today in their relatively undeveloped synthetic treatment of analytical data. It should not need emphasis that information from field and laboratory studies is usually not applicable to all soil types, nor to all habitats. It is for this reason that Kubiëna (1960) asserted that the only way to rationalize research in a natural science is on the basis of broad, exhaustive systematics. Advances in experimental technique are negated if they are not accompanied by corresponding advances in application to specific habitats in nature. One of the most challenging problems today in ecology, as in soil science, is to ensure that the gap between the analytic and the synthetic 'systematic' aspects of these sciences is not widened.

The synthesis of ecological findings requires an increased understanding of natural areas and increased uses of classification of these areas. This philosophy provided the motivation for the present study, and the following thesis is meant to complement the ecological information previously acquired through similar studies in other parts of British Columbia (Krajina and Spilsbury 1953, Krajina 1953, Arlidge 1955, Brayshaw 1955, McMinn 1957, Mueller-Dombois 1959, Lesko 1961,

Orloci 1961, Eis 1962a, Archer 1963). These studies, when considered collectively, provide a classification that may serve as a basis for forest management and planning, for advisory work, and for experimental research. It is important to realize, though, that a classification, whatever its basis, is an artificial structure. It is a convenient tool used to express current ideas about the relationships of organisms, or parts of nature, to one another. As ideas change, or as new facts accumulate, classification systems may be revised, and conclusions based on such classification will need to be accordingly flexible.

Detailed reviews of the development of ecological classification have been presented by several authors, and it is unnecessary to present here a compilation of easily accessible references. It is important only to draw attention to some of the more comprehensive and recent reviews for the interested reader: Whittaker 1953, Poore 1955 and 1956, Becking 1957, Churchill and Hanson 1958, Hustich 1960, Krajina 1960, Whittaker 1962, and Poore 1962.

In British Columbia, ecological classification has a brief history. The province was first divided on a large regional basis, mainly for mensurational purposes by Whitford and Craig (1918). In 1937, Halliday presented subdivisions of a similarly large scale as part of his forest classification for Canada. His regions were formed on the basis of climatic criteria and they have recently been revised by Rowe (1959). A more detailed, but still very broad, division of the province into 12 bioclimatic zones was made by Krajina (1959).

The works of Ilvessalo (1929), Kujala (1945), and Spilsbury and Smith (1947) are commonly cited as the earliest detailed phytosociological studies in this province (Bell 1959, Orloci 1961).

During the last decade, ecosystematic studies which developed from a fusion of phytosociological and environmental classification have been carried out by researchers (cited on page 2) under the direction of Krajina, and by others in the provincial Forest Service (Illingworth and Arlidge 1960).

More recently, the Federal Department of Forestry has initiated research to test physiographic site mapping in coastal forest types (Lacate 1962). In this method, plants are not considered until the physiographic units are established. Published soils maps and reports have also provided useful environmental information for many parts of

British Columbia, but none is yet available for subalpine areas.

The approach in the present study was primarily phytosociological and followed the analytic and synthetic methods of the Zürich - Montpellier School (Braun-Blanquet 1932, Becking 1957). It was recognized, however, that environmental characteristics are equally as useful as floristic structure for the classification of plant associations. For this reason, modifications of the original Braun-Blanquet methods were made in accordance with recommendations by Krajina (1960).

The study was carried out in the Department of Biology and Botany, University of British Columbia, under the direction of Dr. V. J. Krajina and in co-operation with R. C. Brooke. A separate dissertation will discuss the microclimatic and edaphic characteristics in relation to vegetation (Brooke 1964), whereas this thesis concentrates upon phytocoenotic characterization with a stress upon some zonal features, especially macroclimate. However, both theses have a single ecosystematic theory as their foundation and they should be considered as a unit.

The most important features of the subalpine environment are discussed in Chapter III. In Chapter IV, the plant associations are described in terms of their present composition, and in Chapter VI they are related to one another dynamically where there is evidence of successional trends. These three chapters are the most important, since they represent the main findings of this study.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Procedures in the field and the methods of arranging data are, to a large extent, controlled by the purposes of a particular investigation. Because an ecological study usually involves several related disciplines, it cannot have a single theory around which methods of study can be built. It is necessary, therefore, to briefly outline the field procedures and the methods of handling and presenting data.

A. Field Procedures

The methods used in this study do not differ markedly from those of Krajina (1933), Brayshaw (1955), McMinn (1957), Mueller-Dombois (1959) and Orloci (1961). This deliberate standardization of methods serves an important purpose by allowing direct comparisons to be made between floristic descriptions from different bioclimatic zones. Even if there is a choice of several available theories to serve as a basis for ecological classification, none of them will explain everything. The main object is to collect basic ecological information of sufficient accuracy to form an ecosystematic classification and to allow comparisons for multiple-use land planning.

The vegetation was studied by means of sample plots which, on forested areas, were one chain by two chains (1/5 acre) in size. The plots were located in places where the vegetation was uniform over such an area. For non-forested associations, plots 1/2 chain by 1/2 chain (1/40 acre) were sufficiently large. It was not only convenient to use these smaller plots, but also necessary in some cases where the associations were severely limited in area by the topography or the environmental gradients, as for example, around late snow-patches or along stream margins. At least one corner of every sample plot was marked by a wooden or steel post and an aluminum tag bearing a record of the plot number,

its dimensions and its orientation. Subsequent visits to these cornerposts showed many of them leaning or knocked down, especially where snow-creep was pronounced.

The four corners of each plot were joined by string to facilitate the tally of trees. The diameters, at breast height, of all living trees over three inches, were measured with a steel tape. Since none of the sample plots was heavily forested, it was practicable to measure the heights of nearly all the trees with an Abney level. In some cases, heights were estimated by comparison with adjacent measured trees.

All of the forested sample plots were in uneven-aged old growth stands of mountain hemlock (<u>Tsuga mertensiana</u> (Bong.) Carr.), amabilis fir (<u>Abies amabilis</u> (Dougl.) Forbes), and yellow cedar (<u>Chamaecyparis nootkatensis</u> (D. Don) Spach). Therefore, stand age, as such, could not be determined, but ages were taken over the range of diameters for each species present on a plot. From six to twelve ages were obtained for each plot by increment borings at breast height.

Floristic analyses were carried out on homogeneous stands by listing all the vascular plants, bryophytes and lichens on each plot. An area was ocularly judged as homogeneous if the constituent species appeared uniformly distributed throughout the plot. Species were listed for each of the following arbitrary strata:

A7 - dominant and co-dominant trees

A - intermediate trees

A₃ - suppressed trees over 30 feet in height

B₁ - saplings and shrubs between 6 and 30 feet in height

Bo - shrubs between 6 inches and 6 feet in height

C - herbaceous plants (all) and small woody plants under 6 inches in height (Note that by this definition subalpine species such as Phyllodoce empetriformis, Cassiope mertensiana and Vaccinium deliciosum occur in the C layer.)

D_h - humicolous bryophytes and lichens

The bryophytes and lichens on decayed wood, on rock and on tree trunks were also listed. Tree or shrub species which occurred in more than one stratum were listed and floristically evaluated for each.

Species significance, sociability and vigour were evaluated according to the scales shown in the legend preceding the appended Synthesis Tables. Plants of uncertain identity were collected for later identification, and were subsequently deposited in the University of

British Columbia Herbarium. Microscopic examinations of the bryophytes and lichens often revealed species that were not listed in the field notes. In such cases, the extra species were added for the appropriate sample plot to the preliminary synthesis tables, and, as suggested by Dahl (1956), their floristic ratings were estimated on the basis of the occurrence in other plots of the same association.

Detailed microclimatic measurements and edaphic descriptions of the associations are provided by Brooke (1964). Only hygrothermograph data and snow depth measurements from temporary climatic stations at 4000 feet (BP 124) and at 3200 feet (BP 15) are discussed here. Relative turgidity measurements on the needles of mountain hemlock and amabilis fir were also taken from these two stations to test if there were differences in the internal water balance of needles on altitudinally and ecologically distinct habitats.

Finally, it must be emphasized that methods of floristic analysis, as described above, are not statistical methods as the term is otherwise applied in biology. This point was also stressed by Dahl (1956). Statistical methods could be more appropriately applied if every association had the same chance of occurrence in a zone. Then a random sample would touch all habitats about equally. Since this ideal does not exist, stratification is necessary before statistical analyses can be carried out. In this particular study, stratification was made on the basis of floristic features. This need not imply that the plant association is the basic unit for ecological studies, but it is a useful unit for stratification because it provides information for studies of habitats and niches.

Boundaries between associations are rarely distinct, but transitions do not justify the annihilation of the units involved. For preliminary studies, it is best to avoid transitions. If they are included in association tables, they will reduce the difference between the units because, by definition, they represent conditions that are interpolative. It is better to describe the distinct and extreme units and to let the transitions be mathematically interpolated later. By this method, it is not possible to describe all variations of vegetation in an area, but any random point will fall into a described vegetation unit or will be readily assigned to an intermediate position between two units (McVean and Ratcliffe 1962).

In summary, the methods used for this study must be recognized primarily as standardized descriptions of vegetation which permit comparisons between different associations both intrazonally and interzonally.

B. Synthesis and Presentation of Floristic Data

The following paragraphs outline the philosophy which influenced the organization and descriptions of plant associations in Chapter IV. McVean and Ratcliffe (1962) pointed out that vegetation units can be arranged in at least three ways: systematically, or according to a hierarchical classification of the units distinguished; physiognomically, or according to the life-form of the dominant species; and ecologically, or according to the main habitat types and altitudinal zonation.

The first alternative, a systematic or hierarchical classification, was inappropriate for the present study, because it can only be used in later studies which will incorporate the associations described here into higher community units in combination with associations from other bioclimatic zones.

The second method is well suited for the Subalpine Zone since there are great physiognomic differences between the lower forested associations and the upper heath-like and herbaceous associations. This is in contrast to the associations of the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone most of which are forested and physiognomically more uniform. However, a physiognomic classification by itself provides only limited information. Studies which yield more detailed information about the habitat should utilize such ecological information in the classification scheme, as in the present study. Physiognomic differences were considered only in the comparisons of life-form spectra in each association (Chapter V), and by the grouping into forested and unforested categories in the classification of Chapter IV.

The remaining alternative of ecological organization was used effectively by Orloci (1961), in combination with floristic structure, for the forest types in the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone. Descriptions from the Subalpine Zone will be of more value if they can be directly compared with descriptions from lower elevations. Therefore, the organization of Chapter IV closely resembles that used by Orloci (1961).

The major categories in Chapter IV are two altitudinal subzones, and within each subzone there are habitats ranging from dry or moderately dry to wet. In the upper subzone, relationships to length of snow cover and physiognomy (forest, krummholz, small shrub, herb and bryophyte) form the basis for organization. Thus, floristic structure is the primary base for classification, but it is organized in altitudinal, habitat and physiognomic groups. The combination of several criteria for classification reduces the number of units in any one group. Such organization, in combination with descriptions of the associations, should enable the reader to identify the vegetation units of the Subalpine Zone without the aid of a key.

Presence, dominance and fidelity are the main criteria for describing and differentiating the associations. Those species which were present in over 80 per cent of the sample plots in a synthesis table are listed as constants. Each constant species whose average cover degree exceeded 10 per cent of the plot area is listed as a constant dominant. Fidelity was determined as outlined by Becking (1957), and the characteristic species for each association are listed as follows (Braun-Blanquet 1932):

- Fidelity 5 Exclusive species, which are completely or almost completely confined to one community.
- Fidelity 4 Selective species, which are found most frequently in a certain community.
- Fidelity 3 Preferential species, present in several communities more or less abundantly but predominantly or with better vitality in one certain community.

The choice of exclusive, selective and preferential species was based only on tabular data from plots in the restricted area of this study. Therefore, a species may be listed as exclusive to a certain association in the Coastal Subalpine Zone even though it is known to occur in other associations of the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone or the Alpine Zone. This possibility was recognized by Braun-Blanquet (1932) when he pointed out that fidelity always refers to the relation of a species to a certain community (within a particular region or zone). Of secondary importance are the social relations which this species has in all parts of its range. It is possible for one particular species to be exclusive in different regions to two or more distinct and different communities.

The average characteristic species (Fidelity classes 3, 4, and 5) and constant species, taken together, are the characteristic combination

of species as used in the Zürich - Montpellier methods of synthesis. The use of dominance as a criterion is recommended for vegetation units containing few species (Poore 1955, Dahl 1956). Association characteristic species are not plentiful in the Subalpine Zone because the number of species in the associations is small compared to European study areas where the Zürich - Montpellier methods were developed. For this reason criteria such as dominance, environmental features of the habitat, or life-forms should also be used.

As pointed out by Krajina (1960), the ideal concept for ecosystem classification is the biogeocoenosis that is composed of an ecotope and a biocoenosis. The ecotope is divided into a climatope and an edaphotope. The biocoenosis is divided into a phytocoenosis, a zoocoenosis and a microbocoenosis (Sukachev, quoted from Krajina 1960). Most emphasis in this thesis is placed on the phytocoenosis (association), but other factors of the biogeocoenosis are considered, especially for sub-units of the associations.

Differential species, which may be non-characteristic, are used to distinguish closely related vegetation units (Braun-Blanquet 1932, Krajina 1933, McVean and Ratcliffe 1962). Thus, several subassociations are recognized in Chapter IV by the presence or absence of species, or by differences in the dominance and vigor of certain species. Subassociations reflect edaphic or microclimatic differences (Drees 1953), as in the hygric Cladothamnus subassociation versus the lithic Cladothamnus subassociation, whereas variants reflect macroclimatic differences. Only one variant is recognized in Chapter IV, where the subalpine Oplopanax stands are treated as a climatic variant of the Oplopanax - Adiantum forest type described by Orloci (1962) for lower elevations in the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone.

Common descriptive names of the vegetation units depicting a dominant species and environmental features are used throughout the text. Names based on the rules by Drees (1953) are also provided because they facilitate the systematic grouping of vegetational units into higher categories through standardization of phytosociological nomenclature in different bioclimatic zones. For associations, the suffix -etum was added to the stem of the genus-name of a dominant species. If two generic names were used, the first had an -eto ending, and in necessary cases the name of the species in the genitive case was also added. Subassociation

names were formed by adding the ending <u>-etosum</u> to the generic stem, and variant names used an <u>-osum</u> suffix. Although descriptive prefixes and adjective names are not standardized, the terms nano-, hygric and lithic were used.

C. Synthesis and Presentation of Mensurational Data

The tree diameter tally was grouped by species into four-inch diameter classes for stand table presentation (Figure 25). Height-diameter curves were not constructed as a step in volume determination because actual height measurements were available for nearly all individual trees. This was possible because of the relatively small number of trees on most sample plots, and it allowed the determination of volume on an individual tree basis. Gross volume per tree was determined from the Coast Mature Hemlock Tables for both species of hemlock, from the Coast Mature Cedar Tables for yellow cedar, and from the Coast Balsam Tables for amabilis fir (Forestry Handbook for British Columbia 1959).

It was impossible to obtain reliable site indices for trees of the Subalpine Zone because only old growth stands were available and no site index curves exist for subalpine species. Furthermore, height growth is usually so slow in the Subalpine Zone (Figure 20) that the conventional expression of height at 100 years is inappropriate. Despite these weaknesses, average site index at 100 years was determined where possible to permit comparisons of growth rate with lower elevations. A large scale reproduction of the height-age curves published for coastal species at lower elevations (Forestry Handbook for British Columbia 1959, p. 371) served this purpose, but the site indices obtained are not reliable (Table XII).

For old-growth stands which are slow growing because of a rigorous environment, average height of the tallest tree regardless of age is a useful indicator of site productivity. Table XII shows, for each of the four major species, height of the tallest tree averaged for the number of plots in each association. These values, when considered together with the gross volumes and the approximate site indices, give a good indication of the potentialities of each species in the various associations.

The synthesis tables (Appendix III) provide per acre values for number of trees, basal area, and gross volume for each species on every sample plot. These data, excluding basal area, are summarized for five associations and two subassociations by histograms which readily allow a visual comparison of the number of trees per acre and gross volume in cubic feet per acre for each species in each diameter class (Figure 25).

CHAPTER III

THE SUBALPINE MOUNTAIN HEMLOCK ZONE

This chapter defines the study area geographically and altitudinally. The topography, geology and climate are described, and the chapter concludes with a discussion of the most important zonal features of the vegetation.

A. Definition of the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone

It is well known that climatic and vegetational differences result from increases in altitude in mountainous country. Altitudinal zonation is so obvious that terms such as subalpine, alpine and timberline form part of our regular vocabulary. Increased usage of these terms has, however, lead to indefinite meanings, and for this thesis some definitions are necessary.

For the area of his study in Norway, Dahl (1956) drew the upper limit of the subalpine belt "at the timber-line or forest-limit". definition, while good in principle, is inadequate because it contains within it poorly defined terms. For example, Hustich (1949) defined the timberline as the limit of timber-sized forests. This definition is of economic importance but is misleading as a biological boundary. were applied to south coastal British Columbia, timberline would be near the upper limit of western hemlock since the distribution of this species closely approximates the upper limit of merchantable forests today. Another definition of timberline, and the more usual one, was given by Dansereau (1957) as the highest elevation at which trees grow. However, it is questionable if coniferous species can be classed as trees near their northern limit or near their altitudinal limit (as for example, krummholz). Where would the timberline be placed in such areas? The designation of three biological boundaries, forest limit, tree limit and species limit (Dansereau 1957, Berner 1959) partly solves the problem.

These three limits, when applied to a particular species, make general terms such as montane, subalpine or alpine more meaningful by providing a biological basis for the zonal delineation. For the study area described here, the altitudinal distribution of mountain hemlock in tree form indicates coastal subalpine conditions, and the region may be justifiably called the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone, as previously designated by Krajina (1959). The lower limit of the zone is represented by the lower limit of mountain hemlock as a dominant component of the forests, and the upper edge of the zone is placed at the altitudinal tree-limit of mountain hemlock. Thus, the vegetation is predominantly arborescent, but the trees are often dispersed and smaller than they are at lower elevations (Dansereau 1957). The upper limit of trees is discontinuous and there may be, because of locally unfavourable conditions, considerable areas within the subalpine belt not covered by forests or trees.

The definition above is not meant to imply that the Subalpine Zone represents the absolute upper limit of mountain hemlock as a species. The altitudinal species limit occurs higher up in the Alpine Zone (Archer 1963). The species does not attain the stature of a tree above the Subalpine Zone, however.

The term, forest limit, is useful for subzonal designation because forests are not of uniform continuity from the lower to the upper limits of the zone. In Garibaldi Park, Brink (1959) recognized a "lower subalpine forest" from 3500 to 5000 feet, and noted that the forest was more open above 5000 feet. This upper limit of continuity in the tree cover, or forest limit, coincides with the altitudinal division of the Subalpine Zone into two subzones in this thesis.

The following distributional, environmental and floristic features allow a comparison of the original zonal definition (Krajina 1959) with that presented later in this chapter for the specific area of this study. As defined by Krajina (1959), the zone extends along the coastal mountain ranges between altitudes of 3000 and 5500 feet in the south of British Columbia and between 1000 and 2000 feet in the north of the province. Total precipitation varies from 75 to 170 inches per year, with 14.0 to 15.5 inches in the wettest month and 1.3 to 3.3 inches in the driest month. In the southern part of the zone, 30 to 40 per cent of the precipitation occurs in winter or autumn with only 10 to 15 percent in the spring or summer. In the northern portion, 30 to 35 per cent

falls in the autumn and 10 to 15 per cent in the summer. Snowfall varies from 170 to 800 inches per year, and it makes up 20 to 70 per cent of the total precipitation. Krajina (1959) placed the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone in Köppen's Dfc category, and the zonal soil was called a coastal subalpine podzol. The <u>Tsuga mertensiana - Abies amabilis - Vaccinium alaskaense - Vaccinium membranaceum - Rubus pedatus association was listed as the climatic climax plant community.</u>

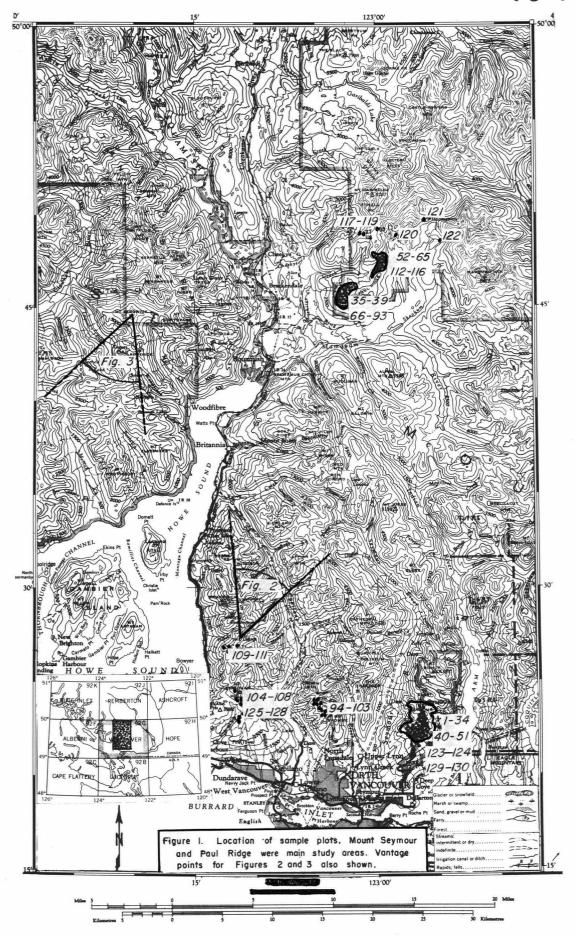
B. Related Studies

Of the 90 forest sections described for the forest regions of Canada (Rowe 1959), the briefest description is given for the Coastal Subalpine Section (SA.3). This brevity does not mean that the section is areally or economically unimportant, because there are other forest sections of smaller size or others of equally low forest productivity which are described in greater detail. Rather, it reflects the paucity of published information on the major tree species and cover types of this section.

In the brief literature review which follows, little attention is given to subalpine studies in mountains other than those in coastal British Columbia and in the Pacific Northwest region of the United States. Braun-Blanquet (1932), Daubenmire (1943), and McVean and Ratcliffe (1962) have all stressed that phytosociological studies on different mountain systems are not directly comparable because of individuality in the environmental conditions of any particular mountain system.

For the Olympic Mountains, the history of botanical and ecological investigations was reviewed by Jones (1936). He presented a similar history for Mount Rainier in 1938. A very recent review of subalpine work in the Pacific Northwest is that by Franklin (1962).

The earliest mountain studies in Coastal British Columbia were mainly botanical explorations. The first plant collections from higher altitudes were made in 1912 on Grouse Mountain, Hollyburn Ridge and from near Mount Garibaldi (Davidson 1913 to 1915). Other reports from subalpine areas were made by Henry (1915), Hardy (1927) and Perry (1928). Further north, McAvoy (1929, 1931) described alpine and subalpine conditions for the Bella Coola region. Additional references to the Garibaldi area were made by Davidson in 1931, and Taylor (1936, 1937)



described former forest areas in Garibaldi Park which had been re-covered by a glacier.

The recent study by Schmidt (1957) provided valuable information on the silvical characteristics of amabilis fir, a common species in the Coastal Subalpine Zone. Brink's report (1959) described successional changes near the Black Tusk, just north of the present study area. Further reference is made to his study in later sections. At present, Brink, MacKay and Mathews of the University of British Columbia (unpublished) are studying alpine and subalpine vegetation in relation to frost, snow and solifluction in Coastal British Columbia.

C: The Study Area

1. Location and Extent

The study area is shown by the distribution of 130 sample plots in Figure 1. The plots were located as follows:

Mount Seymour Plots 1-34, 40-51, 123, 124, 129, and 130. Hollyburn Ridge Plots 104-107, 125-128. Grouse Mountain Plots 94-103. Mount Strachan Plot 108. The Lions Plots 109-111 Paul Ridge (Round Mountain) and) Plots 35-39, 52-93, and Diamond Head area, Garibaldi Park) 112-122.

Whitford and Craig (1918) classified this area as part of the Coast Forest. It occurs in Section SA.3, the Coastal Subalpine Section, of Rowe's (1959) classification, and it forms part of the Pacific Subalpine Forest referred to by Heusser (1960).

In the 450-square-mile study area, the altitudinal limits of the Subalpine Zone cannot be precisely defined, except locally. Near Burrard Inlet, the lower edge of the zone, as defined by the lower limit of mountain hemlock, closely follows the 3000 feet contour. In the triangular physiographic unit bounded by Burrard Inlet on the south, Howe Sound on the west, Stawamus River

and Indian River on the northeast, and Indian Arm on the east, very few peaks have areas above the tree limit (except for Cathedral Mountain, 5683 feet, and Sky Pilot Mountain, 6645 feet). Therefore, the area of the Subripine Zone should be closely approximated by the total acreage above the 3000 foot contour. The above physiographic unit, which includes the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn study area, has a total area of approximately 234,000 acres, 87,000 acres of which are above 3000 feet in altitude (determined from planimeter readings on Map sheet 92G, National Topographic Series, 1:250,000). Thus, approximately 37 per cent of this south coastal area may be classed as subalpine (Figure 4).

On Paul Ridge, northeast of Squamish, the lowest mountain hemlock is at 3800 feet and western hemlock is common to 4000 feet. There is thus an upward shift of the Subalpine Zone by almost 1000 feet in this part of the study area. Upper and lower altitudinal limits of individual associations are also about 1000 feet higher on Paul Ridge than they are on the mountains near Burrard Inlet (Figure 28).

The following table summarizes the zonal and subzonal altitudinal limits for this study:

Н	Seymour, Grouse, Crown ollyburn and Cathedral Mountains	Paul Ridge (Garibaldi Park)
Subalpine zone:	3000 - 5000 feet	3700 - 5500 feet
Lower subzone:	3000 - 3600 feet	3700 - 4500 feet
Upper subzone:	3600 - 5000 feet	4500 - 5500 feet
Alpine zone:	over 5000 feet (only on Cathedral Mountain)	over 5500 feet

With such variation in the altitudinal limits of the zone over a 30-mile distance, comparisons with the altitudinal delineations of this zone in other study areas must be made with caution. In the Black Tusk area, just 15 miles north of Paul Ridge, the limits set by Brink (1959) correspond quite

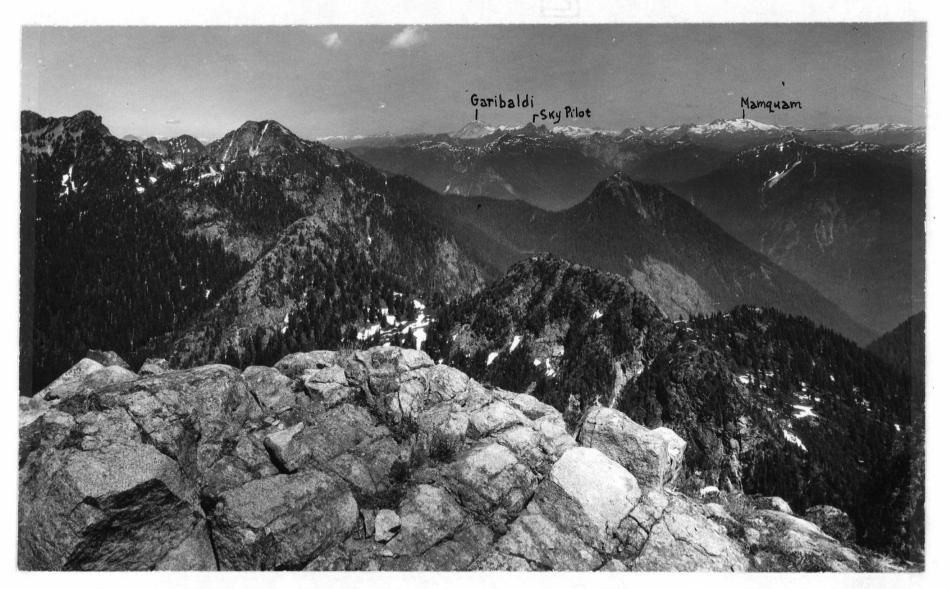


Figure 2. General view of the Coastal Subalpine Zone, from 5400 feet on the West Lion. Photograph courtesy of Surveys and Mapping Branch, Province of British Columbia.



Figure 3. View from 6300 feet on Mount Sedgwick shows late snow in the Coastal Subalpine Zone, July 10, 1952. See Figure 1 for vantage point of photograph. Courtesy of Surveys and Mapping Branch, Province of British Columbia.

closely. He considered the "lower subalpine forest" to occur from 3500 feet to 5000 feet. Above the 5000-foot contour, the character of the subalpine forest changed markedly but trees 50 feet high were common to 6300 feet. Similar comparisons can be made from studies in other coastal mountain ranges. The Hudsonian Zone of the Olympic Peninsula is similar to the Coastal Subalpine Zone in British Columbia in vegetational and climatic characteristics. Altitudinal limits of 3500 feet and 5000 feet were given for the Hudsonian Zone by Jones (1936), and for a similar classification on Mount Rainier (Jones 1938) the limits were placed at 4500 to 6000 feet. Many other examples exist in the literature (see especially Heusser 1960, pages 50-75). In the abstracts presented by Franklin (1962), there are 25 direct references to the altitudinal range of mountain hemlock. On the basis of his information, the Coastal Subalpine (Mountain Hemlock) Zone occurs from 6900 to 9400 feet in the Stanislaus and Lake Tahoe Forest Reserves, California (Sudworth 1900), and from 1200 to 2400 feet in the forests of southeastern Alaska (Hoffman 1912). This general depression of the zone, from south to north, has many local irregularities due to topographic and climatic differences.

2. Topography and Geology

The topography of the Coastal Subalpine Zone is best described by the photographs in Figures 2 and 3. The vantage point for Figure 2 is at an altitude of approximately 5400 feet on the most westerly of The Lions. The view is towards the northeast, and subalpine forest covers most of the visible area with the exception of the mid and lower slopes adjacent to Capilano Valley on the right. The latter are part of the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone (Orloci 1961). On the far horizon, the peaks of Mount Garibaldi, Sky Pilot Mountain and Mamquam Mountain represent the Alpine Zone (Archer 1963).

LEGEND TO ACCOMPANY MAP (FIGURE 4)

Geological subdivisions are shown only for those areas where sample plots were located (References: Armstrong 1954, Roddick and Armstrong 1956, Mathews 1958).

In the Diamond Head - Paul Ridge study area:

Quaternary

Garibaldi Group

G2 - Late glacial and early postglacial

Gl - Older

d - Dacite

b - Andesite and basalt

Pre-Upper Cretaceous

Older intrusions

Oq - Cloudburst quartz diorites (foliated and unfoliated quartz diorite, minor diorite, etc.)

Mv - Metavolcanic and metasedimentary rocks (greenstone, slaty argillite, breccia, minor conglomerate, limestone, green schist)

In the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn - Lions study area:

Triassic (?) and/or later

Gambier Group

3 - Tuff, breccia, agglomerate, andesite, slate, argillite, arkose, quartzite, greywacke, conglomerate, minor dacite, trachyte, and basalt

Triassic (?) and/or later

Bowen Island Group

2b - Banded hornblende-feldspar gneiss, hornblende-biotitefeldspar gneiss, hornblende biotite-quartz schist, dioritic gneiss, granitoid gneiss, hybrid diorite and granitic rock

Plutonic rocks formed at more than one period in the geological history of the map-area (not an age sequence)

HbIII - Plutonic rocks in which hornblende forms 50 to 90 per cent and biotite 10 to 50 per cent of mafic mineral content.

Quartz diorite

HII, III, M - Plutonic rocks in which hornblende forms 90 per cent or more and biotite 10 per cent or less of mafic mineral content. II, granodiorite; III, quartz diorite; M. migmatite

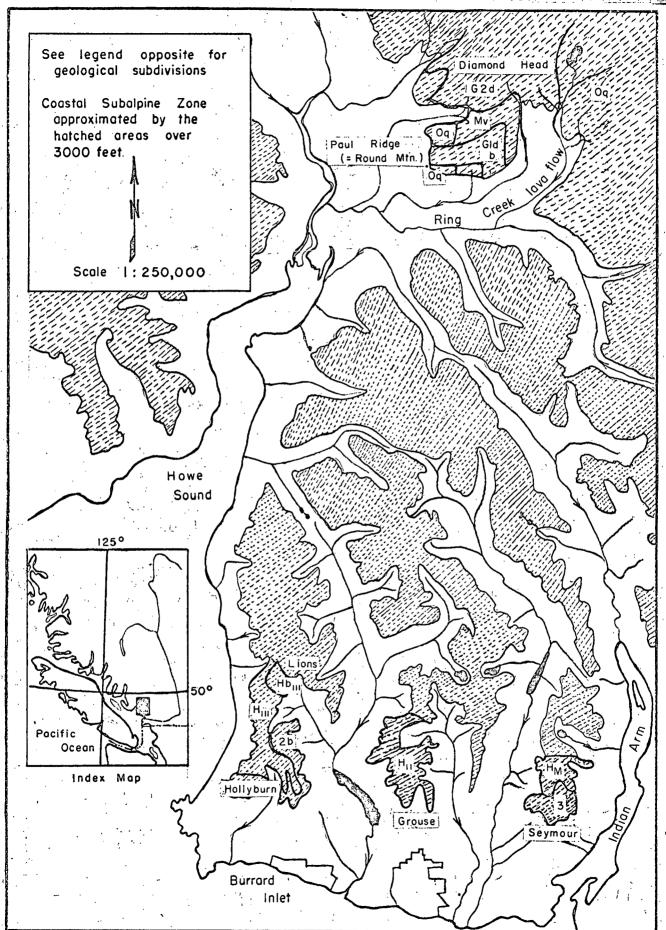


Figure 4. Approximate distribution of the Coastal Subalpine (Mountain Hemlock) Zone near Vancouver British Columbia

The most important geological references for the area are: Heusser (1960) for the Coast Mountains in general and particularly for glacial history; Armstrong (1954) and Roddick and Armstrong (1956) for the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn study area; and Mathews (1958) for the Paul Ridge - Diamond Head study area. Geological subdivisions for the study areas are shown on the distribution map for the Coastal Subalpine Zone (Figure 4). The most striking features are the occurrence of older intrusive rocks through most of the area and the localized presence of Quaternary volcanic parent materials in parts of Garibaldi Park. The legend accompanying Figure 4 lists the rocks which are prevalent in each geologic subdivision.

Parent material differences in different parts of the study area do not seem to be correlated with changes in the species composition of the subalpine vegetation, except that <u>Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus</u> is absent from parent materials of the Garibaldi Group.

The study area was glaciated recently, in both the geologic and anthropomorphic scales of time. For example, near the Opal Cone in Garibaldi Park subalpine forest is present on slopes above the trim-line of a glacial tongue which has melted back from the valley only in the last few centuries (Mathews 1958). Naturally the most obvious signs of very recent glaciation are near the upper limits of the Subalpine Zone. Glacial striae on rock surfaces are surprisingly few in the mid and lower portions of the zone because of the rapid weathering of rock surfaces since glaciation. The frequency of freezing cycles is an important factor in the surface weathering and exfoliation of rocks, and the increase in the number of freezing cycles with increasing altitude (Table I) indicates the potentially greater rate of weathering of rock surfaces in mountain areas. This phenomenon would be particularly effective in October, April and May when some rock surfaces would be free of snow.

Number of freezing cycles at Vancouver Airport (16 feet) and at 3200 feet and 4000 feet on Mount Seymour, Aug. 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961*

		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
	Vancouver		Seymour
*	<u> Airport</u>	<u>B P 15</u>	<u>B P 124</u>
	16 ft.	3200 ft.	4000 ft.
۸.,			
Aug.	-	-	-
Sept.			
Oct.	- '	1	7
\mathtt{Nov}_{ullet}	1 .	3	8
Dec.	12	5	10
Jan.	10	6	8
Feb.	-	6	4
March	1	5	7
Apr.	***	10	10
May	==	1	.2
June		-	
July	-	-	
Year	24	37	56

^{*} A freezing cycle was arbitrarily counted whenever the temperature dropped to 31° F or lower and then rose to 33° F or higher.

Parent materials, soil-forming processes, soil types, soil moisture and soil temperature relationships are described for the Subalpine Zone by Brooke (1964). Attention is drawn here only to the most important zonal features.

The high proportion of rock outcrop, particularly in the upper portions of the zone, is demonstrated well in Figure 2. On the ridges, the products of weathering are removed as quickly as they are produced and the soil is consequently very shallow. Slopes and depressions are generally covered with a thin mantle of glacial drift. Alluvial soils are absent from the Subalpine Zone except for small marginal deposits along mountain streams. Wet organic soils are also of very limited occurrence because the relief is too steep for bog development.

Skeletal disintegration is the most important weathering process in rock outcrop areas, and podzolization is the most common soil-forming process. In the subalpine podzols, the elluviated (A_e) layer is not readily visible, however, because of continuous darkening from acidic organic accumulations.

A high proportion of organic matter is typical for nearly all soils in the Subalpine Zone. The snow cover results in soil temperatures that are far below the optimal for bacterial activity and even below their minimal temperatures for much of the year. This leads to the development of a mor, in which decomposition is primarily due to fungi. The development of very acid conditions is partly due to fungal activity (Lutz and Chandler 1957). With decomposition limited to that by fungi, and with a very short season for such activities, the amount of unincorporated organic matter increases. an example, on August 20, 1962, leaves of Vaccinium deliciosum from the previous autumn were still undecomposed in well-aerated litter at an altitude of 4800 feet. In contrast, decomposition by micro-organisms would probably have completely destroyed similar litter by June in warmer bioclimatic zones. These accumulations can result in very high percentages of organic matter in subalpine soils, especially where mineral soils are of limited depth. Freezing cycles, which take place before there is a snow cover, accelerate the mixing of moist organic matter by heaving, expansion and other physical disturbances in the uppermost horizons.

3. Climate

Increased altitude results in a general decrease in air temperature (despite increased insolation), larger differences in temperature between day and night, and greater precipitation. These three influences, in combination with a winter maximum in precipitation, give the Coast Mountains

unusual accumulations of snow. The significance of this snow has been insufficiently emphasized in world classification of climate (Kuppen 1954) and vegetation (Rubel 1936).

Summaries of climatic data from permanently established weather stations are usually presented in ecological descriptions. In this section, little attention is given to this practice because: (1) climatic records are unavailable for most mountain areas in British Columbia; (2) long-term measurements taken at lower elevations are not applicable to higher areas.

In this thesis, climatic data are discussed from only two temporary stations, one in the lower subzone at 3200 feet on Mount Seymour, and the other in the upper subzone at 4000 feet (see Map, Figure 23). The 12-month period from August 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961 was chosen to represent snowfall, temperature and humidity conditions at these two locations. Most attention is given to the development of a method which uses published radiosonde data to indicate the frequency of freezing temperatures at various altitudes.

a. Precipitation

Landsberg (1958) pointed out that early workers believed precipitation to increase uniformly to the tops of mountains, at least up to 10,000 feet.

The increase in total annual precipitation up the slope of the mountain north of Burrard Inlet is clearly shown by the figures below (data from The Climate of British Columbia, Report for 1960):

Station	Altitude, feet	Total Prec., inches
	15 600 950 1130 2700 3120	68.75 74.52 81.58 99.01 103.66 106.66

The relationship between annual precipitation at the foot of a mountain (P_0) to that at an elevation, h, (measured in 100-foot units) was expressed empirically by Landsberg (1958) as follows:

$$P_{h} = P_{o} + 0.72 h$$

If Norgate data are applied to this formula, Hollyburn Ridge should have a total annual precipitation of about 91 inches. The discrepancy with actual measurements indicates that there may be anomalies due to topographic configuration and, more importantly, that there is not a straight-line relationship with increasing altitude. Walker (1961) discussed the limitations of upward extrapolation from stations at relatively low levels (as in Spilsbury and Tisdale's work, 1944). Spreen (1947) described a statistical method of relating precipitation to the slope and other characteristics of the terrain. However, this method requires a well distributed network of stations that is not available in British Columbia.

The main findings of a study by Walker (1961) are outlined in the following paragraphs because they represent the best information available for the Coastal Subalpine Zone. Specific estimates of precipitation over mountains were obtained by calculating the orographic component of precipitation along actual cross sections. These sections were used as interpolative guides and precipitation data were calculated from synoptic analyses which showed the amount of precipitation contributed by air-flows from different directions.

Walker's studies on the mechanism of precipitation indicated that the greatest precipitation occurs at cloud base. Frontal cloud systems give the bulk of the cold season precipitation and cloud bases during the heaviest rains average 4000 feet in coastal regions. In summer, convective precipitation is more important than precipitation from frontal systems. Again, maximum precipitation is probably near the base of cumuliform clouds, and Walker generalized by placing the summer level of maximum precipitation near

6000 feet on the southern coast of British Columbia. On the northern British Columbia coast, where frontal activity is frequent even in summer, the altitude of maximum summer precipitation is nearer 4000 feet.

There is a similar south to north gradient in the winter level of maximum precipitation. Since much of this winter precipitation occurs as snow, the altitude of heavy snow accumulation will be lower towards the north. This north-south gradient correlates with the northward altitudinal depression of mountain hemlock (Sudworth 1900, Hoffman 1912). The Coastal Subalpine Zone, which is defined by the altitudinal distribution of this species, is therefore similarly correlated with changes in the altitudinal level of heavy snow accumulations.

Comparisons of the altitude at which maximum precipitation occurs on coastal and interior mountains also explain why timberline is lower on the coast. Walker (p. 93) took into consideration that most precipitation fell from frontal cloud systems and placed the level of maximum precipitation at 4000 feet on the Coast for the whole year, but at 6000 feet in the Interior of the province. On the Coast there is a winter maximum in the precipitation regime so that much of the annual precipitation at the altitude of maximum occurrence will be in the form of snow. The result is an accumulation of snow at lower altitudes on the Coast than could be possible in the Interior, and the upper limit of forests is depressed.

Over the Coast Mountains, total annual precipitation in excess of 160 inches was calculated by Walker (1961) for 1956. Measuring stations are so scarce that similar amounts have not been actually recorded in the mountains. Walker (p. 90) gave the following monthly measurements at 3000 feet on Hollyburn Ridge, for a yearly total of 114.2 inches:

J F M A M J J A S O N D Total ppt. 10.2 8.9 11.3 6.6 4.2 7.3 4.9 3.2 8.6 13.4 20.2 15.4 inches

The regime above shows the winter concentration of precipitation which is largely in the form of snow. At 3120 feet on Hollyburn Ridge, the 7-year average for annual winter snowfall is 302.8 inches (Climate of British Columbia 1960). Winter totals from the Cascade Mountains where vegetation is similar to that in the Coastal Subalpine Zone show similarly large accumulations of snow. Freeman and Martin (1954) listed average winter totals of 400 inches at 3000 feet on Snoqualmie Pass, and 492 inches at 4400 feet near Mount Baker, both in the State of Washington. The maximum average snowfall recorded in the United States (575 inches) is from Paradise Ranger Station (5550 feet) in Mount Rainier National Park (Landsberg 1958).

In the present study, snow depth was recorded on upright graduated poles at weekly intervals. These weekly values of snow depth would not be the same as cumulative daily totals as recorded in permanent climatic stations. In the winter of 1960-61, maximum recorded snow depth was 175 inches at an altitude of 4000 feet on Mount Seymour but only 56 inches at 3200 feet (Figure 6). As expected, there is also a difference in duration of snow cover between the two stations. At 3200 feet the first snow was recorded on November 12, 1960, and, except for some snow-free patches in the last half of December and late January, there was complete snow cover until April 29. The last patches of snow were gone by May 29, to give a total of 199 days of snow cover. At 4000 feet a trace of snow on October 8 disappeared and the first permanent snow of the season was on October 29, 1960. The last patches disappeared by June 19, 1961 making the duration 234 days. These two examples are considered representative for the lower and upper subzones of this bioclimatic zone.

Data were used from laboratory information in Geology 412 at the University of British Columbia to show the relationships between seasonal precipitation, snow accumulation and stream discharge. The precipitation curve (Figure 5) is based on 33 years of measurements at an altitude of 583 feet in

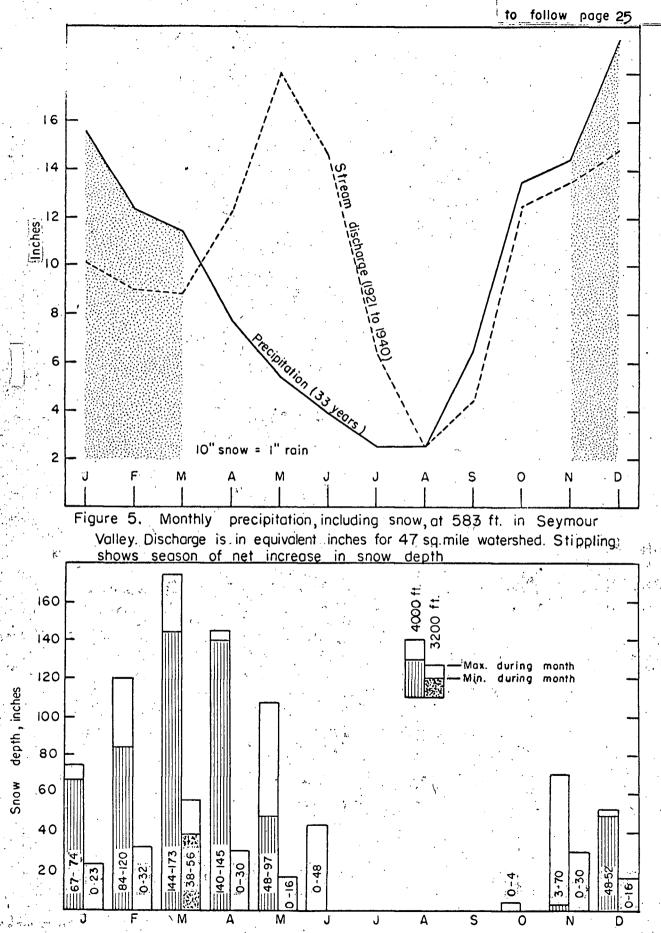


Figure 6. Monthly maximum and minimum snow depths for BP124 (4000 ft) and BP15 (3200 ft.) on Mount Seymour. 1960-61.

Seymour Valley. Average monthly stream discharge (cubic feet per second) for the Seymour River was theoretically converted to a uniform distribution over the entire area of the drainage basin by the formula:

Equivalent depth in inches = $\frac{\text{Cu. ft./sec. x 60 x 60 x 24 x 30 x 12}}{5280 \text{ x 5280 x area in sq. mi.}}$

For this particular watershed, months throughout a year may be placed in three categories: (1) months when there is a net increase in snow depth - November to March inclusive; (2) months when there is a net decrease in snow depth - April, May and June; and (3) months when little or no snow remains - July to October inclusive. These three periods are closely correlated with the monthly changes in stream discharge (Figures 5 and 6).

During the wettest months of the year most of the precipitation occurs as snow, and during the months when there is a net increase in snow there is an excess of precipitation over runoff because most of the snow is stored in the drainage basin (Figure 5). At the time of spring runoff, stream discharge in equivalent inches far exceeds precipitation. The excess of discharge over precipitation in July results from the melting of late snow-patches in the Subalpine Zone, even though the two stations represented in Figure 6 show no snow remaining in July, 1961.

The final feature of importance is the similarity in slope of the precipitation and discharge curves when snow is not involved as a storage factor. The normal increase in precipitation from August onwards is followed by a proportionate increase in stream discharge, until freezing temperatures and snow again hinder runoff. The secondary December peak in discharge is a result of heavy rains in the levels of the watershed which are below snow-line at that time of year.

The relationships described above indicate the necessity for knowledge of subalpine climatic and ecological conditions if water production and run-

off control are to be considered in land management.

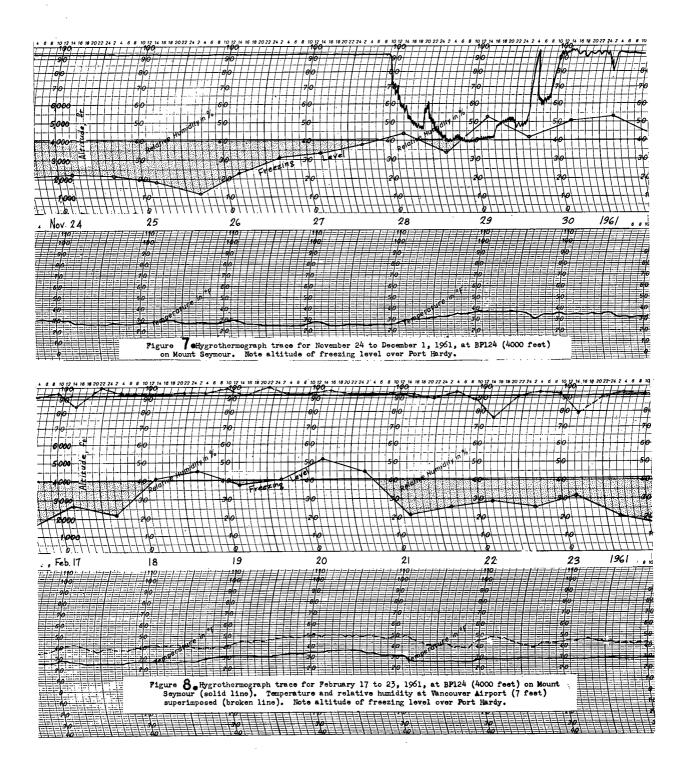
b. Humidity and Temperature

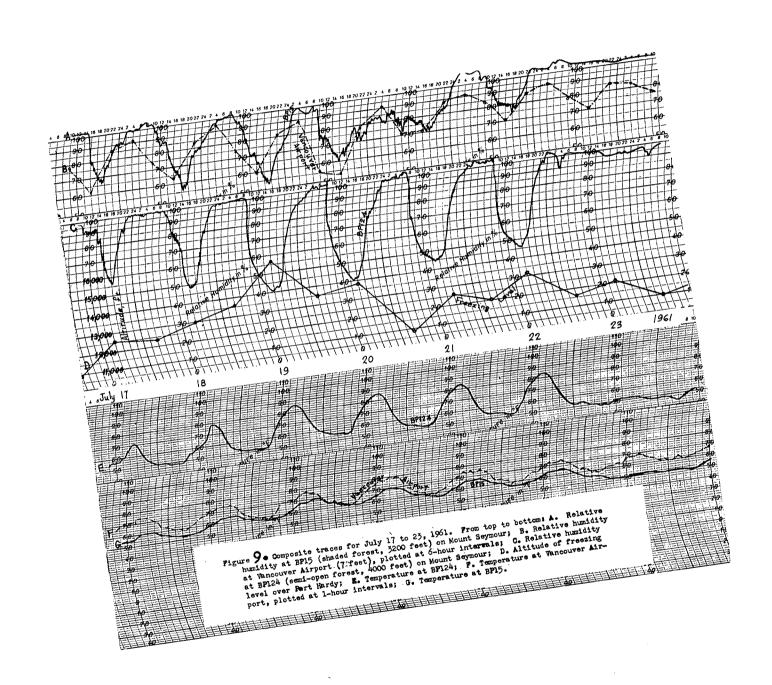
Stevenson screens were placed near ground level with the sensitive portion of the hygrothermographs 25 centimeters above the soil surface. During winter, the screens were mounted on trees so that they could be readily moved up or down with fluctuating snow levels. The station near 3200 feet (BP 15) was in a shaded mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association of the lower subzone. The station at 4000 feet (BP 124) was more exposed and was located in a lithic Gladothamnus association.

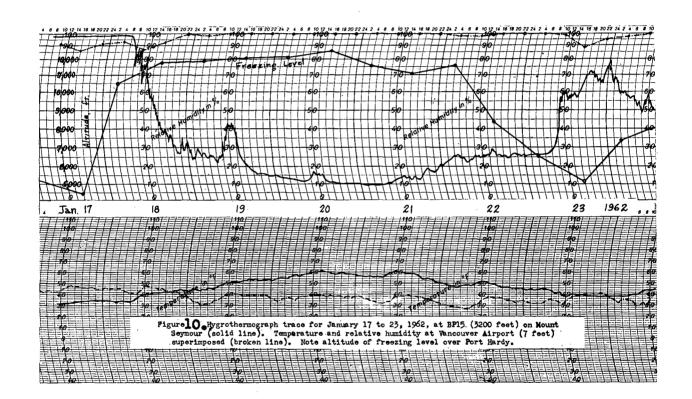
There are three distinct diurnal patterns of relative humidity throughout the year in the Subalpine Zone (Figures 7 to 10 inclusive). The first is the typical winter trace as shown by the first four days in Figure 7 and the entire week in Figure 8. During this season relative humidity may remain above 90 per cent for days at a time especially if cloud base is below the altitude of the measuring station. Eis (1962b) observed similar traces in lower elevations of the Western Hemlock Zone. Relative humidity in the Stevenson screen was often between 90 and 95 per cent even when it was raining. It rose to 100 per cent only in time of heavy daw or fog.

The second diurnal pattern of relative humidity occurs during clear summer weather. It is characterized by a very marked difference between day and night, as shown in the top trace of Figure 9. The daily range of relative humidity is greatest on the more exposed station at 4000 feet.

The third pattern is characterized by continuously low humidities and is associated with temperature inversions during the winter. The trace in Figure 10 shows humidities which are unknown at lower altitudes. Vancouver reported relative humidities of 100 per cent when they were as low as 10 per







cent at 3200 feet on Mount Seymour. From the evening of January 18 until January 23 it was foggy at Vancouver Airport, but continuously clear at higher altitudes on the mountains. Turner (1953) described similar periods of low humidity for south coastal British Columbia. They occur mainly when warm, dry tropical air overrides several hundred feet of cooler maritime air.

The great diurnal variations of relative humidity, particularly in the summer months, make average values relatively meaningless. To characterize humidity conditions at the two subalpine stations, a frequency distribution for 10 per cent humidity-classes was used (Figure 11). The original hygrothermograph sheets from a 12-month period were sampled by two-hour intervals. The humidity shown at every two-hour intersection along the trace was tallied in the appropriate 10 per cent class. By this method, 2504 readings were tallied for station BP 124 and 2687 for station BP 15 over the one-year period. The results were plotted on logarithmic paper so that the small frequency of low humidities could be shown. Figure 11 indicates the relative occurrence of the humidity features discussed in the preceding paragraphs. For example, humidities between 90 and 100 per cent occur more than 50 per cent of the time, and humidities less than 20 per cent occur approximately one per cent of the time. As expected, the shaded station showed a smaller frequency of humidities in the lower classes than the exposed station (BP 124).

During the periods of uniformly high relative humidity, temperatures do not vary more than three or four degrees daily and these uniform temperatures are common during much of the winter (Figures 7 and 8).

In clear summer weather, the diurnal variation of temperature is much greater on the relatively exposed station at 4000 feet (BP 124) than at sea level (Figure 9). Diurnal variation is much less in the shaded station at 3200 feet and it is a few degrees cooler than the sea level station at all times of the day. On a cloudy summer day (July 23, Figure 9) the great

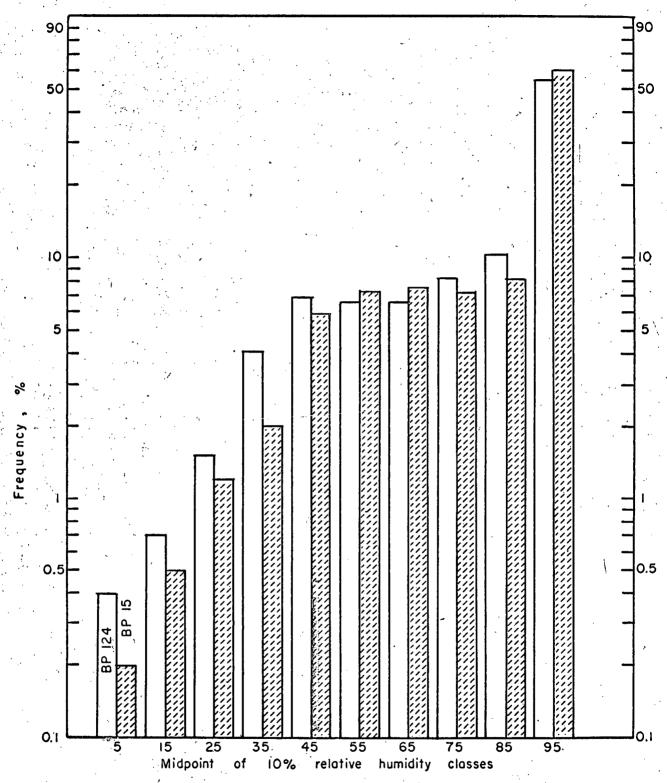


Figure II. Frequency distribution of relative humidity by 10% classes for BP 124 (4000 ft.) and BP 15 (3200 ft.) on Mount Seymour. Aug. 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961.

differences in diurnal range between the shaded and unshaded subalpine stations are eliminated, and both of them are 10 to 15 degrees cooler than the station near sea level. The altitudinal gradient in temperature is best revealed during cloudy weather in winter; temperatures at 4000 feet are usually 15 degrees lower than those near sea level at this time of year (Figure 8).

During an inversion from January 18 to 23, 1962, temperatures at 3200 feet on the mountain were as much as 26 degrees warmer than those at Vancouver Airport (Figure 10). The freezing level at this time was over 11,000 feet which is a common summer position (compare to freezing levels for July 21 to 23, Figure 9). Such conditions are not common, but one or two invasions of warm, dry tropical air may be expected every winter. If the warm air mass remains over the mountains for several consecutive days, snow levels may be greatly reduced. The decrease in snow depth during December 1960 (Figure 6) resulted from a prolonged temperature inversion. There can also be inversions when there are outbreaks of continental Arctic air from the east. However, these are of shorter duration because of heating from below by water surfaces.

In all months, the mean temperatures are lower for mountain stations than for Vancouver Airport (Table II). The mean monthly temperature for January was less than the mean temperature for February at Vancouver Airport. In contrast, the January mean was considerably higher than the February mean at the mountain stations. This reflects the importance of temperature inversions during January. On the two mountain stations, the mean monthly minimum temperature was always lower at the relatively exposed station (4000 feet). The mean monthly maximum was higher at the 4000 feet station from June to October inclusive but the mean monthly temperature is higher at the upper station only during July, August and September.

Schmidt (1960) stressed that conventional methods of compiling meteorological data are of little use in relating climate to growth of trees, nor do

Surmary of mean monthly, maximum and minimum temperatures for Vancouver Airport and for 3200 ft. and 4000 ft. on Mount Seymour. Aug. 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961

TABLE II

	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July
Vancouver Airport (16 ft.):					/							
Mean monthly max.	68.5	63.1	56.7	48.3	44.3	45.5	.47.9	51.6	54.3	61.5	70.4	73.9
Mean monthly min.	55.4	49.6	47.1	3 8.5	34.3	36.1	39.3	40.1	43.1	48.4	54.2	<i>5</i> 7.3
Mean monthly temp.	61.4	56.5	51.8	43.4	39.2	40.8	43.5	45.0	48.7	55.0	62.3	66.1
Mount Seymour (3200 ft.) BP15:												
Mean monthly max.	54.3	54.4	45.9	35.1	36.7	39.9	33.4	34.0	36.7	46.2	5 8.6	62.1
Mean monthly min.	47.2	46.9	40.2	31.4	31.3	33.7	29.0	28.9	31.7	39.0	48.6	53.1
Mean monthly temp.	50.7	50.1	43.0	33.2	34.0	36.8	31.2	31.4	34.2	42.3	53.6	57.6
Mount Seymour (4000 ft.) BP124												
Mean monthly max.	59.8	62.6	47.6	34.6	36.3	39.0	31.3	32.2	35.3	44.6	61.5	72.4
Mean monthly min.	43.5	40.5	37.0	28.2	29.0	31.8	27.3	27.0	29.5	36.9	44.0	48.4
Mean monthly temp.	51.5	51.5	42.3	31.4	32.4	35•4	29.3	29.6	32.4	40.7	52.7	60.4

they provide a means of describing and classifying altitudinal climatic gradients. He recommended the use of accumulated temperatures on an hour-degree basis in relation to various threshold values.

Summaries of accumulated temperatures are presented in Table III to allow comparisons with other bioclimatic zones (Krajina 1959). Day-degrees above 43° F. were calculated from the difference between the daily mean temperature and 43° F., when the former was more than the threshold value. The annual number of day-degrees over 43° F. was 1486 at the shaded station (3200 feet), 1642 at the more exposed station (4000 feet), and 3264 at Vancouver Airport (16 feet). These compare with 1500-3000 for the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone and 2500-3500 for the Coastal Douglas-fir Zone (Krajina 1963). In this same table, the number of days with a mean temperature over 32° F. and the accumulated day-degrees over 32° F. are also shown. With 32° F. as the threshold value, the shaded station at 3200 feet was slightly warmer than the higher station, whereas the opposite was true when 43° F. was used as a threshold value.

Hour-degrees as recommended by Schmidt (1960) may be measured by a planimeter on thermograph sheets, or by taking direct hourly readings from the trace and relating it to the threshold value. The latter method was used here but readings were taken only every two hours as recommended by Landsberg (1958, p. 149). Because of its direct relationship to snow accumulation, 32° F. was chosen as the threshold value. The results are presented in Table IV as hour-degrees over 32° F. for each month. The monthly values would not be directly comparable because the months vary in length and correction factors to obtain a standard month were applied. The magnitude of temperature decrease with increased altitude is shown by the station at 4000 feet which has less than half the hour-degrees over 32° F. recorded for Vancouver Airport. By this method, the 4000-foot station is cooler than that

TABLE III

Summary of day-degrees over 43°F. and over 32°F. for Vancouver Airport and for 3200 ft. and 4000 ft. on Mount Seymour. Aug. 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961

Vancouver Airport (16 ft.):	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Year
No. days with mean temp. over 43°F. Day-degrees over 43°F.	31	30	31	15	8	12	15	23	27	31	30	31	284
	487	401	268	42	20	44	46	119	168	380	581	708	3264
No. days with mean temp. over 32°F.	31	30	31	30	30	31	28	31	30	31	_	31	364
Day-degrees over 32°F.	828	731	609	400	180	351	321	429	496	721		1049	7026
Mount Seymour (3200 ft.) BP15:													
No. days with mean temp. over 43°F.	28	29	16	2	2	5	0	0	0	14	27	31	154
Day-degrees over 43°F.	249	231	85	6	2	38	0	0		97	324	454	1486
No. days with mean temp. over 32°F.	31	30	31	20	22	23	11	16	23	30	30	31	298
Day-degrees over 32°F.	587	560	342	70	96	170	30	5 0	88	330	650	794	3767
Mount Seymour (4000 ft.) BP124:												:	
No. days with mean temp. over 43°F. Day-degrees over 43°F.	22 292	26 265	14 94	2 11	2 4	4 37	0	0 0	0	10 80	26 317	31 540	137 1642
No. days with mean temp. over 32°F. Day-degrees over 32°F.	31	30	31	13	15	19	4	14	17	29	30	31	264
	609	587	312	51	65	144	13	30	60	274	637	880	3642

Summary of hour-degrees over 32°F. for Vancouver Airport and for 3200 ft. and 4000 ft. on Mount Seymour. Aug. 1, 1960 to July 31, 1961

TABLE IV

	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Year
Vancouver Airport (16 ft.):													
Hour-degrees over 32°F. * Corrected to std. month % of hrs. in month 32° or more		17878	14734 144 <i>5</i> 4 100	8366	5422		6493		11922		22055		166,008
Mount Seymour (3200 ft.) BP15:	<u> </u>					-							
Hour-degrees over 32°F. * Corrected to std. month % of hrs. in month 32° or more	13744 13483 100		7840 7691 99•7	1673	2105	4092 4014 75•0	934	1448	2236 2267 73•1		15719		89,069
Mount Seymour (4000 ft.) BP124:													
Hour-degrees over 32°F. * Corrected to std. month % of hrs. in month 32° or more	13554 13296 100	12298 12470 100	5918 5806 96.0	1203	2076	3702 3632 58•1	421	814 798 39.8	1424 1444 58•1			13984	81,444

^{*} Standard month taken as 365/12 = 30.417 days. Correction factor for 28-day month = 30.417/28 = 1.086; for 30-day month = 1.014; for 31-day month = 0.981

at 3200 feet during every month except July, whereas in other methods of caloulating accumulated temperature (Table III) this relationship was not always revealed so clearly. There is little doubt that the expression of data by accumulated hour-degrees is more accurate, although more time consuming.

When accumulated hour-degrees are related to snow accumulation at various altitudes, a lag in early spring warming is noted at the two subalpine stations (Figure 12). Particularly in March and April, the high albedo of snow surface prevents it from absorbing much heat. These relationships result in a marked reduction of the growing season at higher altitude.

Ecologists have used temperature data in many different ways in attempts to correlate it with plant life. Daubenmire (1938) and Kramer and Kozlowski (1960) criticized methods of correlating temperature summations with biotic features because it requires the assumption that each degree of temperature has the same significance. A further weakness is that interacting phases of climate tend to make isotherms impractical as guides to the distribution of vegetation (Kramer and Kozlowski 1960).

Degrees along a temperature scale may ordinarily be considered as a continuum as far as their direct influence on plant life is concerned. However, the physical changes which occur at the freezing point of water disrupt the temperature continuum at this point. This is especially significant in areas of high precipitation where freezing temperatures of a certain frequency will cause snow accumulations that greatly shorten the growing season for plants. For this reason, the remainder of this section is devoted to a determination of the frequency of freezing temperatures at various altitudes in the zone.

c. Freezing Levels

The hypothesis that radiosonde freezing level data could be used

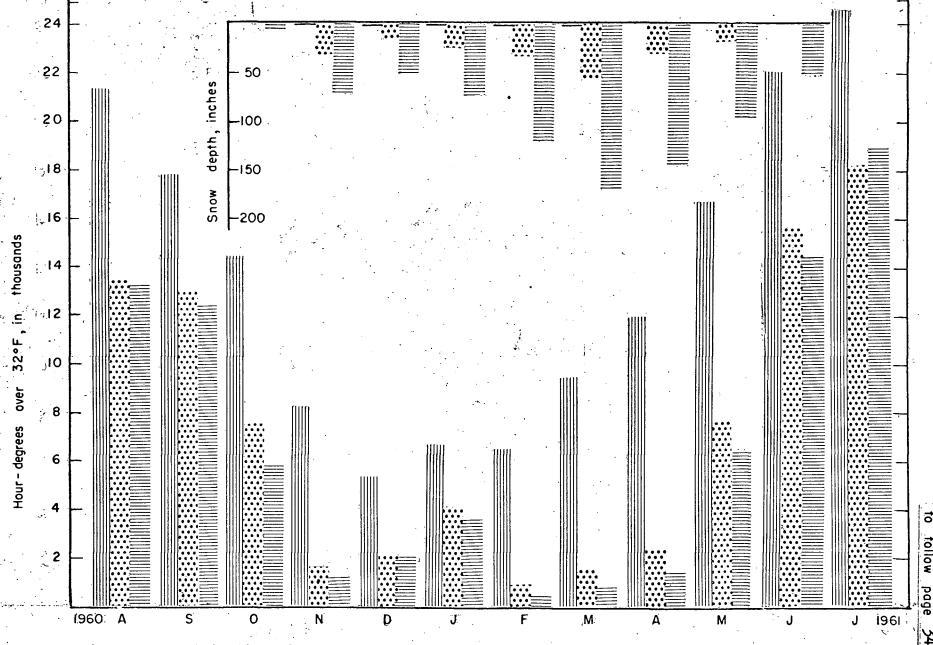


Figure 12. Relationship of accumulated temperature to snow depth for altitudes of 7ft (Vancouver airport-vertical bars), 3200 ft (BP15-dots), and 4000 ft (BP124-horizontal bars)

to determine the frequency of freezing temperatures on a mountain slope was tested in several ways.

The nearest station from which readings were available was Port Hardy (Latitude 50°14' N, Longitude 127°22' W) 225 miles northwest of the study area. Daily readings at 4 p.m. (00:00 Greenwich Mean Time) and 4 a.m. (12:00 Greenwich Mean Time), obtained from a balloon ascent which records the altitude at which a freezing temperature is first encountered, are published as geopotential kilometers above sea level in the Monthly Bulletin Canadian Radiosonde Data.

Radiosonde readings were converted to altitude in feet and the values were plotted on the hygrothermograph sheets for the days shown in Figures 7 to 10 inclusive. Figures 7 and 8 are stippled when the freezing level was at 4000 feet or less on the basis of radiosonde readings. This stippling represents the time when the temperature should also be 32° F. or less at the same altitude (4000 feet) on a mountain slope if temperature measurement by atmospheric radiosonde methods are comparable with those obtained from a thermograph at a ground station.

From November 24 to 28, 1961, when the freezing level was below 4000 feet at Port Hardy (stippled area, Figure 7) temperatures were also below freezing at 4000 feet on Mount Seymour. When the level rose above 4000 feet over Port Hardy, a corresponding rise above freezing was shown at the 4000-foot mountain station. Even small fluctuations in the freezing level over Port Hardy coincide with changes in the thermograph trace on Mount Seymour, 225 miles away (see Figure 7, 4 a.m., November 30, 1961). Further relationships can be observed by study of the graphs in Figures 7 and 8, and even closer correlations could be expected if radiosonde data were available more frequently than every 12 hours. For comparison, the freezing levels for one week in the summer are shown in Figure 9, and the great change in freezing

level during a winter temperature inversion is shown in Figure 10.

The selected examples (Figures 7 to 10) do not necessarily prove that the radiosonde readings can be used to characterize freezing levels on a mountain slope. For example, a weather front between Port Hardy and the local study area could disrupt freezing levels. Therefore, it was necessary to test the relationship over a period of time.

The monthly frequencies of temperature 32° F. or over at altitudes of 3200 feet and 4000 feet over Port Hardy, based only on radiosonde data, show a remarkable similarity to the same information for the same 12-month period based on thermograph data from stations at 3200 feet and 4000 feet on Mount Seymour (Figures 13a and 13b).

To test the relationship further, a Chi-square test of the frequency of freezing temperatures at 4000 feet or less over Port Hardy and at 4000 feet on Mount Seymour was carried out for the season when freezing levels could be expected to intersect the mountain-side (Table V). At the .05 level of probability, there is no significant difference in the frequency of freezing temperatures at 4 p.m. when the radiosonde and thermograph methods are compared. At 4 a.m. there is a significant difference because the daily minimum at the ground station occurs in the early morning as a result of nocturnal cooling. But this lack of agreement for the early morning readings is a result of the morning heat balance near the ground and is not necessarily dependent upon the atmospheric freezing level, nor does it reflect a fault of the proposed use of atmospheric radiosonde data. Both a.m. and p.m. radiosonde readings could be used, and the only weakness would be an underestimate of the frequency of freezing temperatures at ground level in the early morning.

The evidence above indicates that over a period of time the freezing isotherm will intersect a mountain-side at an altitude similar to that measured



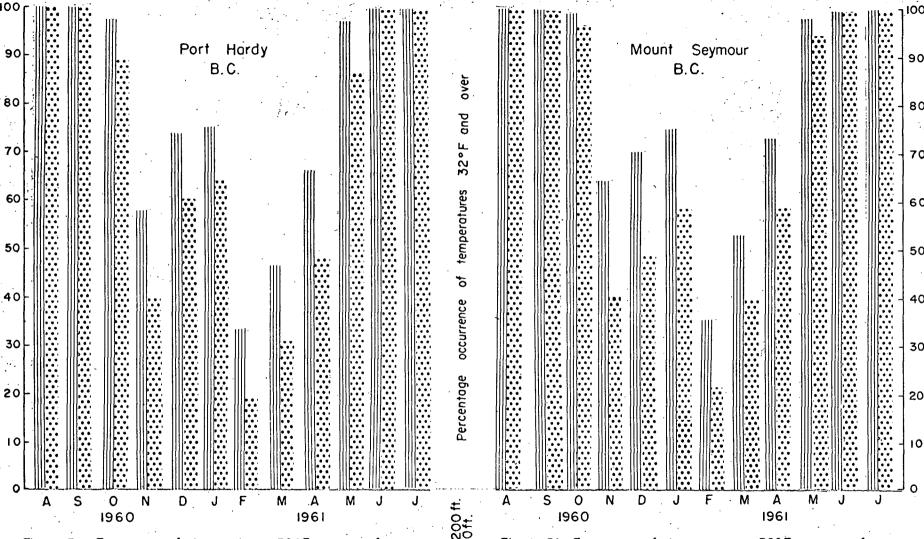


Figure 13a. Frequency of temperatures 32°F or over for 3200 ft. and 4000 ft. over Port Hardy, based on 679 radiosonde readings for each altitude.

Figure 13b. Frequency of temperatures 32°F or over for 3200 ft.(BP15) and 4000 ft.(BP124) on Mount Seymour, based on 4380 readings for each altitude.

TABLE V

Frequencies of freezing temperatures (4 a.m. and 4 p.m.) at an altitude of 4000 feet over Port Hardy and for the same altitude on Mount Seymour. Sept. 1, 1960 to May 31, 1961

4000 feet over	Port Hard	4000 feet on Mount Seymour						
	4 p.m.	4 a.m.		4 p.m.	4 a.m.			
Freezing level 4000 feet or less	89	98	Temp. 31.5°F. or less at 4000 feet	99	123			
Freezing level over 4000 feet	184	175	Temp. 31.5°F. or over at 4000 feet	174	150			
Total	273	273		273	273			

Tests of significance: $(P_{.05} \text{ for 1 d.f.} = 3.84)$

at 4 p.m. 0.81 = no significant difference at 4 a.m. 4.75 = significant difference

some distance away. This will apply especially for relatively cold air masses, which are more affected by obstructing mountain ranges than are warm air masses; stable cold air may be slowed or even stopped in its movement by intercepting high mountains (Davis 1959, p. 138). Periodic discrepancies can be expected because it is known that during flight over mountains in cloudy weather, icing may occur at lower levels than in the same air mass over level country (World Met. Organ. 1960), and the presence of a weather front between the radiosonde station and the mountain in question could influence the altitude of the freezing level. Furthermore, evapotranspiration and other vegetational influences could affect the freezing isotherm. The forest cover on the 3200-foot station, in contrast to the openness at the 4000-foot station, would have some influence on the frequency of freezing temperatures (Figure 13b), but apparently none of these influences was important enough in the comparisons between Fort Hardy and Mount Seymour to disrupt the close relationships

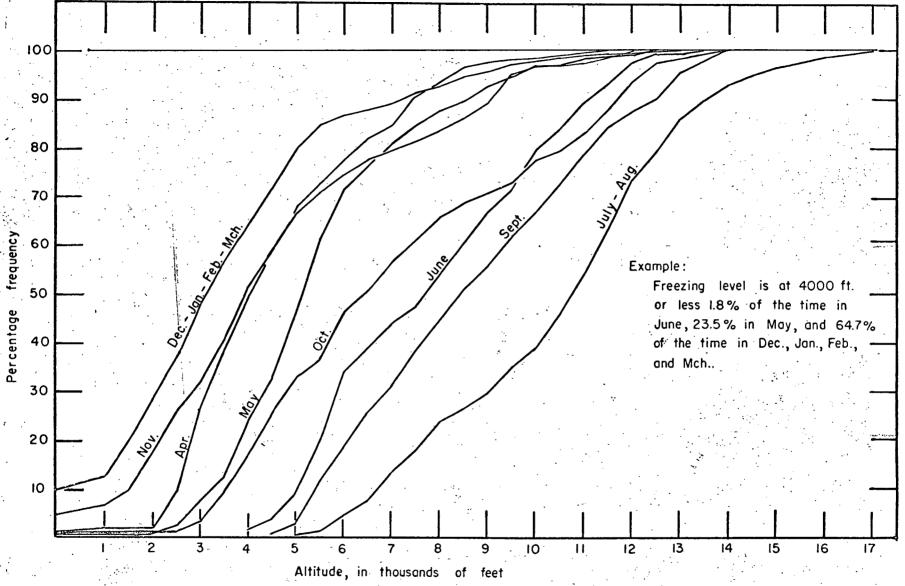


Figure 14. Cumulative percentage frequency showing occurrence of freezing level at various altitudes. Data from Port Hardy, B.C., Jan I, 1959 to May 31, 1962.

shown above. Therefore, it should be possible to determine from radiosonde data the frequency of freezing temperature for any period of the year for any altitude on a mountain-side.

Accordingly, a cumulative percentage frequency (ogive) curve was constructed for altitudes up to 17,000 feet (Figure 14). These curves are based on approximately 2400 published radiosonde readings from January 1, 1959 to May 31, 1962. In cases where the temperature was below freezing throughout the sounding, freezing level was tallied at the surface. In cases when there was a temperature inversion, the freezing level was not tallied at the ground level but at the altitude where a freezing temperature was again recorded. The results were plotted by months, but where two or more months showed a similar frequency distribution they were grouped. The curves are similar to those published by the U. S. Navy (1956) and have a number of useful applications. They allow determination of the frequency of occurrence of the 32° F. isotherm above or below any given altitude. There are two ways to read the graph: if freezing level is equal to or less than 3000 feet in 32 per cent of the observations during November, then obviously it is above 3000 feet during 68 per cent of the observations.

There is a great altitudinal lowering of the freezing isotherm from November to May inclusive (Figure 14). The curves also rise more sharply during these months, particularly within the altitudinal limits of the lower subzone. This means that a small increase in altitude in the lower half of the Subslpine Zone will be associated with a relatively large increase in the frequency of freezing temperatures during the winter months (Figure 15a).

To construct the histograms in Figure 15, an altitudinal range which would include all mountains in the study area was selected (0 to 11,000 feet). From a large-scale reproduction of Figure 14, the frequency of freezing temperatures for each month were tallied for every 500-foot altitudinal class.

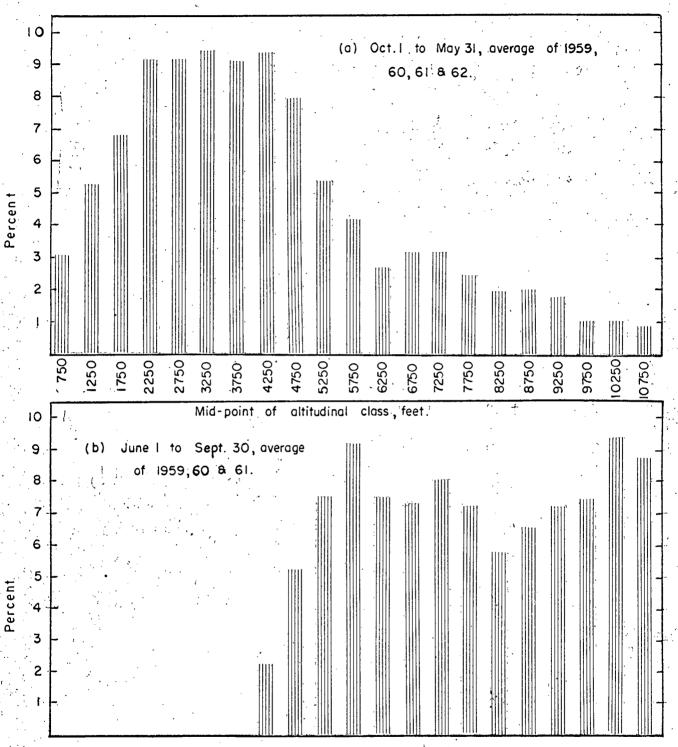


Figure 15. Percentage increase in the frequency of freezing temperatures for each additional 500 ft. rise in altitude from 500 to 11,000 ft. above m.s.l., for (a) "winter" and (b) "summer". Data from Port Hardy, B.C.

Months during which snowfall normally occurs in the Subalpine Zone were grouped as "winter" months (October to May inclusive) and the remainder were grouped as "summer" months. Freezing temperatures which were recorded at zero altitude in Figure 14 were excluded in the computation for Figure 15 because they were mainly ground frosts and were not directly related to an altitudinal analysis of freezing levels. Therefore, the 500 to 1000 ft. altitudinal class is the first one shown in Figure 15. The bars are plotted at the mid-points of the classes, and each bar shows the percentage increase in the frequency of freezing temperatures that could be expected for each additional 500-foot rise up a mountain-side. The bars are additive to 100 per cent, but this does not mean that the freezing level is below 11,000 feet 100 per cent of the time (Figure 14 shows that it is not). Percentages refer only to the particular altitudinal range that was chosen. The summer values are presented only for comparison and are of little importance since the freezing level is usually above the Subalpine Zone during these months.

The 32° F. isotherm most frequently occurs between 2250 and 4250 feet in the period from October 1 to May 31 (Figure 15a), and in many individual months the modal occurrence of the freezing level was observed to be in the 3250-foot altitudinal class. The concentration of winter freezing levels in this altitudinal range coincides with the sharp increase in snow accumulation at this level on the mountains of the study area. At 3000 feet approximately 33 per cent of the observations from October 1 to May 31 indicate temperatures at or below freezing (summation of the first five bars in Figure 15). This is sufficient to maintain a snow cover that greatly shortens the growing season. The rapid increase in the frequency of freezing temperatures up to the 4250-foot class accounts for the 117-inch difference in maximum snow depth between the 3200 and 4000-foot stations (Figure 6). This is the main climatic difference of the two floristically distinct subzones of the Subalpine Zone.

D. The Vegetation

In this section, the floristic features which identify the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone and which distinguish within it two altitudinal

TABLE VI

Vegetational characteristics of the Subalpine Zone

for entire zone for lower subzone for upper subzone ON MESIC HABITATS ON MESIC HABITATS Abies amabilis (low vigour) Tsuga heterophylla Vaccinium deliciosum Tsuga mertensiana Menziesia ferruginea Cassiope mertensiana Vaccinium membranaceum Vaccinium alaskaense Rhododendron albiflorum Vaccinium ovalifolium Sorbus occidentalis Pyrola secunda Rubus pedatus Cornus canadensis Saxifraga tolmiei			
ON MESIC HABITATS Abies amabilis (low vigour) Tsuga mertensiana Vaccinium membranaceum Rhododendron albiflorum Sorbus occidentalis Rubus pedatus Rhytidiopsis robusta Kiaeria blyttii Orthocaulis floerkii Orthocaulis floerkii Chamaecyparis nootkatensis Varatrum eschscholtzii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Cladothamus pyrolaeflorus Lescurae bailoyi Pilophoron hallii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Cladothamus pyrolaeflorus Lescurae bailoyi Pilophoron hallii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Cladothamus pyrolaeflorus Lescurae bailoyi Pilophoron hallii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Cladothamus pyrolaeflorus Lescurae bailoyi Pilophoron hallii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Cladothamus pyrolaeflorus Lescurae bailoyi Pilophoron hallii ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Coodyera oblongifolia ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Coodyera oblongifolia Corcurium alaskaense Vaccinium deliciosum Cassiope mertensiana Phyllodoce empetriformis Gaultheria humifus Edutheria humifus Saxifraga tolmiel Deschampsia atropurpurea Hieracium gracile Caltha leptosopala Erigeron Deregrinus Hippuris montana Juncus drummondii Leotarrhena pyrolifolia Parassia fimbriata Tofieldia glutimosa Juncus mertensiana ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Saxifraga ferruginea Luxula wahlenbergii Lyschitum quidatum Cassiope mertensiana Phyllodoce empetriformis Gaultheria humifus Eachimus gracile ON WET EDAPHIC HABITATS Salix commutata Caltha leptosopala Erigeron Deregrinus Hippuris montana Juncus drummondii Plagiothecium undulatum ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Saxifraga ferruginea Luxula wahlenbergii Lyschitum quidatum ON DRY EDAPHIC HABITATS Coodyera oblongifolia Crocynia tempohylla Crearria islandica Cetraria islandica Cetraria rupestris			Differentiating specie
Abies amabilis (low vigour) Tsuga mertensiana Vaccinium membranaceum Rhododendron albiflorum Sorbus occidentalis Rubus pedatus Rhytidiopsis robusta Riaeria blyttii Orthocaulis floerkii Streptopus streptopoides Vaccinium contains Valeriana sitchensis Valeriana sitchensis Valeriana sitchensis Varatrum eschscholtzii Cladothammus pyrolaeflorus Lescuraea bailoyi Pilophoron hallii Streptopus amplexifolius Pilophoron hallii Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus amplexifolius Streptopus cauda Cassione mertensiana Phyllodoce empetriformis Gaultheria humifusa Luetkea pectinata Saxifraga tolmiei Deschampsia atropurpurea Hieracium gracile Deschampsia atropurpurea Hieracium gracile Caltha periophylla Deschampsia atropurpurea Hieracium gracile Carex nigricans Caltha leptosepala Carex spectabilis Caltha leptosepala Carex nigricans Caltha leptosepala Carex spectabilis Caltha lep	for entire zone	for lower subzone	for upper subzone
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subzones are discussed. There is also an enumeration of species which occur sporadically within the zone, and finally some of the more important zonal influences on the vegetation are presented. The latter section deals with vegetation patterns, height growth of trees and relations of tree height to diameter with increasing altitude, the influence of snow on basal crook in tree stems, and relative turgidity measurements of amabilis fir and mountain hemlock needles from trees in the upper and lower subzones.

1. Zonal and Subzonal Floristic Features

The low forest productivity and the relative inaccessibility have helped to keep the vegetation undisturbed. There are no anthropogenous communities in the zone and few introduced species.

The zonal character species are shown for mesic, wet and dry habitats in the first column of Table VI. In addition, there is a tabulation of differentiating species for the lower and upper subzones. Many of the differentiating species for the lower subzone occur also in the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone at lower altitudes. But when they occur in combination with the zonal subalpine species of column one in Table VI, they can be used for differentiation of lower subalpine conditions.

Mountain hemlock is the most common large trees in the zone (Table VII). Of all trees measured on 71 forested sample plots, 46.7 per cent of the trees larger than the 10-inch diameter class were mountain hemlock, 38.4 per cent were amabilis fir and only 14.9 per cent were yellow cedar. Conversely, amabilis fir was the most abundant tree in the 10-inch class or less, followed by mountain hemlock and yellow cedar. Almost 70 per cent of the amabilis fir on the sample plots were in the 10-inch class or less, 67.0 per cent of the cedar, and 53.3 per cent of the mountain hemlock (Table VII).

Silvical characteristics of mountain hemlock were summarized by

Proportion of species, size distribution, and frequency of basal snow-crook on 71 forested plots in the Subalpine

TABLE VII

Zone.

	Amabilis fir			llow dar	Moun heml	Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Trees 10" class or less % of total for species	1054 69•		360 67	17.6 .0	634 53	31.0 .3	2048
Trees over 10" class % of total for species	457 30•	38•4 3	177 33	14.9 .0	556 46	46 . 7	1190
Total	1511		537	******	1190		3238
Trees 10" class or less with snow-crook	222	_	133	(0	255	_	610
% of total possible	21	1	3	6.9	40	•2	
Trees over 10" class with snow-crook	18		3		5 3		74
% of total possible	3	3 . 9		1.7	9	•5	

Dahms (1958) and the 1962 review by Franklin collects many additional references for the species. Heusser's (1960) range map for mountain hemlock is the best available. Schmidt (1957) discussed the silvics and distribution of amabilis fir in detail, Dimock (1958) reviewed the silvical characteristics of the species, and Haddock (1961) recently published new information on the distribution of amabilis fir. Silvical characteristics of yellow cedar were discussed by Sudworth (1908), Betts (1953) and Andersen (1959).

As the zonal species in the study area, mountain hemlock grows on a wide variety of habitats. It can regenerate in dense shade, on decayed wood, or on humus. When it occurs in seepage habitats at lower levels of the zone, it is often confined to humps created by irregularities in the topography or by accumulation of organic matter; the species thrives on emminences of its own making. In the upper portions of the Subalpine Zone, ridges are the most

Even on relatively bare areas, such as morainal surfaces, it will germinate and grow successfully. It is also the first tree species to invade the <u>Phyllo-doce - Cassiops</u> heaths (see Plate I, F and Plate II, C), as discussed by Brink (1959). The sparsely distributed trees on the upper slope in Figure 3 and in Plate I, C are all mountain hemlock. It is clearly the zonal species for the area.

Amabilis fir and yellow cedar, which are both typical Pacific Coast elements (Porsild 1958), are strongly controlled by edaphic conditions. The most productive forest stands are on warm southwest slopes near the lower limits of the zone, and amabilis fir contributes the greatest volume on such stands (see Figure 25A - the typical subassociation of the Streptopus association, and Plate I, A). Amabilis fir is abundant in all layers because it is the most shade tolerant tree on the coast of British Columbia, and its best development is in seepage habitats where it even grows in depressions. When raw humus is thick, amabilis fir regeneration is far less successful than mountain hemlock.

Yellow cedar has a distributional range similar to mountain hemlock except that it is very uncommon in the Interior of British Columbia. However, on a local scale the two species have little in common; where mountain hemlock grows well, yellow cedar does not, and vice-versa. Yellow cedar has some features which adapt it well to subalpine climate conditions. For example, the drooping and vertically-disposed branchlets prevent great accumulations of snow in the crowns of this species. Nevertheless, it is at a disadvantage bear cause it does not grow well on the very acid raw humus which covers so much of this zone. Its best development is on seepage slopes, often in combination with large amabilis fir (see Figure 25B, the degraded subassociation of the Streptopus association). The oldest tree found in this study was a recently-felled yellow cedar at 3500 feet on Mount Seymour. A count of rings on its

stump showed that it was at least 800 years old, an indication that yellow cedar is highly resistant to decay. In the upper subzone, yellow cedar occurs as a gnarled shrub around isolated clumps of mountain hemlock (Plate I, D) or marginal to seepage and moor areas (Plate II, A).

A common feature of subalpine vegetation is the substitution of different species in a genus that is common in lower bioclimatic zones: as examples, <u>Tsuga heterophylla</u> is replaced by <u>Tsuga mertensiana</u> in the Subalpine Zone; <u>Sorbus sitchensis</u> by <u>Sorbus occidentalis</u>; and <u>Vaccinium parvifolium</u> by <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u>.

2. Sporadic Species in the Zone

Western hemlock (<u>Tsuga heterophylla</u>) is common up to 3200 feet on Mount Seymour and up to 4000 feet on Paul Ridge. It is the most common low-elevation tree species in the zone. Tolerance to podzolization and raw humus allows its growth in subalpine areas in contrast to Douglas-fir (<u>Pseudotsuga menziesii</u>) or western red-cedar (<u>Thuja plicata</u>). The latter species is restricted to moist edaphic habitats at lower altitudes, and in comparable subalpine habitats it is replaced by yellow cedar. Western red-cedar shows little frost resistance so its occurrence in the study area was limited to the lower <u>Lysichitum</u> sites at 2900 feet on Hollyburn Ridge. <u>Taxus brevifolia</u>, another sporadic species in the Subalpine Zone, occurred with western red-cedar on the same site.

Western white pine (Pinus monticola) is very sporadic in the zone and the largest tree was found in a moist Lysichitum association. Stunted individuals of white pine occur on exposed rock outcrops but the species is rapidly being reduced in abundance, mostly through the action of white pine blister rust. Dead trees of the species are common. On Hollyburn Ridge at 3200 feet, 14 dead standing white pines were counted on a 1/2-acre portion of a Cladothamnus ridge.

Lodgepole pine (Pinus contorta) occurs on exposed rock outcrops near The Lions and has been reported on the top of Crown Mountain (Krajina, personal communication), but it is otherwise very rare in the zone. Whitebark pine (Pinus albicaulis) was seen at Garibaldi Lake, north of the study area. Alpine fir (Abies lasiocarpa) occurs at the tree-line near Diamond Head and in the Eenostuck Meadows. These locations extend the range of alpine fir to the west slopes of the Coast Nountains where it had not previously been mapped by Alexander (1958). The only other sporadic tree species in the zone is Sitka spruce (Picea sitchensis) on the subalpine Oplopanax association at 3760 feet above sea level (Paul Ridge). This is an important extension of its recorded altitudinal range since Ruth (1958) stated that it was not recorded above 2500 feet in southern British Columbia. As expected, many of the low elevation species which reach their upper limit in the Subalpine Zone occur there in much reduced vigor (see site indices for western hemlock in Table XII, Chapter VI).

Lonicera utahensis, which is a common shrub at lower elevations in the Interior of British Columbia, occurs at 3700 feet on Paul Ridge, and Letharia vulpina, a lichen commonly associated with the Interior Douglas-fir Zone (Brayshaw 1955), was found on dead branches of yellow cedar at 4600 feet on the same mountain. Other interior species which were collected in the Coastal Subalpine Zone are Saxifraga Lyallii and Habenaria dilatata. The most important Arcticalpine elements (Porsild 1958) sporadically present are: Empetrum nigrum, Vaccinium uliginosum, Epilobium latifolium, and Oxyria digyna. Cladonia pacifica, which Ahti (1961) described as a lowland species, was collected far above its normal altitudinal range at 4390 feet near The Lions.

- 3. Zonal Influences on the Vegetation
 - a. Patterns in the Vegetation

Two levels of vegetational zonation must be recognized. Bioclimatic

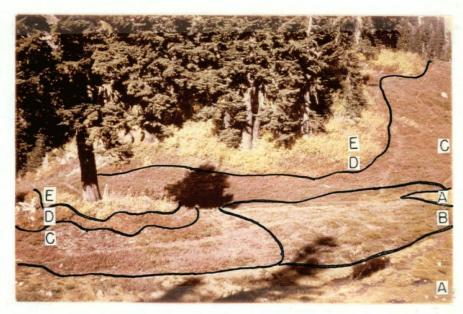


Figure 16. Biotic zonation associated with decreasing snow duration from A to E. The dominant species in each band are: A, Carex nigricans; B, Phyllodoce empetriformis and Cassiope mertensiana; C, Vaccinium deliciosum; D, Vaccinium membranaceum; E, Rhododendron albiflorum and Tsuga mertensiana.

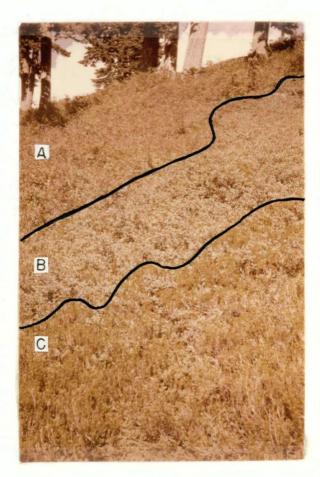


Figure 17. Closer view of zonation parallel to a clump of Tsuga mertensiana.

A, Vaccinium membranaceum; B, Vaccinium deliciosum; C, Phyllodoce empetriformis and Cassiope mertensiana.



Figure 18. Small-scale vegetation patterns controlled by duration of snow. Phyllodoce empetriforms and Cassiope mertensiana occur beneath these late snow-banks, 4400 feet, July 13, 1961.

zonation has already been discussed; it is the basis for the recognition of a distinct Coastal Subalpine Zone. However, within the zone, vegetation patterns are influenced by environmental gradients to give small scale biotic zonation, as shown in Figures 16 and 17. Irregular topography allows uneven accumulation of snow and in Figure 16 the snow remains longest in the depression at the right. The sequence of decreasing snow duration from the depression to the edge of the trees on the slope results in biotic zonation. Each zone has distinct dominant species and the boundaries are sharp. Figure 17 is a closer view of this zonation parallel to a group of trees. Proof that these smallscale vegetation patterns are closely correlated with the duration of snow is given in Figures 18 and 19. Note how closely the dark green patches of Phyllodoce empetriformis and Cassiope mertensiana match the last patches of snow in Figure 18. The aspect of a slope may cause similar differences in vegetation through differences in snow duration. In Figure 19, snow had disappeared from the warmer southeast slope of a ravine by July 13. A distinct association of dwarf mountain hemlock was established on this slope. On the



Figure 19. Dwarf mountain hemlock established on warm southeast slope of ravine where growing season is longer. One to three feet of snow remain over the <a href="https://proceducecommons.org/Physiological-physio

opposite northwest slope, where one to three feet of snow remained, an association of Phyllodoce and Cassiope was present. On certain aspects, the steepness of the slope may also influence snow duration and vegetation. The well developed Phyllodoce - Cassiope association shown in Plate II, D was on a 14 degree southeast slope, but not far below where the slope steepened to 36 degrees clumps of mountain hemlock surrounded by Vaccinium membranaceum were developed. The steeper slope was more at right angles to the sun's rays and the increased insolation would lengthen the growing season sufficiently to allow the establishment of mountain hemlock. The more heavily forested slope in the center of Plate III, A (Appendix IV) shows a similar phenomenon. Snow measurements showed that this southwest slope was free of snow a month before the surrounding Phyllodoce - Cassiope areas where trees are much more sparse. These examples clearly indicate the influences of topography, slope and aspect.

The distinguishable vegetation units shown in Figures 16 and 17 do not occur only as narrow bands along sharp environmental gradients. In places

where changes in snow duration are more gradual, the units may cover larger areas. It was in such areas that sample plots were located for floristic analyses. The zones shown in the photographs above were too narrow for sampling by plot but their relative position along an obvious gradient of snow duration provided useful information which would have been less detectable where the associations cover broader areas.

A characteristic of the upper subalpine region is the isolated clumps of trees. Shaw (1909) recorded similar features in the Selkirk Mountains, where the groups were mostly confined to spots where, from local contours, the snow had not accumulated so deeply. This is a possible explanation for the origin of such clumps. At present, many clumps are on ground no higher than the surrounding heath-like areas, but initially the trees must have established on higher points of morainal material which were the first to be free of snow. Subsequent smoothing of morainal surfaces by organic accumulations or by erosion could mask the small prominences on which the trees originally developed. Mountain hemlock is known to be a successful pioneer species on glacial moraines (Lutz 1930), and once it grew to a height greater than the winter snow level it could hasten the melting snow around the clump. Evergreen trees reflect only 7 per cent of the radiant energy which falls on them, whereas a fresh snow surface reflects from 80 to 90 per cent (Landsberg 1958, p. 122). A result is increased melting of snow near the isolated clump; this is in contrast to conditions under a closed forest canopy where shading delays snow melt. This influence on the ecoclimate is aided by interception of some snow by the tree's crown. When this snow melts and when it rains, the dripping also helps to melt the snow around the tree or clump of trees. The combination of these three factors creates openings as shown in Plate I, D. Thus the growing season may be one month longer in this band near the clump than it is just a few yards away in the heath-like area. As a result, zonation similar to that shown in Figure 17 occurs around every tree clump.

lengthening of the growing season near the tree clump also means that this is the only place where mountain hemlock has a chance to germinate; thus the clumps are self-perpetuating.

Wind is not a control of tree-line in this zone as it is in the Rockies (Daubenmire 1943). Mountain hemlock and alpine fir at their tree limit near Little Diamond Head in Garibaldi Park did not have asymmetric tops and they reached their greatest altitude on ridges where snow accumulation was less. Daubenmire (1943) and Shaw (1909) gave these as criteria of a snow-controlled upper limit. In contrast, where wind controls timberline the upper parts of the trees are asymmetrical and the highest occurrence is in the lee of obstructions or in sheltered valleys (Daubenmire 1943).

In sharp contrast to lower altitudes, the short subalpine growing season allows only two clearly marked seasonal aspects - a hibernal and an aestival. The seepage communities which have the highest number of herbaceous plants naturally have species with different antheses: for example, in the Lysichitum association Coptis asplenifolia flowers before any other species; and at higher elevations Caltha leptosepala and Leptarrhena pyrolifolia flower in late June but Parnassia fimbriata not until late August. However, the differences are insufficient to distinguish separate vernal and aestival aspects.

Along the margins of mountain streams or on slopes of abundant seepage certain species may transcend their usual altitudinal range (Table VIII). Alpine and subalpine species, such as <u>Valeriana sitchensis</u>, <u>Parnassia fimbriata</u>, and <u>Senecio triangularis</u> reach their lowest limits at 3000 feet on a very wet <u>Lysichitum</u> area and the low elevation species <u>Thuja plicata</u>, <u>Taxus brevifolia</u> and <u>Maianthemum dilatatum</u> reach their highest limits on the same area to give an unusual combination of species (Table VIII). These examples show that certain edaphic conditions can over-ride the influences of macroclimate and altitude. It is for similar reasons that large areas of "alpine meadows" extend

TableVIII comparison of species in seepage communities by cover degree—abundance values and by characteristic cover degree. Plots are listed in order of increasing altitude from: 700 feet in the Western Hemlock Zone to 4800 feet in the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone. Values for plots 5-95, 2-58 and 5-10 taken from Orloci, 1961. See legend at bottom of next page.

See legend at bottom of next page. Vaccinium alaskaense - Lysichitum forest type Leptarrhena - Caltha																
,	West. Heml Zone	Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone						Leptarrhena - Caltha non-forest type of the Subalpine-Alpine trans-								
Plot Number	E- E- E-	BP-					ition Zone									
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		2	5 7	}2 . +	+	+ 5	1),),		19						
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H H 2	2		2)2 32	+		4	}4 4	}2 4_							
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis l	<u> </u>	_	4 5	6	5 5		1	34	}5 5	30						
Layer B:																
Gaultheria shallon 2 Alnus rubra 1	. 3	12 5														
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Thuja plicata l	4 1	7		-		1				-						
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TableVIIIContinued.	E-	<u>E</u> -	E-	Char	BP-	BP-	B P-	B P -	B P -	B P -	B P- 89	Oher	B P-	BP-	B P-	BP-	B P-	Char
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Abies amabilis	1				2	2	2	1	1	<u>1</u> _	2	-						
Veratrum eschscholtzii	1		2	1	2	1	1	1	3		3	7 3		+	5	+	+	6
Habenaria saccata	13			5_	1.	,	±	+.	, ±.	1	2	=	1					-
Clintonia uniflora			4	10	4	4	3	2	3	3 2	2 1	5						1 1
Vaccinium sp. Menziesia ferruginea	1			ł	3	1	1	1	1	2	+	1 🗅	ł					
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	1			1	∔	. 1	13		•	í	2] -	1		1			l _
Pyrola secunda	\vdash		+	1 -	ľi			💠 -				-	٠		=	· · · · ·		
Osmorhiza purpurea	1		•	1	1			+	·	1		-	l					
Trientalis arctica	ı			1				1				-	1					
Lycopodium clavatum	 				. +		2	+				1	1.					
Nephrophyllidium crista-gall	1						2	2				1	l			_		
Epilobium alpinum	1		+	-	1					+	3	2	j	3	1 _	2	1	j.
Melica smithii Saxifraga arguta				-	1			1		+	+ 1	-	l					
Caltha leptosepala	1			ļ	1		-				5	25	6	5	4	6	5	25 🗀
Leptarrhena pyrolifolia	1									1	5.	12			5	6	6	35
Juncus mertensianus	1				ľ		*			*	··- 5	25		i i		2	½	1
Habenaria dilatata	.1										<u></u>		1					
Equisetum palustre	1			1	1						5	25	5		7	3		27
Arnica latifolia	.			ì	ļ							J ÷	ļ		1_		<u>+</u>	7
Senecio triangularis	ı			ì	i			1		1	3	1	١,,	_	4	3	_	
Erigeron perègrinus					ŀ					· ·-· <u>T</u> ·	<u>3</u> .	2	3	5	6	4	7	24 6
Carex spectabilis Hippuris montana]				1					*	1	-	1	í	7	7	2	<u>-</u>
Parnassia fimbriata					1.			1		1	1.4	1 3	5	3	3	5		15
Mitella pentandra	1				1			ī		+	1	_	_	í	3 1	5 1	1	-
Valeriana sitchensis	1				1			4		4	- 2	7	1	+	2	2		_
Agrostis aequivalvis	_			1	L					+	2	-	1,	5	-;	1		8
Petasites frigidus	1			1	1							1	1_		_	3	+	2
Viola palustris				-								1	5 3 2		2			13
Tofieldia glutinosa Carex nigricans					1							1	13	7	1 2	5	. 5	2 20
Calamagrostis canadensis	1												5		_=_			25
Veronica serpyllifolia	1				1							İ	11	1		1		[]
Deschampsia atropurpurea	``` \			1	1							1	F	2	1	+	1	-
Hordeum brachyantherum				ı	1								1.	3_				5
Agrostis thurberiana	1			-	1								. "		1		+	 -
Salix commutata					1							1	_		4_			10
Carex illota	1			- [1							1	1		2	+	_	-
Juncus drummondii												┷	1		-	1	1	<u> </u>

[&]amp; Legend: SC - Seymour Creek Valley; H - Hollyburn Mountain; SM - Seymour Mountain; RM - Round Mountain, Garibaldi Park; G - Grouse Mountain.

Tabular values refer to the cover degree-abundance symbols of the Domin/Krajina scale (+, 1, 2, ---- 10.)

Characteristic cover degree a total cover degree value divided by the number of plots on which species is present, expressed in percent.

well down into the Subalpine Zone, especially in moist edaphic habitats. For example, plot BP89 at 4000 feet (Table VIII), even though it is partially forested, is floristically closer to the <u>Leptarrhena</u> - <u>Caltha leptosepala</u> than to the <u>Lysichitum</u> associations of lower altitudes. This transitional plot is a good example to show that the <u>Lysichitum</u> habitat is occupied in the upper subzone of the Subalpine Zone by the <u>Leptarrhena</u> - <u>Caltha</u> association.

b. Altitudinal Influences on Trees

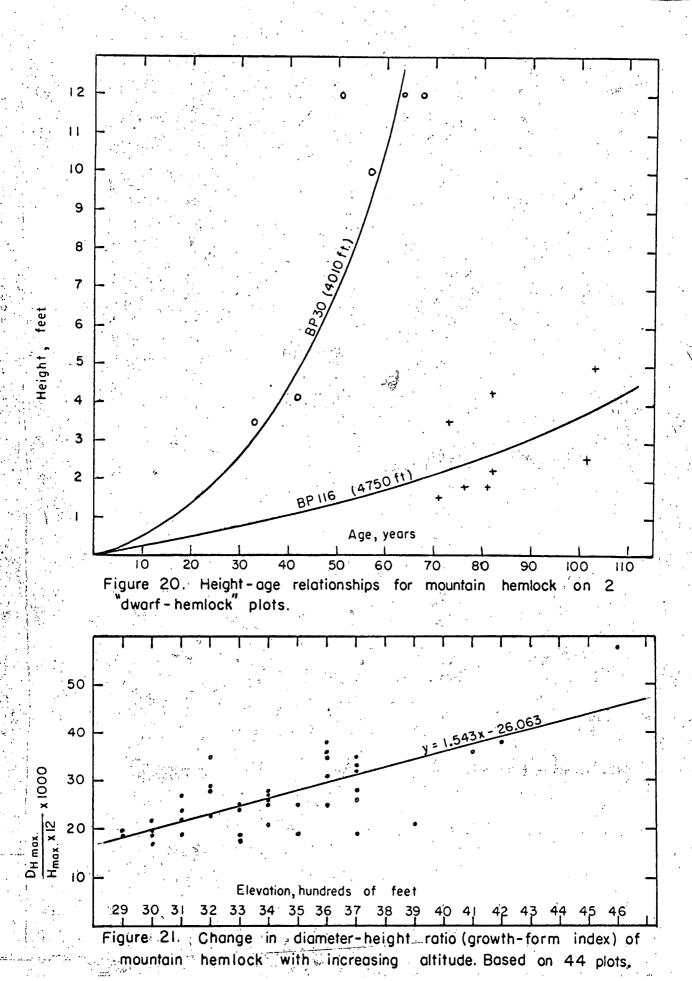
In this section there is a discussion of changes in height/diameter relationships with increasing altitude. An analysis of basal snow-crook in subalpine species is presented because of its possible applications to solifluction and snow-creep studies in the Subalpine Zone (Mathews and MacKay 1962). In the final part of the section, relative turgidity measurements which were taken on two altitudinally and ecologically distinct habitats are discussed.

Average maximum height of mountain hemlock is as great as 139 feet at the lower limit of the zone and as low as 71 feet near the upper tree limit (Table XII). In extreme cases height growth is only five feet in 100 years (Figure 20). For larger trees it was noted that the reduction of maximum height with increasing altitude was not accompanied by a proportionate reduction in maximum diameter at breast height. The result is a marked increase in taper of tree trunks. One way to express it is with an index that relates diameter and height (maxima) to one another.

Indices were calculated for the tallest mountain hemlock with an unbroken top on each of 44 sample plots on Hollyburn, Seymour and Grouse Mountains, with the following formula:

$$Index = \frac{D_{H \text{ max.}}}{H_{\text{max.}} \times 12} \times 100$$

where, $D_{H \text{ max.}} = d.b.h.$ of tallest tree, in inches $H_{\text{max.}} = \text{height of tallest tree}$, in feet



Mountain hemlock was chosen because it extended over the widest altitudimal range of the three subalpine species. It also showed the lowest percentage of wind-broken tops, even if it is the most common species in exposed habitats. To analyse the influence of altitude on the index, it was necessary to restrict the sample to the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn areas where the altitudinal range of mountain hemlock is similar. On Paul Ridge, the lower limit of mountain hemlock was nearly 1000 feet higher than in the Seymour area. Obviously samples from these two localities would need to be treated separately if elevation is being considered as an independent variable.

An increase in diameter-height index is shown for increasing altitude in Figure 21. The regression equation was calculated with elevation expressed in units of one hundred feet so that the index value on the y-axis has been increased by a factor of 10. The increased index value with increasing altitude is partially explained by characteristics of diameter growth in exposed trees. Baker (1950) stated that in exposed trees annual rings increase in thickness from the base of the crown downward, and in a study of wind sway Jacobs (1954) found that sway increased diameter growth of roots near the trunk and increased eccentric trunk development along the line of the main winds. Although winds are less frequent in coastal subalpine areas than in interior mountains (Daubenmire 1943), exposed trees at higher altitudes may have good diameter growth from the base of the crown downwards. Even near their upper limit, trees can have a large diameter at breast height far out of proportion to the total height of the tree. Studies of environmental and altitudinal influences on auxin balances within the trees would probably explain some of these relationships.

The weight and movement of snow on subalpine slopes greatly depresses the stems of shrubs and small trees. Plate III, B shows the force exerted on dwarf mountain hemlock by snow creep as late as July 7, 1962. These small trees

can return to an upright position for only a short time each year. When they are tall enough to exceed the maximum winter snow depth, the upper trunk and crown will usually be upright, but a distinct basal snow crook remains as evidence of the great force of snow creep.

Basal snow crook has been mentioned only rarely in the literature, even if it is a common feature of subalpine trees. Sudworth (1918) recorded the phenomenon in mountain hemlock and Kienholz (1930) discussed anatomical features of wood from the base of "pistol-butted" trees.

When trees were measured in the present study, snow crook was recorded if it was noticeable. A summary of its occurrence on 71 forested sample plots is given in Table VII, page 42. For trees larger than the 10-inch diameter class, 9.5 per cent of the mountain hemlock had basal crook, 1.7 per cent of the yellow cedar, and 3.9 per cent of the amabilis fir. In the 10-inch class or less, 40.2 per cent of the mountain hemlock were affected, 36.9 per cent of the yellow cedar, and 21.1 per cent of the amabilis fir.

As Sudworth (1918) pointed out, subsequent growth fails to straighten entirely the bent stems, but the figures above show that the phenomenon is much less noticeable in older and larger trees. The frequency of snow crook is especially reduced for yellow cedar larger than the 10-inch diameter class. There are two probable reasons for this. First, the characteristic butt-swell at the base of large yellow cedar trees would obscure the earlier effects of snow crook, and secondly, most of the 177 trees measured in the larger diameter classes occurred in associations near the lower limit of the subalpine zone where the force of snow-creep would be less. Conversely, yellow cedar in the small diameter classes extends to higher elevations and a marked increase in the frequency of snow-crook is evident.

When the three subalpine species were compared, there was a very highly significant difference in the frequency of snow-crook. However, when

only yellow cedar and mountain hemlock were compared there was no significant difference (Table IX). These relationships were examined further in an attempt to learn more about differences in species responses to great accumulations of snow. The Alwac III-E computer was used for a multiple regression analysis of seven independent variables on the percentage of trees exhibiting snow-crook. Details of the analyses are provided in Appendix II, but the main findings are summarized below.

The regression analyses were carried out with the standard S-7.1 programme which provided a stepwise reduction analysis. This gave an indication of the relative importance of each independent variable. Amabilis fir was treated separately since it showed the effects of snow-creep much less than the other two species. The independent variables in decreasing order of importance for anabilis fir were: steepness of slope, total basal area on plot, length of slope above, percentage cover by the tree layer (crown closure), snow duration, altitude and aspect. The coefficient of determination (100 R²) for all variables was 53.9 per cent. Only the first two variables were significantly correlated with the percentage of trees showing snow crook; steepness of slope at the .01 level of probability, and total basal area at the .05 level.

For mountain hemlock and yellow cedar, decreasing order of importance for the same variables was: steepness of slope, elevation, length of slope above, aspect, percentage cover by the tree layer, snow duration, and basal area. In this case the coefficient of determination for all variables was only 42.3 per cent, and steepness of slope was the only variable significantly correlated with the percentage of snow crook (.01 level of probability).

The results indicate some weaknesses of such a multiple regression stepwise analysis. One fault in the above analysis is that some independent variables were inter-related (snow duration, aspect and elevation; or basal

TABLE IX

X²-test of differences in frequency of basal snow-crook in three tree species for 10-inch class or less on 71 sample plots.

	Amabilis fir	Yellow cedar	Mountain hemlock	Total
Trees with crook	222	133	255	61 0
Trees without crook	832	227	379	1438
Total	1054	360	634	2048

 $X^2 = 99.77 = \text{very highly significant.}$ (for 2 degrees of freedom, $X^2 = 5.99$ at the 5% level)

			add
Trees with crook	133	255	<i>3</i> 88
Trees without crook	227	379	606
Total	360	634	994

 $X^2 = 1.04 = \text{not significant.}$ (for 1 degree of freedom, $X^2 = 3.84$ at the 5% level)

area and per cent coverage by the tree layer). When a regression is applied to such a complex of factors, the variance due to the complex is attributed to several factors, none of which can appear significant precisely because of the intercorrelations within the group of factors (Canada Department of Forestry 1961).

In addition, the relationships between many variables are non-linear. For example, the length of slope in the analysis above should probably not be forced into a linearly additive model. Snow creep and its influences on trees should be negligible at the crest of a ridge but would increase in importance on the shoulder of the ridge. However, a maximum rate will be reached somewhere on the slope beyond which increased length of slope above will have little or no effect. (W. H. Mathews, personal communication).

The non-linear relationships of some variables impose limitations upon such methods of analysis. The necessary precautions are well expressed below (Canada Department of Forestry 1961):

"A multiple regression analysis is only a tool to be used as a guide in preliminary work on construction of more realistic models. At best, this procedure will yield the researcher a rough idea as to which variables are accounting for a significant proportion of the variance in the system. At worst, blind application of multiple regression analysis leads to erroneous conclusions. A significant regression coefficient may not mean that a factor is important; rather, the factor may be highly correlated with some factor which is important but is not included in the regression analysis."

These limitations account for the low coefficients of determination above (53.9 per cent for amabilis fir, and 42.3 per cent for mountain hemlock and yellow cedar). But even if some important factors were omitted from the regression analyses, steepness of slope is indicated as the most important control of snow-crook. However, it was noted in the field that snow-deformed stems were also common on the small trees which grew around groups of larger trees. These groups, mainly of mountain hemlock, often occurred on distinct prominences on plots that were otherwise of gentle slope. Data from such plots were not used in the regression analyses because it was impossible to quantitatively express steepness of the slope when the elevated clumps of trees made the topography irregular. Only sample plots of uniform slope were used in the analyses but this neglected the influence of snow cascading down from the crowns of larger trees onto the smaller trees around the group. Mountain hemlock and yellow cedar are the usual species around these elevated groups of mountain hemlock, whereas small amabilis fir trees often occur in the depression between the humps. Therefore, mountain hemlock and yellow cedar would be most subject to deformation by cascading snow from the larger tree crowns. Failure to include this as a variable in the regression analyses resulted in a lower coefficient of determination for these two species than for amabilis fir.

Persistence of lower branches can also influence the incidence of snow-crook. Dahms (1958) observed that natural pruning was poor in mountain hemlock, and in this study branches persisted almost to the ground in both mountain hemlock and yellow cedar. This would provide more surface area against which the forces of snow creep could act. Conversely, amabilis fir prunes itself better and should be less subject to deformation by the down-slope forces of snow. These species differences are reflected in the lowest incidence of snow-crook in amabilis fir for trees of the 10-inch diameter class or less (Table VII). The omission of lower branching habit as an independent variable could also account for some of the unexplained portion of variation in snow-crook for mountain hemlock and yellow cedar.

Altitude was not significantly correlated with the percentage of trees with basal snow-crook in either analysis because samples were taken from the Subalpino Zone only. If some samples had been taken from below the levels of heavy winter snow accumulation, altitude would have been more important as a variable. This would have been possible only with amabilis fir because it is the only species whose range extends downwards into a relatively snow-free bioclimatic region. Mountain hemlock and yellow cedar are restricted to an altitudinal range which is influenced by the forces of snow accumulation throughout. Even near the lower limit of these species there is enough snow to deform the stems of small trees so that increasing amounts of snow with increasing altitude do not result in a significant correlation with the occurrence of basal snow-crook. In conclusion, some of the variation of this particular phenomenon is related to silvical characteristics of the species involved, but unless more realistic regression models can be constructed, it is unwise to attempt to fit a multiple regression to such a complex natural phenomenon.

Influences of altitude and exposure were clearly shown by needle

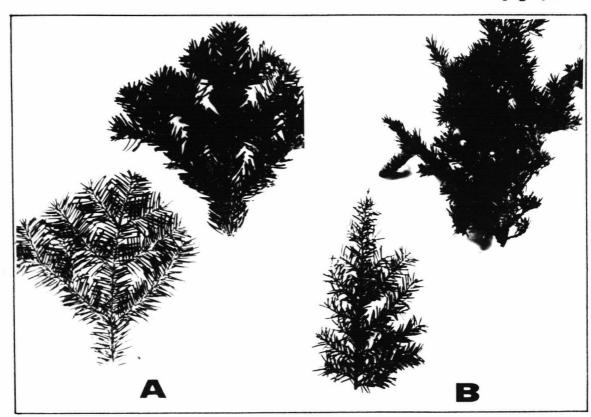


Figure 22. Terminal portions of lower branches from which needles were cut for relative turgidity measurements: A. Abies amabilis; B. Tsuga mertensiana. In both cases, the lower sample is from near BP15, and the upper from near BP124.

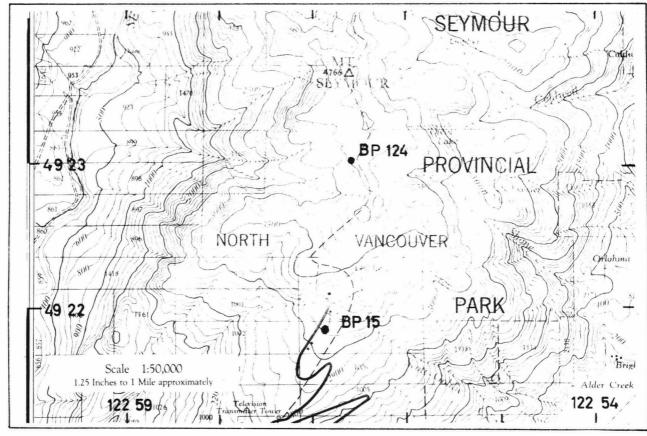


Figure 23, Location of BP15 and BP124 in Mount Seymour Park.

morphology of amabilis fir and mountain hemlock collected at different levels in the Subalpine Zone. The dense, stiff needles of open-grown trees are shown in the upper portion of Figure 22. They were collected from an altitude of 4000 feet in the upper subzone (see Figure 23). The lower portion of Figure 22 shows the more sparsely distributed needles on terminal branches collected from shaded subalpine forest of the lower subzone (near BP 15, 3200 feet).

Four 1/2-inch lengths of twig were sampled from each of the terminal portions of lower branches shown in Figure 22, and the measurements are summarized in Table X. The branches from more exposed trees in the upper subzone had approximately twice as many needles on a given length of twig in both species. Average length of needle was not markedly different in either species from the two altitudes, but average thickness was much greater on the needles from the higher altitude. This would be a result of the well-known difference between sun and shade foliage where there is a much thicker layer of palisade cells in foliage exposed to full sunlight. The resulting differences in length/thickness ratio are clearly shown for the four branch collections in Table X.

These morphological differences occurred on two localities which were altitudinally and environmentally distinct. Because of such distinct differences, these localities were good sampling points at which to test the sensitivity of a measure of the internal water balance. Kramer and Kozlowski (1960) stressed that all other phenomena or factors related to soil moisture are important chiefly because they affect the internal water relations of trees and thereby modify the physiological processes and conditions which affect growth. A measure of relative turgidity which describes the actual water content of plant tissues relative to what it would be if the tissues were fully hydrated was proposed by Weatherley (1950) and has been used for tree species in British Columbia by Bier (1959) and Baranyay (1961). Similar methods were used here with some modifications as discussed below.

TABLE X

Summary of length/thickness ratios in needles of <u>Tsuga</u> mertensiana and <u>Abies amabilis</u> from 4000 feet and 3200 feet on Mount Seymour (values in inches).*

	Tsuga	mertensiar	na	Abies amabilis					
-	Needles	on Av. ig Length	Av.	L/T Ratio	Needles o $\frac{1}{2}$ in. twi			L/T Ratio	
A. Exp	osed, op	en-grown t	crees, e	elevatio	n 4000 ft <u>l:</u>	(BP124)			
1 2 3 4	28 29 25 33	• 532 • 541 • 510 • 523	.029 .032 .028 .027	18.3 16.9 18.2 19.4	37 36 32 31	.632 .765 .841 .808	.024 .027 .026 .027	26.3 28.3 32.4 29.9	
Average	28			18.2	34			29.2	
B. Sha	ided tree	s beneath	forest	canopy,	elevation	3200 ft.	: (BPl	5)	
1 2 3 4	15 17 14 20	•623 •538 •561 •582	.010 .010 .010	62.3 53.8 56.1 58.2	16 15 17 16	.850 .697 .791 .756	.016 .016 .015	53.1 43.6 52.7 47.2	
Average	16			57.6	16			49.2	

^{*}All needles on a standard 1/2-inch length of twig were measured as one sample. Leaf thickness was measured to the nearest one one-thousandth of an inch with a STARRETT Comparator. Leaf length was measured only to the nearest twentieth of an inch, but the average for each sample was carried to three decimal places to correspond with the thickness readings.

There were two objectives in the study of relative turgidity: (1) to compare the water content in two different tree species in different months on the same habitat; and (2) to compare the results from two distinct habitats which varied in altitude and in density of tree cover. Amabilis fir and mountain hemlock were sampled from an exposed lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> association at 4000 feet (near BP 124) and from a shaded, mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association in the lower subzone at 3200 feet (near BP 15).

A terminal portion of branch (Figure 22) was cut from each species

at each locality at approximately one-month intervals from February 23, 1962 to August 30, 1962. The branch tips were always collected in the early morning to reduce the effects of diurnal variation, and they were always cut at eye level from the north side of the same tree. They were placed in plastic bags and taken to the laboratory for weighing on a Mettler precision balance.

Three samples of 15 needles each were cut from every branch. Needles from 1961 were used for the entire six-month period of this study. These cut needles were weighed immediately for fresh weights and then placed in distilled water to bring them to saturation. During this period, the needles were held upright in a small vial by a folded piece of paper towel. The cut ends of the needles stood in the water at 10°C. and after 24 hours they were removed and surface dried on paper towels. A second weighing at this stage gave the saturated weight, and a final weighing after 4 hours of oven-drying at 90°C. gave the dry weight of the sample.

Relative turgidity was calculated for each sample from the formula:

Relative turgidity = fresh weight - oven dry weight × 100 saturated weight - oven dry weight

The data are shown in Table XI and averages of the three replications are plotted in Figure 24. Moisture as a percentage of dry weights was calculated only for comparison. The great differences in tissue density (see Table X) are reflected in the bottom portion of Figure 24 where the thin needles from the low station have a consistently higher water/dry weight ratio than the thick needles from the exposed location. These great differences show the importance of a measure such as relative turgidity which eliminates variations due to varying tissue density.

With the methods described above, no consistent difference in relative turgidity was revealed for mountain hemlock on the different habitats, but at the upper station species differences were detectable by this method

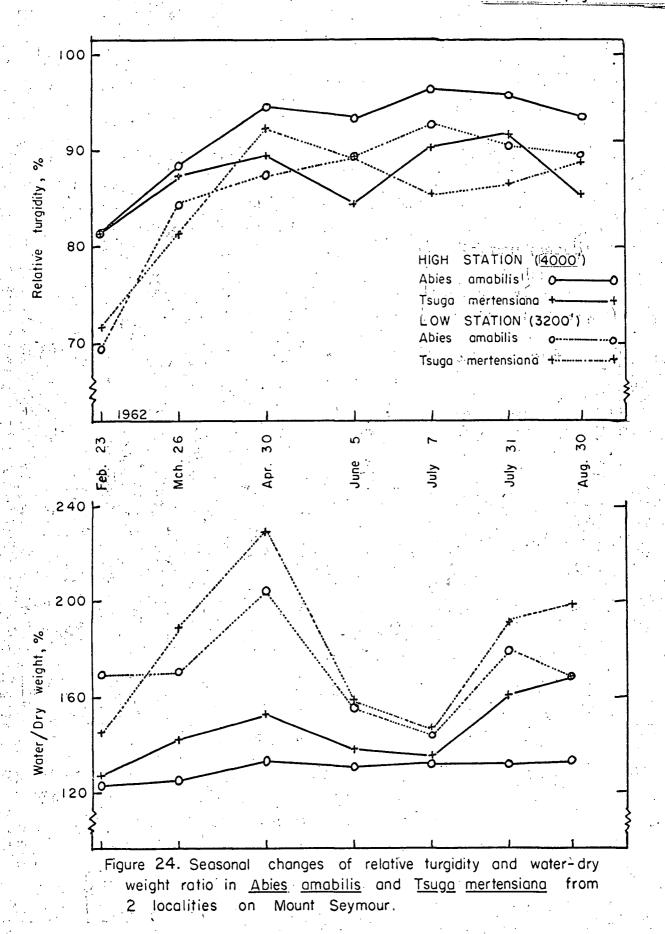


TABLE XI

Relative turgidity and water/dry weight values for needles of <u>Tsuga mertensiana</u> and <u>Abies amabilis</u> from 4000 feet and 3200 feet on Mount Seymour (values in per cent).

	4 			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			· ·				
Cladothan	<u>mus</u> , li	thic suba	ssociat	tion	Vaccinium alaskaense association						
Exposed	l Trees	- 4000 ft	BP	124	Shaded Trees - 3200 ft BP15						
	Tsu			ies		nga	Abies				
Date	R. T.	Water/DW	R. T.	Water/DW	R. T.	Water/DW	R. T.	Water/DW			
Feb. 23	- 81.5	127.3	81.2 80.9 82.4	124.3 121.4 123.4	71.3 70.4 74.0	140.8 142.7 152.3	68.5 68.9 70.3	150.5 177.6 179.7			
Avge.	81.5	127.3	81.5	123.0	71.9	145.6	69.2	169.3			
Mch. 26	88.5 88.0 85.3	147.9 142.0 137.1	86.7 91.3 87.6	126.5 125.4 127.6	81.4 78.3 34.6	200.0 189.8 176.3	85.4 84.8 82.7	169.2 172.1 174.1			
Avge.	87.3	142,4	88.5	126.5	81.6	188.7	84.3	171.8			
Apr. 30	90.4 87.9 90.7	154.3 147.0 159.9	96.1 94.1 94.3	135.4 131.4 132.9	92.1 92.6 93.1	218.7 240.4 232.7	90.7 85.6 86.2	189.2 217.1 206.2			
Avge.	89.7	153.7	94.8	133.2	92.6	230.6	87.6	204.2			
June 5	88.7 84.2 81.0	131.5 139.0 143.6	94.2 93.3 92.1	139.9 123.0 128.3	86.6 89.0 92.6	156.7 162.9 158.9	89.7 88.5 89.9	148.1 166.4 150.7			
Avge.	84.6	138.0	93.2	130.4	89.4	159.5	89.4	155.1			
July 7	88.3 90.4 92.5	134.2 137.3 134.4	97.6 97.1 95.1	137.3 130.4 132.6	89.9 87.3 80.1	156.5 142.3 141.9	92.3 93.4 93.0	129.7 153.1 144.5			
Avge.	90.4	135.3	96.6	133.4	85.7	146.9	92.9	142.4			
July 31	92.9 87.1 95.9	165.3 164.4 155.2	95.5 97.0 94.7	141.4 133.0 126.6	87.6 86.8 85.6	229.0 176.8 171.2	89.9 89.0 92.9	183.6 187.0 168.7			
Avge.	92.0	161.6	95.8	133.7	86.7	192.3	90.6	179.8			
Aug. 30	81.2 88.3 86.0	153.1 171.0 178.5	93.0 93.3 94.4	138.6 134.3 133.7	83.4 87.6 90.8	202.0 194.1	93.6 89.9 85.6	155.9 179.7 168.7			
Avge.	85.2	167.5	93.5	135.5	89.0	198.0	89.7	168.1			

because amabilis fir showed a higher relative turgidity than mountain hemlock throughout the study period. The most meaningful results were obtained from a comparison of amabilis fir on the two habitats (Figure 24).

On the basis that a fully turgid plant is in the most satisfactory condition for growth and other physiological responses (Kramer and Kozlowski 1960), amabilis fir growing on the exposed site at 4000 feet is more vigorous than that in a more heavily forested site at a lower elevation (Figure 24). In the Coastal Subalpine Zone of British Columbia, precipitation is frequent enough so that even trees growing on shallow soils of sites without seepage can maintain a high relative turgidity. The results may have been different if samples had been taken from the top of mature dominant trees, because at the lower station shading of the low branches probably influenced their relative turgidity. Trees in the shaded forest stands at lower elevations are often suppressed and greater root competition may result in relative turgidity values lower than those shown in open-grown trees on supposedly drier sites. Another reason for the lower relative turgidity rates in amabilis fir on the shaded, mesic Vaccinium alaskaense association might be the reduction of absorptive surfaces by the great mortality of roots and rootlets in the acid subalpine raw humus. The high percentage of dead roots in subalpine humus was observed, but no actual measurements were made to determine if there were differences in growth and abundance of roots on different habitats. It is possible that roots are better developed on trees which occur on exposed rock outcrop areas where competition is less, and this could explain the more favourable water balance on such sites.

Unfortunately the measurements were not continued long enough to show distinct seasonal trends. A winter minimum was indicated in both species at both altitudes. Freezing of the soil is not severe beneath the snow cover in the Subalpine Zone but it may be sufficient to reduce the amount of water

available to the roots in mid-winter. It is unlikely that a minimum would occur near the end of the growing season, as reported in other studies, because the late snow provides meltwater at least until the end of July, and precipitation during the remainder of the growing season is sufficient to maintain high relative turgidity on even the "driest" habitats in the Subalpine Zone.

Relative turgidity is a simple and reliable measurement that will reflect species and habitat differences. As a symptom which integrates various factors such as soil moisture, temperature, root vigour and crown closure, it is of practical use. A weakness is that even though it may provide a relative measure of tree vigour, it does not explain the cause of good or poor tree vigour.

CHAPTER IV

DESCRIPTION OF PLANT ASSOCIATIONS

The appended synthesis tables provide full details of the floristic analyses. Therefore, only the main floristic and environmental features of cach vegetation unit are outlined in this chapter. Mensurational data and life-form spectra are presented separately in Chapter V, and estimated average coverage by each vegetation layer is shown in Table XIV, Appendix III. Figure 28 indicates the altitudinal distribution of associations described below.

A. Lower Subzone

All associations described for the lower subzone are forested, except for those which occur on moor habitats. The variations in predominant tree species and other floristic features are described for dry, masic, moist, wet, and moor habitats below.

a. Dry Habitat

Rock outcrop habitats with very shallow soils occur in both the upper and lower subzones. Such areas are well drained and are usually topographically situated so that there is no opportunity for supplementary seepage water.

(1a) <u>Cladothamnus</u> association, lithic subassociation (<u>Tsugeto</u> - <u>Cladothamnetum</u> subassoc. <u>lithicum</u>)

Reference: Synthesis Table I

Characteristic combination of species

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Tsuga mertensiana Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus Menziesia ferruginea Vaccinium ovalifolium Constant dominants, cont'd.

Vaccinium membranaceum
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis
Vaccinium alaskaense
Abies amabilis
Dicranum fuscescens
Rhytidiopsis robusta

Selectives

Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus

Constants, not dominant, cont'd.

Sorbus occidentalis
Rubus pedatus
Phyllodoce empetriformis
Orthocaulis floerkii
Cladonia bellidiflora

Preferents

Menziesia ferruginea Sorbus occidentalis Gaultheria humifusa Lescuraea baileyi Cladonia rangiferina Pleurozium schreberi

The lithic subassociation of the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association is the subalpine equivalent of the <u>Vaccinium</u> - <u>Gaultheria</u> forest type described by Orloci (1961) and Lesko (1961) for the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone. The equivalence is both edaphic and microclimatic for, in both cases, these associations occur on ridges or on the upper portions of exposed convex slopes.

The most important environmental feature is the shallowness of the soil. Bare rock was estimated to cover between 10 and 15 per cent of the surface area, and only a thin mantle of organic soil covers the rock in the remaining portions. Most of the sparsely forested ridges in Figure 2 belong to the lithic subassociation of the Cladothamnus association.

The extreme exposure, the lack of seepage and the shallow soils result in an average gross volume of only 2,647 cubic feet per acre, 73 per cent of which is mountain hemlock. Trees were estimated to cover only 24 per cent of the total area and their tops are so often broken that the average height of the tallest amabilis fir is only 45 feet and of yellow cedar, 44 feet. Mountain hemlock crowns are more resistant to wind, snow and ice breakage and the tallest tree of this species averages 71 feet, on the basis of 12 sample plots.

The trees usually occur in clusters. Very few of them are without decay and most have broken or dead tops. In most cases, the groups of trees grow on emminences created by their own litter or on humps made by underlying boulders. Such prominences, which are the first spots to be clear of snow in the spring, are the most favourable places for tree species to regenerate. It is for this reason that on this association the best regeneration can be found under existing clumps of trees. The sparse tree cover allows a dense shrub layer to develop because shading is negligible. These shrubs also confine regeneration because they cover the area completely except immediately around the clusters of trees.

The shrub layer, with an estimated average cover of 75 per cent, is made up mostly of <u>Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus</u>, <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> and saplings of the three major tree species.

Greater amounts of Phyllodoce empetriformis, Cassiope mertensiana,

Vaccinium deliciosum, Luetkea pectinata, Carex nigricans, Lycopodium sitchense

and Deschampsia atropurpurea differentiate the C layer of this subassociation

from that which occurs on hygric habitats in the lower subzone.

Dicranum fuscescens, Rhytidiopsis robusta, Dicranum scoparium and Rhytidiadelphus loreus are the most important humicolous bryophytes. Cladonia gracilis, Cladonia pleurota and Crocynia membranacea on this subassociation distinguish the ground layer from the hygric counterpart. There are also greater quantities of Rhacomitrium heterostichum, Cladonia rangiferina and Cladonia squamosa on this drier subassociation.

The estimated average amount of rock outcrop is 12 per cent of the plot area. Whenever there is a thin humus cover over rock surfaces the same species of humicolous bryophytes occur. Pleurozium schreberi is another important species in such cases, particularly as a raw humus builder. On bare rock surfaces Diplophyllum taxifolium, D. obtusifolium, Rhacomitrium hetero-

stichum and Pilophoron hallii are common.

Ptilidium pulcherrimum and Lescuraea baileyi are the main species on decayed wood, aside from the humicolous species that also develop there. An important floristic feature of this association is the abundant Lescuraea baileyi on twigs and stems of ericaceous shrubs near ground level. Cetraria stenophylla accurs on low-lying twigs in greater amounts than in the hygric subassociation.

Amabilis fir and mountain hemlock trunks support mainly Ptilidium

pulcherrimum, Alectoria sarmentosa, Parmelia enteromorpha and Cetraria glauca.

On yellow cedar, Lescuraea baileyi and Radula complanata predominate and near the base of the tree Rhytidiopsis robusta, Lobaria linata and Mnium spinulosum are more common.

The vegetational similarities of the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association on two different habitats in the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn area indicate that ecosystem differences do not always coincide with distinct vegetational differences.

Because Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus is not present in the Paul Ridge - Diamond Head portion of Garibaldi Park, Synthesis Table I includes no sample plots from there. A special variant of the Cladothamnus association, characterized mainly by Vaccinium membranaceum, would occupy similar habitats in that part of the study area.

b. Mesic Habitat

This habitat is predominantly on glacial till substrate and lacks the exposed rock outcrops that are characteristic for the xeric habitat described above. Mesic habitats usually occur on the upper portions of gentle slopes and the influence of seepage during the driest part of the summer is negligible (Brooke 1964).

(2) <u>Vaccinium alaskaense association (Abieteto - Tsugetum mertensianae)</u>
Reference; Synthesis Table II

Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Tsuga mertensiana

<u>Abies amabilis</u>

<u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u>

Rhytidiopsis robusta

Vaccinium membranaceum Rubus pedatus

Exclusive, selective and preferential species, none.

Broad areas in the lower subzone, in which there is only temporary seepage during the early summer, are covered by this association. It is topographically and successionally similar to the <u>Vaccinium alaskaense - Plagio-thecium - Clintonia</u> forest type of the Western Hemlock Zone (Orloci 1961). However, much greater snow accumulations in the Subalpine Zone make the two associations mensurationally and floristically distinct. The most obvious difference is that western hemlock is largely replaced by mountain hemlock in this association.

The tree layer has an estimated average coverage of 69 per cent.

Average gross volume is 12,081 cubic feet, made up mostly of mountain hemlock (Table XII). Average height of the tallest tree is 109 feet for mountain hemlock, 98 feet for western hemlock, 87 feet for amabilis fir, and 78 feet for yellow cedar. An indication of the low productivity in the Subalpine Zone is shown by the average site index of only 65 feet for amabilis fir; on the mesic zonal forest type between altitudes of 700 and 2700 feet, the some species had an average site index of 97 feet (Orloci 1961). All diameter classes are well represented by the four tree species which is an indication that the habitat is representative of "climax" conditions (Figure 25). Invasion by other species is difficult under these circumstances, as shown by the absence of sporadic tree species in this association. Trees are largely confined to humps which rise

three or four feet above general ground level, except for amabilis fir which may also occur on the lower ground between the prominences.

Estimated average coverage for the shrub (B) layer is 59 per cent. It is often locally sparse where the tree canopy is dense. <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> and <u>Abies amabilis</u> provide the largest degree of cover, but <u>Tsuga mertensiana</u> and <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> are also constant species in this layer.

The average coverage of the C layer is only eight per cent, mainly a result of the dense shading by the tree and shrub layers. Blechnum spicant and Streptopus streptopoides indicate the presence of some temporary seepage on this association even if these species are present with low sociability and vigour. Rubus pedatus and Clintonia uniflora are the most important non-woody species in this layer, but regeneration of Vaccinium and amabilis fir also provide small coverage.

Rhytidiopsis robusta, Dicranum scoparium, D. fuscescens and Rhytidiadelphus loreus are the main humicolous species. More moisture and shade on this mesic association allow Blepharostoma trichophyllum, Cephalozia media, Calypogeia neesiana, Lophocolea heterophylla and Lepidozia reptans to occur on 60 to 80 per cent of the plots. Amabilis fir germinants are constant and plentiful in the D layer.

Bryophytes and lichens on rock surfaces are not noticeably different from those on the Cladothamnus association. There is a greater amount of decayed wood on the Vaccinium alaskaense association and it contains a greater variety of bryophytes. Most of the mosses and liverworts from the humus spread to decaying logs, where they form a mixture with Bazzania ambigua, Lophozia porphyroleuca and Hypnum circinale.

Lescuraea baileyi occurs rarely on Vaccinium stems in this association, although Ptilidium pulcherrimum commonly does.

Bryophytes and lichens epiphytic on tree trunks include those of the

Cladothamnus association, with the following additions: Hypnum circinale, Parmeliopsis hyperopta, Sphaerophorus globosus and Cladonia squamosa.

c. Moist Habitat

This category includes areas with temporary or irregular seepage. Slopes that have shallow soils become mesic toward the end of the growing season and support the hygric (moist) subassociation of the Cladothamnus association. On moist habitats that have deeper soils the Streptopus association, with its luxuriant herbaceous layer, occurs. Although both of these vegetation units occur on moist habitats, individual tree size is far greater on the Streptopus association. It is not known if the poor tree growth on the Cladothamnus association is due to some factor other than the shallow soil.

(1b) Cladothamnus association, hygric subassociation (Tsugeto - Cladothamnetum subassoc. hygricum)

Reference: Synthesis Table I

Characteristic combination of species: as in lithic subassociation with differentiating features as described below.

This subassociation represents an ecosystematic variation of the Cladothamnus association. Floristic features of this subassociation on moist, but shallow, soils are not markedly different from those of the lithic counterpart.

The tree layer, predominantly of mountain hemlock, has an estimated average cover of only 43 per cent. Average gross volume is 5,466 cubic feet per acre, and the average height of the tallest tree is 84 feet for mountain hemlock, 76 feet for amabilis fir and 73 feet for yellow cedar. Site indices at 100 years are between 40 and 50 feet for all three species. Mountain hemlock has the greatest number of trees and the greatest gross volume of the three species in all diameter classes except the smallest (5-inch class),

where amabilis fir is the predominant species.

The shrub layer on this subassociation is the most dense in the entire zone. The estimated 90 per cent coverage is of <u>Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus</u>, <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> and <u>V. membranaceum</u>. Where there is occasional coniferous regeneration amongst the shrubs it appears to stagnate at approximately four or five inches in diameter and at 10 to 14 feet in height. This stagnation may be a result of the weight and movement of snow which depresses and deforms shrubs and small trees.

Phyllodoce empetriformis is a constant species in this subassociation but it is not abundant and is of poor vigour. Cassiope mertensiana and Vaccinium deliciosum are poorly represented when compared to the lithic subassociation.

<u>Dicranum fuscescens, Rhytidiopsis robusta, Dicranum scoparium</u> and <u>Rhytidiadelphus loreus</u> are the most common mosses on humus. Lichens occur very sparingly on this subassociation.

(3) <u>Streptopus</u> association (<u>Abieteto - Streptopetum</u>)
Reference: Synthesis Table III and Plate I, A.

Two subassociations are recognized and described below for this association.

(3a) Typical subassociation (subassoc. <u>abietetoso</u> - <u>streptopetosum</u>)

Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Abies amabilis
Tsuga mertensiana
Vaccinium alaskaense
Rubus pedatus
Rhytidiopsis robusta

Exclusives and selectives, none

Constants, not dominant

Menziesia ferruginea
Blechnum spicant
Streptopus roseus
Veratrum eschscholtzii

Preferents

Blechnum spicant
Streptopus roseus
Streptopus streptopoides
Plagiothecium denticulatum

This association is closely related to the orthic Blechnum forest type at lower elevations in the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone. The most obvious floristic difference is the low species significance, sociability and vigour of Blechnum spicant in the Subalpine Zone. The greater accumulations of humus and the shorter growing season in the Subalpine Zone probably hinder the occurrence of Blechnum, but the presence of its usual associates, such as Streptopus spp. and Tiarella spp. suggests edaphic similarities in the two associations of the two bioclimatic zones.

The typical subassociation usually occurs on middle portions of slopes and often there are steep rock faces exposed above. All precipitation runs off from the rock surfaces to ensure a plentiful supply of seepage below. The soil on this association is usually deeper than 70 cm., therefore seepage is not confined to the surface.

It was frequently noted that these habitats are free of snow in June when portions of the slope both above and below are still covered by two to three feet of snow. In many instances this is due to a relatively warmer west or southwest exposure. Furthermore, this association frequently occurs on slopes as steep as 30 degrees where occasional small snow-slides are possible. These factors combine to lessen snow accumulation, and the consequent increase in length of growing season allows greater decomposition of humus. The breakdown of humus is further enhanced by seepage water which laterally translocates nutrients required for the process of decomposition. The final result is excellent tree growth for such an altitude; at 3700 feet on Grouse Mountain a 20-year radial increment of three inches was noted for amabilis fir. The greatest heights and diameters recorded in this study were on this association (total height 170 feet and d.b.h. 64.5 inches for amabilis fir; 171 feet and 58.9 inches for mountain hemlock). The tallest yellow cedar (130 feet) also occurred here and the greatest diameter for the species (70.0 inches) was on

a degraded subassociation of the Streptopus association.

The highest average volume in the zone, 17,951 cubic feet per acre, is on this association and 55 per cent of it is amabilis fir. Average height of the tallest tree is 142 feet for amabilis fir, 135 for mountain hemlock, 114 for yellow cedar and 102 for western hemlock. Amabilis fir is more numerous than other species in all diameter classes. Yellow cedar is rarely present in diameter classes less than 20 inches, and above this size it averages only one tree per acre in each diameter class. Both species of hemlock are represented in all diameter classes.

Constant dominant shrubs are not noticeably different from those on the mesic Vaccinium alaskaense association; Vaccinium alaskaense and Abies amabilis dominate the B layer in both cases. The sporadic occurrence of Oplopanax horridus indicates that there is at least temporary seepage on this habitat.

Rubus pedatus, Blechnum spicant, Streptopus roseus, Veratrum eschscholtzii, Clintonia uniflora and Tiarella spp. dominate the herbaceous layer. Lysichitum americanum occurs with low vigour and only on the wettest parts of the association.

There are no distinctive bryophytes on the humus; they are a combination of mesophytic species such as <u>Dicranum fuscescens</u> and <u>Rhytidiopsis</u>

robusta and hydrophytic ones such as <u>Mnium nudum</u> and <u>Plagiothecium undulatum</u>.

Lignicolous species are mainly Hypnum circinale, Dicranum scoparium,

Rhytidiadelphus loreus, Scapania bolanderi, Plagiothecium elegans, Tsuga heterophylla and patches of mixed liverworts. The latter are usually Cephalozia media,

Blepharostoma trichophyllum, Lepidozia reptans and Lophocolea heterophylla.

Yellow cedar bark is partially covered with <u>Heterocladium procurrens</u>, <u>Radula complanata</u>, <u>Plagiothecium elegans</u>, <u>Hypnum circinale</u> and <u>Lobaria linata</u>.

On a recent yellow cedar windfall <u>Antitrichia curtipendula</u>, <u>Parmelia entero-</u>

morpha, Ptilidium pulcherrimum and Sphaerophorus globosus were noted on the upper sides of branches in the upper half of the tree crown.

Amabilis fir and both species of hemlock support species on their lower trunks distinct from those on yellow cedar. Parmelia enteromorpha,

Sphaerophorus globosus, Parmeliopsis hyperopta, Alectoria sarmentosa, Ptilidium pulcherrimum, Hypnum circinale and Dicranum fuscescens are all common.

(3b) Degraded subassociation (subassoc. chamaecyparetosum)
Reference: Synthesis Table III

Characteristic combination of species: as in typical subassociation, with differentiating species as described below.

In the shrub layer <u>Cladothamnus</u> <u>pyrolaeflorus</u> and <u>Rhododendron</u> <u>albi-florum</u> distinguish this from the typical subassociation. The absence of <u>Rubus</u> spectabilis in the degraded subassociation is a further difference.

In the subordinate layers, Gymnocarpium dryopteris and Bryum sand-bergii are absent from this subassociation, and species such as Streptopus streptopoides, Tiarella trifoliata, T. unifoliata and Athyrium filix-femina occur in less than 20 per cent of the plots. Conversely, Listera caurina and Plagiochila asplenioides have a higher presence rating than on the typical subassociation.

The degraded subassociation is further distinguishable by the following features of its tree layer: (1) amabilis fir is exceeded by mountain hemlock, both in number of trees and in gross volume, for most diameter classes; (2) western hemlock is only sporadically present, most often as large trees over 40 inches in diameter; and (3) yellow cedar is more numerous, but still absent from some of the smaller diameter classes. As the typical Streptopus association develops towards this degraded subassociation there is a poorer representation of the low altitude species, western hemlock and amabilis fir,

and an increased number of yellow cedar and mountain hemlock (Figure 25).

Yellow cedar entirely dominates in the diameter classes over 37 inches. For this species there is an average of 12 trees per acre over 39 inches in diameter; it is not surprising that over 40 per cent of the gross volume on the subassociation is from yellow cedar alone. Average gross volume per acre is approximately 3000 cubic feet less than on the typical subassociation. Average height of the tallest tree is 24 feet less in the two species of hemlock, 25 feet less in amabilis fir, but 2 feet greater in yellow cedar on the degraded subassociation.

Another noticeable feature is the reduction in average coverage by the herbaceous layer to only 16 per cent. This indicates a marked development towards the mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association where increased shade, greater depth to seepage, and more raw humus limit coverage of the C layer.

A distinct concentration of Mnium spinulosum, Plagiochila asplenioides and Barbilophozia lycopodiodes near the base of large yellow cedar trees
are additional differentiating floristic features of this subassociation. On
the two occasions when Polystichum munitum was observed in the Subalpine Zone,
it grew in close contact with yellow cedar. The bark of this tree may provide
nutritional benefits to species growing at its base and, for Polystichum, the
required moisture would be provided by the portion of intercepted precipitation
which reaches the forest floor as stem-flow on these large trees.

d. Wet Habitat

This habitat is characterized by permanent seepage which is often near the surface. Where these seepage habitats occur adjacent to mountain streams, tree growth is good, as on the subalpine Oplopanax association. In other cases, tree growth may be hindered by slow-moving water and poor aeration near the surface, as on the subalpine Lysichitum association.

(4) Subalpine Oplopanax association (Thujeto - Oplopanacetum abietetosum amabilis)

Reference: Synthesis Table V and Plate I, b

The characteristic combination of species below is tentative because synthesis was based on only four sample plots. Presence classes could not be accurately assigned to the constituent species for such a small number of samples.

Constant dominants

Tsuga heterophylla
Abies amabilis
Oplopanax horridus
Vaccinium alaskaense
Athyrium filix-femina
Gymnocarpium dryopteris
Streptopus roseus
Rhytidiopsis robusta

Exclusives

Oplopanax horridus Lonicera utahensis Ribes bracteosum

Selectives

Picea sitchensis

Preferents

Thuja plicata
Vaccinium ovalifolium
Rubus spectabilis
Athyrium filix-femina
Gymnocarpium dryopteris
Tiarella unifoliata

Constants, not dominant

Vaccinium ovalifolium Vaccinium membranaceum Lonicera utahensis Tiarella unifoliata Clintonia uniflora Viola glabella Streptopus amplexifolius Rubus pedatus Veratrum eschscheltzii Pyrola secunda Osmorhiza purpurea Tiarella trifoliata Streptopus streptopoides Listera caurina Dicranum fuscescens Hypnum circinale Scapania bolanderi

Preferents, continued

Viola glabella
Streptopus amplexifolius
Osmorhiza purpurea
Lycopodium clavatum
Ribes lacustre
Scapania bolanderi
Bryum sandbergii

This vegetation unit is considered a subalpine climatic variant of the Oplopanax - Adiantum forest type described by Orloci (1961). Edaphic conditions of the two appear very similar; both occur marginal to mountain streams where there is abundant and rapidly moving seepage near the surface. Restriction to this particular habitat severely limits the distribution of this forest type and its subalpine variant. Floristic differences are not great between the two,

except that Thuja plicata is rare or lacking in the subalpine variant and amabilis fir is much more common. In the herbaceous layer, Adiantum pedatum is replaced by Gymnocarpium dryopteris in the Subalpine Zone. Lonicera utahensis in the subalpine variant further distinguishes it from the related association at lower altitudes. It is important to distinguish the subalpine Oplopanax sites from the Oplopanax forest type of flood-plains at lower elevations (Piceeto - Oplopanacetum, Orloci 1961). The latter develops on an entirely different habitat, and its origin, development and stability are unlike the association under discussion here.

Insufficient mensurational data were available to obtain reliable stand table and diameter-class volume data. Average coverage by the tree layer was estimated to be only 51 per cent. Many openings are present because of frequent windfall. The abundant moisture supply in the association may encourage shallow-rootedness which, in turn, could explain the high incidence of windfall. Despite the relatively sparse tree cover, gross volumes per acreare high because of large individual tree volumes. The four 1/5-acre plots average 15,688 cubic feet per acre, with western hemlock and amabilis fir contributing most of the volume. Yellow cedar is not abundant because some of the sample plots occurred below the lower altitudinal limit of this species on Paul Ridge. Sitka spruce are few in number on this association but contribute a large volume. A spruce 158 feet tall and 43.7 inches at breast height was recorded on one of these plots at an altitude of 3760 feet.

Average height of the tallest tree is 139 feet for mountain hemlock; 138 for balsam fir, 128 for western red cedar and 127 for western hemlock. Amabilis fir has the greatest site index of 101 feet, western hemlock 95, western red cedar 95, and mountain hemlock only 78. On this association mountain hemlock is clearly confined to higher portions of the habitat where drainage is better, whereas amabilis fir occurs throughout.

Large openings in the upper canopy encourage a dense shrub layer.

It is dominated by Oplopanax horridus (Plate I, B), Vaccinium alaskaense and Abies amabilis. The constant species that provide most coverage in the C layer are Athyrium filix-femina, Gymnocarpium dryopteris, and Streptopus roseus.

Mnium nudum is the most significant moss in the ground layer, and other species that characterize the moist conditions of this habitat are:

Hypnum circinale, Scapania bolanderi, Bryum sandbergii, Eurhynchium stokesii,

Moerckia blyttii and Plagiothecium undulatum. Hookeria lucens, which occurs only sporadically, also indicates abundant seepage at or near the surface.

There are usually no rocks exposed on this association, and decayed wood is occupied by many of the bryophytes listed above. Lepidozia reptans,

Cephalozia media, Blepharostoma trichophyllum and Ptilidium pulcherrimum are also widespread on decaying windfalls.

Corticolous bryophytes were not studied in sufficient detail to detect differences from those on trees of the mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association which often occurs adjacent to the moist <u>Oplopanax ravines</u>.

(5) Subalpine Lysichitum association (Chamaecypareto - Lysichitetum)

Reference: Synthesis Table V

Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Chamaecyparis nootkatensis
Tsuga heterophylla
Abies amabilis
Vaccinium alaskaense
Lysichitum americanum
Mnium nudum
Rhytidiadelphus loreus

Exclusives

Coptis asplenifolia

Constants, not dominant

Tsuga mertensiana
Menziesia ferruginea
Rubus pedatus
Clintonia uniflora
Carex laeviculmis
Veratrum eschscholtzii
Blechnum spicant
Athyrium filix-femina
Streptopus roseus
Streptopus amplexifolius
Cornus canadensis
Listera cordata
Rhytidiopsis robusta
Plagiothecium undulatum

Constants, not dominant, contid.

Selectives

Lysichitum americanum Sphagnum squarrosum

Preferents

Carex laeviculmis
Veratrum eschscholtzii
Listera cordata
Habenaria saccata
Nephrophillidium crista-galli
Mnium nudum
Rhytidiadelphus loreus
Plagiothecium undulatum

Sphagnum squarrosum Dicranum fuscescens Pellia epiphylla

Preferents, continued

Pellia epiphylla Mnium spinulosum Conocephalum conicum Sphagnum girgensohnii Hypnum dieckii

Lysichitum americanum occurs in a number of different bioclimatic zones because it grows on habitats in which edaphic controls prevail over climatic influences. The coastal subalpine Lysichitum association differs floristically from others previously described by a similar name for the Douglas-fir zone on the east coast of Vancouver Island, for the Interior Western Hemlock Zone, or for the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone (Forestry Handbook for British Columbia 1959, Orloci 1961). It is most closely related to the Vaccinium alaskaense - Lysichitum forest type of the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone (see Table VIII), but Picea sitchensis and Thuja plicata are replaced by Chamaecyparis nootkatensis in the subalpine counterpart.

It occurs only near the lower limits of the Subalpine Zone and is restricted to areas where seepage is abundant, permanent and near the surface. Therefore, it is most common on concave, lower slopes.

Average coverage by the tree layer was estimated at 66 per cent. The impeded drainage and poor aeration result in a low total volume of only 8,345 cubic feet per acre. For volume, decreasing order of importance for the tree species is western hemlock, yellow cedar, mountain hemlock and balsam fir. Western hemlock has an average maximum height of 111 feet, followed by mountain hemlock. When age is considered, mountain hemlock shows the highest site index

of 71 feet, western hemlock 65 feet, yellow cedar 61 feet and amabilis fir only 57 feet.

Amabilis fir is the most numerous tree in the small diameter classes but is rarely larger than the 21-inch class. Most of the volume in large diameter classes is from yellow cedar and western hemlock. Western white pine and western red-cedar are sporadic trees in this association.

Vaccinium alaskaense is the most important species in the shrub layer, and regeneration of the four common tree species make up the most of the remaining cover.

On such habitats there are groupings of herbaceous species in the wettest portions quite distinct from the combination of species which occurs on the elevated, more acid humps. Sample plots as large as 1/5-acre have the disadvantage of covering both microhabitats and an unusual combination of species may result in the synthesis tables unless previous stratification is made in the list of species. In the wettest portions of this association Lysichitum americanum, Clintonia uniflora and Veratrum eschecholtzii typify the success of geophytes. Most of the remaining species in Synthesis Table V are associated with Lysichitum in the moist depressions, but the following are more common near the clumps of trees where there is some raw humus development and where depth to seepage is greater: Rubus pedatus, Pyrola secunda, Streptopus streptopoides, Cormus canadensis, Maianthemum dilatatum, Vaccinium spp.,

Menziesia ferruginea, Goodyera oblongifolia and Sorbus occidentalis.

On moist depressions Mnium nudum, Sphagnum squarrosum, Pellia epiphylla and Plagiothecium undulatum predominate, but Rhytidiadelphus loreus, Rhytidiopsis robusta and Dicranum fuscescens are locally abundant on drier prominences.

The primary lignicolous bryophytes are <u>Dicranum fuscescens</u>, <u>Hypnum circinale</u>, <u>Ptilidium pulcherrimum</u>, <u>Rhytidiadelphus loreus</u>, <u>Scapania bolanderi</u>,

Lophocolea heterophylla and Rhytidiopsis robusta. On very moist logs and rocks

Hypnum dieckii differentiates this wet association from those which are moist,

mesic or dry.

Corticolous bryophytes and lichens are similar to those described for the <u>Streptopus</u> association.

e. Moor Habitat

Areas with stagnant water are included here and only one association is described for this category.

(6) Eriophorum - Sphagnum association (Eriophoreto - Sphagnetum)

References: Synthesis Table IV and Plate II, B

Characteristic combination of species:

Constants, none Preferents

Exclusives Scirpus caespitosus Sphagnum plumulosum

Eriophorum angustifolium Scapania uliginosa Carex aquatilis Sphagnum mendocinum

Calliergonella cuspidata

Selectives, none Polytrichum commune

The characteristic combination of species above is very tentative because this association was not studied in sufficient detail. It occurs sporadically in the Subalpine Zone and there was great floristic variation in the five plots that were analysed. This association is most frequent in the lower subzone, but it may sometimes occur in the upper subzone and even fragmentarily in the Alpine Zone.

This association begins to develop in open stagnant water or on slopes where drainage is severely impeded. Carex aquatilis and Drepanocladus exannulatus characterize the first stage of development (Plate II, B), and later stages are dominated by Eriophorum angustifolium, Sphagnum plumulosum and S. mendocinum.

On one of these moor areas there was a slight slope of four degrees, which was sufficient to improve drainage, and common species of the Leptarrhena - Caltha leptosepala association were associated with Eriophorum angustifolium and Carex aquatilis. This association requires further study for an understanding of its ecological and phytosociological features.

B. Upper Subzone

In this part of the Subalpine Zone trees grow only on dry and mesic habitats which have a relatively short duration of snow. Wet and moist habitats, often because of their topographic position, have such a long duration of snow that trees are unable to develop.

1. Chionophobous Associations

Chionophobous communities are those which are relatively intolerant to great accumulations and long duration of snow. In the upper subzone, the two associations which contain trees are placed in this category.

a. Dry Habitat

The lithic subassociation of the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association occupies dry habitats in both the upper and lower subzones. Floristic features are not markedly different in the upper subzone from those described for the subassociation at lower elevations. Total volume is usually less than 2000 cubic feet per acre and species such as <u>Phyllodoce empetriformis</u>, <u>Cassiope mertensiana</u>, <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> and <u>Luetkea pectinata</u> are much more prominent on this subassociation in the upper subzone.

b. Mesic Habitat

This habitat may have a considerable amount of rock outcrop but it always occurs on a slope position and the soils are generally deeper than in

the drier lithic habitat of the upper subzone (Brooke 1964).

(7) <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> - <u>Rhododendron</u> association (<u>Tsugeto</u> - <u>Vaccinietum membranacei</u>)

Reference: Synthesis Table VI, Plates I, E and III, C Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Tsuga mertensiana
Abies amabilis
Vaccinium membranaceum
Rhytidiopsis robusta

Phyllodoce empetriformis Vaccinium deliciosum Orthocaulis floerkii

Exclusives, none

Preferents

Selectives

Vaccinium membranaceum

Rhododendron albiflorum

This association is floristically similar to the Engelmann Spruce - Alpine Fir - Black Huckleberry association of the Interior Subalpine Zone (Arlidge 1955) and is related to vegetation types described by Daubenmire (1952) in northern Idaho. Tsuga mertensiana, Rhododendron albiflorum and Vaccinium membranaceum are amongst the climax dominants in subalpine areas of inland mountains, and in this study the Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron association was best developed in the portions of Garibaldi Park which were furthest from the Strait of Georgia.

This association may develop on somewhat different habitats depending upon altitude. Its optimal development, at an altitude of 3900 feet, is shown in Plate III, C. At the altitudinal tree limit (near 6000 feet in this study), the same association develops as a topographic climax only on drier, more exposed ridges (Plate I, E).

When this association was confined to a narrow ridge it was often impossible to establish a sample plot as large as 1/5-acre. Only the five sample plots that were of standard 1/5-acre size were used in the summaries

of mensurational data (Figure 25 and Table XII).

Average gross volume is 6,451 cubic feet per acre, with mountain hemlock accounting for 67 per cent. Average height of the tallest tree is 86 feet for mountain hemlock, 71 feet for amabilis fir and 58 feet for yellow cedar. Site indices could not be accurately calculated, but for each species it is less than 40 feet at 100 years.

Mountain hemlock is the only species represented in all diameter classes. Yellow cedar has a very low average number of trees in the smallest diameter class, in contrast to its abundance at this size in the lithic subassociation of the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association. Both yellow cedar and amabilis fir are only sporadically present in diameter classes over 13 inches.

Basal snow-crook is common on tree trunks, particularly where the slope is great, and the stems of tall shrubs are permanently appressed by the weight of snow. Vaccinium membranaceum, Rhododendron albiflorum and Tsuga mertensiana are the main species in the shrub layer.

As in the mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association of the lower subzone, the herbaceous layer is poorly developed. There are only a few chamaephytes and small woody phanerophytes in the C layer.

The constant occurrence of <u>Rhytidiopsis robusta</u> on humus clearly differentiates the ground layer of this association from that on non-forested associations in the upper subzone, whereas <u>Orthocaulis floerkii</u> as a constant species distinguishes the humicolous layer from that in forested associations at lower altitudes. Lichens are numerous by species but provide little surface coverage, and species of <u>Rhacomitrium</u> are uncommon on humus. When this association occurs near its upper limit on ridges, the humicolous bryophyte layer is very sparse with the result that average coverage by bryophytes is the lowest of any multi-layered association in the Subalpine Zone.

Rock surfaces support Andreaea rupestris, Rhacomitrium heterostichum,

Diplophyllum taxifolium, Kiaeria falcata, Cladonia bellidiflora, Pilophoron hallii and Lecidea spp.

Decayed wood is not plentiful but is mainly covered by <u>Dicranum</u>

scoparium, <u>Ptilidium pulcherrimum</u>, <u>Rhytidiopsis robusta and <u>Cladonia bellidi-</u>

flora. <u>Cetraria stenophylla and Ptilidium pulcherrimum occur on both Rhodo-</u>

dendron and <u>Vaccinium</u> stems but are more abundant on the latter. At the lower altitudinal limits of this association, <u>Lescuraea baileyi</u> also occurs on the stems of Vaccinium.</u>

Corticolous species are few; Parmeliopsis hyperopta, Ptilidium

pulcherrimum and Dicranum fuscescens are the main species below average winter

snow level on the trunks of mountain hemlock. Alectoria sarmentosa and

Sphaerophorous globosus occur higher up on the tree trunks. The only recorded

occurrence of Letharia vulpina in this study was on the bark-free dead branches

of yellow cedar of this association.

2. Chionophilous Associations

Those associations that develop in habitats of relatively long snow duration are described below. Trees, as such, are lacking but tree species may be present in dwarf form (Figure 20). Two categories, moderately and strongly chionophilous associations, are discussed below.

a. Moderately Chionophilous Associations

Habitats with snow duration intermediate between that on forested areas and that in late snow-patch areas would be similar to 'early snow-patch' habitats as described by Dahl (1956). The vegetation on these areas of medium snow duration is considered to be moderately chionophilous in the present classification.

i. Dwarf Tree Association

Tree species in this association are rarely over ten feet tall.

They are often leaning (Plate III, B) and usually have a snow-crook at the base of the stem. Although dwarfed and somewhat deformed from the forces of snow, tree species are not so severely misshapen as in true krummholz of alpine areas. A more or less erect stem can develop in tree species of the association described below, whereas krummholz of higher altitudes is more closely appressed to the ground, probably as a result of greater exposure to wind.

- (8) Dwarf Tsuga association (Nano-Tsugetum mertensianae)

 Reference: Synthesis Table VII and Plate I, F

 Two subassociations are recognized and described below for this association.
 - (8a) Typical subassociation (subassoc. nano-tsugetosum mertensianae)

 Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Tsuga mertensiana
Phyllodoce empetriformis
Cassiope mertensiana
Luetkea pectinata
Orthocaulis floerkii

Vaccinium deliciosum Deschampsia atropurpurea Dicranum fuscescens

Selectives

Preferents

Luetkea pectinata Hippuris montana

Deschampsia atropurpurea

The most important environmental feature distinguishing the two subassociations here is the relative lack of seepage in the typical subassociation.

Successional relationships of this association were discussed by Brink (1959) but its floristic details have not been previously elaborated. The typical subassociation occurs on warmer exposures or on elevated areas where snow duration is less than on the adjacent Phyllodoce - Cassiope association (Figure 19 and Plate I, F). Conversely, near its lower limit this association occurs on topography that favours longer snow duration than in

the surrounding lithic subassociation of the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association. Even in the lower subzone, collection of cold air in depressions and ravines can create conditions which maintain a dwarf <u>Tsuga</u> association. This association was sampled at an altitude as low as 3300 feet on Mount Seymour; mountain hemlock there was only five feet tall at an age of 93 years.

The dominance of mountain hemlock physiognomically distinguishes this vegetation unit from the surrounding small shrub associations of the upper subzone. Some hemlocks were over six feet tall in every plot sampled, but height growth is extremely slow. At an altitude of 4000 feet mountain hemlock was 12 feet tall at 50 years of age, and at 4750 feet it was only four feet tall at 100 years of age (Figure 20).

The combined coverage by dwarf Tsuga mertensiana, Phyllodoce empetriformis and Cassiope mertensiana allows little room for other shrubs. Neither Vaccinium deliciosum nor V. membranaceum are well represented in this association. Deschampsia atropurpurea, always with a low species significance and sociability, is a selective species.

The ability of mountain hemlock to occur as a pioneer on relatively bare soil allows this association to develop in some places without much previous humus accumulation. The high presence values of pioneers such as Lycopodium sitchense and Crocynia membranacea indicate that this is a relatively early stage in vegetational development. By contrast, on the Vaccinium deliciosum association organic accumulations are deeper, and Lycopodium and Crocynia are already eliminated or infrequent.

Rhacomitrium heterostichum, R. canescens, Orthocaulis floerkii,

Dicranum fuscescens, Kiaerkia falcata, Crocynia membranacea and Cladonia
squamosa are the most important humicolous bryophytes and lichens.

Rhacomitrium heterostichum is also the dominant moss on rock surfaces but Rhizocarpon geographicum, Andreaea rupestris, Grimmia apocarpa and various

unidentified crustose lichens are also common.

No mosses develop on trunks of the dwarf Tsuga in this association.

(8b) <u>Luetkea</u> subassociation (subassoc. <u>luetkeetosum pectinatae</u>)

Reference: Synthesis Table VII

Characteristic combination of species, as in typical subassociation, with differentiating species as below.

The two subassociations described here are good examples of similar vegetation types developing on quite different habitats. The typical subassociation occurs on a variety of topographic positions and is often well developed on prominences where there is no benefit from seepage (Plate I, F). In contrast, the Luetkea subassociation is restricted to concave areas where seepage is available through all of the short growing season. Physiognomic differences are slight between the two subassociations and there are few species differences. The presence of Hippuris montant and Carex nigricans, and the better development of Luetkea pectinata reflect the more abundant moisture of the Luetkea subassociation; the absence of Crocynia membranacea and Cladonia squamosa further differentiates it from the typical subassociation.

In both cases, humus is very shallow and poorly developed, but the improved moisture supply allows the increased occurrence of <u>Pellia neesiana</u> and Lophozia porphyroleuca on the Luetkea subassociation.

Rock surfaces in the typical subassociation are covered with species similar to those on rocks of the Phyllodoce - Cassiope association. On the Luetkea subassociation the main coverage on rocks is by Gymnomitrium concinnatum, Rhacomitrium heterostichum, Diplophyllum taxifolium, Kiaeria falcata and Andreaea nivalis.

ii. Small Shrub Associations

The two associations described below are also considered to be moderately chionophilous. They are usually on habitats which are moist because

of melting snow until about mid-July, but they become mesic toward the end of the summer. Tree species, even in dwarf form, are very uncommon on these associations.

(,) Vaccinium deliciosum association (Vaccinietum deliciosi)

Reference: Synthesis Table VIII

Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Vaccinium deliciosum
Phyllodoce empetriformis
Cassiope mertensiaha
Dicranum fuscescens
Orthocaulis floerkii
Rhytidiopsis robusta

Tsuga mertensiana Vaccinium membranaceum Luetkea pectinata Cetraria islandica

Preferents

Selectives

Vaccinium deliciosum

Cetraria islandica

Relatively pure patches of <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> occur adjacent to areas of <u>Phyllodoce empetriformis</u> and <u>Cassiope mertensiana</u> but <u>Vaccinium appears</u> unable to tolerate such a long snow duration as these low evergreen shrubs.

The <u>Vaccinium deliciosum association</u> has floristic characteristics transitional towards the <u>Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron association</u>, which is an indication that it is less chionophilous than the <u>Phyllodoce - Cassiope association</u> in the Subalpine Zone. The zonation and distribution of <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> are often a result of differences in the length of growing season, and its frequent concentration along small temporary streams also indicates that this species is less xerophytic than <u>Phyllodoce</u> or <u>Cassiope</u>.

The relatively deep soil and the well developed humus layer on this association provide improved moisture conditions. Even though tree species are not abundant, the deep humus layer, the lack of pioneer species such as Lycopodium sitchense, and the constant occurrence of Rhytidiopsis robusta and Vaccinium membranaceum indicate that vegetational development is well advanced

here. This association is more closely related, floristically, to forested communities than it is to the <u>Phyllodoce</u> - <u>Cassiope</u> association, and for this reason is not found at higher altitudes in the Alpine Zone. It is a characteristic association of the upper subzone of the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone.

There is a well-developed shrub layer which is dominated by <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u>. The layer less than six inches in height (C) is occupied largely by this same species and by <u>Phyllodoce empetriformis</u>. <u>Cassiope mertensiana</u> is reduced in total cover degree by the increased shading of <u>Vaccinium</u> over six inches tall. <u>Lycopodium sitchense</u> is entirely absent, in contrast to the other small shrub association at this altitude.

Dicranum fuscescens and Orthocaulis floerkii are the dominant humicolous species but the occurrence of Rhytidiopsis robusta and Cetraria islandica
differentiate this layer from that in the Phyllodoce - Cassiope association.
Cladonia bellidiflora is the only prominent lichen in the humus layer, and
Cetraria stenophylla is abundant on the stems of Vaccinium deliciosum near
ground level.

Bryophytes and lichens on rock surfaces are similar to those on the Phyllodoce - Cassiope association.

(10) Phyllodoce - Cassiope association (Phyllodoceto - Cassiopetum mertensianae)

Reference: Synthesis Table IX and Plate II, D
Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Phyllodoce empetriformis
Cassiope mertensiana
Vaccinium deliciosum
Dicranum fuscescens
Orthocaulis floerkii

Exclusives and Selectives, none

Constants, not dominant

Luetkea pectinata

Preferents

Phyllodoce empetriformis
Cassiope mertensiana
Lycopodium sitchense
Gymnomitrium varians
Kiaeria falcata
Crocynia membranacea

This vegetation unit was previously studied by McAvoy (1929, 1931),
Brink (1959) and Archer (1963). It is the mesic association in the Alpine
Zone (Archer 1963), but in the Subalpine Zone it occurs on moist habitats.
Its occupation of concave topographic positions with temporary seepage in
the Subalpine Zone is in sharp contrast to its development in the Alpine Zone
on convex or flat relief without seepage.

The two topographically distinct habitats on which this association occurs in the two bioclimatic zones influence not only the moisture relationships but also snow duration. On both habitats in the two different zones the snow remains for nine to ten months of the year. However, relative to other topographic positions and vegetation units, the Phyllodoce - Cassiope association is chionophobous in the Alpine Zone but moderately chionophilous in the Subalpine Zone.

In the Alpine Zone, Phyllodoce empetriformis and Cassiope mertensiana are the dominant species of this association; in the Subalpine Zone, the association becomes more diversified by the invasion of taller shrubs or tree species. There is a greater proportion of Vaccinium deliciosum and Tsuga mertensiana, and lesser amounts of Cassiope mertensiana when this association occurs within the Subalpine Zone. If there is a B layer developed, mountain hemlock is the dominant species, but Chamaecyparis nootkatensis, Vaccinium deliciosum, V.

membranaceum and Sorbus occidentalis may also occur over six inches in height.

In its early phases this association contains a high proportion of Luetkea pectinata, Lycopodium sitchense, Crocynia membranacea, Kiaeria falcata, and Gymnomitrium varians. The constant dominant bryophytes, Dicranum fuscescens and Orthocaulis floerkii, are lacking only during the initial phase of development. When Tsuga mertensiana and Vaccinium deliciosum occur on this association, Rhytidiopsis robusta may also develop beneath them. Rock surfaces are partially covered with Rhacomitrium heterostichum, R. canescens, Andreaea

rupestris, Rhizocarpon geographicum, Lecidea sp., Marsupella ustulata, Umbilicaria torrefacta and Gymnomitrium concinnatum.

Cetraria stenophylla, which is very common on twigs of <u>Vaccinium</u> deliciosum, rarely occurs in the Phyllodoce - <u>Cassiope</u> association.

iii. Herb Association

Only one association is placed in this group. It occurs where water is permanently at or near the surface. Where there is a surface flow of water snow melt is hastened. Thus, a slightly longer growing season separates this association from nearby strongly chionophilous associations.

(11) <u>Leptarrhena - Caltha leptosepala</u> association (<u>Leptarrheneto - Calthetum leptosepalae</u>)

Reference: Synthesis Table IV, Plate II, A Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Leptarrhena pyrolifolia
Erigeron peregrinus
Caltha leptosepala
Parnassia fimbriata
Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus
Drepanocladus exannulatus
Philonotis fontana

Carex spectabilis

Exclusives

Caltha leptosepala

Selectives

Salix commutata
Leptarrhena pyrolifolia
Erigeron peregrinus
Parnassia fimbriata
Epilobium alpinum
Equisctum palustre
Petasites frigidus
Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus
Drepanocladus exannulatus
Philonotis fontana

Preferents

Carex spectabilis

Mitella pentandra

Jungus mertensianus

Arnica latifolia

Tofieldia glutinosa

Veronica serpyllifolia

Cratoneuron commutatum

Campylium stellatum

The <u>Leptarrhena</u> - <u>Caltha</u> association is floristically similar to the slpine forb meadow described by Brink (1959) for the Black Tusk area of Garibaldi Park, and the hygrophytic associations described by Archer (1963) for the Alpine Zone.

The floristic similarities of this seepage association with the Lysichitum seepage associations at lower altitudes indicate the predominance of edaphic controls over microclimatic influence in such habitats (Table VIII, Chapter III).

When this association occurs on the margins of a stream different combinations of species occur in bands parallel to the open water. Petasites frigidus and Drepanocladus exannulatus represent very early stages in the development of this association closest to the stream (Plate III, D); Leptarrhena pyrolifolia, Erigeron peregrimus, Caltha leptosepala, Parnassia fimbriata, Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus and Mnium nudum characterize the late stages of the association after organic accumulations have raised the surface further above stream level. Sphagnum plumulosum occurs in this association if seepage is impeded.

Luetkea pectinata, Phyllodoce empetriformis, Cassiope mertensiana,

Gaultheria humifusa, and Chamaecyparis nootkatensis are the first species from

other associations to invade the margins of the Leptarrhena - Caltha association.

b. Strongly Chionophilous Associations

This category includes late snow-patch associations of the Subalpine Zone where snow may remain as late as the first week in August. The associations of this group are characterized by their physiognomic simplicity and by their small number of constituent species.

(12) <u>Saxifraga tolmiei</u> association (<u>Saxifragetum tolmiei</u>)

Reference: Synthesis Table VIII, Plates III, E and II, F

The characteristic combination of species was not determined because this association is more typical of alpine conditions and was insufficiently sampled in the Subalpine Zone. It was observed only locally on Paul Ridge and on a recently glaciated colluvial talus slope near The Lions.

This association is the first to occur on unstable colluvial slopes, with coarse-textured soils. The sparse C layer is dominated by Saxifraga tolmici and Luzula wahlenbergii in the earliest stages of development. Phyllodoce empetriformis may occur sporadically as a pioneer in portions of the slope which are locally stable. In later stages of development, Juncus drummondii, Carex spectabilis, Luetkea pectinata, Cryptogramma crispa, Athyrium alpestre and Saxifraga ferruginea occur.

The ground layer is dominated during all stages by Gymnomitrium varians (Plate II, F), and Oligotrichum hercynicum is a constant species.

Polytrichum norvegicum, Kiaeria blyttii and Pohlia drummondii were also recorded. If rocks became stabilized on these slopes, they are occupied mostly by Andreaea nivalis.

The occurrence of species such as Athyrium alpestre, Carex spectabilis,

Luetkea pectinata, Gymnomitrium varians, Polytrichum norvegicum, Pohlia drummondii and Andreaea nivalis indicate that the long snow cover provides plentiful moisture to the habitat during the short growing season. They also indicate
the floristic similarities to other snow-patch associations discussed below.

(13) Carex nigricans association (Caricetum nigricantis)

Reference: Synthesis Table VIII

Characteristic combination of species:

Constant dominants

Constants, not dominant

Carex nigricans

Deschampsia atropurpurea Polytrichum norvegicum

Exclusives

Polytrichum norvegicum

Selectives

Preferents

Carex nigricans Kiaeria blyttii Juncus drummondii Saxifraga tolmiei

This association reaches its optimal development in the Alpine Zone but it is briefly mentioned here because of its presence in upper portions of the Subalpine Zone.

It occupies depressions where the snow remains between 9 and 10 months of the year. Soil depth is usually over 50 cm. because in many cases this association occupies former ponds which are now filled by deep accumulations of fine-textured soils. The short growing season limits the number of species, and vegetational development is extremely slow on such habitats.

In the Subalpine Zone, the most important species of this association are <u>Carex nigricans</u>, <u>Deschampsia atropurpurea</u>, <u>Juncus drummondii</u> and <u>Carex spectabilis</u>. <u>Luetkea pectinata</u>, <u>Phyllodoce empetriformis and <u>Cassiope</u> mertensiana are the earliest invaders. The latter species would be absent on well developed examples of this association in the Alpine Zone (Archer 1963).</u>

In the ground layer, <u>Polytrichum norvegicum</u>, <u>Kiaeria blyttii</u> and Pohlia drummondii are the main species.

(14) Polytrichum norvegicum association (Polytrichetum norvegici)

Reference: Synthesis Table VIII

The characteristic combination of species was not determined because this is a typically alpine association which occurs only fragmentarily in the Subalpine Zone. Floristic data from two sample plots are shown in Synthesis Table VIII to indicate environmental and phytosociological similarities of this association with the <u>Carex nigricans</u> association.

Depressions with the extreme maximum of snow duration (at least until the first week of August) are dominated by Polytrichum norvegicum.

However, in the Subalpine Zone this association often occurs in a mosaic with the <u>Carex nigricans</u> association on moist habitats with fine-textured soils.

Similar late snow-patches have been studied in detail by European scientists (Braun-Blanquet 1932, Krajina 1933, Gjaerevoll 1950), and in British Columbia, Shaw (1916) and McAvoy (1929, 1931) have discussed successional relationships between Polytrichum norvegicum and Carex nigricans. Archer (1963) also discussed associations for these species. However, these references pertain to areas with altitudes usually greater than the Subalpine Zone of this study.

CHAPTER V

COMPARISONS OF THE ASSOCIATIONS

This chapter presents basic mensurational data grouped according to the associations just described. Comparisons of life-forms on each association are also presented in tabular and graphic form. The data are not discussed in detail since their main purpose is to complement the descriptions of the associations, and to allow comparisons with similar data from other bioclimatic zones.

A. Mensuration

The greatest average volume occurs on the typical subassociation of the Streptopus association with nearly 18,000 cubic feet per acre, and the least on the lithic subassociation of the Cladothamnus association with less than 3,000 cubic feet per acre. The largest individual tree volumes occur on the subalpine Oplopanax association but the total volume per acre is reduced on this site by the high number of windfall (Table XII).

The association of optimum development for each tree species is:

the mesic Vaccinium alaskaense association for mountain hemlock;

the typical subassociation of the Streptopus association for

amabilis fir:

the degraded subassociation of the <u>Streptopus</u> association for yellow cedar;

and the subalpine Oplopanax association for western hemlock.

The relative importance of each tree species in every association is indicated by the total volumes. Mountain hemlock is the major species in the

Averages of gross volume, maximum height and site index for the major species on each association

TABLE XII

	LYSICHITUM	OPLOPANAX	STREPTOPUS	Degraded STREPTOPUS	VACCINIUM ALASKAENSE	Hygric CLADOTHAMUS	Lithic CLADOTHAMNUS	VACC. MEMBR RHODODENDRON
No. of Plots	6	4	13	6	9	5	12	5
Avge. Gross Vol. cu. ft./acre: All species incl. sporadics mountain hemlock amabilis fir yellow cedar western hemlock Total for major species Total for sporadic species	8,345 1,820 890 2,172 2,273 7,155 1,190	15,688 1,850 4,053 323 6,991 13,217 2,471	17,951 4,131 9,903 1,055 2,646 17,735 216	15,014 4,483 3,758 6,006 289 14,536 478	12,081 5,910 2,809 1,366 1,996 12,081	5,466 3,004 890 1,459 - 5,353 113	2,657 1,931 357 344 - 2,632 25	6,451 4,286 1,619 406 - 6,311 140
Avge. ht. tallest tree on plot mountain hemlock amahilis fir yellow cedar western hemlock	102 83 97 111	139 138 91 127	135 142 114 102	111 117 116 78	109 87 78 98	84 76 73	71 45 44	86 71 58
Avge. site index, at 100 yrs. mountain hemlock amabilis fir yellow cedar western hemlock	71 57 61 65	78 101 ? 95	76 93 72 69	67 74 66 ?	65 65 45 54	46 49 44	44 40 40 -	40 40 40 -

Vaccinium alaskaense, the Cladothamnus and the Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron associations; amabilis fir predominates in the typical Streptopus subassociation; amabilis fir predominates in the typical Streptopus subassociation; yellow cedar shows the highest volume of the four species in the degraded Streptopus subassociation; and western hemlock is the main species in the subalpine Lysichitum and Oplopanax associations.

The sporadic species which account for the extra volume on some associations are as follows:

on the <u>Lysichitum</u> association, western white pine and western red-cedar; on the <u>subalpine Oplopanax</u> association, Sitka spruce and Douglas-fir; on the <u>Streptopus</u> association, western red-cedar; on the <u>Cladothamnus</u> association, western hemlock; and on the <u>Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron</u> association, alpine fir, western white pine and western hemlock.

Eis (1962a) showed that there was a fairly constant decrease in site index with increasing altitude on associations that have a wide altitudinal range. Consequently, site indices of subalpine species are very low. Only with amabilis fir on the Oplopanax association is site index over 100 feet at 100 years, and in many cases it is less than 50 for all species (Table XII).

The number of trees and the gross volume in cubic feet per acre are shown for the various diameter classes of each species in Figure 25¹. The important features from these graphs were already discussed in the association descriptions of Chapter IV.

Some changes in nomenclature and organization were made after Figure 25 was reproduced. C. Mesic Vaccinium should read C. Vaccinium alaskaense; E. Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron. F. Cladothamnus is based on the five sample plots shown for the hygric subassociation in Synthesis Table I plus five sample plots (101, 104, 43, 19 and 21) that were later grouped in the lithic subassociation. G. Lithosolic Cladothamnus should read Lithic Cladothamnus and, as shown in Figure 25, the data for this group are based only on the seven sample plots originally classified as lithic.

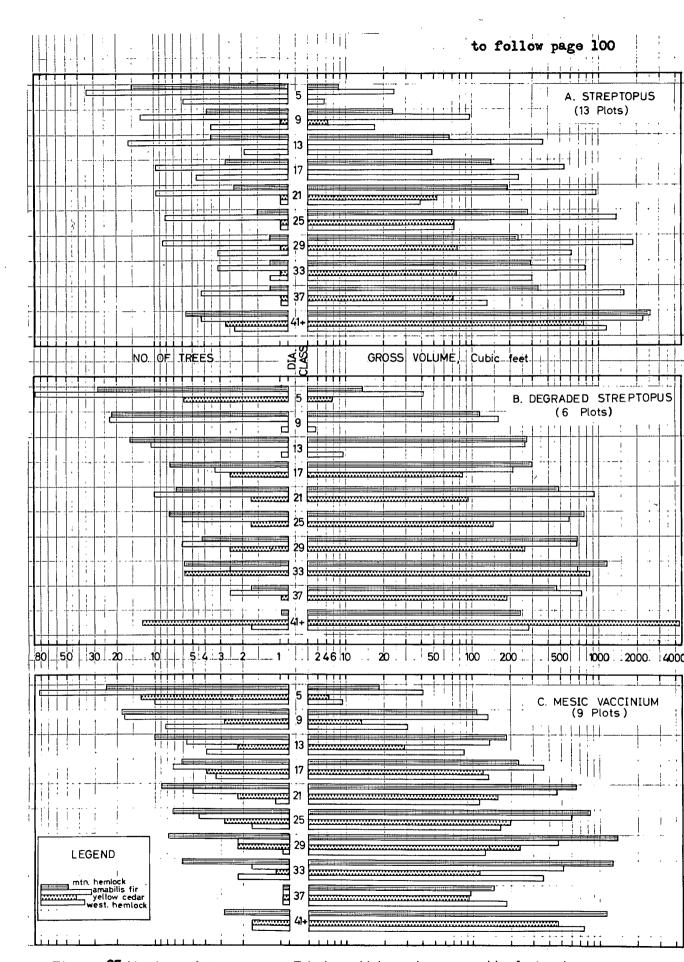


Figure **25.** Number of trees over 3 inches d.b.h. and gross cubic-foot volume, per acre, by 4-inch diameter classes, for 4 species in various associations. Figure continued next page.

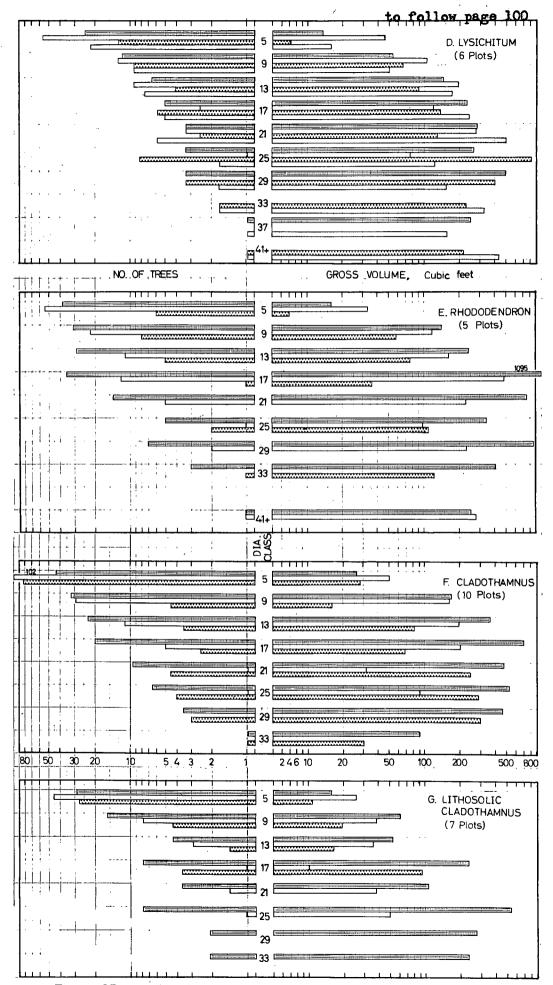


Figure 25. continued

B. Life-forms

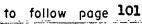
Raunkiaer's life-form system, as modified by Krajina (1933) and used by Orloci (1961), served to group the species of the study area as follows:

Macrophanerophytes (Pm) Chamaephytes (Ch) Lichens (L)
Deciduous nanophanerophytes (Pnd) Hemicryptophytes (H) Bryophytes (B)
Evergreen nanophanerophytes (Pne) Geophytes (G)

Life-forms were weighted by total cover degree with the same scale as used by Orloci (1961), and the results are directly comparable to those in the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone (Table XIII, Figures 26 and 27).

The most striking feature when one considers the number of species in each life-form is the absence of therophytes (T) in all associations of the zone. In the comparison of associations, hemicryptophytes are most numerous on the four wettest associations. Geophytes are few throughout the whole zone and are absent on the <u>Carex nigricans</u> association where the growing season is too short for the successful growth of species which must rejuvenate from below ground surface every year. The number of lichens is greatest in the dry and mesic associations of the upper subzone (Figure 26).

The physiognomy of each association is more clearly portrayed when life-forms are weighted by total cover degree (Figure 27). Macrophanerophytes have an obvious concentration in the associations near the lower limits of the zone. Deciduous shrubs are most abundant on the Cladothamnus, Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron and Vaccinium alaskaense associations, and evergreen nanophanerophytes are important only on the chionophilous associations of the upper subzone. Based on cover degree, geophytes are important only on the subalpine Lysichitum and Oplopanax associations where there is abundant seepage. The high proportion of hemicryptophytes on the moist and wet Carex nigricans, Leptarrhena - Caltha, and Eriophorum - Sphagnum associations sharply differentiates then from adjacent associations on drier habitats.



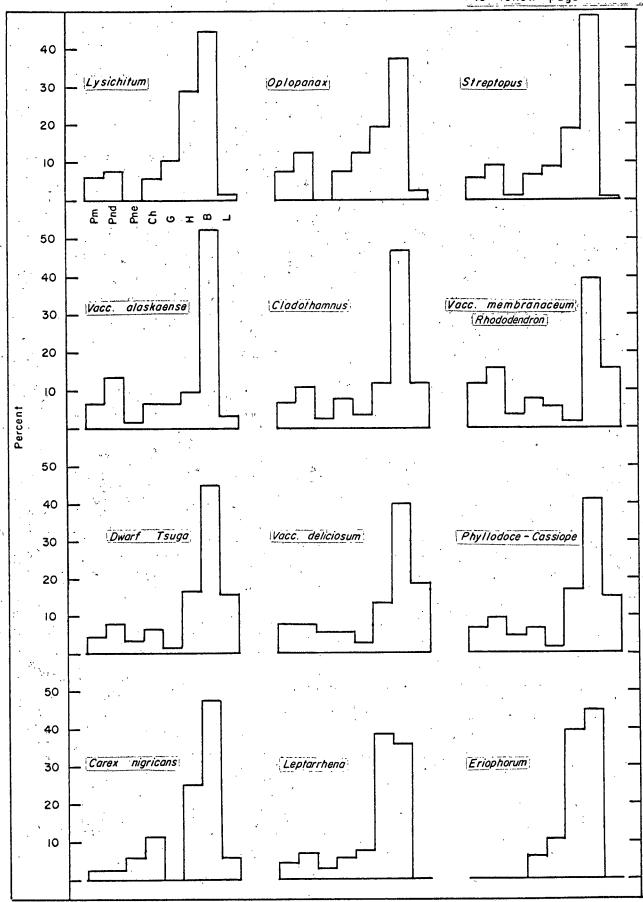


Figure 26. Percentage distribution of 8 life-forms on each association, by number of species.

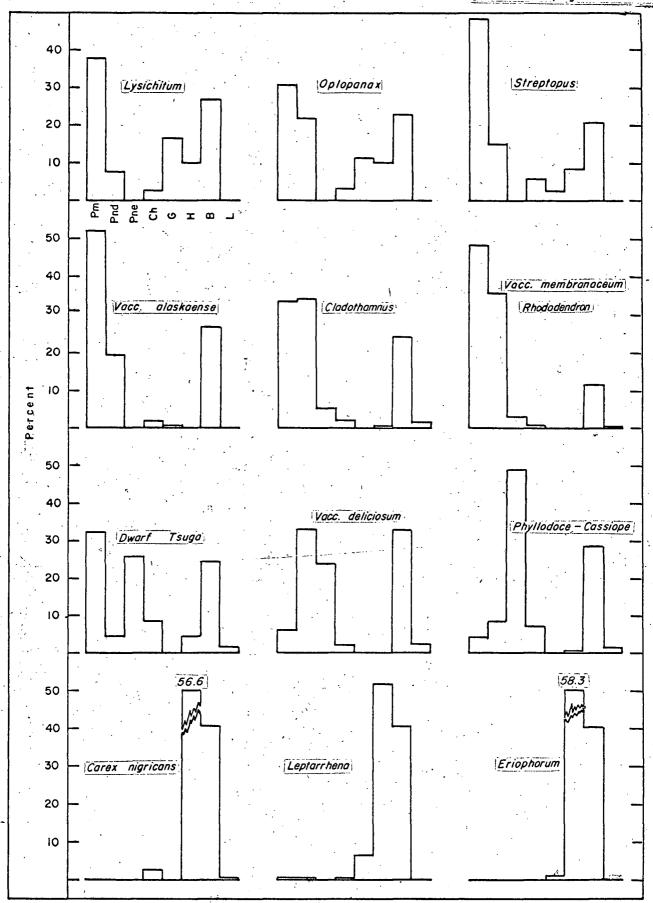


Figure 27. Percentage distribution of 8 life-forms on each association, weighted by total cover degree.

When bryophytes are considered collectively as one life-form, there are no great differences between associations (Table XIII). Therefore, humicolous bryophytes were further categorized into growth-forms in an attempt to reveal further floristic differences in the habitats.

Closeness of the entire moss plant to the habitat surface is considered to give bryophytes high sensitivity to changes in substrate or microclimate. This has been recognized by ecologists for some time, but bryophytes have usually been considered on an individual species basis. Only recently have there been demonstrations of correlations between growth-forms and habitat (Gimingham and Birse 1957). All species identified from the Coastal Subalpine Zone were grouped into the following growth-forms (see Checklist, Appendix I).

- (1) Cushions (Cu) compact, dome-shaped groups.
- (2) Tall turfs, branches erect (Te) parallel, upright shoots over 2 cm.
- (3) Tall turfs, divergent branches (Td) laterals whorled or scattered.
- (4) Short turfs (t) as (2), but under 2 cm.
- (5) Mats (M) horizontally interwoven shoots.
- (6) Thread-like forms (Mt) as (5), but delicate and sparsely branched.
- (7) Thalloid mats (Th) as in thalloid liverworts.
- (8) Wefts (W) Luxuriant and loosely intertwined shoots.

The growth-forms of humicolous bryophytes are presented for each association in Table XIII. There was no statistical evaluation of differences, but some correlations of growth-form with habitat are distinguishable. Cushions are absent from the table because only humicolous species were classified. The amount of exposed rock increases with altitude and the proportion of cushions, as represented by the genera Andreaea and Grimmia, is greater in the upper subzone because they are restricted to rock surfaces. Mats, which are abundant in shaded habitats at lower altitudes, are unimportant in the Subalpine Zone and are absent from late snow-patch associations. There are few species classed

as wefts, but the widespread occurrence of <u>Rhytidiopsis</u> robusta gives this group a high total cover degree in the forested associations of the lower subzone. There is a marked increase in the total cover by short turfs with increasing altitude, and the group is best represented by <u>Polytrichum norvegicum</u> beneath late snow-patches. Thalloid mats are restricted to moist seepage associations, and the tall turfs with divergent branches occur only on areas of plentiful seepage or poor drainage.

The correlations of growth-form with habitat, even if subjective, are in agreement with those reported by Horikawa and Ando (1952) and Gimingham and Birse (1957). If the ecological significance of growth-forms were more carefully examined, it may be possible to use bryophytes as ecological indicators without requiring precise species identification. This would encourage their use in practical ecological investigations.

CHAPTER VI

RELATIONSHIPS AND SUCCESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF ASSOCIATIONS

The development and transformation of plant associations can be most clearly understood from long-term observations of specific vegetational units. In the absence of this ideal, much must depend upon circumstantial evidence such as the presence of invading species. Fortunately, in subalpine and alpine areas there are more bare initia than at lower altitudes and in the upper subzone it is possible to observe the origin and early development of associations on a variety of habitats. A problem in the upper portions of the Subalpine Zone is that the time since glaciation is so short that development towards a 'vegetational climax' is probably not very well advanced. In the lower subzone, there has been greater development towards a uniform forest on mesic habitats, with the result that earlier stages of development are already obscured. This chapter proposes hypothetical developmental changes which may be expected in the associations of the upper and lower subzones. The upper subzone is discussed first to provide details of early stages which are less clearly revealed at lower elevations in the zone.

In this chapter, a 'climax' association is depicted for each subzone as the successionally most advanced type of vegetation now existing under mesic conditions. The earliest steps in succession, which were not studied in detail, are referred to as 'stages', and within the limits of some associations developmental 'phases' are recognized (Braun-Blanquet 1932).

Present altitudinal distribution of the various associations provides indirect information on actual and potential successional trends within the Subalpine Zone. As a guide to the discussion which follows, the altitudinal

range of each association, based on the distribution of sample plots in this study, is shown in Figure 28. Associations which are known to occur above or below the altitudes sampled by plot are extended by broken lines. The occurrence of associations at lower altitudes in the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn study area than in Garibaldi Park is clearly shown (Figure 28).

Present topographic position of various associations in relation to one another also gives circumstantial evidence of developmental trends in the vegetation. A topographic sequence of the main associations in the upper subzone and their relation to duration of snew cover is shown in Figure 29. Vegetational differences associated with the environmental gradient of decreasing snow duration in Figure 29 indicate potential successional changes if there should be, for example, macroclimatic changes that would cause a decrease in average annual snow duration.

The proposed successional trends are diagramatically summarized in Figure 30. This figure should not be interpreted too literally. In some cases, the length of the lines separating units imply only typographical convenience, and where the lines are accompanied by a question mark one or more unknown developmental stages have been omitted. Increasing elevation is implied from left to right in the figure, and increased vegetational development is indicated from botton to top. The various initia and the pioneer associations on them are placed near the bottom of the page, whereas the most successionally advanced associations for the two subzones and for the Alpine Zone appear as 'climaxes' near the top. Altitudinal ranges of the 'climax' associations are shown separately for the portion of the study area which includes Seymour, Grouse, Hollyburn and Cathedral Mountains and for that which includes Paul Ridge and Diamond Head in Garibaldi Park. Convex glacial drift initia are afforded the highest position in the chart because vegetational development is most rapid there. For example, mountain hemlock may grow

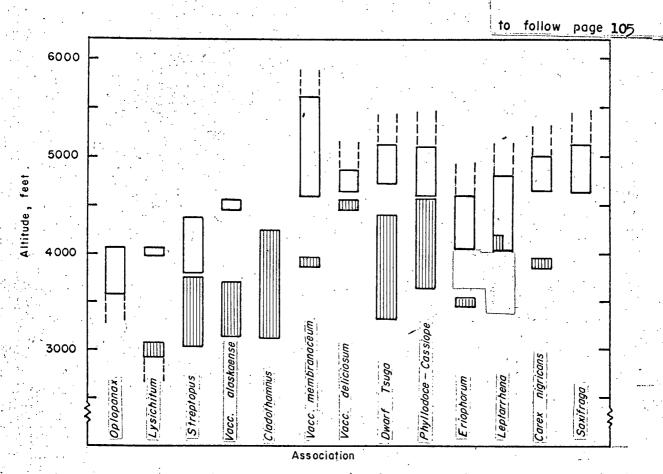


Figure 28. Altitudinal distribution of sample plots, by association, for Seymour-Grouse-Hollyburn study area (lined bars) and for Garibaldi study area (open bars)

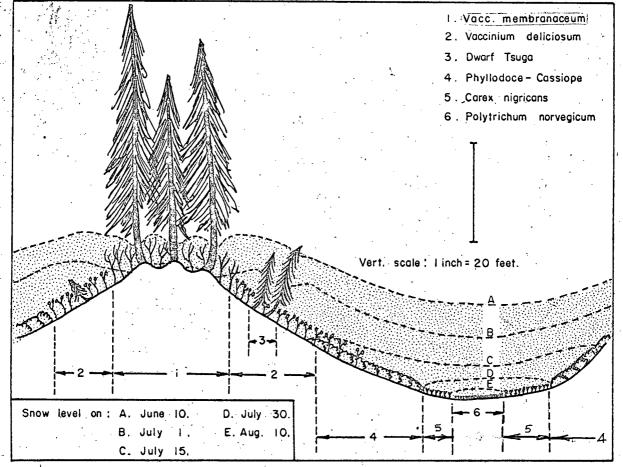


Figure 29. Topographic sequence of some associations and their relation to duration of snow cover.

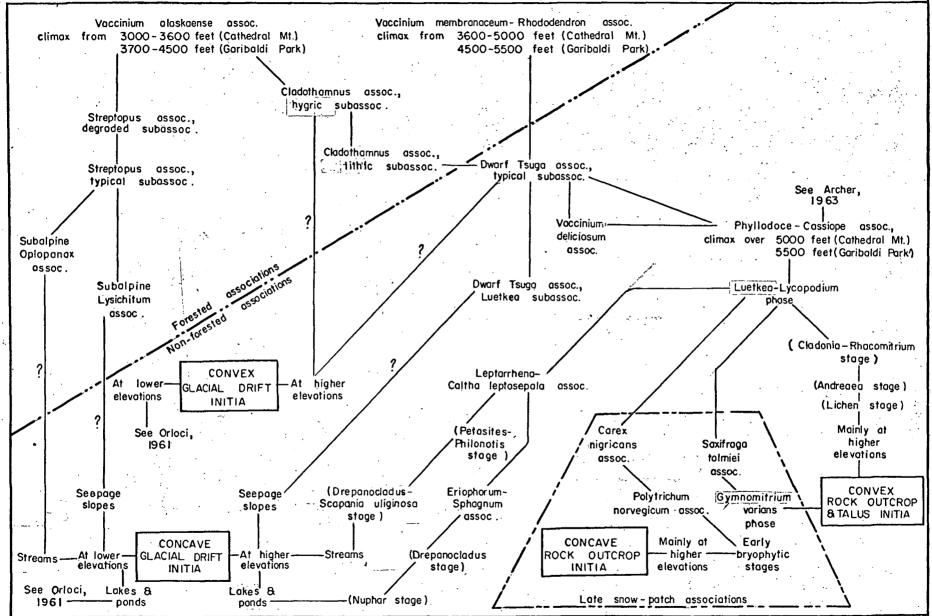


Figure 30. Successional trends in the Coastal Subalpine Zone, Southern British Columbia

directly as a pioneer on morainal material and a multi-layered association may develop in a short time. Concave initia, if covered by water, pass through a much longer period of development before they are occupied by complex terrestrial associations and are, therefore, placed near the bottom of the page. This generalization does not apply, of course, to concave glacial drift seepage slopes where vegetational colonization and development may be relatively rapid. Because rock outcrop initia are more widespread at higher elevations, they are placed to the right of the chart. Development is extremely slow there, especially in concave areas where the greater snow accumulation allows a growing season of only a few weeks.

A. Upper Subzone

Non-forested associations outnumber those with trees in the upper subzone because of the short time since glaciation and because of the high annual accumulation of snow which prevents forest development. This allows ready recognition of several distinct initia.

On convex rock outcrop and talus initia, early stages of development are indicated by Rhizocarpon geographicum, Pilophoron hallii, Cetraria hepatizon, Umbilicaria phaea, U. torrefacta and Lecidea spp. especially on the most exposed rock surfaces. These exposed rock surfaces are the most xeric habitats in the Subalpine Zone. Rocks which are covered with snow for 9 to 10 months of the year are less xeric and are colonized by bryophytes rather than lichens. Andreaea nivalis is the most abundant species in such cases. Weathering products from the rock surfaces and organic accumulations from bryophytes and lichens allow colonization by additional species, and when Cladonia and Rhacomitrium species are well established on such surfaces, chamaephytic species are able to invade.

Surface accumulations of wind-borne mineral and organic matter on

late snow-banks result in the formation of deeper soil profiles in depressions. On side slopes of the depressions, soils are shallower and are composed very largely of organic matter. These soil differences correlate strongly with vegetation differences but one does not necessarily explain the other. Major (1961) stressed that both vegetation and soil differences can be correlated with environmental variables of the ecosystem. In concave areas of the upper subzone, snow duration is the most important environmental variable controlling the vegetation, and its relation to the present distribution of some associations is shown in Figure 29.

Gjaerevoll (1950), Dahl (1956), and Churchill and Hanson (1958) warned that the dynamic approach to vegetation problems is unpromising in stable communities where autogenic influences are limited by a factor such as snow duration. Dahl (1956) pointed out that no succession can take place between vegetation zones around such snow-patches because the climate is relatively constant and because developmental changes in the vegetation will not alter the over-riding ecological factor, the effect of snow cover. He suggested that the problem should be attacked by describing the vegetation in different zones and relating the differences to environmental factors. If the important environmental factors can be influenced by the activity of the plants, dynamic relationships will emerge.

These precautions apply more to the Alpine Zone (Archer 1963) where the controls by snow are strongest. In the Subalpine Zone, most snow patches disappear early enough to allow <u>Carex nigricans</u> to develop, and purely bryophytic associations are absent. Marginal invasion of chamaephytes such as <u>Luetkea pectinata</u> and <u>Lycopodium sitchense</u> can be observed in <u>Carex nigricans</u> associations. These chamaephytes are recognized as an early phase of the <u>Phyllodoce - Cassiope</u> association, and their creeping habit allows them to expand into areas of <u>Carex</u> without any particular preparatory change in the

habitat. Marginal clumps of <u>Phyllodoce</u> and <u>Cassiope</u> are also able to invade <u>Carex</u> areas providing there is not a sharp environmental gradient of increasing snow duration (see Plate II, E).

A third line of development takes place at higher elevations on convex slopes of unconsolidated material. Colluvial movement and erosion may hinder the success of pioneer species on such areas, but species of high sociability such as Gymnomitrium varians can withstand the instability by moving downslope with the soil (Plate II, F). Larger stones, which have a slower rate of movement on such slopes, provide a small area of greater stability on their lower side. Saxifraga tolmiei, Luzula wahlenbergii, and occasionally Tsuga mertensiana or Phyllodoce empetriformis, can establish on the lower side of such obstructions (Plate III, E), but orientation of the vegetation in a clustered downslope pattern, rather than a continuous pattern, testifies to the active downward movement of the surface soil. The pioneer species on such areas have an autogenic influence in the consolidating, rather than constructive, sense (Braun-Blanquet 1932).

Snall subalpine ponds will gradually close in as a result of silt accumulation or from marginal organic accumulations. Drepanocladus examulatus and Carex aquatilis are the first important constructive species because they are able to grow successfully below water (Plate II, B). Anaerobic conditions retard decomposition with the result that organic matter and organic acids accumulate here. This allows the invasion of Sphagnum and other moor species. Only five Eriophorum - Sphagnum areas were encountered in this study, and they were so floristically variable that a proper synthesis was impossible. Species composition indicated a transition to the Leptarrhena - Caltha association in one case, and towards Carex spectabilis in other cases. Dahl (1956) denied the development of similar moors into communities of dryland succession. He stated that an equilibrium stage is reached at a certain

thickness of peat which is determined by climate. Successional relationships of this moor association are unclear for this study area without further investigations.

A distinct association develops on the margins of subalpine streams and on areas of abundant seepage. Drepanocladus exannulatus and Scapania uliginosa grow submersed in streams, and on the immediate margins of the streams Philonotis fontana and Petasites frigidus predominate. These are early stages which will develop towards a moist, herbaceous Leptarrhena - Caltha association, as organic matter accumulates and raises the surface of the habitat further above the level of the stream. This development will be favoured in sluggish streams with low erosive power. There are small ravines in the Subalpine Zone which were formerly drained by temporary surface streams and which are now occupied by a platform of Leptarrhena pyrolifolia, Caltha leptosepala and other herbs. Seepage is abundant but there is no surface movement or accumulation of water after Leptarrhena pyrolifolia is established. This association is flanked by the same chamaephytes which invade other early associations.

The foregoing paragraphs and the lines in Figure 30 indicate at least four avenues by which early associations may hypothetically develop towards the Luetkea - Lycopodium phase of the Phyllodoce - Cassiope association. In all cases, development is extremely slow. This is clearly shown in Plate III, F where secondary succession has covered only half of the bare ground surface 16 years after the Carex nigricans sod was removed for roofing material. All of the associations discussed to this point are more typically alpine, but they form an important part of the subalpine mosaic of vegetation and must be considered as preliminary stages in the development of the more complex subalpine associations.

At altitudes of approximately 5000 feet and over (5500 feet in

Garibaldi Park), mesic habitats are occupied by the <u>Phyllodoce - Cassiope</u> association. This is a good example of an association which assumes distinctly different positions in the developmental sequence in the two different bioclimatic zones. In the Alpine Zone, succession will not advance beyond this association on mesic habitats; in the Subalpine Zone it is only an intermediate stage in the development towards forested associations. This difference is related to the occurrence of this association on two distinct topographies in the two bioclimatic zones, as discussed in Chapter IV.

The remaining associations in the upper subzone are distributed in narrow biotic zones as shown in Figure 16, 17, 18, 19 and 29, or over broader areas where there are differences in snow duration as a result of exposure or topographic configuration. The <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> association occurs in an intermediate position between the <u>Phyllodoce - Cassiope</u> association and the more highly developed associations along gradients of snow duration (Figure 17), but it is usually very restricted in size and distribution. This environmentally controlled zonation need not imply that <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> is a necessary successional stage after <u>Phyllodoce</u> and <u>Cassiope</u>. Autogenic changes in the <u>Phyllodoce - Cassiope</u> association do not necessarily make the habitat more suitable for <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u>; if they did, this species would be more widespread in the upper subzone. Environmental influences that would lessen snow duration are the main potential changes that would favour <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u>.

Development from the <u>Phyllodoce</u> - <u>Cassiope</u> association towards one with larger life-forms and with a greater diversity of species is occurring in many parts of the upper subzone (Plates I, F and II, C). This particular stage of subalpine succession has already been discussed in detail by Brink (1959) and similar development was noted by Vechten (1960) in the Central Oregon Cascades where mountain hemlock forest is advancing slowly into meadows

and some other areas. Brink (1959) discounted the influence of warming from larger trees because in many areas where dwarf mountain hemlock is invading the nearest mature trees are several hundred yards away and the short hemlock has little or no influence on snow duration until tree height exceeds late spring snow depths (5 to 10 feet). Both of the above authors considered the establishment of short trees in the subalpine heath to be a reflection of climatic moderation over the last one or two centuries. There is no reason to doubt this hypothesis on the basis of observations in the present study.

The invasion of mountain hemlock into Phyllodoce - Cassiope areas marks an important stage in development. Tree species, even if extremely slowgrowing, can create conditions detrimental to pre-existing species. mertensiana is strongly shade intolerant and will decrease in significance and vigour as mountain hemlock increases. Conversely, the increased protection will encourage species such as Rhytidiopsis robusta, Vaccinium membranaceum and occasionally Rubus pedatus. Mountain hemlock is the first species in the successional sequence with the ability to influence microclimate by hastening snow-melt in late May and June. This influence encourages Vaccinium membranaceum and allows the invasion of Rhododendron albiflorum. Vaccinium membranaceum is the most successful of these two species in places where the humus remains relatively undeveloped. This species was observed on a few occasions, especially in the Luetkea subassociation of the dwarf Tsuga association where moisture is abundant, to survive even on bare mineral soil, Rhododendron albiflorum requires a deep, acid raw humus and it grows best on the large humps of organic matter which occur around clumps of trees in the upper subzone. unusual restriction of the Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron association (Plate I, E) suggests that it is a topographic climax (Daubenmire 1943) near its upper limit, whereas at lower elevations in the upper subzone this association is the most mature type of vegetation on mesic habitats (Plate III, C).

It is not well distributed yet in the higher limits of the upper subzone because the great snow accumulation restricts it to certain topographic situations there.

On Mount Seymour, the <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> - <u>Rhododendron</u> association contains little or no <u>Rhododendron</u> albiflorum, because this is more typically an interior subalpine species. It is noticeably more abundant in the Garibaldi Park area which is further inland. To some extent, the same applies to <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> which is a frequent species of interior subalpine areas (Arlidge 1955), but it is more frequent in coastal areas than is Rhododendron albiflorum.

The pattern of vegetation in the upper subzone on Mount Seymour is a mosaic of the lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation which occurs on topographic prominences, fragments of the <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> - <u>Rhododendron association</u>, and the <u>Phyllodoce</u> - <u>Cassiope</u> and dwarf <u>Tsuga</u> associations. The abundant dwarf mountain hemlock in this part of the study area is an indication that, with time, forested associations will be more widespread in the upper part of the Subalpine Zone.

The lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation, which was described as a dry edaphic component of both subzones, is mainly restricted to the Seymour - Grouse - Hollyburn study area. It is not present on the Quaternary dacitic volcanics or on the older metavolcanic rocks of Paul Ridge and Diamond Head (Figure 4). This may reflect a parent material influence on the distribution of <u>Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus</u>, because Paul Ridge is not beyond the range of this coastal species; it was encountered again on the Cloudburst quartz dioriter (Mathews 1958) further inland near Mamquam Lake in Garibaldi Park.

The high proportion of <u>Phyllodoce</u>, <u>Cassiope</u>, <u>Vaccinium deliciosum</u> and lichens on the lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation indicates its affinities to earlier stages of development in the upper subzone. However, further

development of this subassociation is hindered by its confinement to exposed, dry ridges or prominences.

B. Lower Subzone

During Pleistocene glacial recession when some portions of the Subalpine Zone were still covered with mountain glaciers, early successional
stages similar to those described above were probably evident in the lower
subzone. Important differences would have been a thicker mantle of drift,
more extensive areas of drift initia, and fewer bare rock initia in the lower
subzone. These differences, combined with presently smaller annual accumulations of snow and a longer time since glacial recession, have allowed more
complex associations to develop here than in the upper subzone.

On dry habitats, which are now occupied by the lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation, successional changes towards the hygric <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation and the <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association occur as organic accumulations and continuing weathering processes deepen the soil. Because of the restriction of the lithic <u>Cladothamnus</u> subassociation to upper portions of convex slopes, moisture from lateral seepage is not plentiful but the development of an impervious layer in the soil profile makes moisture from precipitation more effective.

Early stages of development in seepage habitats are now obscure. However, the presence of subalpine and alpine species (Senecio triangularis, Parmassia fimbriata and Valeriana sitchensis) in Lysichitum sites of the lower subzone indicates that this association is a more highly developed and forested counterpart of the wet Leptarrhena - Caltha association of the upper subzone (Table VIII). The associations on seepage slopes or adjacent to open streams contain the greatest numbers of species, but such associations in the lower subzone are much richer in species than their upper subzone counterparts.

This is partly a result of climatic differences, but there are probably also edaphic changes with altitude on such habitats. Wilcox et al. (1957) found for both stream water and seepage water that it had a higher pH and a higher salt content than did water in the same drainage basin at higher elevations. These chemical changes would encourage additional species of autogenic importance in seepage habitats at lower elevations.

In moist and wet habitats there is a progressive trend towards better drainage similar to that described by Orloci (1961) and Lesko (1961), and development in the lower subzone leads towards the mesic <u>Vaccinium alaskaense</u> association (Figure 30). With increased humus accumulation and greater soil maturation the lower subzonal climax association may be able to develop at higher altitudes within the zone in the future. However, such an altitudinal extension would probably also require macroclimatic changes because snow accumulations at present impose strong altitudinal limitations on certain species and associations.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Of the 90 forest sections described for the forest regions of Canada (Rowe 1959), the briefest description is given for the Coastal Subalpine section of British Columbia. This brevity reflects the paucity of published information on tree species and cover types of the section. The strong climatic and topographic controls of vegetation patterns and succession, the great physiognomic variety of associations and the undisturbed natural vegetation make the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone an excellent area for studies of land, vegetation and climatic relationships. The main purposes of this thesis were to describe the vegetation and to determine the most important climatic controls of zonal limits, tree distribution, biotic zonation and vegetational development. Most of the data presented will serve as basic information for future detailed studies and will allow floristic and climatic comparisons to be made with other bioclimatic zones. The main findings of the study are summarized and discussed below.

- (1) The Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone in southern British Columbia cannot be precisely defined altitudinally because its upper and lower limits may vary as much as 1000 feet through topographic and climatic influences. In this study, the zonal limits were placed at 3000 feet and 5000 feet in the Seymour Grouse Hollyburn Cathedral Mountain area near the Strait of Georgia, and at 3700 feet and 5500 feet in the Paul Ridge Diamond Head portion of Garibaldi Park. Thirty-seven per cent of the land area may be classed as subalpine in the physiographic unit between Howe Sound, Burrard Inlet and the Indian River.
- (2) Various biological limits of mountain hemlock may be used to delineate and subdivide the zone. The sharp lower limit of this species is

considered the lower limit of the Subalpine Zone. The lowest 600 to 800 feet of the zone are covered with continuous forest of mountain hemlock, amabilis fir, yellow cedar and western hemlock. This continuous forest is designated as the lower subzone; thus, the upper 'forest limit' is a criterion for subzonal delineation. The upper limit of the zone is marked by the altitudinal 'tree limit' of mountain hemlock. This definition makes cartographic designation of the upper limit difficult because trees extend upward into the Alpine Zone in an interdigital pattern on favourable exposures. The irregular upper limit to the Subalpine Zone is in distinct contrast to its relatively sharp lower limit.

- (3) Temperature characteristics for various altitudinal levels were determined, in part, from analyses of radiosonde data which give the altitude of the freezing isotherm (Chapter III). From such data it is possible to determine the frequency of freezing temperatures for any period of the year, and the approximate length of the frost-free season, for any altitude on a mountain-side (Figure 14). To obtain equivalent information by conventional methods would require an expensive network of instruments closely spaced over a broad altitudinal range. If published radiosonde temperature data are used in combination with recently developed methods of synoptic precipitation analysis (Walker 1961), it is possible to obtain reliable temperature and precipitation data for inaccessible mountain areas.
- (4) Degrees along a temperature scale may ordinarily be considered as a continuum as far as their direct influence on plant life is concerned. However, the physical changes that occur at the freezing point of water disrupt the temperature continuum at this point. This is especially significant in areas of high precipitation where freezing temperatures of a certain frequency will cause snow accumulations that greatly shorten the growing season for plants. Radiosonde data from Port Hardy, British Columbia, indicate that in winter the

freezing isotherm most frequently occurs at altitudes within the lower half of the Subalpine Zone (Chapter III). A climatic result is a sharp increase in snow duration near the altitudinal lower limit of mountain hemlock; an ecological result is the relatively sharp delineation between the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone and the Coastal Western Hemlock zone.

- (5) Temperature is more reliable here as a control of zonal boundaries than it is in other bioclimatic zones of British Columbia, because of the physical changes that occur at freezing point and because of the model concentration of the freezing isotherm in a certain altitudinal band on a mountain-side (Figure 15).
- (6) The irregular upper boundaries of the zone are a result of topographic influences on snow accumulation and duration. Snow accumulation increases with altitude so that near the tree limit mountain hemlock can grow only on prominences or ridges where snow accumulation is less, or on warmer exposures where the snow melts more quickly.
- (7) Most of the zonal features of the vegetation can be related to the intensity, quantity and duration of snow. Small-scale biotic conation and distribution of associations are closely related to topography through its influence on snow duration (Figures 16, 17 and 29).
- (8) On the unforested associations in the upper subzone where snow is the dominant environmental influence, autogenic changes are slight. Only when mountain hemlock reaches a height greater than the May and June snow levels (5 to 10 feet) can this species have an influence by hastening snow melt and lengthening the growing season. This influence is best developed around the sporadic clumps of larger trees in the upper subzone. The combined influences of snow interception by the crowns and greater melting near the clumps because of greater heat absorption result in an important lengthening of the growing season around these clumps (Plate I, D). Subalpine species which require a

Rhododendron albiflorum, are largely confined to such biotically created openings in the snow cover or to exposures which favour early melting of the snow.

- (9) There are strong altitudinal influences on tree growth in the Subalpine Zone. Site index is nearly always less than 100 feet at 100 years, and is often less than 50. Although tree heights are much reduced with increasing altitude, diameters at breast height do not show a proportionate decrease. The result is a marked increase in taper of tree trunks with increasing altitude (Chapter III).
- (10) Snow creep, particularly on steep slopes, causes many trees in the small diameter classes to have a basal snow-crook. Mountain hemlock and yellow cedar are most strongly affected by this deformation probably because they retain more branches near the ground than amabilis fir does. These lower branches provide a greater surface area against which the forces of snow can act (Chapter III).
- (11) On the basis that a fully turgid plant is in the most satisfactory condition for growth and other physiological responses (Kramer and Kozlowski 1960), amabilis fir growing on an exposed rock outcrop area at 4000 feet in the upper subzone is more vigorous than that in a more heavily forested site at a lower elevation (Figure 24). This statement is based on relative turgidity readings of needles from branches near ground level. In the coastal Subalpine Zone, melting snow provides soil moisture often into July and precipitation is sufficient during the remainder of the growing season so that even trees growing on shallow soils of sites with no permanent seepage can maintain a high relative turgidity. By contrast, root competition may be such for trees in a shaded forest stand that they actually have relative turgidity values lower than open-grown trees on supposedly drier sites (Chapter III). These relationships should be tested further by measurements from the upper

tree crown where the influences of suppression and shading could be eliminated.

- (12) Early stages of vegetational development are still evident on several types of initia in the upper subzone because of the relatively short time since glaciation and because of limitations in vegetational development imposed by the long annual duration of snow.
- Phyllodoce Cassiope association. At altitudes of 5000 or 5500 feet and over (Alpine Zone) this will remain as the successionally most advanced association on mosic habitats where the relief is flat or convex and without seepage. In contrast, this same association occupies concave topographic positions with temporary seepage in the Subalpine Zone. As a result of its occurrence on two distinct topographies in the two bioclimatic zones, the Phyllodoce Cassiope association is chionophobous in the Alpine Zone but moderately chionophilous in the Subalpine Zone, when considered in relation to adjacent associations. However, in the two different zones snow duration is actually approximately the same for the association because of the different topographic positions which it occupies. These differences indicate that topography is not always reliable as a basis for ecological classification unless the influences of macroclimate are also taken into account.
- (14) The <u>Vaccinium membranaceum</u> <u>Rhododendron</u> association most closely approximates 'climax' conditions in the upper subzone (Figure 30). In altitudes where it is best developed it occupies mesic habitats (Plate III, C), but near its upper limit in the Alpine Zone this association becomes a 'topographic climax' (Daubenmire 1943) restricted to warmer exposures or to ridges between the areas of Phyllodoce and Cassiope (Plate I, E).
- (15) Some species from the Coastal Western Hemlock Zone occur in the lower subzone in combination with characteristic subalpine species. This combination of species floristically differentiates the lower subzone from the

adjacent Western Hemlock Zone and from the upper subzone (Table VI). The mesic Vaccinium alaskaense association is the most representative of 'climax' development for the lower subzone. However, even if a distinct 'climax' association is recognized for the lower portions of the Subalpine Zone, there are no tree species limited specifically to this subzone so that it cannot be easily designated as a separate bioclimatic zone.

- (16) In the lower subzone, early successional stages which have lead to the Vaccinium alaskaense association are more obscure than are early stages in the upper subzone. The presence of subalpine and alpine herbaceous species in Lysichitum sites of the lower subzone indicate that this association is a more highly developed and forested counterpart of the wet Leptarrhena Caltha association of the upper subzone (Table VIII).
- (17) The ability of certain species to transcend their usual altitudinal range along mountain streams or on slopes of abundant seepage (Table VIII) indicates that edaphic controls may sometimes over-ride the influences of macroclimate and altitude. This is also one reason why much of the Subalpine Zone is a mosaic of subalpine and alpine associations.
- (18) Floristic data collected in this study are presented in the appended synthesis tables. As suggested by Moore (1962) these tables, as presently organized, are merely working hypotheses to be tested by further work.
- (19) Mensurational data indicate that subalpine areas in south coastal British Columbia are of limited use for wood production. Extreme inaccessibility further limits utilization, with the result that recreation and watershed management are the principle land-uses for the area. Subalpine areas are particularly important for watershed protection because mountain hemlock grows mainly in areas of high watershed value (Dahms 1958) and natural mountain hemlock forests have a spacing which is thought to be optimum for snow catch and snow release (Church 1942). For these reasons alone, an understanding of ecological conditions in the Subalpine Mountain Hemlock Zone is important.

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V. J. Krajina, used as a checklist for lichens, and pages 20-31, V. J.

Krajina, used as a checklist for bryophytes).

APPENDIX I

Checklist of Vascular Plants from the Subalpine Zone

Checklist of Lichens from the Subalpine Zone

Checklist of Bryophytes from the Subalpine Zone

Checklist of Vascular Plants from the Subalpine Zone, (collected from 2900 feet to 6000 feet above sea level, between latitude 49°22' and 49°56' and longitude 122°56' to 123°12', north of Vancouver, B, C.)

Species are grouped into major life-form categories for three approximate altitudinal levels: (1) Species of lower elevations that occur also in the lower portions of the subalpine zone; (2) subalpine species; and (3) species of the subalpine-alpine transition. These three categories are not precisely defined, so that the placing of a species in one does not necessarily preclude its occurrence in another. Nomenclature and authorities for the names are those given in the manuals that were used for identification. Publications that were used for this purpose are listed in a separate section of the bibliography.

(1) Species of lower elevations that occur also in the subalpine zone:

MACROPHANEROPHYTES (MP)

Abies amabilis (Dougl.) Forbes
Picea sitchensis (Bong.) Carr.
Pinus contorta Dougl. ex Loud.
Pinus monticola Dougl.
Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirb.) Franco
Sambucus pubens Michx.
Taxus brevifolia Nutt.
Thuja plicata D. Don.
Tsuga heterophylla (Raf.) Sarg.

NANOPHANEROPHYTES - deciduous (NPd)

Alnus crispa (Ait.) Pursh. ssp. sinuata (Regel) Hult.
Amelanchier alnifolia (Nutt.) Nutt.
Lonicera utahensis S. Wats.
Menziesia ferruginea Smith
Oplopanax horridus (Smith) Miq.
Ribes bracteosum Dougl.
Ribes lacustre (Pers.) Poir.
Rubus spectabilis Pursh
Vaccinium alaskaense Howell
Vaccinium membranaceum Dougl. ex Hook.
Vaccinium ovalifolium Smith
Vaccinium parvifolium Smith

CHAMAEPHYTES (CH)

Cornus canadensis L.
Gaultheria ovalifolia Gray
Kalmia polifolia Wang.
Linnaea borealis L.
Lycopodium clavatum L.
Lycopodium selago L.
Moneses uniflora (L.) A. Gray
Pyrola secunda L.
Rubus pedatus J. E. Smith

Selaginella wallacei Hieron. Vaccinium uliginosum L.

HEMICRYPTOPHYTES (H)

Adenocaulon bicolor Hook.
Adiantum pedatum L.
Agrostis asquivalvis Trin

Agrostis aequivalvis Trin.

Agrostis alba L.

Agrostis exarata Trin.

Agrostis idahoensis Nash

Agrostis scabra Willd. var. germinata (Trin.) Swallen

Agrostis thurberiana Hitchc.

Anaphalis margaritacea (L.) B. & H.

Athyrium filix-femina (L.) Roth.

Blechnum spicant (L.) Roth.

Botrychium multifidum (Gmel.) Rupr.

Boykinia elata (Nutt.) Greene

Calamagrostis canadensis (Michx.) Beauv.

Campanula rotundifolia L.

Carex ablata Bailey

Carex aquatilis Wahl.

Carex hoodii Boott.

Carex laeviculmis Meinsh.

Carex physocarpa Presl.

Claytonia sibirica Pursh

Coptis asplenifolia Salisb.

Dryopteris austriaca (Jacq.) Woynar

Elymus glaucus Buckl.

Epilobium angustifolium L.

Galium triflorum Michx.

Goodyera oblongifolia Raf.

Heuchera glabra Willd.

Hordeum brachyantherum Nevski

Juncus effusus L.

Juncus filiformis L.

Luzula parviflora (Ehrh.) Desv.

Melica smithii (Porter) Vasey

Minulus guttatus DC. var. depauperatus (Gray) Grant

Mitella breweri Gray

Mitella pentandra Hook.

Osmorhiza chilensis H. & A.

Petasites frigidus (L.) Fries var. palmatus (Ait.) Cronq.

Pleuropogon refractus (Gray) Benth.

Polypodium vulgare L. ssp. columbianum Gilbert

Polystichum munitum (Kaulf.) Presl.

Stellaria crispa Cham. & Schl.

Tiarella laciniata Hook.

Tiarella trifoliata L.

Tiarella unifoliata Hook.

Tofieldia glutinosa (Michx.) Pers.

Trisetum cernuum Trin.

Viola glabella Nutt.

Viola orbiculata Geyer

Viola palustris L.

GEOPHYTES (G)

Clintonia uniflora (Schult.) Kunth. Corallorhiza mertensiana Bongard Dicentra formosa (Andr.) Walp. Equisetum arvense L. Equisetum palustre L. Gymnocarpium dryopteris (L.) Newm. Habenaria dilatata (Pursh.) Hook. Habenaria saccata Greene Lilium columbianum Hanson Listera caurina Piper Listera cordata (L.) R. Br. Lysichitum americanum Hult. & St. John Maianthemum dilatatum (Wood) Nels. & McB. Nuphar polysepalum Engelm. Streptopus amplexifolius (L.) DC: Streptopus roseus Michx. Streptopus streptopoides (Ledeb.) F. & R. Veratrum eschscholtzii A. Gray

(2) Subalpine species:

MACROPHANEROPHYTES (MP)

Chies lasiocarpa (Hook.) Nutt. Chamaecyparis nootkatensis (D. Don.) Spach. Pinus albicaulis Engelm. Tsuga mertensiana (Bong.) Carr.

NANOPHANEROPHYTES & deciduous (NPd)

Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus Bong. Rhododendron albiflorum Hook. Ribes acerifolium Howell Sorbus occidentalis (S. Wats.) Greene Spiraea densiflora Nutt. Vaccinium deliciosum Piper

CHAMAEPHYTES (CH)

Gaultheria humifusa (Grah.) Rydb. Lycopodium sitchense Rupr.

HEMICRYPTOPHYTES (H)

Agrostis rossae Vasey
Caltha leptosepala DC.
Carex illota Bailey
Carex mertensii Prescott
Carex phaeocephala Piper
Carex rossii Boott.
Carex spectabilis Desv.
Cheilanthes gracillima D. C. Eaton

Cryptogramma crispa (L.) R. Br.

Epilobium latifolium L.

Eriophorum angustifolium Roth.

Hippuris montana Ledeb.

Juncus drummondii E. Meyer

Juncus mertensianus Bong.

Nephrophyllidium crista-galli (Menzies) Gilg.

Osmorhiza purpurea (Coult. & Rose) Suksd.

Polystichum lonchitis (L.) Roth.

Saxifraga mertensiana Bong.

Scirpus caespitosus L. var. collosus Bigel.

Senecio triangularis Hook.

Trientalis arctica Fisch.

Veronica serpyllifolia L. var. humifusa (Dickson) Vahl.

(3) Species of the Subalpine-alpine transition:

NANOPHANEROPHYTES - deciduous (NPd)

Salix commutata Bebb.

NANOPHANEROPHYTES - evergreen (NPe)

Cassiope mertensiana (Bong.) G. Don. Juniperus communis L. var. montana Ait. Phyllodoce empetriformis (Smith) D. Don. Phyllodoce glanduliflora (Hook.) Coville

CHAMAEPHYTES (CH)

Antennaria alpina (L.) Gaertn. var. media (Greene) Jeps. Empetrum nigrum L.
Luetkea pectinata (Pursh.) Kuntze
Penstemon davidsonii Greene var. menziesii (Keck) Cronq.
Penstemon procerus Dougl. var. tolmiei (Hook.) Cronq.
Phlox douglasii Hook.
Saxifraga tolmiei T. & G.
Sedum divergens S. Wats.
Sibbaldia procumbens L.
Vaccinium caespitosum Michx.

HEMICRYPTOPHYTES (H)

Anemone occidentalis Wats.

Athyrium alpestre (Hoppe) Rylands

Arnica latifolia Bong. var. gracilis (Rydb.) Gronq.

Arnica latifolia Bong. var. latifolia Gronq.

Carex nigricans C. A. Meyer

Carex preslii Steud.

Carex pyrenaica Wahl.

Castilleja hispida Benth.

Castilleja parviflora Bong. var. albida (Penn.) Owenby

Deschampsia atropurpurea (Wahl.) Scheele.

Epilobium clavatum Trel.

Erigeron peregrinus (Pursh.) Greene ssp. callianthemus (Greene)

Cronq. var. angustifolius (Gray) Cronq.

Erigeron peregrinus (Pursh.) Greene ssp. callianthemus (Greene) Grond, var. scaposus (T. & G.) Crond. Hieracium gracile Hook. Juncus parryi Engelm. Leptarrhena pyrolifolia (D. Don.) R. Br. Lupinus arcticus S. Wats: Luzula wahlenbergii Rupr. Mimulus lewisii Pursh. Oxyria digyna (L.) Hill Parnassia fimbriata Konig. Pedicularis bracteosa Benth. Pedicularis ornithorhyncha Benth. Phleum alpinum L. Poa arctica R. Br. Potentilla flabellifolia Hook. Ranunculus verecundus Robinson Saxifraga arguta D. Don Saxifraga ferruginea Grah. Saxifraga lyallii Engler Trisetum spicatum (L.) Richt. Valeriana sitchensis Bong. Veronica wormskjoldii R. & S:

GEOPHYTES (G)

Epilobium alpinu. L.

Checklist of Lichens from the Subalpine Zone

(Nomenclature and authorities taken from the second checklist of lichens of Continental United States and Canada, by Hale and Culberson, 1960.)

Alectoria ochroleuca (Ehrh.) Nyl. Alectoria pubescens (L.) Howe Alectoria sarmentosa Ach. Caloplaca sp. Cetraria glauca (L.) Ach. Cetraria hepatizon (Ach.) Vain Cetraria islandica (L.) Ach. Cetraria stenophylla (Tuck.) Merr. Cladonia bellidiflora (Ach.) Schaer. Cladonia carneola Fr. Cladonia chlorophaea (Florke) Sprenga Cladonia coniocraea (Florke) Sandst. Cladonia deformis (L.) Hoffm. Cladonia ecmocyna (Ach.) Nyl. Cladonia gracilis (L.) Willd. Cladonia pacifica Ahti Cladonia pleurota (Florke) Schaer. Cladonia rangiferina (L.) Web. Cladonia squamosa (Scop.) Hoffm. Cornicularia californica (Tuck.) Du Rietz Cornicularia divergens Ach. Crocynia membranacea (Dicks.) Zahlbr. Dermatocarpon miniatum (L.) Mann. Icmadophila ericetorum (L.) Zahlbr. Lecanora sp. Lecidea sp. Lecidea granulosa (Ehrh.) Ach. Letharia vulpina (L.) Hue Lobaria linata (Ach.) Rabenh. Lobaria oregana (Tuck.) Mull. Arg. Mycoblastus sanguinarius (L.) Norm. Parmelia enteromorpha Ach. Parmeliopsis hyperopta (Ach.) Vain. Peltigera aphthosa (L.) Willd. Peltigera canina (L.) Willd. Pilophoron hallii (Tuck,) Vain. Rhizocarpon geographicum (L.) DC. Solorina crocea (L.) Ach. Sphaerophorus globosus (Huds.) Vain. Stereocaulon tomentosum Fr. Umbilicaria phaea Tuck. Umbilicaria torrefacta (Lightf.) Schrad.

Checklist of Bryophytes from the Subalpine Zone

Nomenclature and authorities taken from Grout (1940), Andrews (1940) and Evans (1940). Species grouped by growth-forms according to Gimingham and Birse (1957).

(1) Cushions (c):

Andreaea blyttii Schimp. Andreaea nivalis Hook. Andreaea rupestris Hedw. Grimmia alpestris Nees Grimmia apocarpa Hedw.

(2) Tall turfs, branches erect (Te):

Bryum sandbergii Holz. Dicranum bonjeani De Not. Dicranum fuscescens Turn. Dicranum muhlenbeckii Bry. Eur. Dicranum scoparium Hedw. Drepanocladus aduncus (Hedw.) Warnst. Drepanocladus exannulatus (Gumb.) Warnst. Drepanocladus fluitans (Hedw.) Warnst. Hygrohypnum ochraceum (Turn.) Loeske Mnium affine Bland. Mnium nudum Williams Mnium punctatum Hedw. Mnium spinulosum Bry. Eur. Oligotrichum aligerum Mitt. Oligotrichum parallelum (Mitt.) Kindb. Plagiochila asplenioides (L.) Dumort. Pogonatum alpinum (Hedw.) Rohl. Pogonatum contortum (Schwaegr.) Sull. Pogonatum urnigerum (Hedv.) Beauv. Polytrichum commune Hedw. Rhacomitrium aciculare Brid. Rhacomitrium canescens Brid. Rhacomitrium heterostichum (Hedw.) Brid. Rhacomitrium patens (Hedw.) Huben. Rhacomitrium varium Lesq. & James Scouleria aquatica Hook.

(3) Tall turfs, short divergent branches (Td):

Campylium stellatum (Hedw.) Lange & C. Jens. Philonotis fontana (Hedw.) Brid.

Sphagnum compactum DC.

Sphagnum girgensohnii Russow

Sphagnum magellanicum Brid.

Sphagnum mendocinum Sull. & Lesq.

Sphagnum robustum (Russow) Roll

Sphagnum squarrosum Pers.

Sphagnum teres (Schimp.) Angstr.

(4) Short turfs (t):

Aulacomnium androgynum Schwaegr. Aulacomnium palustre (Web. & Mohr) Schwaegr. Bryum spp. Buxbaumia indusiata Brid. Dichodontium olympicum Ren. & Card. Dicranella heteromalla (Hedw.) Schimp. Dicranella squarrosa (Schrad.) Schimp. Dicranoweisia crispula (Hedw.) Lindb. Dicranum strictum Schleich. Diplophyllum albicans (L.) Dumort. Diplophyllum obtusifolium (Hook.) Dumort. Diplophyllum plicatum Lindb. Diplophyllum taxifolium (Wahlenb.) Dumort. Ditrichum montanum Leiberg Kiaeria bluttii (Schimp.) Broth. Kiaeria falcata (Hedw.) Hagen Kiaeria starkei (Web. & Mohr) Hagen Marsupella sparsifolia (Lindb.) Dumort. Marsupella ustulata (Huben.) Spruce Oligotrichum hercynicum (Hedw.) Lam. & De Cand. Pohlia drummondii (C. Mull.) Andrews Pohlia nutans (Hedw.) Lindb. Polytrichum juniperinum Hedw. Polytrichum norvegicum Hedw. Polytrichum piliferum Hedw.

(5) Mats (M):

Bazzania ambigua (Lindenb.) Trevis. Bazzania tricrenata (Wahl.) Trevis. Brachythecium asperrimum Mitt. Brachythecium plumosum (Sw.) Bry. Eur. Brachythecium washingtonianum (Eaton) Grout Cratoneuron commutatum (Hedw.) Roth Hookeria Lucens (Brid.) Smith Hypnum circinale Hook. Hypnum dieckii Ren. & Card. Hypnum subimponens Lesq. Plagiothecium denticulatum (Hedw.) Bry. Eur. Plagiothecium elegans (Hook.) Sull. Plagiothecium piliferum (Sw.) Bry. Eur. Plagiothecium pulchellum (Hedw.) Bry. Eur. Plagiothecium sylvaticum (Brid.) Bry. Eur. Plagiothecium undulatum (Hedw.) Bry. Eur. Porella roellii Steph. Scapania americana K. Mull. Scapania bolanderi Aust. Scapania uliginosa (Sw.) Dumort. Scapania umbrosa (Schrad.) Dumort. Scapania undulata (L.) Dumort.

(6) Thread-like forms (Mt):

Barbilophozia barbata (Schmid.) Loeske Barbilophozia lycopodioides (Wallr.) Loeske Blepharostoma trichophyllum (L.) Dumort. Calypogeia neesiana (Massal. & Carest.) K. Mull. Calypogeia trichomanis (L.) Corda Cephalozia lammersiana (Hueb.) Spruce Cephalozia leucantha Spruce Cephalozia media Lindb. Eurhynchium stokesii (Turn.) Bry. Eur. Gymnomitrium concinnatum (Lightf.) Corda Gymnomitrium varians (Lindb.) Schiffn. Harpanthus scutatus (Web. & Mohr.) Spruce Heterocladium heteropteroides Best Heterocladium procurrens (Mitt.) Rau & Hervey Isopaches bicrenatus (Schmid.) Buch Leiocolea obtusa (Lindb.) Buch Lepidozia reptans (L.) Dumort. Lescuraea baileyi (Best & Grout) Lawton Lescuraea patens (Lindb.) Arn. & Jens. Lescuraea radicosa (Mitt.) Moenken. Lophocolea heterophylla (Schrad.) Dumort. Lophozia alpestris (Schleich.) Evans Lophozia incisa (Schrad.) Dumort. Lophozia porphyroleuca (Nees) Schiffn. Nardia scalaris (Schrad.) S. F. Gray Orthocaulis binsteadii (Kaal.) Buch Orthocaulis floerkii (Web. & Mohr.) Buch Orthocaulis kunzeanus (Huben) Buch Plectocolea obovata (Nees) Mitt. Pleuroclada albescens (Hook.) Spruce Pseudisothecium (= Isothecium) stoloniferum (Hook.) Grout Pterigynandrum filiforme Hedw. Ptilidium californicum (Aust.) Underw. & Cook Ptilidium ciliare (L.) Nees Ptilidium pulcherrimum (Weber) Hampe Radula complanata (L.) Dumort.

(7) Thalloid mats (Th):

Conocephalum conicum (L.) Dumort.
Moerckia blyttii (Moerck) Brockm.
Pellia epiphylla (L.) Corda
Pellia neesiana (Gottsche) Limpr.
Riccardia multifida (L.) S. F. Gray

(8) Wefts (W):

Antitrichia curtipendula (Hedw.) Brid.
Calliergonella cuspidata (Brid.) Loeske
Hylocomium splendens (Hedw.) Bry. Eur.
Pleurozium schreberi (Brid.) Mitt.
Rhytidiadelphus loreus (Hedw.) Warnst.
Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus (Hedw.) Warnst.
Rhytidiopsis robusta (Hook.) Broth.

APPENDIX II

Multiple regression analyses of the incidence of basal snowcrook on amabilis fir, mountain hemlock and yellow cedar Multiple Regression Analyses of the Incidence of Basal Snow-crook on Amabilis Fir, Mountain Hemlock and Yellow Cedar:

The following variables were considered:

 X_1 - steepest slope on sample plot, in degrees

 X_2 - elevation, in hundreds of feet

X₃ - length of slope above, coded:

1 - no slope above

2 - 1 chain or less

3 - 1 to 2 chains

4 - 3 to 4 chains 5 - 4 to 10 chains

6 - over 10 chains

X₄ - basal area per acre, in square feet

X5 - crown closure of A layer, in percent

aspect, coded according to amount of heat received. Chapter 21 and Figure 99 (Geiger 1957) were used for this purpose. The divisions shown for a clear day in Figure 99 were coded so that the coldest north slope had a value of 10 and the warmest southwest slope a value of 95.

duration of snow, in weeks

Y - percentage of trees, in the 10-inch diameter class or less, with basal snow-crook.

Only sample plots that had at least 10 trees in the 10-inch class or less and which had uniform slope were used. Thirty-three sample plots fulfilled these requirements for amabilis fir, and the same number was used in the analysis for mountain hemlock and yellow cedar. This allowed use of the same programmed computer instructions for both analyses.

For amabilis fir, the regression equation is:

$$Y = .5728X_1 - .6168X_2 + .3492X_3 + .0337X_4 - .3556X_5 + .0255X_6 + 1.5401X_7 - 24.189$$

Correlation coefficients show that steepness of slope (X1) is correlated with the percentage of snow-crook at the .Ol level of probability, and basal area (K) at the .05 level. The regression equation for the most important variable, steepness of slope, is $Y = 5.465 + .6896X_1$.

The table below summarizes the correlation matrix for amabilis

fir:

]	ndepe 2	ndent 3	Var:	iables 5	6	7
Angunggayan kalama andan kalaman angunan kalaman ang Kalaman Salaman ang Kalaman ang Kalaman ang Kalaman ang K	-1			~			
Хl		N	N	N	N	N	N
2			N	N	N	N	**
3			-	**	**	\mathbb{N}	N
4					*<*	N	N
5						N	N
6 .						_	N
7						يودكم يودي مدي	
Y	**	N	N	>;c	N	N	N

N - not significantly correlated

* - significantly correlated (.05 level)
** - highly significant (.01 level)

Amongst the independent variables, elevation shows a high correlation with duration of snow, as one would expect in the Subalpine Zone. Length of slope above a sample plot is positively correlated with basal area and crown closure, since the most productive stands usually occur on lower or mid-portions of seepage slopes.

For mountain hemlock and yellow cedar the regression equation and correlation matrix are as follows:

$$Y = .8770X_1 - 2.5326X_2 + .2310X_3 - .0281X_4 + .0122X_5 + .1748X_6 + 5.0545X_7 - 59.150$$

	1	ndepe	ndent	t Vari	lables		***	-
	<u> </u>	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Хl	•••	N	N	N	N	N	N	
2			N	N	N	N	***	
3			*	भ् र भंद	***	\mathbf{N}	N	
4				-	水水	N	N	
5						N	N	
6						_	N	
7				Print, about print to play the		CHR.4977 (40)		Carren A
Y	**	N	N	Ŋ	N	N	N	

For these species, only steepness of slope was significantly correlated with snow-crook. The regression equation for this variable alone is $Y = 20.491 + .7906X_1$

APPENDIX III

Table XIII

Table XIV

Explanation and Legend for Synthesis Tables
Synthesis Tables I to IX

Life-form distributions by number of species and by total cover degree for each association (columns 1 to 8). Columns 9 to 15 show a further breakdown of humicolous bryophytes (column 8) into growth-forms

10 11 12 13 14 15 L 5 6 7 8 2 3 W Mt. t M Tđ Th Te Pnd R Sum Ch G Subalpine Lysichitum associations
No. species 7.8
8 -6.1 7.7 -8 **-**7•7 **-**12 33 ? 10.5 28.9 1.8 146 146 114 10 5.8 13 2 11.4 1.8 10 8.8 4 3.5 2 1.8 7. 5 4.4 5.3 Tot. cov. deg. 900 185 % 37.3 7.6 20 0.8 646 2418 2.9 16.1 10.2 26.8 Subalpine Oplopanax association: 6 10 -7.7 12.8 -7 9.0 1 10 15 2 12.8 19.2 2.6 No. species 29 37•2 4 5.1 3 3.8 7 9.0 7.7 348 252 122 265 1156 1 Tot. cov. deg. 22.9 Streptopus association: 9 8.9 16 5 15.8 4.9 11 2 9 1 8.9 1.0 7 6.9 19 1 18.8 1.0 49 118.5 101 3.0 2.0 2405 755 47.9 15.0 lı3 0.9 670 Tot. cov. deg. 125 2.5 430 8.6 1.02 52 1011 5020 í.o 0.2 0.7 8.0 20.2 9.3 Vaccinium alaskaense associations
No. species 4 8 1
6.6 13.1 1 No. species 4 8 1

5 6.6 13.1 1.6

Tot. cov. deg. 1158 425 52.0 19.1 -6.6 35 2 3.3 2 32 52.5 591 11 ? 13.0 3.3 45 ? 9 14.7 4 6.6 61 7 3 11.5 4.9 308 227 14.5 10.2 9.8 12 2226 0.4 1.6 0.6 0.1 2.0 Cladothammis association:
No. species | 5 | 6.4 9 9 36 11.5 11.5 46.2 6 7•7 78 5 8 2 6.4 10.2 2.6 13 6 16.7 7.7 4 1 5.1 1.3 3 3.8 9 3 11.5 3.8 Tot. cov. deg. 1625 1659 253 33.3 34.0 5.2 15 4883 91 1.9 0.3 Yaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron associations
No. species: 6 8 2 4 3
15.1 3.8 7.6 5.7 1,9 6 3 11.3 5.7 6 2 11.3 3.8 15.1 39.6 Tot. cov. deg. 1127 835 35.8 2336 Dwarf Tsuga association: No. species 3 4.6 5 2 4 7.7 3.1 6.3 11 10 29 16.9 15.4 44.7 1.5 1 1.5 8 2 12.3 3.1 9 8 1 13.8 12.3 1.5 Tot. cov. deg. 766 95 32.0 4.0 615 25.6 5400 10 0.4 Vaccinium deliciosum association:
No. species 3 3 2

\$ 7.9 7.9 5 3 7.9 7.9 2 5.3 5 7 13.2 38.4 5 1 5 3 13.2 2.6 13.2 7.9 2 5.3 Tot. cov. deg. 66 6.0 368 264 33•2 23•9 1106 Phyllodoce - Cassione association:
No. species | 1 6 3 | 6.1 9.1 | 1.0 | 6 9.1 6.1 4 6**.1** 3 4.5 1 1.5 11 10 27 16.7 15.1 41.0 6 2 9 7 3 9.1 3.0 13.6 10.6 4.5 Tot. cov. deg. 144 265 8.6 3065 49.0 No. species 1 1 1 4.0 4.0 1 1 2 2 4.0 8.0 կ -16.0 -84.0 4.0 10 40.0 16.0 12.0 -8.0 1 կ.0 Tot. cov. deg. 372 888 50 5.6 1.2 42.0 32.3 $\frac{\text{Leptarrhena} - \text{Caltha leptosepala}}{\text{No. species}} \begin{array}{c} 3 & 5 & 2 & 4 & 6 \\ \frac{3}{4} & 0 & 6.6 & 2.6 & 5.3 & 7 \end{array}$ 76 29 **-** 38.2 **-**27 35.6 4 6 5.3 7.9 9 2 6.6 2.6 4 5.3 4.0 Tot. cov. deg. 10 335 251 3 17.1 12.8 0.1 10 -0•5 789 1957 52 2•7 Briorhorum - Sphagaum association: 2 4 15 -5.3 10.5 39.5 -17 山。8 2 4 2 3 5.3 10.5 5.3 7.9 10.5 -10 Tot. cov. deg. -545 **-**58.3 **-**935 260 **-** 27.8 **-**260 0.8

Avge. cover, %: By rock C layer B layer D_h layer 72 LYSICHITUM 66 66 72 70 OPLOPANAX 6 53 72 í STREPTOPUS 40 43 22 85 Degraded STREPTOPUS 16 53 2 R VACCINIUM 48 59 9 ∞ N ALASKAENSE Hygric CLADOTHAMNUS 90 ₹ R 16 N Lithic 75 37 42 72 8 CLADOTHAMMUS VACC. MEMBR.-84 73 59 \mathcal{L} N RHODODENDRON 75 12 66 Dwarf TSUGA 55 ı Dwarf TSUGA -48 8 $\frac{3}{5}$ 9 LUETKEA VACCINIUM 80 28 10 59 N **DELICIOSUM** PHYLLODOCE -85 10 口 56 CASSIOPE ı CAREX 79 59 Н į l NIGRICANS 85 3 LEPTARRHENA N ı 1 89 ERIOPHORUM -9 ı ı SPHAGNUM Z 13 8 SAXIFRAGA

Average estimated coverage by each vegetation layer and by rock, in percent

Explanation and Legend for Synthesis Tables

- 1. In some cases more than one association appears on a synthesis table, mainly for typographical convenience. In the case of the Polytrichum norvegicum association and the Saxifraga tolmiei association, which were not studied by sufficient plots, a grouping is made with the Carex nigricans association because of floristic similarities.
- 2. Plot locations are designated by the following abbreviations:

R. M. - Round Mountain (Paul Ridge), Garibaldi Park

G. - Grouse Mountain

H. - Hollyburn Ridge

S.M. - Seymour Mountain

Dia. H. - Diamond Head area, Garibaldi Park

- 3. Landforms are numerically coded:
 - 1 concave
 - 2 uniform slope
 - 3 convex (ridge)
 - 4 flat to undulating (rock outcrop)
 - 5 complex
- 4. Wind exposure was estimated on the basis of topographic position. An exposed ridge was given a high value on a scale of 10, whereas a protected ravine would have a rating of 5 or 6. Three values appear in the Synthesis Tables: A, exposure of the tree layer to the wind; B, exposure of the shrub layer; and C, exposure of the herbaceous and low woody layer.
- 5. Estimated coverage, in per cent, is given for each layer and each sublayer in the vegetation and for decayed wood and rock. Average coverage by each layer is summarized for each association in Table XIV.
- 6. A quadrat 1/2m. x 1/2m. was located in each corner of the rectangular sample plots. All coniferous seedlings were tallied on these, to give an estimate of regeneration per square meter.
- 7. Species are grouped by layer and sub-layer, usually in decreasing order of presence and decreasing order of total cover degree. In some cases, differentiating species are grouped to indicate subassociation differences.
- 8. Species ratings are given by three figures (e.g. 4.+.2 or 6.7.2.) which represent species significance, sociability and vigour. The species significance scale and its appropriate cover degree ratings are standard-ized with those of Orloci (1961) to allow direct floristic comparisons between the two bioclimatic zones.

The following scales were used for floristic evaluation:

Sī	oeci.	<u>es S</u>	ign	<u>ificance</u>			Corresponding cover
·							degree in %
+	Ver	y sp	ars	ely present,	dominance	very small	0
				resent, domin			0
				ered, dominan			1
3	Sca	tter	ed.	to plentiful			5
4	Oft	en,	dom	imance 1/20 to	o 1/10 of	plot	10
				inance $1/5$ to			25
6	Any	no.	of	individuals,	dominance	1/4 to $1/3$	33
7	ti	11		u	11	1/3 to $1/2$	50
8	11	11	17	11	12	1/2 to $3/4$	75
9	tt	11	11	11	17	over 3/4	95
10	11	11	11	11	17	100% of plot	100

Sociability

- + Growing singly
- 1 Grouped or tufted, groups up to 16 sq. cm.
- 2 Group larger, up to 1/16 sq. m.
- 3 Group, 1/8 to 1/4 sq. m.

	2p, 1,0 00 1,4 09. m.	
4 11	1/3 to 2/3 " "	<u>Vigour</u>
5 11	1 to 2 sq. m.	
6 11	5 to 20 " "	0 - none
7 "	25 to 50 !! :!!	+ - poor
8 11	100 " "	l - fair
9 11	200 to 250" "	2 – good
10 At 1	Least 500 sq. m.	3 - excellent

- 9. Five presence classes are used:
 - 5 species which occur in 81-100% of the plots (constants)
 - 4 species which occur in 61-80% of the plots
 - 3 species which occur in 41-60% of the plots
 - 2 species which occur in 21-40% of the plots
 - 1 species which occur in 20% or less of the plots (sporadics)

Sporadic species are listed separately, by vegetation layer at the end of each table with a notation of their floristic rating and the plot on which they occurred.

- 10. Fidelity is given only for the layer in which a species shows the highest total cover degree. For example, Abies amabilis is normally rated only in the A layer.
- 11. Total cover degree was calculated for each species on an association by totaling the cover degree values of the species significance ratings on each plot.
- 12. Life-forms (and growth forms for bryophytes) are abbreviated according to the descriptions in Chapter V.

5.+.2 5.6.1)^{5.7.2} 4.6.2 3.+.1 4.6.1

+.2

h

1.+.2 4.6.1 3.+.1

5.7.2

No. trees over 3 in./acre

Basal area, sq. ft./acre

Gross volume, cu. ft./acre

No. trees over 3 in./acre

Gross volume, ou. ft./scre

Basal area, sq. ft./acre

Abies amabilis

4.7.1 4.7.2

₩.7.1 1.+.1

154

356L

Hygric subassociation

4.7.1 5.7.2 4.7.2 4.6.2 110 115 170 165

2.+.1

1.+.1

\$4.+.1 \$4.+.2 \$3.+.1

5.7.1 4.7.1

3.6.1

115

57

3.+.2

84

+.1

2.+.1

606

+.2

+.2

+.2

Lithic subassociation

65 66 17:55 122 Pm)+.1

65 1.+.2

SYNTHESIS TABLE 1 Cladothamme association, continued

		Hygric	subasso	ciation	ı					Lithi	o subas	sociati	on								
Plot number	<u>or</u>	03	20	26	42	101	104	43	19	21	08	24	26	09	124	1?	27	· ·· ··	··		
Sub- A layer, continued: layer																		Pres.	Fid.	Tot.	
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 1	· . - -	4.+.1)2.+.1	-)1.+.2	-) ₅₋₈₋₂	2.+.1	2.+.1	}+.1	-	-	-		-	-	-	4		c.d. 80	Pm
2 3	6.7.2	+.1	+.1	2.+.1	2.+.2	-	· -	· +,+	-	1.+.1	4.6.1	+.2	-	31.+.2	-	-	-				
No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	115 136 3041	120 75 1459	110 57 920	160 66 800	100 75 1076	70 9 46	75 66 1274	95 36 730	120 53 650	75 29 393	65 48 760	50 8 76	35 5 21	30 7 92	25 5 49	40 6 26	15 ? 8	<u>.</u>			
Totals, including sporadics: No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	335 335 7842	495 300 5892	31.5 230 4327	460 293 5654	275 214 3615	650 287 ඩු න්	244	4010 215 4010	380 190 2992	290 157 2809	210 170 3390	180 119 2350	145 118 2059	130 86 1452	105 110 1490	185 106 1156	160 79 1131				
B layer:																					
Tsuga mertensiana 1		2.+.1	4.6.1			հ.6. <u>1</u> 2.+.+		2.+.1	2.+.2	3.6.1	7.8.2	6.7.2	7.8.1	6.7.1	3.5.+	4.6.1	5.7.1	1		399	Pm
Vaccinium membranaceum 2 Cladothammus pyrolaeflorus 1	6.7.3	1.4.3	, -	-	1.5.2	5.6.3	-	4.5.2	-	1.5.3	-	5.7.2		-	-	5.7.2	5.7.2	5	Ħ	341 329	Pnd Pnd
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 1	5.6.2 4.6.1 2.6.1	7.7.3 5.6.1 1.6.1	5.7.3 4.6.1 3.6.1	5.7.? 6.7.1 4.6.1	5.7.3 3.7.2 2.6.2	7.7.3 5.6.1 1.+.1	4.+.1		2.5.3 4.7.+ 2.+.1	7.7.3 4.6.1 3.6.1	1.6.2 3.6.1 4.7.1	2.6.1 4.6.2	2.6.1	1.6.1 5.6.1 3.6.1	5.6.+	3.4.2 2.5.+ 3.6.+	4.7.2 1.6.+ 2.6.+		2	301	Pza
Vaccinium alaskaense 2 Abies amabilis 1	6.7.2 4.6.2	6.6.2 7.7.1	5.6.2 2.6.1	3.7.2 5.6.1	7.9.3 3.7.2	2.5.1 6.7.1	6.7.3 6.7.1	6.6.2 5.6.1	6.7.2 2.6.1	4.6.2 4.6.1	1.6.2 2.6.2	2.6.2	2.6.1 2.6.1	3.6.2 2.6.2	1.+.+ 3.6.+	1.5.2 2.5.1	6.7.2	5	5	295 221	Pnd Pm
Menziesia ferruginea 1	2.6.2	1.4.3	-	2.6.2	2.6.2 +.3 4.6.3	3.+.1 - 3.5.2	1.+.3	-	-	4.6.1 1.6.3 6.7.3	3.6.2	-	2.6.1	3.6.2	-	3.6.1 1.6.1	2.6.1	5	3	105	Pnd
Vaccinium ovalifolium 2 Sorbus occidentalis 1	2.6.1		1.1.2	4.7.2		7•7• 2 +•1 2•+•3	3.5.2		2.4.1		3.6.2				+•5	-	1.4.1	5	2	31. 8	Pnd Pnd
Vaccinium deliciosum 2 Rhododendron albiflorum 1	. .	+.1	2.+.2	2.5.2	2.6.2	1,+,l 2,5,2	-	-	2.5.2	2.5.1		1.+.2		1.+.2 3.6.2			*•1 2.6.2		2	53 119	Pnd Pnd
Rhododendron albiflorum 1 2 Pinus monticola 2	2.6.2	=	-	6.7.3	- +.1	2.6.3 6.7.3	7.7.3	Ξ	:	1.6.2	=	=	=	=	Ξ	=	=	1		-	Pm
C layer:	;																				
Vaccinium membranaceum Rubus pedatus			1.5.2		2.3.2 4.3.3	3.+.2 3.+.1		1.+.2	2.+.3	3,6.2	5.7.2 3.5.2		4.7.2	4.6.2		1.2.2	4.6.1 1.+.1		2	113 56	Pnd Ch
Abies amabilis	+.+	2.+.1	2.+.1	2.+.1	2.+.1	3.+.1	1.+.1	3.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.2	1.+.1		+,+	-	2.+.1	5	-	16 6	Pm
Cladothammus pyrolaeflorus Sorbus occidentalis	+.1	1.+.2 +.1	2.3.2	2.+.1 1.+.?	2•+•2 +•+	1.+.1	1.*.1	2.+.2	1.3.2		1.2.2	÷.1	1.3.2		1.+.+	+•2 +•+	2.3.2			1	Pad Pad
Vaccinium alaskaense	2.+.1	2.+.1	4.5.2	2.4.2	4.4.2	1.+.1			1.+.2	2.5.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.6.1			29	Pnd
Tsuga mertensiana Gaultheria humifusa	2.+.2	+.1	2.+.?	1.+.1	2.2.2	1.+.+	1.2.2	4.4.3	-	2.3.2	3.+.2	2.4.2	4.5.3	2.+.2 3.3.2		-	4.5.1	1 4	3	18 18	Pan Ch
Vaccinium ovalifolium	:	1.+.2	-	3.4.2	-		+.+	- '	_	1.2.1	_	+.1	1.+.+	-	-	-	1.2.1	_		5	Pad
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	-	1.+.?	1.+.1	-	2.+.2	1.+.1	-	2.+.1	1.3.2	1.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.1	-	-	1.+.1	3		2 1	Pm Pmd
Menziesia ferruginea Blechnum spicant	+ +	1.+.2	-	-	+.+	-	+	-	+.+	-	+.+	÷.+	÷.+	+.+	-	-	_	3	1	1	H
Cormus canadensis	-	-	1.+.2	-	1.+.1	. • .	+,+	3.+.2	-	-	-	-	-	2.5.2	-	-	-	5	2	6	Ch
Veratrum eschscholtzii Goodyera oblongifolia	+.1	- +.1	2.5.2	+.+	+.+	1.+.1	-	+.2	+.2	-	-	-	-	+.1	-	1.2.1	-	2	1 2	1	G H
Phyllodoce empetriformis	1.+.1	1.+.2	2.3.2	1.+.1	1.2.1	1.+.+	+,+			3.6.1	4.3.1	6.7.2	6.8.3	2.3.2	5.5.2		6.7.2	5	2	166	Pine
Vaccinium deliciosum	-	-	-	2.6.2	2.5.2	1.+.1		-	-	4.6.2	7.8.3	7.9.3	6.8.3	7.7.3	4.6.2	4.3.2	4.6.2	2 4	2	226	Pnd
Cassiope mertensiana	. -	-	-	+.1	<i>,</i>	1.+.2		-	4. +	2.4.+	4.3.2		5.7.2 3.5.1	2.3.1 3.6.2		4.7.3	2.2.2		2	87 22	Pase Ch
Linetkea pectinata Carex nigricans	: -	=	-	+•?	-	1.0703	-	-	-	-	2.6.1		3.6.1	+.2		1.7.1	2.6.1		1	8	H
Lycopodium sitchense				-		1,+,1			1.2.1		2.+.2			1.+.2			+,+		2	1	Ch
D layer (humicolous):																					
Dicramum fuscescens Rhytidiopsis robusta			5.6.2 5.6.2				6.6.3 7.7.3						4.3.2			2.3.2 5.3.2			2	395 316	Te W

. continued

SYNTHESIS TABLE I, continued Cladothamnus association

Hygric subassociation

Lithic subassociation

Plot number	oı.	03	20	26	42	101	104	43	19	21	08	2 /1	28	09	124	12	27				
D layer (humicolous), continue	d:			, .,														Pres.	. Fid.		life- form
Dicramum scoparium	-	4.6.2	4.6.2	6.7.2	1.1.1	-	-	1.1.2	-		4.6.1						6.7.3		2	256	Te
Orthocaulis floerkii	+.2	2.1.2	1.2.2	2.3.2	2.5.2	.3. 2. 2			2.2.2		4.2.2	4.2.2	4.2.2	1.+.2	4.4.3	1.2.2	4.3.2	5	2	70	Mt
Lophocolea heterophylla	1.3.2	1.1.2	1.2.2	1.1.2	-	1.1.2			1.2.2		-	-	-	-	-	-		3	. 2	-	Mt
Diplophyllum taxifolium	1.3.2	1.1.2	1.2.2	1.2.2	1.3.2	1.1.2		1.1.1	-	1.1.2	-	1.2.1	-	1.1.2	-	-	1.1.2		2	-	t
Abies amabilis	1.+.1	-	1.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.+	1.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.1	+.1	-	1.+.1	-	-	-	-	2.+.1			1	Pm
Cladonia bellidiflora	+.1	1.+.1	+.1	1.1.2	-	1.+.4	-	2.2.2	1.1.2	1.1.2	2.+.2	4.4.2	2.3.2	2.+.2		1.+.2	3.2.2	5	2	19	L
Rhytidiadelphus loreus	3.3.2	3.5.2	4.5.3	4.5.2	3.3.2	-	1.2.1	4.3.2	-	3.4.2		-	•		1.1.2	-	-	1 4	2	52	W
Lescuraea baileyi	_	1.3.2	-	1.1.2	2.2.2	1.+.3	. +.1	3.3.2	-	2. 2. 2	1.1.?		1.7.2		1.3.2	-	-	4	3	7	Mt
Cephalozia media	204.2	1.2.2	1.1.2	2.1.2	-	-	-	-	1.2.2	1.3.2	-	1.1.2	-	1.7.2	-	-	-	3	2	2	Mt
Blepharostoma trichophyllum	1.2.2	1.1.2	1.2.2	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	1.2.2	1.2.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	2	-	Mt
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	+.+	-	+.1	-	1.+.1	-	1.+.7	-	2.+.]	-	-	-	+.3.	-	-	-	-	2		1	Pm
Plagiochila asplenioides	1.3.2	1.3.2	3.6.2	+.1	-	-	-	1.3.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5	5	Te
Ptilidium californicum	1.3.2	_	-	1.1.2	_	1.7.		-	-		1.2.2		-	-	-	-	1.1.2		2	-	Mt
Plagiothecium elegans	1.1.2	1.2.2	2.5.2	2.2.2	-	1.2.1	•	-	-	1.].]	1.2.2	1.2.2	1.2.2	-	-	-	1.2.2		2	1	M
Heterocladium procurrens	1.2.2	-	-	1.2.2	-	•	-	1.+.2		1.2.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.2.2		2	-	Mt
Mnium spinulosum	1.3.2	1.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	1.3.3	1.2.2	-	1.1.?	-	-	-	1.1.2			2	-	Te
Cladonia squamosa	i -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	-	1.1.?	4.2.2	-	-	1.1.2	2.2.2	1.3.2		2	11	L
Cladoria rangiferina	-	-	1.1.1	-	1.2.2	-	-	1.1.2	+.1	1.3.1	3.3.1	+.1	1.1.1	3.3.2		-	1.3.2		3	10	L
Rhacomitrium heterostichum	-	-	-	-	-	-	•	-	1.1.2	-	-	3.4.2	1.3.2	-	1.3.2		2.3.2		2	11	Te
Pleurozium schreberi	-	1.1.2	3.5.2	-	2.1.1	-	+.+	1.2.2	1.3.?	-	3.4.2	-	_	2.3.2	2.1.2	2.3.2	1.4.2		3	14	W
Kiseria blyttii	-	-	- '	1.2.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.5.1	4.5.2	-	-	-	2.4.2	5	1	12	t
Rhacomitrium canescens	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.5.2	-	2.3.2	-	3.4.3	-	3.4.2	-	2.3.2	-	2	2	17	Te
Lepidozia reptans	-	2.3.2	-	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	-	-	-	1.1.2	-	-	-	2	2	1	Mt
Brachythecium sp.	2	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.7.2	-	1.1.2		1.2.?	-	-	-	-	2	?	-	M
Bryun spe	-	-	1.2.2	1.2.2	-	1.1.	-	-	-	1.3.2	-	1.1.1	1.1.2	-	1.2.2	-	1.1.2	3	2	-	t
Vaccinium sp.	1.+.1	-	-	-	+.1	-	1.+.1	-	-	-	1.+.1	-	1.+.1	-	1.+.+	-	1.+.1	. 3		-	Pnd
Crocynia membranacea	-	-	-	1.1.2	-	_	-	-	-	-	-	2.1.2	1.1.2	1.1.2	-	1.1.2	1.1.2	2	2	ı	L
Cladonia pleurota	-	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	3.4.2	-	3.+.?	1.1.1	-	2.7.2	2	2	11	L

Speradic species:

- A layer: Pm Tsuga heterophylla 20(+.2); 104(4.+.1)
- B layer: Pm Tsuga heterophylla Cl(+.1)
- C layer:
- H Agrostis aequivalvis 09(+.1)
- Carex laeviculmis 20(1.1.1)
- Clintonia uniflora Ol(2.+.1); 43(1.+.2)
- Cryptogramma crispa 12(1.1.1)
- Deschampsia atropurpures 24(+.1); 28(+.1); 12(+.+)
- Hippuris montana 24(3.6.2); 26(2.5.2)
- Listera caurina 01(+.1); 20(+.+); 104(1.+.+)

- C layer, continued:
 - Ch Penstemon davidsonii 12(+.?)
 - Pinus monticola 08(+.+)
 - Pnd Rhododendron albiflcrum 104(1.+.1)
 - H Saxifraga ferruginea 12h(+.1); 12(+.?)
- D layer (humicolous):
- Mt Anastrepta orcadensis Ol(1.+.2)
- Bazzania tricrenata 01(1.2.2); 20(2.5.2); 19(1.4.2)
- Calypogeia neesiana 26(1.1.2)
- Cladonia gracilis 08(1.1.?); 09(2.1.2); 12(1.3.?); C. coniocraea 1?(1.1.?); 21(1.2.?) 27(1.3.?)
- Gaultheria humifusa Ol(1.+.2)
- Bryum sandbergii 26(1.3.?)
 Hypnum circinale 20(1.3.?); 26(1.1.?); 21(1.1.+)
 Lobaria linata 26(+.1); 43(+.1); 21(1.2.?)

- D layer (humicolous), continued:
- Mt Lophozia alpestris 21(1.1.2)
- Mt Lophozia incisa 26(1.1.?)
- Marsupella sparsifolia 21(2.2.2); 24(1.4.2);
- 27(2.3.2)
- Mnium punctatum 03(1.+.1); 20(1.+.+); 26(1.+.1) Plagiothec. undulatum 01(1.3.2); 03(1.1.2); 21(+.+)
- Plectocolea oboveta 03(2.1.2); 27(4.3.2)
- Pogonatum alpinum 26(1.1.2); 19(1.1.2); 21(1.1.2)
- Pohlia sp. 124(1.1.2)
- Polytrichum juniperinum 09(+.1)
- Rubus pedatus O1(1.+.1)
- Pnd Sorbus occidentalis 17(+.+)
- Td Sphagmum plumulosum 42(1.1.2)
- Pm Tsuga mertensiana 43(+.+); 104(+.+)
- Peltigera canina 27(1.1.)

1.4.1

1.+.+

Pnd

Vaccinium alaskaense association SYNTHESIS TABLE II. continued

Plot number	123	106	15	16	50	25	29	83	82	Pres.	Fid.		Life
B layer, continued: layer													
Isuga heterophylla 1	3.+.1	+.+	4.6.2		4.6.1	-	-	-	-	3		26	Pm
2 Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 1	4.6.1	+.+ -	2.2.2	+.1 1.+.1	2.+.1	2.7.1		-	-	3		17	Pm
Sorbus occidentalis 1	3.+.1	-	-	1.+.1	+.3	1.+.1	1.+.1 +.3	-	-	3	2	-	Pnd
2	-	+.+	-	+.1	-		1.+.2	-	-	_	^	10	Pnd
Cladothammis pyrolaeflorus 2 Rhododendron albiflorum 2	-	-	-	1.5.1	-	1.5.2		-	-	2	2	10 10	Pnd
C layer:													
Rubus pedatus		4.3.2							<u>-</u>	5 5 5	2	33	Ch
Vaccinium alaskaense	2.+,1	2.+.2	3.+.?		2.+.2	2.4.1	2.3.2	2.3.2		5		<u>1</u> 6	Pnd
Abies amabilis	1.+.1	3.+.2	3.+.?	2.+.2	1.+.2			1.+.1	2.5.1			14	Pm
Vaccinium membranaceum	1.+.1	+.1	- - -	2.1.2		3.4.2	3.3.2	2.3.2	2.3.2	4	_	13	Pno
Clintonia uniflora	4.6.3	+.+	2.3.2	1.1.2.		-	2.+.2	-	-	lı,	2	13	G H
Blechmum spicant	+.1	-	-	+.1		2.+.+	+.1	-	-	3	1	2	n Pno
Menziesia ferruginea	-	-	.=	+.1		1.+.1	1.+.1	-	-		•	1	Ch
Cormis canadensis	2.+.1	-	-	+.1			-		-	2	5	1	Un Pm
Isuga mertensiana		-	-	1.+.1		+.1	1.+.?		-	3	2	-	rm H
Goodyera oblongifolia	1.+.3	-	-		1.+.1	+•2	-	•	-	2	2	-	n Ch
Pyrola secunda	+.2		- 1	+.1		-	-	-	-	2	2	-	H
Streptopus streptopoides	-	+.1	+.1	-	+•2	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	n Pm
Isuga hetereophylla	-	1.+.1	2.+.2		1.+.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	G.
Corallorhiza mertensiana	-	-	-	+•5	+.1	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	G
Listera caurina	-	-	-	+.1	+.+			-	-		2	-	Pn
Sorbus occidentalis	-	-	-	+.1	-	+.1		-	+.+	2	1	_	Pn
Phyllodoce empetriformis			-	1.+.1		1.2.1	1.3.2	<u>-</u>					* 14
D layer (humicolous):													
Rhytidiopsis robusta	7.7.3		5.6.3				4.4.2		2.3.2	5	2	172	W Pm
Abies amabilis		2.+.1	1.7.1	1.+.2	2.+.1 6.5.3	+.1	1.+.1 2.2.2	1.+.1 5.5.3	6.7.3	Li.	2	172	Te
Dicranum fuscescens	1.1.?	3.3.2		8.9.2			1.1.2	.2•2•2	-	1	2	55	M
Rhytidiadelphus loreus	5.4.2		5.0.2	2.6.2	3.4.2	1.1.2	3.3.2	1 1 0	-	L	2	6	Mt
Blepharostoma trichophyllum	1.1.2	+•2	-			1.1.2		1.1.2	-	14	2	5	Mt
Cephalozia media	1.1.?	1.1.2			2.3.2	1.1.2	3.3.2	1.2.2	-	1 1	2	2	Mt
Calypogeia neesiana	1.1.2	10002		1.1.2	1.1.2	1.1.2	2.2.2	1.2.2	1.1.2	4	5	í	Mt
Lophocolea heterophylla	1.1.2			1.1.2		1.2.2	20202	-	1.1.2	14	2	-	Mt
Lepidozia reptans		10202	5.6.2	_		6.7.3	7.6.2	_	1.1.2	3	2	133	Te
Dicramum scoparium Orthocaulis floerkii	5.4.3	_	J. 9. 2	-	1.1.5	1.1.2	1.3.2	4.3.2	4.4.2	3	2	20	Mt
Plagiothecium elegans	_		1.2.2	-	1.1.2	2.2.2	2.2.2	4.5.6	2.2.2	3	2	3	M
Hypnum circinale	-	_	2.3.2	Ξ	1.3.2	1.3.2	2.3.2	1.1.2		3	2	2	M
Cladonia bellidiflora	-	-)• 2	-	+.+		+.1	2.1.2	2.2.2	3	2	ź	L
Mnium spinulosum	2.3.2	_	_	1.2.2				-	-	3	2	ī	Te
Ptilidium pulcherrimum	_	-	-	-	1.1.2	1.1.2	1.+.2	_	1.1.2	3 .	5	-	Mt
Vaccinium spp.	-	+.+	+.2	1.1.2		+.1		-	-	3	-	-	Pn
Lophozia incisa	-	-	-	-	-	_	+•2	-	4.6.2	2	2	10	Mt
Plagiothecium undulatum	2.3.2	-	_	-	2.5.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	M
Bazzania tricrenata	2.2.3		2.2.2	-	1.2.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	M
Kiseria blyttii	-	-	-	-	-	2.2.2	2.3.2	-	-	2	ĩ	Ž	t
Mnium punctatum	-	-	2.3.2	1.2.1	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	1	Te
Plectocolea obovata	-	-	-	-	-	2.1.2	1.1.2	-	-	2	2	2	Mt
Bryum sp.	-	-	-	-	-	+.2	2.3.2	-	-	2	2	ı	Te
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	1.+.1	-	-	•	+.1	-	•	-	-	2		-	Pπ
Cladonia coniocraea	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	1.+.?	-	2	2	-	L
	-	-	-	-	-	1.5.2	-	1.+.1	-	5	2	-	Te
Bryum sandbergii		-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	÷	5	2	-	M
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi	1.1.+			-	-	1.3.2	-	-	1.2.2	2	2	-	M
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi Brachythecium sp.	1.3.2	-	-										
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi Brachythecium sp. Pleurozium schreberl		-	-	+•2	-	-	-	-	+.+	2	2	-	W
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi Brachythecium sp. Pleurozium schreberi Lescuraea baileyi	1.3.2	-	:	+•2 -	+.+		1.1.2	-	-	2	2	-	•••
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi Brachythecium sp. Pleurozium schreberi Lescuraea baileyi. Plagiothecium denticulatum	1.3.2	-	:	+•2 - -	+.+		1.1.2	:	1.2.?	5		:	Mt M
Bryum sandbergii Scapania bolanderi Brachythecium sp. Pleurozium schreberi Lescuraea baileyi	1.3.2	- - !.+.1	1.+.1	+•2 - -	+.+	-	1.1.2	:	-	2	2	:	Mt

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Sporadic species:
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A layer, none

B layer, none

C layer:

H Carex nigricans 82(1.6.+); 29(1.5.+)

Pm Chamacopparis nootkatensis 50(1.*.+)

Pnd Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus 16(1.*.1); 29(1.*.1)

Ch Luetkea pectinata 29(2.4.2)

Pnd Rhododendron albiflorum 25(*.2)

Pnd Rubus spectabilis 25(*.*)

H Streptopus amplexifolius 29(*.1)

H Tiarella unifolium 29(*.1)

Pnd Vaccinium ovalifolium 25(1.3.1); 29(2.*.2)

G Veratrum eschscholtzii 29(*.1)

D layer, humicolous

M Bazzania ambigua 83(1.1.2)

Mt Eurhynchium stokesii 50(1.1.2)

M Plagiochila asplenioides 123(1.5.2)

Te Rhacomitrium heterostichum 82(1.1.2)

Pm Tsuga heterophylla 50(1.+.+)

Typical subassociation (subassoc. abietetoso - streptopetosum)

Degraded subassociation (subassoc. chamaecyparetosum)

Plot number	1	3 14	17	51	85	37	<u> 1.1</u> 4	107	34	102	103	36	66	97	02	10		125	06						
Plot sime (acre) Date	1/ 16/	7 3 1/ 8	22/7	1/5 8/9	1/5 29/8	1/5 9/8	1/5 19/7	1/5 29/7	1/5 28/7	1/5 20/9	1/5 20/9	1/5 9/8	1/5 8/8	1/5 12/8	1/5 8/8			1/5 11/9							
	199	9 1959	1959	1960	1960	1960	1961	1961	1960	1960	1960	1960	1960	1959				1961	1959						
Locality (see legend)	ь 119 2			SM 49 22	RM 49 46	RM 119 116	SM 49 22	H 49 2h	SM 49 22	G 49 23	G 49 23	RM 49 46	RM 49 4 6	SM 49 22					53M 49 22						
Longitude	122 5	7 122 57		122 58	123 03	123 03	122 57	123 11	122 58	123 05	123 05	123 03	123 03	122 57 2	122 57 2(5)	122 56	122 56	123 11	122 57						
Landform (see legend) Slope above (est. ft.)	250	300	1500	500	150	250	300	400	400	300°	400	200 1/2	600 3/l ₄	200 2	300 2/3	200 3/5	300 3/1	300 1	120 3/4						
Area of assoc. (acre)	2/3		1	1/4	1	1/2	1/2	1	3/4	1/2	1	•	•				•		3330						
Altitude (ft.) Aspect	307 N70	w s80w	N75W	3280 S15W	14360 NLIOW	1120 N50W	3330 N80W	3500 N8 0 w	3330 S10W	37.25 W	3710 W	1,300 N80W	3780 W	3260 S10B	SIOW		S70E		S70E 10						
Slope (degrees) Wind exposure (A-B-C)	19 5-2-		40 6-4-1	0-5 7-5-2	10 6-3-1	15 7 - 6-3	20 7 - 5-2	33 6-3-1	17 7 - 5-2	34 8 - 5-3	34 8-5-3		10 8 - 4-2	30 6-3-1		6-5-1		6-5-3	6-4-1						
Snow cover (months)	6		7	61/2	8	$6\frac{1}{2}$	7	7	7	7	7	6]	7	7	6 3	7	6]	6 }	7						
By vegetation layer A1	,15		20 20	35 15	30 15	35 30	න න	55 15	12 40	50 50	50 30	35 20	30 45	2 0 12	30 հ5	20 25	112 25	50 35	35 15						
A ₂ A ₃ A	}60	1	25	20	50	8 65	20 55	20 80	30 75	40 65	30 85 5	15 65	20 85	40 60	45 25 75	25 65 20 45 60	25 20 50	35 20 70	25 65						
B ₁	70	10	50 .7	60 10	40	20	40	4	20	8	5	10	-	40 50	12	20	20	20	30 50						
B ₁ B ₂ B	75	70 75	60 65	10 15	20 55 10 55 85 30	20 50 60	50 80	117 110	40 55	20 28	२० २५ ४५	25 35 18	35 35 10	80	45	60	35 45	75 85 10	70 25						
C D _H	75	75 50 25	40 55	15 55 70	30 60	25 50	50 80	10	40 35	40 25	45 10 5	40	10 55 8	25 75 7	7 30	12 65	15 45	45	60						
D _L D _R		10	30 11	8	18 2	5	7	1	20 1	9 1	5	6	8	7 1	1	10 1	3 2	5	5 1						
Ď ^R	57	35	85	78	80	55	87	6	55	35	15	46	63	82	35	75	50	47	65						
By decayed wood By rock	100	25	35 1	15 1	35 3	15 1	15 1	2 1	25 6	10 2	10 1	15	25	10 2	6 2	15 2	5 2	5	10 1	•					
Tallest tree on plot (ft.	128	170	116	119	11	16	_	_	114		_	_	142	_	-	-	_	78	_						
Mountain hemlock	156	-	125	131	151 151	131 157	132 138	171 121	112	141 134	141 168	116 146	1148	110 101	110 125	106 142	114 129	109 110	117 93						
Amabilis fir Yellow codar	-	170	120 122	127	191	151	92	-	130	-	-	-	129*	100	-	129	122	117	114						
Regeneration (no./sq. met West. or mtn. hemlock	ter) ?	?	?	60	1	-	142	18	48	1	4	-	3	?	?	?	. <u>-</u>	-	?						
Amabilis fir Yellow cedar	?		?	45	19 -	68 -	18	82 9	36 -	23	19 -	33	59 2#	?	?	?	152	23 2	3						
Total soil depth (cm.)	50		74	70	105	104	?	?	85	92	93	72	100	86	90	72	74 8	?	61 15						
Depth to bottom of Ah (or Depth to seepage, if pres		14 70	10 72	36 25	32 21	20	? ?	? ?	29	12	11	21	9	25	Ы 65	10	59	?	-						
Romarks													* red=												
	Sub-												cedar Sul	bassoc.	··· - · · · · · ·						bassoc.			sociat	
	rer													Char.						Pres.	Char.	Pres.	Fid.	Tot.	
Abies amabilis		3 5.4.3				6.8.3 6.8.2		*.+ 5.8.3		5.8.3 5.8.3	7.8.3	6.8.3 5.8.3	5.7.3		5.7.2		4.7.2	+.1 3.+.1	+•3 2•+•2	5	30	5	2	918	Pm
	3 B4.+.	3 6.8.3	4.7.2	2.+.2 3.7.2		4.+.2			5.7.2	6.7.2			-1	5.7.1	3.+.2				3.+.2	-	-				
No. trees over 3 in./acr			100 96	50 1 2 8	135 286	135 121	180 20h	135 163	70 73	185 314	150 481	32h 17t0	50 135	170 65	150 276	1 <i>2</i> 0 170	80 12 2	51 83	115 35			1			
Basel area, sq. ft./acre	124	239							73		LHT	75.1						0.3	27 I						

SYNTHESIS TABLE III, continued Streptopus association

Typical subassociation

Degraded subassociation

						TCAL SU																					
Plot number	13	1),	17	51	85	37	կի	107	34	102	103	36	66	Suba			05	10	11	1.25	06		350C.			30c13	
Su A layer, continued: layer														res.	Char c.d.							res.	Char. c.d.	Pres.	F10.		form
Tsuga mertensiana 1 2 3	=	:	+•3 3•+•1 3•+•2	3.+.2		1.+.?	5.+.3 5.7.3 2.+.2	8.9.3	3.+.2 5.7.2 3.+.2	4.+.3 +.2 4.7.2	-	1.+.2	:	ī	భ	4.+.2	4.+.2 3.+.2 5.7.1		3.+.1	5.+.3 4.+.2 4.7.1	2.+.2		30	5	2	432	Pm
No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu.ft./acre	-	=	55 92 2713	60 84 317 <i>2</i>	96 96 1402	15 56 2469	60 246 899 1	35 335 150 90	50 97 3286	85 330 8153	70 136 4104	25 38 1316	=			105 208 6088	110 183 5111	85 87 3489	115 54 2564	70 140 3776	115 206 5873						
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	1 - 2 - 3 -	:	3.+.2 4.7.2 +.2	-	:	=	+.1 +.+ -	=	2.+.3 4.7.2 1.+.1	=	=	=	:	2	9	2.+.2 2.+.1	-	4.7.3 3.+.1 3.6.1			4.7.2 +.2 +.2	1	17	3	2	113	Pm
No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acr	-	:	45 232 6960	5 48 500	=	=	10 96 1336	=	25 208 4925	=	=	=	=			70 202 4174	:	60 288 7460	40 294 8138	45 520 10732	30 18 5534			*			
Tsuga heterophylla 1 2 3	6.7.3	7 9 3			=	- -	=	= .	3.+.3 3.+.2	-	:	<u>.</u>	4.7.1 5.7.1	_	27	- +•2	=	-	:	3.+.+	=	2	2	3	5	165	Pm
No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acr	50 319 14190	50 164 50	65 2014	цо 82 2862	5	-	-	-	25 76 2687	-	<u>-</u>	:	65 120 հեն5			5 4 56	<u>:</u>	:	:	10 92 1680	=	_					
Totals, including sporadic No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acr	95 1443	100 403 21.258	265 435 15194	155 342 12754	190 382 17940	155 478 18899	250 5146 17980	170 498 19714	170 454 13414	270 644 19542	220 61 7 2 4988	165 292 14480	140 337 16515			350 479 11745	265 460 15072	265 545 17791	235 470 15198	380 835 18052	260 259 12227						
B layer:																											
Vaccinium alaskaense 2 Abies amabilis 1	2.+.1	2.+.2	3.6.2	2.6.1	5.7.2	4.7.2	6.7.2 5.6.2 4.+.1	4.6.2	4.7.1	4.6.2	2.+.1	4.+.1		5	29 19		5.6.2 4.6.2 4.+.1		4.6.1	5.6.1	3,6,1	. 5	27 35	5 5	2	426	Pm
Tsuga mertensiana l Menziesia ferruginea a	-	-		4.7.2	5.7.2	2.+.2 4.6.2	4.6.2 4.+.1 1.5.2	2.+.1 2.+.1	3.+.1 2.+.1	2.6.1	3.6.2		- 2.+.1	4	11	4.6.1	3.6.2 2.+.1 1.5.1	5.7.1	3.5.1	1.+.+	4.6.1		11 2	5	2	176 24	Pad
Vaccinium membranaceum 2 Tsuga heterophylla 1	3.+.1	4.7.2	2.6.2 2.+.1 1.+.1	-	5.6.3 +.+ -		1.+.2			2.+.+	3.4.1	2.5.1 2.+.1 2.+.2		14 14	4	3.6.2	1.+.1 +.1	2.5.2	3.5.2	3.5.1	2.6.2	1	3	4 3	2	34	Pnd Pm
2	1.+.2		1.+.1	1.+.1 +.2 +.1	1.+.+	1.+.1	=	1.5.2 +.2 1.+.?	+.3 2.5.2	+.1	-	-	1.5.1	14	-	:		1.+.1	+.1 - +.1	-	:	3	=	3	2		Pnd
Rubus spectabilis Cham. nootkatensis	_	1.5.2	=	-	-	1.+.1	1.+.1 1.+.1	+.1 +.+ +.+	3.5.2	2.5.1	2.5.2	-	-	2	2 1	3.6.1 2.6.1	-	+.1 1.5.1		1.+.1	+.1		ī	5	5		Pnd Pm
Cladothamnus pyrolaeflorus Rhododendron albiflorum 2 Oplopanax horridus 2	2 -	-	-	:	-	-	-	-	-	<u></u>	- - +,+	-	1,+.+	0 0	-		1.+.1	+.1 +.1	+•2		•	5 2 0	5	2 1 1	? 1 1	10	Pnd Pnd Pnd
C layer:																											
Rubus pedatus Blechmum spicant Streptopus roseus Vaccinium alaskaense	1.+.2	2.6.2	6.7.3 4.6.2 3.4.2 4.2.2	7.8.2	+.+ 2.+.2	4.5.3	5.6.3 4.6.1 1.+.2 3.3.2	1.+.1	5.6.2 1.+.1	2.4.1 5.3.2	1.+.1	1.5.1	2.5.1 3.5.3	5		4.5.2	3.5.2 3.4.1 2.+.2	2.+.2	2.5.1	4.5.1	4.7.2	5	8 7 1 4	****	3	285 148 110 72	H

					Typ	dçal su	bassoci	ation								Degrade	d subas	sociati	.on					
Plot number	13	14	17	51	85	37	بلبا	107	<u>34</u>	102	103	36		Subassoc.		02	10	11	125	06	Subassoc.			ociation
C layer, continued:	1												ľ	res. Char c.d.	1					Ì	res. Char.	Pres.		Tot. Life c.d. for
Abies amabilis Veratrum eschscholtzii Clintonia uniflora Streptopus streptopoides Vaccinium membranaceum Tiarella unifoliata Tsuga mertensiana Tiarella trifoliata Athyrium filix-femina Menziesia ferruginea Streptopus amplexifolius Listera caurina Sorbus occidentalis Cymmocarpium dryopteris Cormus canadensis Tsuga heterophylla Lysichitum americanum Carex laeviculmis Rubus spectabilis Chamaecyparis nootkatensis Chamaecyparis nootkatensis Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	2.3.3 7.6.3 7.6.3 1.+.2 2.5.1 2.+.2 2.5.1 2.+.2 2.+.1 2.5.1 +.1	4.5.2 +.1 3.5.2 1.5.2 1.+.+	1.+.2 4.6.3 	3.+.2 3.+.2 4.5.3 1.+.1 	#.+.1 1.+.2 3.3.2 2.+.7 3.+.1 +.1 1.+.+	2.*.1 2.4.2 2.*.1 2.*.2 2.5.2 1.*.1 	2.*.2 2.2.2 +.1	3.4.2	1.+.1	2.+.1 +.+ 1.+.2 3.2.2 2.+.+ 5.3.2 1.+.+ 1.+.2 3.4.2	2.*.2 +.+ 1.*.2 3.3.2 2.*.+ 5.7.2 +.1 2.*.2 2.4.2 1.6.2 	3.*.1 1.*.1 2.*.1 2.?.? 1.1.? 1.*.1 1.*.2	2.+.1 +.1 3.5.2 1.3.2 1.+.1 1.+.2 2 1.+.1 1.+.3 1.+.1	556162211111311111111	3.+.1 1.+.1 4.6.3 	3.+.1 1.+.1 3.h.2 1 2.+.1 1 1.+.+	3.5.2 1.*.1 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.1	3.+.2 +.1 - 1.+.1. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	2.+.1 ++ h.3.3 +.1 1.+.1 + +	2.+.1 1.+.3 5.7.3 3.5.2 2.3.1 1.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1	55 12 15 1 2 1 15 2 2 1 15 2 2 1 15 2 2 2 1 15 2 2 2 2	554445555555550000000000000000000000000	3	63 Pm 7 0 97 8 H 29 Pnd 15 H 23 Pm 15 Pnd 1 H 20 G S Ch 3 Pm 1 G - Pnd - Pnd - Pnd - Pnd
D layer (humicolous); Rhytidiopsis robusta Ables smabilis Dicrarum Nuscescens Entum mudus Rhytidiadelphus loreus Plagiothecium elegans Hymum circinale Calynogeia neesians Cephalosia media Diplophyllum taxifolium Plagiothecium denticulatum Hnium syminulesum Lophocoles heterophylla Dicramum scoparium Blepharostoma trichophyllum Baszania ambigua Lepidosia reptans Plagiothecium undulatum Chamaecyparis mootkatensis Tsuga mertensiana Bryum sandbergii Plagiochila asplenioides Bazzania tricrenata Sazpania bolanderi	2.2.2 1.2.2 2.2.2 1.1.2 1.3.2 1.+.2	2.+.1 5.6.2 4.5.2 3.3.2 3.2.2 2.2.2 4.5.3	2.5.? 5.6.? 1.7.? 1.5.? 1.3.? 1.1.2 1.1.1 1.3.?	3.5.2 2.+1 5.6.2 5.5.2 5.5.2 1.2.2 1.1.2 1.3.2 2.1.2 3.3.2 1.3.3	5.5.2 2.4.1 2.3.? 2.1.2 2.5.3 1.1.2 1.1.2 2.3.2 6.6.2	5.6.3 2.*.1 4.5.2 1.3.2 2.2.2 1.1.2	5.k.2 2.+.1 7.6.3 5.6.2 1.1.2 2.1.2 1.3.2 1.6.2 3.+.2 	2.+.? 3.3.? 1.?.?		-		5.5.3 1.+.1 4.5.3 	6.7.3 2.*-1 4.6.7 1.3.1 1.7.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2	5 14 1 2 1 1 2 1 1 2 2 2 2 1 2 3 1 2 2 2 2 1 2 3 1 2 2 2 2	8.6.2 +.2 6.5.2 1.1.1 1.5.2 1.2.2 2.3.2 1.2.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2	2.2.2 4.5.2 2.3.2 1.2.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.4.2 1.2.2 5.6.2	2.+.1 2.h.? 2.5.1 1.3.? - 2.3.2 1.2.2 3.b.2 3.2.?	1.7.1	2.+.1 5.5.3 1.?.? 3.3.1	6.6.3 1.+.1 2.3.2 2.b.2 2.b.2 3.3.2 1.1.2 5.6.2 3.3.2 1.1.2 2.1.2	34 15 5 5 5 2 4 5 5 5 2 4 5 3 3 4 2 4 2 3 3 0 4 3 2	222222222222222222222222222222222222222	2 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 2 2 3 3 2 2 2 3 3 2 2 2 3 3 2 2 2 3 3 2 2 3 3 3 2 2 3	772 W 10 The 1992 Te 999 Te 998 W 122 H 12 H 12 1 H
Prid Vaccinium opp. 6i(1.+.1); 10(1.+.1)	In Spinagrium squarrosum 1(1.5.4) Fin Thuja plicata 66(1.+.1) Fin Tsuga haterophylla 13(5.+.1); Thu Tsuga haterophylla 13(1.+.1);	Scapania undulata 51(+ Sphagnum girgensohnii 51(4.6.2); 11(+	Ptilidium californicum 56(3,1,2); 02(4	onstum alpinum 85(1.2.) lis mutans 85(2.2.2) rtrichum commune 44(1.	\(\frac{1.1.2}{\text{Pollie opinhylle 13(1.2.2)}}\) Th Pollie opinhylle 13(1.2.2); \(\frac{85(1.2.2)}{\text{1.2}}\)	scalaris lchum par ulis floe	Th Moorekia blyttii 17(1.1.2); 51(6.6.3); 11(1.2.2)	Hookeria lucens 51(1.4.2) Hypnum dieckii 51(1.2.2); 061 Lescuraca balleyi 57(4.2)	Mt Heterocladium procurrens 17(+,2); 34(1,1,2); 06(1,1,2)	Diplophyllum albicans 51(1.1. Diplophyllum plicatum 85(+.2 Ditrichum montanum 66(1.1.)	Cladonia coniocraea 17(+.2); Dicranella heteromalia 15(1.: 102(1.:	M Brachythecium asperrimum 37(1.2.2); 10(1.2.2) Mt Cophalozia lammersiana 17(2.2.2)	H Viola glabella O7(1.+.2); 66(+.+) D layer (humicolous):	Tiarella laciniata 13(+,2 Trientalis arctica 17(1,+ Trientalis arctica 17(1,+ nd Vaccinium ovalifolium 13 51	Pnd Rhododendron albiflorum 125(+.+) H Senecio triangularis 57(+.1) Pm Thuja plicata 66(1.+.2)	H Polystichum munitum 17(+.+); Of (+.+) On Pyrola secunda 107(+.1); 66(1.4.+);	d Oplopanax horridus 103	Luzula parviflora 10 102(1.+.1); 105(Lycopodium clavatum	G Haberaria saccata 17(1.4.2) G Listera cordata 13(4.3); 37(4.1) Ch Luetkea pectimata 85(4.2)	44(4.4); 10/(4.4) Ch Gaultheria humifuss 07(1.2.2) H Goodyera oblongifolia 07(4.1); 125(4.1)	Display Disp	Ayer: Arnica latifolia 10(+ Corallorhiza mertensia:	Blayer: Pm Sambucus pubens 102(1.6.1)	A layer: A Thuja plicata 66(5.6.2)

Plot number	87	52	70	73	79	95	88						81	78	84	86	105				
Plot size (acre) Date	1/60 31/8 1960	3/80 6/9 1960	1/90 24/8 1960	1/40 30/8 1960	1/20 11/8 1960	1/40 1 21/9 1960	/60 31/8 1960						1/40 23/8 1960	1/20 25/8 1960	1/20 29/8 1960	1/20 29/3 1960	1 / 40 21/7 1961				
Locality (see legend) Latitude Longitude Landform (see legend) Slope above (est. ft.)	RM 49 46 123 03 2 300	1	RM 49 46 123 02 1 along	123 02		G 149 24 123 05 1 (2) along	RM 49 46 123 03 2 300						RM 49 46 123 02 1 -	RM 49 46 123 02 1	RM 49 46 123 03 1	HM 49 46 123 03 2 180	H 49 24 123 11 2 300				
Area of assoc. (acre)	1/25	stream 1/10	stream 1/60	stream 1/25	1/20	stream 1/30	1/40						1/7	1/10	1/4	1/3	1/20				
Altitude (ft.) Aspect Slope (degrees) Wind exposure (A-B-C) Snow cover (months)	4060 W 9 0-0-6	4735 N80W 6 0-0-6 9	4800 N40W 4 0-0-5 9	4680 S40W 9 0-0-5 9	4550 560w 10 0-0-7 81	200 240E 14 0-0-5 81	4060 \$303 2 0-0-6 8						4600 flat 0 0-0-5	4600 flat 0 0-0-5 81/2	4350 flat 0 0-0-6 8	4310 N 4 0-0-6 8	3450 W 10 0-0-6 7 ¹ / ₂				
% coverage: By vegetation layer B ₁ B ₂ B C D _H	- - 95 80	1 1 60 95	- - 85 90	- - 85 90	8 10 15 98 70	1 1 95 85	- - 90 85						75 50	- - 90. 95	- - 90 80	- - 90 20	- - 98 90				
By decayed wood By rock By open water	-	- - 5	-	3 - -	<u>.</u>	:	=						3 1 25	- 5	3	:	:				
Regeneration (no./sq. meter)				none -											- none						
Total soil depth (cm.) Depth to bottom of A _h (cm.) Depth to seepage, if present	67 66 20	? ? ?	74 18 32	36 25 ?	40 40 ?	55 28 22	80 64 68				***		? .	85 85 36	? ? ?	84 83 83	? ? ?		.		710
B layer:								Pres.	ria.	c.d.							ra I	es.		c.d.	
Salix commutata	<u> - </u>	+.+	-	-	1.5.2	-	-	2	4	-	Pnd	Carex aquatilis Eriophorum angustifolium	8.7.3	4.3.2		7.6.2 7.7.1	8.7.3	14 14		201 136	H
C layer: Leptarrhena pyrolifolia	2.+.3	7.6.2 4.3.2	6.5.3 7.4.2	6.4.2 4.2.2	5.+.3 6.6.2	7.6.3 5.4.3	6.և.3 3.3.2	5	ļi Li	225 134	H H	Deschampsia atropurpurea Veratrum eschecholtzii Carex nigricans		1.+.1 +.+ 8.5.2	3.3.?	2.3.2	+.+	3322	? 1 2	6 - 75 50	H G H H
Erigeron peregrimus Cattha leptosepala Parnassia fimbriata Carex spectabilis Carex nigricans Epilobium alpinum Deschampeia atropurpurea Phyllodoce empetriformis	2.+.2 6.4.2 5.3.3 3.3.2	3.2.2 5.4.2 1.1.2 3.2.1 2.+.1	5.5.2 1.+.1 1.+.2	6.4.2 5.3.2 +.+ 5.6.2 2.2.2	4.4.2 3.4.2 4.4.2 2.3.? 1.+.1 1.+.1	5.3.3 3.3.2 3.2.2 7.7.3 3.2.2 2.+.2	6.5.2 5.4.2 4.3.2 2.3.2	22224	5 4 3 2	164 110 30 102 11 2	H H H H G H	Carex spectabilis Equisetum palustre Tofieldia glutinoss Calamagrostis canadensis Agrostis aequivalvis Luetkea pectinata Hippuris montana Scirpus caespitosus	1.+.,?	5.3.? 1.+.1 - 2.+.? 1.+.1.	1.+.2 1.+.2	3.+.). 3.+.? 1.+.?	2. ?. ? 2. ?. ? +.1 1. ?. ?		2 2 2	5 5 1 1	G H Ch H
kitella pentandra Equisetum palustre Agrossis acquivalvis Veratrum eschscholtzii Luetkea pectinata Juncus mertensiamus	4-4-2	1.4.7 4.3.2 2.1.2 1.2.2 1.1.2	1.+.?	1.+.1 3.+.2 1.+.2 +.+ 1.+.2 2.2.2	1.+.? 7.7.3 5.5.2	1.+.? 5.4.3 +.+ +.? 1.+.?	5.4.2	443333	2 2 3	100 8 8 5 2	H G Ch H	D layer (humicolous): Drepanocladus aduncus Sphagmum plumulosum Scapania uliginosa	7.6.2	4.3.2	6.6.9	4.2.2	-	433	3	66 67 25	Te Td M
Valeriana sitchensis Vaccinium delleiceum Petasites frigidus Arnica latifolia Hippuris montana	-	5.6.2 4.3.2 3.3.2	+.+ +.+ 1.3.? 2.?.2	3.2.2	2.+.2 1.5.2 1.+.2	1.1.2	1.2.2	3 3 3 3	2 1 4 3	2 30 10 6	Pnd H H H	Polytrichum commune Mnium mudum Calliergonella cuspidata Sphagmum mendocinum Sphagmum squarrosum	2.2.2	4.5.3 2.3.2 6.6.3		2.7.?	3.4.2 1.3.2 8.7.3	33322	3	16 3 2 125 58	Te Te W Td

continued

Sporadic species:

B layer:

Abies amabilis

Pm Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 79(4.6.1) Pnd Rhododendron albiflorum 79(1.6.2) Pm Tsuga mertensiana 95(+.+) Pnd Vaccinium deliciosum 79(1.+.2)

+.+

C layer:

H Agrestis idahoensis 87(1.+.?)
H Calumagrostis canadensis 88(5.6.3)
H Eriophorum an gustifolium 87(1.2.2)
Ch Gaultheria humfives 88(+.1)
G Habenaria dilatata 88(1.+.3); 87(+.2)
H Hordeum brachyantherum 95(3.3.2)
Ch Lycopodium selago 52(+.1)
G Lysichitum americanum 87(+.+)
H Mimulus lewisii 52(3.4.2)
Ch Rubus pedatus 79(4.-+)
Phd Salim commutata 79(4.5.2)
H Saxifraga arguta 52(3.3.2)
H Scirpus caespitosus 87(8.7.3)
Phd Sorbus ocidentalis 95(+.+)

Pnd Vaccinium membranaceum 95(1.3.+)

D layer (humicolous):

Pm Abies amabilis 88(+.+) Mt Anastrepta orcadensis 70(2.2.2) Aulacomnium palustre 73(5.6.2) W Calliergonella cuspidata 70(1.2.2) Mt Cephalozia leucantha 52(2.1.2) Pm Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 87(+.+) Th Conocephalum conicum 73(2.2.2) t Dicranella squarrosa 95(1.2.2) Te Drepanocladus exangulatus 73(1.2.2) t Klaerie falcata 70(1.1.1) Mt Lophozia porphyroleuca 52(2.1.2) t Pohlia sp. 52(5.4.3) Te Polytrichum commune 95(2.3.2) Te Rhacomitrium canescens 95(6.4.2) Te Rhacomitrium heterostichum 52(1.2.2) Td Sphagnum squarrosum 73(1.2.2)

Eriophorum - Sphagnum association

Sporadic species:

C lawers

H Agrostis thurberiana 78(1.+.1)
H Agrostis idahoensis 8h(1.+.2)
H Caltha leptosepala 86(5.+.2)
Ch Gaultheria humifusa 105(1.4.2)
G Streptopus roseus 105(1.+.2)
Trientalis arctica 105(5.4.2)
H Viola glabella 8h(2.+.2)

Viola palustris 105(5.5.2)

- D layer (humicolous):
 - Mt Anastrepta orcadensis 8h(1.1.2)

 Mt Calypogeia trichomanis 86(1.1.2)

 M Cratoneuron commitatum 86(1.1.2)

 M Hyprum circinale 86(1.1.2)

 Mt Leiocolea obtusa 8l(1.1.2)

 Mt Orthocaulis floerkii 78(2.2.2)

 t Pohlia sp. 105(2.3.2)

 t Polytrichum jumiperimum 8h(1.1.2)

 W Shytidionsis tobusta 78(3.3.2)

Td Sphagnum megallanicum 84(4.4.2)

ıbalpine	Lysic	hitum a	M30C1AT	1001 (<u>01</u> 1	anascyp	<u>a. 600</u>		
1.8	126	127	49	128	41	89	92 91 35 36	
1/5 27/7 1959	1/5 12/9 1961	1/5 13/9 1961	1/5 25/7 1960	1/5 13/9 1961	1/5 29/7 1960	3/40 31/8 1960	1/5 1/5 1/5 1/5 8/3 12/3 28/8 12/3 Sporadic spp., Lysichitum assoc. 1960 1960 1960	
							Pm Pimus monticola 49(+.3) RM RM RM RM RM RM RM R	
3000 N70W 27 6-4-1: 7	s60w 8				\$80W 25	4060 N30W 10 8-6-4 8	H Agrostis alba 128(+.1) H Armica latifolia U1(1.4.2) H Boykinia elata 128(+.2) H Caltha leptosepala 89(5.6.3) H Carex physocarpa 128(+.2) H Carex physocarpa 128(+.2) H Carex physocarpa 128(+.2) H Carex physocarpa 128(+.2) 3770 3865 1030 3575 N80W N50W N50W S10E 17 19 20 18 8-6-2 7-6-3 7-5-3 7-2-1 6 6 7 6	
10 8 35 45 10 65 65	65 }40 75 25 40 65	40 30 20 60 20 20 35	5 45 80 80 28 30 50	40 40 30 80 35 30 55) 35 30 55 18 25 45)20 15 30 25 30 40	G Equisetum palustre 89(5.4.3) H Gelium triflorum 128(1.1.2)) 35	
65 20 1 85	2 90	15 95	75 20 - 95	73	1 1 65	70 85 3 - 88	H Trientalis arctica 128(12) D layer (humicolous): Ht Cephalozia lencantha 126(12) t Diplophyllum taxifolium 18(12) Mt Lophozia porphyroleuca 41(12) To 83 80 56	
128 124 134 134 107	2 111 97 107 111	94 89 48 86	100 75 87	113 108 74	97 92 92	91 23 59	L Cladonia coniceraes 18(1.1.2) M Cratoneuron commutatum 89(2.2.2) Mt Blephar. trichophyllum 49(1.1.2) Pm Thuja plicata 128(1.+.2) L Cladonia tellidiflora 89(1.+.2) Pm Tsuga mertensiana 11(1.+.1)	
?	66	101	672 10	- 64 2	56 10	:	M. Scapania uliginosa 89(h.5.?) W. Rhytidiad. squarrosus 89(5.4.2) Td. Philonotis fontana 89(h.6.2) Mt. Heterocladium procurrens 128(1.2.2) Te. Drepsnocladus aduncus 69(3.4.2) 72 18 37 12	
100 28 50	? ? ?	55 ? ?	72 45 50	? ? ?	5 9l ₁ 66	100 65 10	W Hylocomium sflendens 49 (+.+) To Hygrohymum ochraceum 89 (3.2.2) M Hookeria lucens 126 (1.1.1) 10 15 27 9 - 25 56 -	Life
1.6.2	6.+.2	5.7.2 5.7.2	և.6.2 5.7.2	=	}4.7.3 3.7.2) 5.+.2 5.6.2	Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 2 Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 2 Sub- 1 Suga heterophylla Sub- 2 Sub- 2 Sub- 2 Sub- 2 Sub- 3 Sub- 2 Sub- 3 Sub- 2 Sub- 3 Sub- 3 Sub- 4 Suga heterophylla Sub- 2 Sub- 3 Sub- 3 Sub- 4 Sub- 4 Sub- 5 Sub- 5 Sub- 8 Su	
25 51,	25 56	50 110	120 136	:	65 113 2842	213 139 2388	81448 1934 կեն 26 1315կ 64 68 131 358 30 կ0 կ0 110	
	3160	2620	2879	-	204 %	2505	5 2 12h Pm Abies anabilis 1)5.7.2 5.7.2)5.7.2 - 5 2 81	
	18 1/57 1959 19 22 22 57 1500 1/4 3000 N70W 7 100 835 45 100 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65	18 126 1/5 1/5 27/7 12/9 1959 1961 SM H 19 22 19 23 22 57 123 11 1(2) 2 1500 1000 1/1 1/5 3000 2900 NTON 860W 27 8 6-1-1 5-2-1 7 6 10 65 835 140 45 75 10 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 65 7 101 121 97 104 107 107 107 107 107 107 107 107	18 126 127 1/5 1/5 1/5 1/5 27/7 12/9 13/9 1959 1961 1961 SM H H H 1/9 22 1/9 23 1/9 23 .22 57 123 11 123 11 1/20 1000 500 1/4 1/5 1/4 3000 2900 2930 NTOW \$60W \$40W SOW \$60W SOW \$60W \$40W SOW \$60W SOW \$6	18 126 127	18 126 127 49 128 1/5 1/5 1/5 1/5 1/5 1/5 27/7 12/9 13/9 25/7 13/9 1959 1961 1961 1960 1961 SM H H H SM H 1/9 22 19 23 19 23 19 22 19 23 22 57 123 11 123 11 122 57 123 11 1/2 1/5 1/4 1/3 1/2 3000 2900 2930 2900 2970 NTOW \$60W \$10W \$10W \$10W \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00 \$	18 126 127	18 126 127	1.15

Plot number	18	126	127	49	128	41	89				
	T							Pres.	Fid.		ITT-
Tsuga heterophylla, continued	35	65	35	80	95	20	_			c.d.	form
No. trees over 3 in./acre	77	84	<i>3</i> 5 97	9li	100	23	-				ļ
Basal area, sq. ft./ acre	2876	2948	2640	279h	5553	156					- 1
Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	20,10	2740	2040	2174	(233	1)0	-				1
Abies amabilis l	-	+.1	-	-	-)1. 2.3	-	5	2	113	Pm
2	+.2	6.7.1	-	+.1	5.7.1	\$4.7.I	-				ŀ
. 3	-	,	5.+.+	3.+.1	4.7.2	3.7.1	-				- 1
No. trees over 3 in./acre	55	125	90	40	90	100	-				!
Basal area, sq. ft./acre	21	52	14	112	36	60	-				- 1
Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	ft85	1526	154	872	770	1535	-				- 1
Tsuga mertensiana 1	4.+.2	+.1	+•?	2.+.3	+.2),)	5	2	Ŀ5	Pm
2	+.2	1	+.+	2.+.2	• -	34.7.2	52•+•I		_		ļ
3	4.6.1	\$2.7.1	-	2.+.2	-	4.7.1	+.+				- 1
No. trees over 3 in./acre	85	25	5	60	35	115	ħΟ				ı
Basal area, sq. ft./acre	1/2	25	. 26	52	25	. 68	126				1
Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	5854	770	692	1325	850	14,30	31.21				
Matala da Jadda anara Mara]										
Totals, including sporadics: No. trees over 3 in./acre	200.	230	200	305	275	300	295				1
Basal area, sq. ft./acre	32h	217	248	381	1,09	264	270				- 1
Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	10713	8108	6106	9869	9296	5963	5530				
											$\neg \neg$
B layer:											
**************************************					1,6,3	_	_	5	2	130	Pnd
Vaccinium alaskaense 1	7.8.2	5.6.1	5.6.2	4.7.2	4.7.3	4.6.2	1.3.2	,	•	1,0	****
Abies amabilis 1	3.6.2	4.6.2	5.6.1	2.+.1	4.+.1	4.7.2	3.+.1	5		93	Pan
2	3.6.2	3.+.+	3.6.1	4.6.2	2.+.+	2.+.1	1,+,+				
Cham. nootkatensis 1	1.+.1	1.+.+	1.+.+	4.6.2	1.+.+	1.+.2	5,6.2	5		61	Pm
2	+.1	-	1.+.+	1.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.1	5.6.2				- 1
Tsuga mertensiana 1	2.+.2	1.+.2	2.+.+	4.6.2	4.6.2	4.7.2		5		36	Pm
2	2.6.2	+.+	-	2.+.2	+•1	2.+.2	2.+.1	_	_		
Mensiesia ferruginea 1		1	a - -		3.6.3	260	0.1.3	5	2	33	Pnd
2	1.5.2	4-4-2	2.6.?	2.5.1 4.6.2	4.7.3	3.6.2	2.4.1	5		22	Pm
Tsuga heterophylla 1	2.+.2	2.+.2 1.+.J	1.+.+	3.6.2	1.+.+	1.+.1	_			22	
Vaccinium ovalifolium ?	1.5.1	10.03	-	,,,,,,,	1.5.2	2.5.1	3.4.1	3	2	6	Pnd
Cladothamms pyroleeflorus 1		_	_	-	+.3	+.3	-	3	2	5	Pnd
2	+.+.1	-	-	-	1.+.2	3.6.2		-			
Vaccinium membranaceum 2	1.5.1	-	+.+	-	-	2.5.2	2.4.2	3	2	2	Pnd
Rubus spectabilis 2	+.1	-	-	1.5.1	2.6.2	1.6.?	-	3	5	ļ	Pnd
Sorbus occidentalis 1	-		-	-	+•3	+.3	-	3	2	1	Pnd
	-	- +,+	<u> </u>		1.+.?	2.+.3					
C layer:											
•	١, ١									~"	ا ي
Lysichitum americanum	6.8.2	5.6.2	7.8.2	6.6.2	7.8.2	7.7.2	5.6.2	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	ļi,	266	G Ch
Rubus pedatus	4.3.2	4.3.3	4.6.2	4.3.3	2.2.2	3.4.2	1.+.2	2	2	ц6 3 6	G G
Clintonia uniflora Carex lasvioulmis	3.5.3	4-4-3	3.5.3	4.3.2	2.3.2	3.4.2	6.7.2	2	3	33	H
Veratrum eschecholtaii	3.3.2	1.+.+	1.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.2	4.5.2	3.4.2	Ŕ	3	ž	ő
Blechmum spicant	4.6.2	3.5.2	2.4.1	2.5.1	24.2	1.4.2	-	🗲	ź	18	H
Athyrium filix-femina	+.1	+.+	2.+.2	-	2.5.1	4.6.2	3,6,2	5	2	17	H
Streptopus roseus	3.3.3	1.+.2	2.+.2	· -	2.2.2	3.3.2	2.3.2	5	2	13	0
Streptopus amplexifolius	3.2.1	+.+	+.+	1.+.1	1.+.2	1.+.1	2.+.2	5	2	6	G
Vaccinium alaskaense	1.2.2	1.+.2	1.+.1	3.4.2	1.+.+	2.+.2	1.+.2	5		6	Pnd
Abies amabilis	1.3.2	2.+.+	2.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.2	1.+.1	2.+.1	5	_	4	Paz
Cormus canadensis	1.2.2	1.+.?	1.+.?	2.+.?	1,+,?	2.+.2	-	5	5	2	<u>С</u> ъ]
Tsuga heterophylla	1-4-3	2.+.+	2.+.1	+.+	1.+.?	1.+.1		2		2	Pas
Mensiesia ferruginea	+•1	1.+.?	:,	***	+.+	2.+.2	+.+	2	3	1	Pnd
Listera cordata	2 5.2	+.+ h = 3	+.1	+.1	**2	23.2		3.	5	27	н
Coptis asplenifolia	2.5.2	4.5.3	4.6.3		3.+.2	2.3.2	-	4		- 21	

					_				
		92	91	35	38	Dane .	P42.	Tat.	Life-
Abies amabilis, continu						11000	r TO		form
Adles amadiils, continu	ieu	50	35	45	5			0,544	
		129	134	65	ní				
		6398	6816	2467	540				
		0,550	0010	2401	,				
Thuja plicata	2	_	_	_	3.+.1	3	3	5	Pan
ruft]s britans	3	+.1	_	_	1.+.1		_	_	
	,	•	_	_					
		5	-	_	20				
		5	-	-	20 36	ĺ			
		10h	-	-	1190				
Tsuga mertensiana	1	-	1.+.3	}+•2	· -	3	2	5	Pm
· ·	2	-	3.+.2)'•'	-				
		1				ļ			
		-	15	5	-	ļ			
		-	61	131	-				
		-	2609	4590	-				
.		L .				١ .	1.		ъ.
Picea sitchensis	1	2.+.2	-	-	2.+.0	3	ų	1	Pm
	2		-	-	-	ĺ			
		5 53	-	-	-				
		23	-	-	-				
Petale including same	41.	<u>2500</u>							
Totals, including sport No. trees over 3 in./	TOTAL C	90	90	90	155				
Basal area, sq. ft. ac			263	327	5 79	l			
Gross volume, ou. ft.			11559	111458	28259				
-1000 (01000)						_			
B layer:									
	_					_ ا	_		
Oplopenax horridus	1	2.6.3	*•3	- - .		5	5	135	Pnd
	5	6.7.2	7.9.1	7.7.2	2.5.2	_ ا		70	n_ 4
Vaccinium alaskaense	2	4.6.2	5.6.2	5.6.2	4.6.2	5	2	60	Pnd
Abies amabilis	j	3.6.1	+.+	4.7.2	3.6.1	7		00	Pm
Vaccinium ovalifolium	2	3.6.1	3.+.1	3.+.1 1.+.1	5.7.1 2.+.+	-	•	7	Pod
Vaccinium ovalliciium Vaccinium membranaceum	2	2.4.2	3.5.2	1.4.2	+.+	5554	3		Pnd
Lonicera utahensis	2	(+.2)	1.+.2	+.1	1.+.2	1 4	ξ	_	Pnd
Ribes bracteesum	2	3.6.2		2.5.1	1.+.1	l ú	2 5 5	6	Pnd
Sorbus occidentalis	í	1.+.3	_	2,12		1	ź	ĭ	Pnd
201000 000140004410	2	2.5.3	1.+.1	_	+.+	~	_	_	
Mensiesia ferruginea	ī	2.+.3		_		L L	2	3	Pnd
	2	2.6.3	2.+.?	_	1.+.+	1	_	-	
Tsuga mertensiana	1	2.+.1	-	-	-	3		3	Pan
- 9	2	2.+.1	-	2.+.1	-	l '			
Rubus spotebilis	2	4.6.2	-	2.+.1	-	3	_ 3	11	Pnd
C layer:		1				Ì			
Athyrium filix-femina		5.7.3	4.6.2	5.7.2	1.5.2	5	3	60	Ħ
Cymnocarpium dryopteria	3	4.5.2	5.6.2	4.4.2	3.4.2	5	5	50	G
Streptopus roseus	-	5.4.1	3.4.2	4.5.2	3.6.3	5	3 2 3 2	45	G.
Tiarella unifoliata		3.3.2	4.4.2	3.3.2	3. 2. 2	5	3	න්	H
Clintomia uniflora		4.5.2	1.+.2	1.+.2	4.4.2	J 5	2	20	O.
Viols glabella		3.3.2	3.5.3	3.3.3	+•2	5	3	15	H
Abies amabilie		2.+.1	1.+.1	3.+.1	3.+.1	5		11	Pa
Oplopener horridus		3.5.2	2.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.2	5		6	Pnd
Streptopus amplexifolia	18	3-4-3	2.+.3	1.+.2	1.+.?	5	3	6	G.
Rubus pedatus		3-3-2	1.5.?	1.2.2	2.+.?	5	2	6	Ch
					+.1		2	<	0
Verstrum eschecholtsii		3.+.2	1.+.1	2.+.1			•	•	•
		2.3.2	1.+.?	1.3.2	2.2.2	Ś	ş	805588516665°	Ch
Verstrom eschecholtsii						5	2 2 3 2	2 2	

Plot number	18	126	127	49	1.28	43	89	Pres.	Fid.		
C layer, continued:	1							1		c.d.	form
Cymnocarpium dryopteris	2.5.2	2.5.2	-	-	3.4.2	4.5.2	1.2.2	4	2	17	G
Tiarella unifoliata	+.2	-	1.+.2	+.?	3.5.2	2.2.2	-	14	2	6	H
Tiarella trifoliata	1.5.2	-	1.+.2	1.3.2	3.5.2	+.2	-	4	2	5	H
Streptopus streptopoides	1.+.2	-	1.+.1	2.+.2	2.+.2	2.3.2	-	4	2	3	H
Habenaria saccata	+.1	-	+.1	-	+•2	1.+.3	2.+。?	4	3	1	G
Chame nootkatensis	-	-	1.+.2	+.1	1.+.+	1.+.1	2.+.2	1		1	Pm
Valeriana sitchensis	-	-	-	-	4.5.2	4.5.2	2.3.2] 3	2	5,	H
Viola glabella	-	-	-	-	4.6.3	2.5.2	3.4.2] 3	2	16	н
Parmassia fimbriata	-	~-	-	-	1.2.2	1.2.3	4.4.5	3	2	10	Н
Senecio triangularis	-	-	-	-	1.+.1	1.+.?	3.3.2		2	5	H
Rubus spetabilis	_	+.+	- - -	-	+•+	+•5	-	3	_	-	Pnd
Maianthemum dilatatum	-	+.1	1.+.1	-	1.+.2			3	2	-	G.
Mitella pentandra	-	-	-	-	1.+.3	+.1	1.+.1	3	2		H
Leptarrhena pyrolifolia	-	-	-	-	-	1.+.2	5.3.3	2	1	25 15	H
Epilobium alpinum	-	-	-		-	+.1	3.2.2	2	2	2	G
Linnaea borealis	-	-	-	3.11.2	-	+.2		2	2	2	Ch
Erigeron peregrinus	-	-	25.0	-	0 3 0	1.+.1	3.3.2	?	1	3	H
Nephrophyllidium crista-galli		-	2.5.?	-	2.3.2	- .		5	3	2	H
Agrostis aequivalvis	-	-	-			+.+	2.+.2	2	S	3.	H
Goodyera oblongifolia	-	-	-	+.1	+.1 +.+	1 4 1	-	2	2	-	H
Osmorhiza purpurea	1 -	-	-	-		1.+.1	_	2	2	-	H
Saxifraga arguta	-	-	-	+.+	1.+.2	-	1.+.1	2	2	-	Ch
Lycopodium clavatum Carer «pectabilis	1 -	-	_		+•2	+.+	1+.2	2	2	-	H
Gaultheria ovalifolia	1 _		_	_	_	+ 2	1.2.2	2	2	_	Ch
Pyrola secunda	-	-	-	1.+.1	+.1	- *		2	2	-	Ch
Melica smithii	_	_	-		-	+.+	1,+,2	2	2	_	H
D layer (humicolous):											
Miniam nuchum	5.6.3	5.5.3	6.7.3	5.5.3	7.7.3	6.6.3	-	5	3	191	Te
Rhytidiadelphus loreus	3.2.2	5.6.3	4.6.3	5.3.?	5.6.3	3.4.2	2.3.2	מימימ	3	96	W
Rhytidiopsis robusta	2.3.2		2,3,1	6.6.2	4.5.2	3.4.2	_	5	2	60	W
Plagiothecium undulatum	2.3.2	4.4.2	5.6.2	2.2.+	4.3.2	+.+	-	5	3	47	M
Sphagnum squarrosum	-	5.6.2	3.6.3	2.5.3	3.6.3	3.5.2	1.2.2	5	4	41	Td
Dicramum fuscescens	3.3.2	3.3.2	2.3.1	4.4.2	3.3.2	3.3.2	3.3.2	55555	2	36	Te
Pellia epiphylla	3.2.2	1.2.2	1.2.2	2.5.2	2.2.2	4.5.2	2.+.2	5	3	18	Th
Abies amabilis	2.+.1	2.+.1	2.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.1	-	5		4	Pm
Plagiothecium elegans	3.3.2	1.3.2	2.2.2	-	2.2.2	+.+	-	4	2	7	M
Mnium spirulosum	-	3.3.2	2.2.2	1.2.2	1.3.2	•	1.2.2	l ₁	3	6	Te
Isuga heterophylla	-	1.+.+	1.+.1	3.1.+	+.1	-	-	3		5	Pm
Brachythecium asperrimum	-	-	2.2.2	2.2.2	2.2.2	-	-	3	2	3	M
ophocolea heterophyllm	+.2	-	-	2.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	3	2	Ĵ.	Mt
Cephalozia media	1.1.2	2.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	3	?	1	Mt
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis	-	+.+	+.+	+.+	+.+	-	-	3		-	Ph
Plagiochila asplenioides	-	1.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	1.1.2	-	3	?	-	Te
cpidozia reptans	1.2.2	1.2.1	-	-	-	1.2.2	-	3	. 2	-	Mt
capania bolanderi	-	1.1.1	-	1.1.2	-	+,+	-	3	2	-	M
Calypogeia trichomanis	-	1.1.2	1.1.2	-	-	1.1.2	1.2.2	3	2	-	Mt
inium punctatum	-	-	-	-	-	1.+.1	7.6.3	2	2	50	Te
repanocladus fluitans	-	-	-	-	-	1.1.2	4.3.2	2	2	10	Te
Aurhynchium stokesii	-	-	-	3.5.2	3.3.2	•	, -	2	2	10	Mt
ampyllium stellatum	-	-	-	-	-	2.2.2	2.2.2	2	5	2	Td
onocephalum conicum	-	-	-	-	2.3.2	•	2.2.2	?	3	2	Th
hypnum circinale	-	-	-		-	2.2.2	2.2.2	2	5	?	M
icramum scoperium	-	-	5.5.5	1.3.2	-	•	-	. 5	2	1	Te
leurozium schreberi	-	-	-	+.+	-	2.2.2	-	2	2	1	W
azzania ambigua		2.2.3	-	1.1.2	-	-	=	2	2	ı	M
phagmum girgensohnii	2.6.2	-	-	1.2.2	-	-	-	2	3	1	Td
ephalozia lammersiana	1.2.2	-	-	- -	-	1.2.2	-	2	?	-	Mt
Plagiothecium denticulatum		+•2		1.1.2	-	-	-	2	2	-	М
lyprum dieckii	1.2.2	-	1.2.2	-	-		.:	2	3	-	M
Bryum sandbergii		-	_	_	-	1.3.2	1.1.2	2	2	-	Te
Calypogeia neesiana	1.1.2			-		1.1.2	1	2	2	-	Mt

92	91	35	38	res.	rid.		Life-
1						C.Q.	10170
2.+.1	1.+.1	1.+.2	2.+.2	5		2	Pnd
2.+.2	1,+,1	1.+.+	1.+.3	5	2	1	G
1.+.1	1.+.2	1.+.1	1.+.l	5		-	Pnd
+.1	+.1	+.+	+.1	5	2	_	G.
2.+.2	2.2.2	-	5.4.3	4	5	27	Ch
2.4.1	3.3.2	4.5.3	-	14	2	16	H
3.+.3	-	+.3	+.2	L	2	5	G
2.+.2	+.1	-	1.+.1	4		ì	Pnd
+.+	1.+.2	-	1.+.2	L L	3	_	Ch
3.+.2	-	-	+ +	3		5	Pnd
	-	_		3	2	2	Ch
-	-	1.+.1		3		_	Pm
1.+.3	-		-	3	2	1	H
	1.+.2		-			_	Pnd
-			1.+.2	3		-	Pnd
3.5.2	3.5.2	3.4.2	4.3.2	5	2	25	W Te
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				é	2		M
				2			M
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			1				Mt
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l _			_	3		ו	Th
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			_	á	2		Mt
	_		- 1			_	t
	_		-	จ์			
	2.+.2 1.+.1 2.+.2 2.4.1 3.+.3 2.+.2 2.3.3 1.+.3 1.6.2 2.3.5.2 2.4.1 2.3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 2.3.3 3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 2.3.2 4.1 3.5.2 4.1 3.5.2 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1	2.+.? 1.+.1 1.+.1 1.+.2 1.+.1 2.+.2 2.2.2 2.4.1 3.3.2 3.+.3 - 2.+.2 +.1 1.+.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 2.+.1 1.+.1 2.1.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 2.2.2 2.2.2 6.6.3 - 1.1.2 2.2.2 2.2.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2	2.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.+ 1.+.1 1.+.2 1.+.1 2.+.2 2.2.2 - 2.h.1 3.3.2 h.5.3 3.+.3 - 2.+.2 +.1 - 4.+ 1.+.2 - 3.+.2 - 2.3.3 - 1.+.3 - 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 1.+.3 - 1.+.2 +.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.h.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.h.2 2.1.2 2.h.2 1.1.2 2.+.1 1.+.1 3.+.1 2.3.2 2.h.2 1.1.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2	2.*.2 1.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 1.*.1 1.*.2 1.*.1 1.*.1 2.*.2 2.2.2 - 5.½.3 2.½.1 3.3.2 ½.5.3 - 3.*.3 2.½.2 *.1 - 1.½.1 1.*.1 1.*.2 - 1.½.2 2.3.3 - 2.3.3 1.*.3 - 2.¾.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 1.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.3 - 2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.4 1.*.2 1.3.2 12 2.3.2 2.½.2 3.½.2 3½.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 2.½.1 1.*.1 1	2.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1 1.+.3 5 1.+.1 1.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1 5 2.+.2 2.2.2 - 5.4.3 4 2.4.1 3.3.2 4.5.3 - 3 2.4.1 3.3.2 4.5.3 - 3 3.+.3 - +.3 +.2 4 3.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1 3 1.+.1 1.+.2 - 1.+.2 4 3.+.2 2.3.3 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.4 1.+.2 - 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.2 +.2 1.+.2 3 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1.1.3 1.1.3 1.1 1.1.3 1.1 1.1.3 1.1 1.1	2.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1 1.+.3 5 2 1.+.1 1.+.2 1.+.1 1.+.1 5 2.+.2 2.2.2 - 5.4.3 4 2 2.+.1 3.3.2 1.5.3 - 3 4 2 2.+.2 2.2.2 - 5.4.3 4 2 2.+.2 1.+.1 - 1.+.1 4 2 2.+.2 1.+.2 - 1.+.2 4 3 3.+.2 - 1.+.2 4 3 3 2.3.3 - 2.3.3 3 2 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.2 - 3.4 3 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 - 3 1.+.2 - 3.3 3 1.+.3 - 3.4 3 3 1.+.3 - 2.+.1 5 2.3.2 2.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 2.+.1 1.+.1 3.+.1 5 2.3.2 2.5.2 2.5.2 3.5.2 2.1.2 2.1.2 - 3 2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 2.1.3 2.5.2 2.1.1 5 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 2.5.3 2.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 2.5.3 2.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.2 3.5.	2.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.2 2.*.2 5 2 1 1.*.1 1.*.2 1.*.1 1.*.1 5 1.*.1 1.*.2 1.*.1 1.*.1 5 1.*.2 2.2.2 5.1.3 1 2 27 2.1.1 3.3.2 1.5.3 3.*.3 3.*.3 3.*.3 1.*.1 1.*.2 1.*.1 1.*.1 1 1.*.1 1.*.1 1 1.*.1 1.*.2 1 2.*.2 2.2.2 1.1.2 1.1.2 1 2.3.3 1.*.2 1.*.2 1.*.2 3 1.*.2 1.*.2 1.*.2 3 1.*.2 1.*.2 1.*.2 1 2.3.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.2 2.1.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.3 1.*.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.4 1.*.1 1.*.1 5 1.*.2 1.*.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.3 1.*.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.3 1.*.2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.4 1.*.1 1.*.1 1.*.1 5 1.*.5 2 1.1.2 2.1.1 5 3 1.*.5 2 1.1.2 1.3.2 1.*.5 2 1.1.2 2.3.2 1 2 2 2 2.2.2 2.2.2 1.1.

Sporadic species:

A layer:

Pm Pseudotsuga menziesii 38(4.+.1)

B layer:

Pnd Ribes lacustre 92(3.6.2)

C layer: Adenocaulon bicolor 38(+.1) Agrostis alba 92(1.+.1) Carez laeviculmis 92(1.+.1) Corallorhiza mertensiana 38(+.+) Luzula parviflora 91(+.1) Lysichitum americanum 92(1.+.+) Mitella pentandra 92(1.+.1) Moneses uniflora 38(1.+.2) Ch Polystichum munitum 38(+.+) Pm Pseudotsuga menziesii 38(+.+) Pra Sambucus pubens 92(+.1) Senecio triangularis 35(2.4.2)

C layer, continued:

H Stellaria crispa 92(+.1)
Pm Thuja plicata 38(+.1)

Pnd Vaccinium cvalifolium 91(+.2)

D layer (humicolous):
Mt Lophocoloa heterophylla 92(1.1.2)
M Plagiothecium elegans 91(2.2.2)
L Cladonia bellidifiora 92(+.+)
M Plagiothecium denticulatum 35(+.2)
M Brachythecium asperrimum 35(1.1.2)

W Rhytidiadelphus squarrosus 35(+.2) Mt Lophozia porphyroleuca 35(1.1.2) Mt Heterocladium procurrens 91(2.2.2) t Dicrenella heteromalla 91(2.2.2)

M Baszania ambigua 35(1.1.2) t Pohlia mutans 35(+.2) t Polytrichum juniperimum 91(1.1.2)

Te Pogonatum urnigerum 35(1.3.2)
M Hookeria lucens 91(2.1.2)

Te Pogonatum contortum 91(1.2.2)
Te Pogonatum alpinum 92 (+.2)

SYNTHESIS TABLE VI Vaccinium membranaceum - Rhododendron association (Teugeto - Vaccinietum membranacei)

1ot number	39	80	110	120	67	57	60	64	119				
Plot size (acre) Date	1/5 23/8 1960	1/5 25/8 1960	1/5 5/8 1961	1/5 22/8 1961	1/5 24/8 1960	1/20 12/8 1961	1/10 12/8 1961	1/10 11/8 1961	1/10 21/8 1961	-			
ocality (see legend) atitude ongitude	123 02	123 02		49 48 122 59		122 59	123 00	49 47 123 00	122 59				
Landform (see legend) Slope above (est. ft.) Area of assoc. (acre)	75 1	75 1	3 1	75 2	3 1/5	100 1/20	3 1/2	3 1/5	1				
Altitude (ft.) Aspect Llops (degrees) Wind exposure (A-B-C) Show cover (months)	4600 W 27 8-5-3 8	4600 W 25 8-6-4 8)	3880 flat 8-5-2 72	4700 \$605 44 8-6-3 8 2	4840 flat 8-3-1	4850 W 25 9-8-7 8	5000 flat - 9-7-3 8	5060 S 6 9-7-3 81/2	5600 SLOE 10 9-8-7 9				
Coverage: By vegetation layer A1 A2 A3 A B1 B2 C DH DL DR D)30 35 45 90 92 8 40 4	15 20 22 50 25 85 90 85 90 85 3	75 20 80 7 80 85 4 70 1 2	35 40 50 55 80 95 3 8	25 30 55 30 80 90 10 11 14	40 60 70 75 75 75 20 65 1	50 80 80 70 70 4 8	45)60 80 25 80 90 6 5 2) 10 10 55 70 60 20 1				
By decayed wood By rock Callest tree on plot (ft.)	8 1	6 2	3 4	3 12	10 1	10	20	10	10		•		
Western hemlock Mountain hemlock Amabilis fir Yellow cedar Regeneration (no./sq. meter):	82 57 62	88 70 ?	57 75 60 58	103 101	81 67	82 80	72 62	63 60	34 22**				
Mountain hemlock Amabilis fir Yellow cedar	1 2	2	28 19 9	-	:	5	:	-	:				
Total soil depth (cm.) Depth to bottom of Ah (cm.) Depth to seepage, if present	76 15	38 21	?	75 10 -	14 14	61 6	35 -	57 30	50 10 -				
Remarks									Alpine	Pres.	R4.	Tot.	TA fe
layer: Sub-		-		****		***************************************				1100			form
Isuga mertensiana 1 2 3 No. trees over 3 in./acre	6.7.2 5.7.2 155	5.7.3 5.7.2 4.7.2	3.+.1	5.7.2	5.7.2 5.7.2 5.7.2 255	37.8.1	37.8.1			5	2	601	Pm
Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	188 3153	224 5023	264	11,7 3003	234 5060	?	3	?	?				
Abies amabilis 2 3 No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre	}+.+ 4.+.1 85 43	+.1 3.+.1 4.7.1 100 53	3.+.1 70		3.+.1 5.7.2 5.7.2 180 104	35	١	3.+.1.)5.+.1 70 ?	•	5	2	240	Pm
Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	51.7	997			1741		?	?	-				
Chamaecyparis nootkatensis 1 2 3 No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre	10.+.+ 10.38	2.+.+ 30 58	20	-	:	-	-	:	-	2	1	31	Pm
Gross volume, cu. ft./scre Totals, including sporadics:	709	988	331				-		-				_
No. trees over 3 in./acre Basal area, sq. ft./acre Gross volume, cu. ft./acre	77703 563 580	250 335 7008	347	323		-	155	175	230			····	
9 layer:													
Vaccinium membranaceum 2 Tsuga mertensiana 1	2.6.2	4.+.1	2.+.+	4.6.1	5.7.2	+.+	5.7.3 4.7.1	4.6.1	7.6.+		3	335 144	Pnd Pm
Abies amabilis 1	3.6.1		4.+.+		4.7.2		+.+	1.+.1 4.6.1 2.+.1		5		68	Pm
Rhododendron albiflorum 1	7-8-3	1.+.1 2.6.3 6.7.3	-	2.6.3	1.+.+	-	7.8.3	2.*.1	3.6.2	ų	4	298	Pnd
Vaccinium deliciosum 2 Vaccinium ovelifolium 2		2.6.3	-	-	7.7.3 2.6.2 +.+	5.5.2				14	5	63 15	Pno Pno

SYNTHESIS TABLE VI,	continu	ed	<u>Vaccini</u>	um memb	ranaceu	ım - Rho	dodendr	on asso	ciation	ا •				
Plot mumber		39	80	110	120	67	57	6 0	64	119	Pres.	Fid.		Life
B layer, continued:	Sub-									L	<u> </u>		0.00	10111
Vaccinium alaskaense	2		5.6.2	5.7.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1	50	Pnd
Chamaecyparis nootkatensi	s 1	1.+.+		+.+	-	-	-	-	-	-	2		20	Pm
	2	4.+.?		1.+.+		-	-	-	-	-	2	1	_	Pnd
Menziesia ferruginea	2	-		+,+	1.5.2						2			rna
C layer:														
Phyllodoce empetriformis		1.2.1		1.2.1	+.+	1.3.2		1.3.2	3.5.2	6.6.2		2	48	Pne
Vaccinium deliciosum		4.+.1	4.5.2	-	1.+.+			2.2.2	2.6.2	3.3.2			37	Pnd
Vaccinium membranaceum		3.2.2	3.3.2	2.+.+	2.+.2		3.+.?	3.+.2	2.3.2	4.4.1		_	3/1	Pnd
Cassiope mertensiana		1.+.+	+.+	-	-	1.+.+		1.3.1	+•+	5.5.2		2	25	Pne
Luetkea pectinata		2.+.1	-	-	-	1.+.1				3.2.3		2	11	Ch
Abies amabilis		1.+.+	2.+.1	2.+.1	1.+.+	-	1.+.+	+.+	2.+.+	-	14		3	Pm
Rubus pedatus		2.+.1	3.2.2	+.+	-	-	1.+.1	-	-	2.+.1	3	2	7	Ch
Tsuga mertensiana		+.+	-	-	+.+	-	-	+.+	+.+	-	3		-	Pm
Rhododendron albiflorum		-	2.+.1	1.+.+	-	-	-	-	-	-	2		1	Pnd
Chamaecyparis nootkatensi	.5	1.+.1	1.+.1	+.1	-	-	-	•	-	-	2		-	Pm
Sorbus occidentalis		+.+	1.+.+	-	-		-				2			Pnd
D layer (humicolous):														
Rhytidiopsis robusta		4.3.2	3.4.2	6.6.3	2. 2.+	2.2.2	1.2.1	2.4.1	1.3.+	-	5 5	2	51	W
Orthogaulis floerkii		4.3.2	3.4.2	2.1.2	1.1.+	4.3.2	2.+.1	1.2.2	2.1.1	3.2.2	5	2	33	Mt
Dicramum fuscescens		-	-	6.6.3	4.3.2	_	7.6.2	4.5.2	3.5.2	4.4.1		2	118	Te
Cladonia bellidiflora		-	-	2.1.2	1.+.+	2.2.2	-	_	1.1.2	2.1.2		2	3	L
Crocynia membranacea		1.+.1	1.+.1		-	+.2	-	+.?	-	2.2.2		2	1	L
Cladonia carneola		1.+.1	_	-	-	1.+.1	-	+.2	2.2.2	-	3	2	1	L
Cladonia pleurota			1.+.1	-	-	1.+.1	-	+.?	2.1.2	-	3	2	1	L
Dicramum scoparium		5.5.3	5.5.3	_	-	5.6.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	75	Te
Abies amabilis		+.+	-	2.+.1	-	-	1.+.+	-	-	-	2		_	Pan
Chamaecyparis nootkatensi	.5	1.+.1	-	1.+.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2		-	Pm
Ptilidium pulcherrimum		1.1.?	1.1.?	+.+	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	Mt
Knium spinulosum		+.+	+.?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	Te
Plagiothecium elegans		-	-	-	2.1.1	-	1.2.2	-	-	-	2	2	-	M
Hypmum circinale		1.1.2	1.1.?	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	M
Plagiothecium denticulatu	ım	-	+•?		-	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	M
Lescuraea baileyi		-	1.1.?	-	-	1.3.2	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	Mt
Rhacomitrium heterostichu	am.	-	-	1.3.2	1.1.1	-		-	-	-	2	2	-	Te
Cetraria islandica		-	1.2.2	-	-		3.1.2	-	-	-	2	2	-	L
Brachythecium sp.		-	+.2	-	-	+.2	-	-	+.?	-	2	2	-	M
Bryum sp.		-	-	-	_	-	1.1.1	1.4.2	-	-	2	2	-	Te
Pohlia nutans		-	1.1.2	-	-	-	-	1.1.?	-	-	2	2	-	t
Barbilophozia lycopodicid	les		1.2.2	-	-	-	-	-		-	5	2	-	Mt
Cladonia squamosa		1.1.1	1.+.?	-	-	-	-	-	1.2.2	-	2	2	-	L

Sporadic species:

- A layer:
- Pm Abies lasiocarpa 119(h.6.+)
 Pm Pirms monticola 110(+.+)
 Pm Tsuga heterophylla 110(+.+)
- B layer: Pm Abies lasiocarpa 119(4.6.+)
- C layer:
 G Clintonia uniflora 39(1.+.1)
 G Corallorhisa mertensiana 110(+.1)
 - Ch Gaultheria humifusa 110(1.3.2)

 - Ch Lymopodium sitchense 119(1-2-2)
 H Streptopus roseus 120(1-+-1)
 Pnd Vaccinium alaskaense 110(2-+-+)
 - G Veratrum eschscholtzii 39(+.+)

- D layer, humicolous:

 Ht Blepharostoma trichophyllum 67(1.+.+)
 L Cladonia rangiferina 39(+.+)
 t Diplophyllum plicatum 80(1.1.2)
 Ht Lophosia porphyroleuca 80(1.1.2)
 Te Plagiochila asplenioides 39(+.+)
 W Pleurosium schreberi 110(1.1.2)
 Te Pogomatum alpinum 80(1.2.2)
 t Polytrichum piliferum 119(1.1.2)
 L Stereocaulon tomentosum 67 (1.1.2)
 Pm Tsuga mertensiana 110(+.+)

SYNTHESIS TABLE VII Dwarf Tsuga association(Nano-Tsugetum mertensianae)

Plot number	(subass 30		l subas o-tsuge 121			anae)	10 (an p: T	etkea ssoc. 61	ubasso Luetkee 69	tosum p	ectinai 100	<u>:ae</u>)					
Plot size (acre) Date	1/5 24/8 1959	1/20 16/8 1961	1/40 22/8 1961	1/40 20/9 1960	1/20 17/8 1961			1/40 8/9 1960	1/20 7/9 1960	1/40 24/8 1960	1/40 30/8 1960	1/40 20/9 1960	B 1s	adic spe			n	20/2 6
Locality (see legend) Latitude Longitude Landform (see legend)	SM 49 23 122 57			0 149 24 123 05 2	RM 49 47 122 59 2			122 57		RM 49 46 123 02 2	RM 49 46 123 02 2	2	Pn Cla H H		ium ove spicar pyrena:	elifo et 40 log 3	lium (+.+) 0(+.1	30(+ _* 1)
Slope above (est. ft.) Area of assoc. (acre)	3/4	500 1/20	300 1/10	1/30	500 1/10			90 1/5	70 1	300	200 1/8	250 1/5	H Pn	d Mensie	drumme sia fer	mdii rrugi	. 30(+ .nea 3	.1) 0(+.+)
Altitude (ft.) Aspect Slope (degrees) Wind exposure (A-S-C) Snow cover (months) \$ coverage:	4015 \$80E 10 0-8-6 7	5000 E 15 0-3-5 8½	5100 520W 23 0-8-2 8	Щ00 N60W 16 0-8-5 8	14750 \$15W 7 0-8-6 81			3313 N308 13 0-6-4 7	5050 W 26 0-6-5 8 1 2	4820 N 7 0-6-5	47 <i>2</i> 5 N50W 22 0-7-5 8 1	14230 N50B 30 0-6-14 8 1 2	H Ch Dlag Pm Mt	Rubus yer (hum Abies a Calypog	aga fer pedatus icolous mabilis eia sp.	rugi 30(97(69(nea 3 1.+.1 +.+) 2.1.2	0(+.1))); 100(+
By vegetation layer B1 82 B C DH DL DR	80 80 35 50	15 60 70 85 70	20 70 80 45 15	85 85 80 70	1 60 60 85 70			55 55 90 60	50 50 50	40 40 95 60	20 20 70 70	2 8 10 95 1	L L L t	Cephalo Cladoni Cladoni Cetrari Dichodo Dicrami Lecidia	a conic a rangi a islan ntium c n scope granul	ocrae Lferi dica olymp crium Losa	a 69(na 40 69(3 ioum 30(2 61(1.	3.+.2) (2.3.1) .+.1) 61(5.4.2 .3.2) 1.2)
By decayed wood By rock	60 1 20	70 1	17 8	80 - 30	70 - -			60 - 2	50 - -	60 -	75 - 30	? - 1	Ht Te Mt	Cymnomi Mnium n Nardia	trium v udum 10 scalari	7aria 20(1. 10 61	ns 11 1.7) (1.1.	6(1 . 2.2) 2)
Regeneration (no./sq. meter):			none -							- none			W Te	Oligotr Pleuros Pogonat	ium sci um slpi	rebe mun	ri 40 40(1.	(1.1.2) 2.2)
Total soil depth (cm.) Depth to bottom of Ah (cm.) Depth to seepage, if present	- 148	24 3 -	? ? ?	51 5	40			60 10 46	55 5	36 12	60 2 5	82 8 ?	t	Polytri Polytri clation	chan no	orve g	icum	69(1.2.2
Sub-							ociation Char. c.d.							Char. c.d.				Life- form
Tsuga mertensiana	5.6.1 7.7.1 2.6.2 3.5.2 2.+.2 2.+.1 1.5.1	5.6.1 8.8.1 2.4.2	5.6.1 8.7.1 4.5.3 1.+.1	9.8.+	8.7.+	3 1 2 2	91 l ₄ 5 1	7.6.+	7.7.+	7.6.1	5.5.1	1.5.+	1	37 - 1 1	5 2 2 2	2 1	640 15 5 2 2	Prad Prad Prad Prad Pra
Abies amabilis 1	1.*.*	=	=	-	-	1	•	7.+	:	-	:	÷.,	2	-	2	1	-	Pna
Pimus monticola 2 C layer:	+•0	-	-	-		1	-	+.+					1	•	2	1		Pm
Phyllodoce empetriformis Cassiops mertensiana Lustica pectinata Touga mertensiana Vaccinium delicinsum Deschampeia atropurpurea Lycopodium sitchense Vaccinium membranaceum Hippuris montana Chamaecyparis nootkatensis Sorbus occidentalis Hisracium gracile Carex nigricans Veratrum eschecholtsii Abbies manbilis Gaultberta humfusa Erigeron peregrimus D layer (humicolous):		6.7.3 3.4.2 5.4.2 3.4.2	+.2	6.6.3 7.6.3 4.+.2 4.+.+ 1.+.+ 1.+.+ 2.3.2 2.+.+ - - +.+ 1.3.2	7.7.3 2.2.3 5.5.+ 1.3.1 +.1	55555	28 29 4 12 8 - 4	8.7.3 7.6.3 4.3.2 3.+.+ 1.3.2 1.+.1 3.3.2 12.2 1.+.+	7.7.3 3.3.2 5.3.+ 2.+.1 2.+.2	7.6.3 7.6.3 3.2.2 4.4.2 4.3.1 1.+.1 2.+.1 1.+.+	1.2.1 3.4.3 7.7.3 6.3.1 1.+.1 2.+.2 1.+.+ 6.7.3 2.+.+ 4.3.?	8.8.3 1.4.4 3.6.1 6.6.3 1.4.4	55523532121	43 39 29 15 7 5 -	**************************************	2 2 3 2 4 2 2 3 2 1 1 2 1	316 299 168 125 66 35 32 67 1	Proc Ch Proc Ch Prod H Ch Prod H Prod H H G Prod H H G H H H G H H H H H H H H H H H H
Orthocaulis floerkii Dicramma fuscescens Rhacomitrium heterostichum Cladonia bellidiflora Kiseria falcata Kiseria falcata Kiseria falcata Kiseria falcata Crocynie membranecea Cladonia pleurota Cladonia pleurota Cladonia squamosa Rhacomitrium varium Lophozia porphyroleuca Rhacomitrium canescens Pellia neesiana Pohlia drummondii Steroccaulon tomentosum Marsupella sparsifolla Hampanthus scutatus Plaglothecium denticulatum Diplophyllum taxifolium Diplophyllum taxifolium Diplophyllum plicatum Ansstretta orcadensis	2.3.1	2.2.2 1.2.1 3.2.2 2.2.2 1.3.2 1.1.2 7.5.3 - 1.1.2 2.4.2 2.2.2 2.2.2	2.1.2	5.3.2 6.5.2 1.1.+ 1.3.2 2.3.1 3.3.2 1.2.2	2.3.2 2.3.2 3.4.2 1.2.2	3323242421	13 11 25 2 7 1 1 1 1 1 - 2	3.2.2 5.2.2 2.2.2	3.2.2	4.3.2 5.3.2 2.+.1 2.2.2 2.2.2 2.2.2 1.1.2 4.2.2	4.4.2	3.2.2 4.1.2 1.1.2 1.2.2	331312002 121112111111111111111111111111	19 11 12 1 13 110 2 1 1 - 17 25. 5 5 1 1 - 17	NOVONON NONUMBERTAN	222222222222222222222222222222222222222	143 88 111 7 53 13 9 7 1 55 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35 35	Mtoe TL t t WLL L TH t Th t L t th M t t th

7	a	61.85 861.80	14 000 12 12 12 14 0 14 0 14 0 14 0 14 0	1630 N708 0-0-1: 94	111220				3.3	3.2.2 1.2.2 +.1	4.2.3	2.4.2	<u>~, ;</u>	<u>.</u>	2.1.2		32.25	21.	(7.7.1) 1(1.1.2.2) (1.2.2) mune
101ml	72 1	1/20		5100 L N. WOON 10-0-0	11120	121	none		. ::				٠		3,3,1 2			3,1,2	nloeum 76 zata sp.51 nutans 54 tehum com 76(2.2.2)
Sadfragetum tolmie	63	2/2 2/5 1560	⊢ ``	7100 860¥ 9-0-7	11168,	- 1 <i>%</i> 1	χ			ı ığı			 }÷.,		N.		e e	٦.	grum plumilosum 76(7.) Mt Cephalosia so,54(1.) t Pohlia mitans 54(1.) Te Polytrichum commun 76(2.2.2)
	Ļ		<u> </u>									· · · · · ·							Sphagmu •2) Nt (2) t P •2) Te
Polytrichetum norvegici	€.	1,000 1,000 1,000	12.2 59 12.2 59 11.2 50 11.2 50	2000	1,138	1111	655 6	-	7.b.2	, , ; ,	2.2.2	111	÷ 1 1	•	2.2.2	3.1.2	, , ,		58(1.2 68(1.2 24(3.2 24(4.3)
Polyto	Ħ	16/8	122 59 172 59 172 59	14750 0-0-5	1115g		<u> </u>		8.6.3 2.4.2	2.3.2	***		111		8.5.3 4.5.2	1.1.2	• • •	2.3.2	
	ĺ				• •			Tot. Life.	H H H		5 E &	Enz	≖ o E	=	ام به جه جه	, <u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>	1 ± 4 1	2 2 2	er (humicolous); Anastrepta orcadensii Opmoratirium varians Pleuroglada albescen Orthogalits floeridi
intis)								Fid. To]			7.7. 2.8.3	- 1			layer (hur Mt Anastre Mt Oymnomi Mt Pleuroc Mt Orthod
ntgrice		C=10	vo 64	10 10				<u>.</u>	-0	~~~ ~~~~	0 m 0				20-21	2.1			u garre
1cetum	92	1960	123 02 123 02 124 164 176	679	11100		22 23		2.4.3	3.54			• • •	•	~	2		• • •	÷ ÷ • €
(e) (e)	23	1,750	122 55 172 55 172 55 173 55 17	2-0-0 1 5-0-0 1	11182		5.		2 9.8		2 2 2 7			•	m n	1,	• • •	• • •	assoc. Ch Lycopodium sitchense 5 Pm feuga mertensiana 65(+
ssociati	65	07/1 09/1 09/51	123 00 100 100 100 1/20	5000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000	11482		- non- - 520		3 3 7.2	Rund			• • •	1	2 7.6.3	1		• • •	dium si
cans a	88	0/1 0/2 0/2 0/2 0/2 0/2	8 1/2 1/6 0 1/3 03 0 1/3 04 1/10	5 500 5 9 5 5	11188		2001		2 9.9.3				111		ν.=			• • •	assoc. Ch Lycopo Pa fsuga
Carex <u>nigricans</u> association (<u>Caricetum nigricantis</u>)	젃	3/30 6/6 1960	109 169 1193 000 200 200 1700 1700	15 × 6 °	11182				5.3.2		1,2,1		111	'	4.2.2	2			eni
		Vacc. delictosum assoc	TSiga mertensiana 77(*,*) Alse amabilis 77(*,*) Trick Abse amabilis 56(*,*) Chara niminas 75(*,*)	11s 32 (*.+) a 32 (*.+) nsis 71(*.+) uginea 32(1.+,1)	continued of the state of the s	eucantha 115(1+1-2) partum 32(5-5,2) tarifolium 115(1+1-2) ata 32(1-2-2) stbillata 32(3-1-2)	11(1.0.2) 1 elegans 115(1.0.1.2) canescens 32(1.0.2) tomentosum 32(1.0.1)	C layer:	Carex nigricans Deschangela atropurpure Anners desummendii	Carex spectabilis Luetkea pectinata Phyllodoce empetriformis	Saxifraga tolmiei Vaccinium deliciosum Cassiope mertensiana	Tsuga mertenslana Cryptogramma crispa Athorium albestre	Lundla wahlenbergii Epilobium alpinum Vaccinium membranaceum	Saxifraga ferruginea D laver (hundcolous):	Polytrichum norvegicum Klaeria blyttii Pahla dammoodii	Grocynta membranacea Rhaconitrium heterostic	Oligotrichum hercynicum Oymnonitrium verians	oryum sp. Calypogela trichomanis Lophozia porphyoleuca	Sporadic species, <u>Carex nigricans</u> Clayer: Ch Gamltheria hundfusa Su(**1) H Hippuris montana Su(1.3.2)
Vaccirietum deliciosi	`	species, Va	nertensi umabilis umabilis	yrenaica yrenaica lootkaten ga ferru		7 % # 2 5	2 2 2 7	form	ž £	æ æ			£ # £	ł			a ₽		Sporadic Clayers Ch Gau H Hip
Intetor			TSuga n TSuga n Tr. Ables a		Veratrum es (mumicolo) Anastrepta Blephar, to Calypogela		Mnium midum Plagiothecium Rhacomitrium Stereocaulon	Fid. Tot.	1 49	2 22 1 15			N 1 K	1			,		
~		Sporadic	A layer: B layer: B layer: C layer: Ph Ab	: = = d = d	Mark year	14443	កម្ម ក្នុង	Pres.	ww	ıνω			/ / /~⊒ m	200			3000		l
deliciosum association	115	1/40 17/8 1961	122 59 122 59 300 1/20	25 26 26 48	1%8%2		FF 9			1.5.1		6.h.3 8.6.2		3,			; , ,		
Seum ass	56	0961 1960 1960	1/10 1/10	1,850 ¥ 0-9-7	.00%9		25.5			 		6.63					3.4.2.		
del1c1	Ŕ,	1/60 30/8 1960	123 02 100 1/100	25 C 28	18888	• • • •	8 € 245	1											
Vaccinium	77	1/8 8/8 1960	RH RH RH 19 16 153 02 123 02 2 2 500 100 100 11/2 1/40	14650 14650 14650	32885	1111	क्षत्र		3.4.2				2,3.2				7,7		
	32	5/01 5/02 8/02 8/03 8/03 8/03 8/03 8/03 8/03 8/03 8/03	12 8 12 8 17 8 17 8 17 8 17 8 17 8 17 8	SL04-7-45	25 E	₩, ₩,	. 22		7 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		8 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	4 4 5			2.1.2	E	1,2,2	
SINTHESIS TABLE VIII	Plot number	Plot size (acre) Date	focality (see legend) Lattude Landford Landform (see legend) Slope above (est, ft,) Area of assoc. (acre)	Altitude (ft.) Asrect Wind exposure (A-B-C) Snow cover (months)	% coverage: By vegetation layer B1 B2 C C	Dy decayed wood By rock By open water	Regeneration (no./sq. meter) Total soil depth (cm.) Depth to bottom of An (cm.)	B layer: Sub-	layer Vaccinium deliciosum 2 Tsuga mertensiana 1	Vaccinium membrahaceum? Cham, nootkatensis 1	C layers	Vaccintum deliciosum Phyllodoce empetriformis Caselone mentannian	Lection portions Deschapels atropropries Vectivism membranaceum	Ribus' pedatus Tsuga mertensiana	D layer (humicolous): Dioramm fuscescens	Orthocanis inderkii Rhytidiopsis robusta Cetraria islandica	Ciadonia bellidiliora Rhacomitrium haterostic Crocynia membranacea	Cladonia carmeola Cladonia gracilis Cladonia squamosa	

lot number	Phyllo 33	62	53	96	98	99	75	11?	129	merten:	23	48	31	45	46				
	1/40	1/20	1/10	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/5	1/40	1/40	1/40	1/40				- ,
lot sise (4cre) ate	11/9	7/9 1960	6/9 1960	20/9 1960	20/9 1960	20/9 1960	25/8 1961	13/8	3/10 1961	3/10 1961	29/7 1959	22/7 1960	10/9 1959	21/7 1960	21/7 1960				
ocality (see legend)	SM	RM Lo. k7	RM 49:48	76 SP	G 149 214	19 SH	RM 49 46	0ar. 49 48	SM 49 23	SM 49 23	SM 49 22	SM 49 23	SM 49 23	SM 49 24	SM 49 24				
ongitude 1		49 47 123 00	123 00 :	123 05	123 05	123 05	123 02	123 00	122 57	122 57 :	122 57	122 58	122 56 :	122 57 :	122 57				
andform (see legend) lope above (est. ft.)	120	2 60	500 5	300	14 140	150	300	500	2 150	2 70	none	1 30	h none	none	none				
rea of assoc. (Acre)	1/2	2	15	1/5	1/5	1/2	1/40	1 0	1/40	1/20	1/3	1/20	1/2	1/10	1/5				
ltitude (ft.) spect	3825 S25W	51.00 W	4750 N50W	1370 N408	山ioo flat	1 250 N	4600 N5 0 w	5075 8802	270M 7000	3950 S6 0₩	3630 flat	3760 N1:0B	и 6ом И410	4600 Տ708	1600 flat				
Lope (degrees)	10	12	0=0=7	14	0-9-8	26 0-5-5	9	114 0-0-6	11	18 0-7-5	6-5-2	6 0-0-8	10 0-8-7	20 0-9-8	0-9-8				
ind exposure (A=B=C) now cover (months)	0-?-5 7½	81/2	9	81/2	81/2	9	8	9	8	8	71	71/2	8	81	83				
coverage: By vegetation layer A	_	-	-	-	_	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	•	-				
B ₁ B ₂	-	ī	:	7	ī	2	5	:	1 20	18	1 25	5	ī	8 20	3 20				
B ² C	9 90	ī 90	90	7 90	Į,	2 95	5 5 98	- 96	21. 90	1.8 90	න න	5 90	1 65	න 50	2 0				
Der	35	45	70	70	95 50	80	65	60	85	50	50 30	75 5	Ьó	85 50 30 80 50	30				
DR D	39	45	70	75	50	80	65	60	85	14 54	80	80	15 55	50	3 33				
By decayed wood By rock	5	ī	:	8	=	ī	:	:	:	10	40	10	35	30	20				
egeneration (no./eq. meter									none		·				-0				
otal soil depth (cm.) epth to bottom of A _h (cm.) epth to seepage, if present	55 35 35	32 5	36 8	61 5 40	47 5	85 3 -	51 28 37	40 3	? ? ?	? ? ?	53 13	21. 6 -	55	27 8 -	28 16 -				
layer: Sul	-															Pres.	Fid.	Tot.	
suga mertensiana 1	 .		-	. -	. 5		•	-	+.+	. .	+.1		-	4.6.+	***	lı.	2	68	Pa
ham. nootkatensis 1	2.+.1	1.+.+	-	h.+.+	2.5.+	2.+.+	4.5.1	=	4.5.+	20+0+	4.6.1 1.6.1 4.6.1	4.5.+	-	5.6.+	3.5.+	3	5	52	Pa
accinium membranaceum 2 accinium deliciosum 2 orbus occidentalis 2	3.5.1	-	:	2,3,+ 1,+,2 +,+	1.3.+	1.+.+	4.5.1	:	4.6.3	4.6.3	1.4.1	1.3.3	1.+.1		***	3 2 2	2	6 30 -	Pr Pr Pr
layer:																			
hyllodoce empetriformis	8.7.3	8.9.3 4.5.2	7.6.2	9.9.3 6.5.2	9.7.3 7.6.2	9.9.3 7.5.2	7.6.3 6.6.3	6.5.3	7.6.2 1.5.1	6.6.3	6.6.3	8.7.3 9.8.3	5.6.2 8.6.3	4.6.2 5.6.3	7.7.3	555	3	849 651	Pi
assiope merteneiana accinium deliciosum	4.5.3 7.7.2	. +.+	8.7.3	3.+.+	3.3.+	2.+.+	4.4.1	6.5.3 8.9.3 2.3.1	7.6.3	0.0.3	7.6.2	3.4.3	2.5.2	3.6.3	7.7.3 6.7.3		3	209	Pi
uetkea pectinata ycopodium sitchense	2.3.2		4.3.2 5.4.3	5.4.3	4.2.2	4.+.5	3.+.2	4.2.2 5.5.3	4.+.2	5.+.? 1.+.+	2.3.2	5.11.5	3.3.2	+.1 -	3.4.1	5	2	128 86	C
accinium membranaceum suga mertensiana	2.3.2	2.+.+	+,+	2.+.+	1.+.+	2.+.+	1,+,+	-	2.+.1	3.+.+	+,+	1.2.2	3.5.2	- ****	4.6.1	143	2	20 18	P
eschampeia atropurpurea hamaecyparis nootkatensis	1.+.1	-	+.1	2.+.2	1.+.1	+.1	1.+.1	*.*	-	3.+.+	• •	-	2.+.1	+.+	:	3	2	16	H
arex nigricans	1.+.2	3. 2. 2	•	-	1.4.+	-	1.5.1	-	2.4.2	1.+.1	1.1.2 +.1	1.2.1	-	- +.1	-	2	1	6	H
ippuris montana	-	-		2. 2. 2	1.+.1	2.+.2	••2	:	3.+.2	-		-	-	-	:	5	1	2	H
multheria humifusa grex spectabilis	1.*.*	1.+.2	-	-	+•2	=	÷.+	1.+.2	-	-	-	:	1.+.1	+.1	-	5	2	-	H
orbus occidentalis layer (humicolous):	+.+		<u> </u>	+,+	+.+	-	-	-	+.+	-		-	-	-		5			P
icramum fuscescens	3.3.2	-	6.4.2	3.4.2	5.5.3	7.5.3	6.5.2	_	7.6.3	5.6.2	4.3.2	8.7.2	5.4.2	3.6.2	1.7.2	5	2	341	T
rthocaulis floerkii hacomitrium heterostichum	3.2.2	1.1.+	7.5.1	4.3.2	4.3.3	6.4.3 2.1.2	1.1.2	3.1.1	5.5.3	4.3.2 3.3.2	3. 2. 2	4.3.1	3.2.2	3.6.2	3.3.2	5	2	188 100	H
rocynia membranacea	1.1.2	4.3.2	4.4.2	•	1.2.2	-	1.1.2	4.3.3	-	1.1.2	1.1.2		1.3.2	-	2.1.2	L L	3	31	L
iaeria falcata hytidiopsis robusta	2.3.2	5.3.2	3. 2. 2	6.5.3	3.3.2	3.1.2	5.2.2	6.4.2	2.1.2	2.2.2	÷.1	1.1.2	. :	2.6.2 3.6.2	5.4.2	3	1	132 38	t W
ryum sp. ladonia bellidiflora	3.4.2 2.1.2	- -	3.4.2	4.2.2	1.2.2	3.3.2	-	-	3.+.2	2.2.2	-	1.+.1	1.1.2	3.5.2	1.3.1	3	5	21 17	Ĺ
ymnomitrium varians arsupella sparsifolia	-	4.4.2	2.3.2	3.4.2	-	-	-	5.3.2	:		3.3.2	2.2.2	2.2.2	=	2.5.2	5	2	43 12	t
hacomitrium canescens	-	-	•	•	-		-	-	-	-	1.2.2			-	1.2.2		2	5	Ť
Sporadic spacies:																			

B layer:
Fin Abies mabilis 31(*.*); 129(*.*)
Find Clado, pyrolaeflorus 45(*.*); 96(1.3.*)
Find Mensiesia ferrugines 23(*.1)
Fin Pinus monticola 23(*.*)
Find Vaccinium ovalifolium 99(*.*)

C layer:

Pn Abies mabilis 96(1.*.*)

H Caltha leptosepala 75(1.*.1)

Pnd Clado. Pyrolaeflorus 18(*.*); 96(1.*.*)

H Hieracium gracile 31(2.*.1); 53(*.1); 122(*.1)

H Juneus drummondil 31(*.*); 16(*.*); 15(*.*)

H Leptarrhena pyrolifolia 75(*.*)

Pine Phyllodoce glanduliflora 112(1.4.3)
Pin Pinus monticola 11(*.+)
Pind Rhododendron albiflorum (2(*.*)
H Saxifrage ferrugines 11(*.*); 23(*.2); 48(*.*)
Pind Vaccinium ovalifolium 48(*.*); 99(*.*)
O Veratrum eschscholtsii 23(*.1)

D layer, municolcus:

Pm Abies anabilis hó(+.+); hå(+.+); 96(+.+); 130(+.+)

Mt Calypogela neesiana 96(1.1.2); 99(1.1.2)

L Catraria islandica 129(2.+.2)

L Cladonia gracilis 23(1.1.2);

L Cladonia plaupota 23(1.1.2); 53(2.3.2) 119(1.1.2)

L Cladonia paupota 23(1.3.2); hó(3.3.2)

L Cladonia squanosa 23(1.4.2);

Dichodomitum olympioum 53(1.1.2)

Phd Vaccinium deliciosum 75(1.4.2)

Phd Vaccinium deliciosum 75(1.4.1); 129(1.4.4.)

yer (funicolous), continued:
Dicramus acoparium 33(5.4.3); 13(2.4.2)
Diplophyllum taxif, 96(1.1.2); 130(1.2.2)
Oppondit, concinnatum 23(1.1.2); 96(1.1.2);
Harpanthus scutatus 96(1.1.2);
Hypmus circinale 75(2.2.2)
Lescureac baileyi 35(1.1.2); 129(2.1.2);
Lophozia alpostris 15(1.1.2);
L. porphyroleuca 96(2.1.2); 99(2.1.2);
Plactocolae abovata 31(2.2.2);
Pleutroxium schreberi 15(2.1.2); 13(2.1.2);
Pleutroxium schreberi 15(2.1.2); 13(2.1.2);
Polytrichum norvegicum 62(1.*.*)
Polytrichum fulforum 23(1.2.2)
Stereocaulon tomentesum 3.(*.*.); 62(1.1.2);
112(3.1.3) Mt Mt

APPENDIX IV

PLATE I

PLATE II

PLATE III

PLATE I

- A. Excellent growth of amabilis fir on a <u>Streptopus</u> association at 4000 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- B: Dense cover of Oplopanax horridus along a temporary mountain stream near 3600 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- C. Sparse distribution of mountain hemlock in the upper subzone, 4000 feet, Mount Seymour. The ridge in the upper right-hand corner is in the lower subzone at 3300 feet.
- D. Typical isolated clump of mountain hemlock in the upper subzone, 4600 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park. The snow-free ring around the clump (June 17) is occupied by small mountain hemlock, yellow cedar, Rhododendron albiflorum, and Vaccinium membranaceum.
- E. Near its upper limit the <u>Vaccinium membranaceum Rhododendron</u> association occurs only on exposed ridges where snow accumulation is least. 5100 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- F. Succession from (1) Phyllodoce Cassiope to (2) dwarf Tsuga near the crest of a ridge where snow duration is reduced. 5000 feet, near Mamquam Lake, Garibaldi Park.

PLATE I

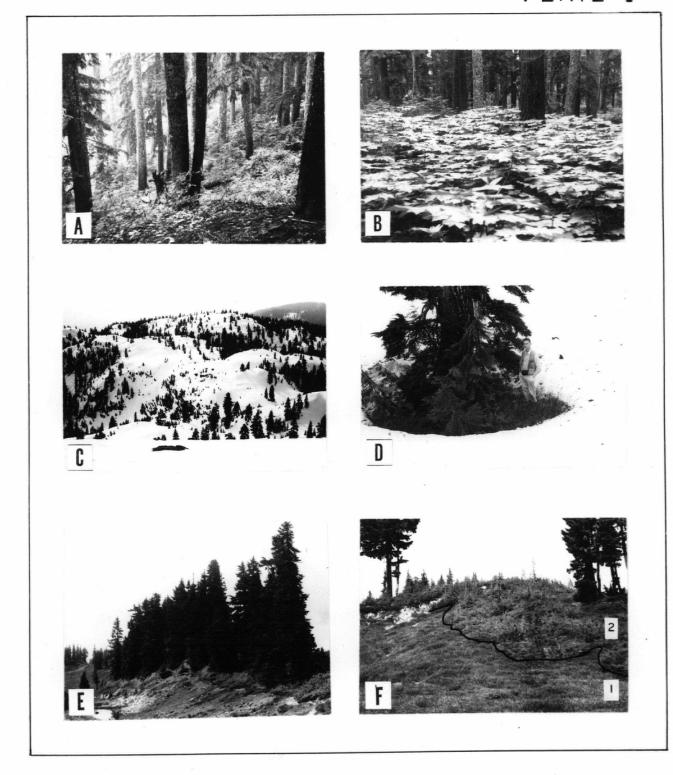


PLATE II

- A. Wet edaphic <u>Leptarrhena</u> <u>Caltha leptosepala</u> association in the upper subzone, surrounded by stunted yellow cedar. 4500 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- B. Early stage of succession from open water towards <u>Eriophorum</u> <u>Sphagnum</u>.

 <u>Drepanocladus exannulatus and Carex aquatilis</u> are main species. 4600

 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- C. Invasion of (2) dwarf mountain hemlock onto a (1) Phyllodoce Cassiope area, 5100 feet, Garibaldi Park.
- D. Well developed <u>Phyllodoce empetriformis</u> <u>Cassiope mertensiana</u> association. 5100 feet, Garibaldi Park.
- E. Primary succession of a <u>Carex nigricans</u> association towards <u>Phyllodoce</u> Cassiope. 4800 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- F. High sociability of Gymnomitrium varians on an unstable colluvial slope.

 4800 feet, near Mamquam Lake, Garibaldi Park.

PLATE II

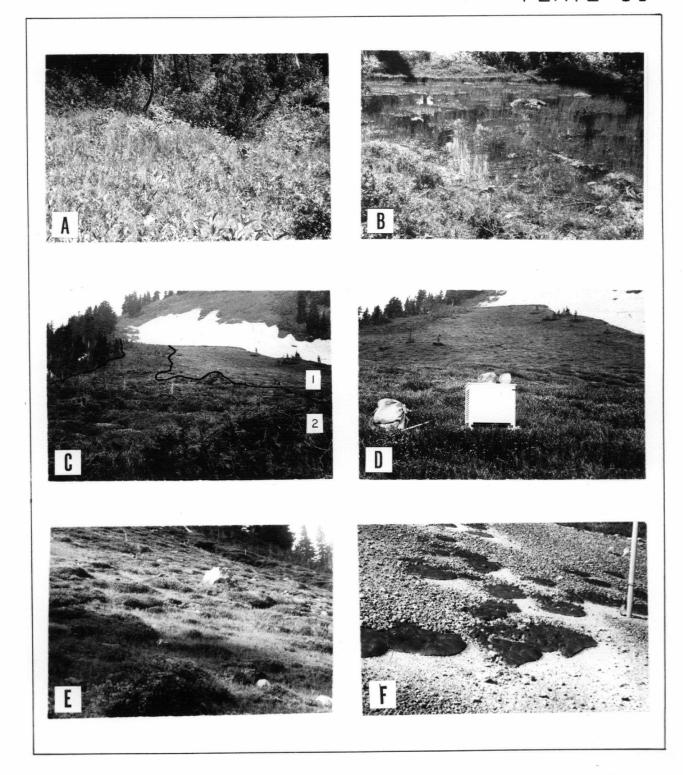


PLATE III

- A. Mesic habitats at 5000 feet and higher occupied by <u>Phyllodoce</u> <u>Cassiope</u> with sporadic clumps of mountain hemlock. On the warmer westerly slope in the centre of the photograph, trees are favoured. Otherwise they are restricted to prominences or ridges. Upper subzone, Garibaldi Park.
- B. Deformation of mountain hemlock by snow-creep. July 7, 1962. 3800 feet, Mount Seymour.
- C. Mesic Vaccinium membranaceum Rhododendron association of the upper subzone. 3900 feet, near The Lions.
- D. Small stream in the upper subzone occupied by <u>Drepanocladus exannulatus</u> and <u>Scapania uliginosa</u>, and flanked by <u>Philonotis fontana</u> and <u>Petasites</u> <u>frigidus</u>. With increased organic accumulations, these stages will develop towards a <u>Leptarrhena</u> <u>Caltha leptosepala</u> association.
- E. Saxifraga tolmiei established below a rock where there is greater soil stability on a colluvial slope. 5000 feet, Paul Ridge, Garibaldi Park.
- F. Secondary succession towards <u>Gymnomitrium varians</u> and <u>Saxifraga tolmiei</u>, 16 years after the removal of the sod covering in a <u>Carex nigricans</u> association. 4900 feet, Garibaldi Park.

PLATE III

