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12
13 IN THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
14 FOR THE EASTERN DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA
15 SACRAMENTO DIVISION

16 SIERRA NEVADA FOREST PROTECTION
17 CAMPAIGN, PLUMAS FOREST PROJECT
18 EARTH ISLAND INSTITUTE; and CENTER
FOR BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY, non-profit
organizations,

19 Plaintiffs,

20 v.

21 UNITED STATES FOREST SERVICE;
22 JACK BLACKWELL, in his official capacity
as Regional Forester, Region 5, United States
23 Forest Service; and JAMES M. PENA,

24 Federal Defendants,

25 and

26 QUINCY LIBRARY GROUP, an
unincorporated citizens group; and
27 PLUMAS COUNTY,

28 Defendant-Intervenors.

Case No. S-04-CV-2023 LKK/PAN

**DECLARATION OF
CARL N. SKINNER**

1 I, Carl N. Skinner, in accordance with the provisions of 28 U.S.C. section 1746 declare:

2
3 1. I am a research scientist (Geographer) with the USDA Forest Service, Pacific
4 Southwest Research Station (PSW), in Redding, California. Since 2001 I have been Science
5 Team Leader for the Disturbance Factors Science Team. I have been in my present position for
6 eight years. My principal responsibilities are to conduct research on the interactions of fire and
7 forest development, fire effects, and fuels management. Since joining PSW, I have served as a
8 special consultant on fire to the Sierra Nevada Ecosystem Project (SNEP) and authored or
9 co-authored several sections of the SNEP final report. As the fire and old-forests specialist of the
10 Sierra Nevada Science Review Team, I co-authored the Sierra Nevada Science Review, which
11 synthesized recent scientific information for the Sierra Nevada Framework Project. The Meadow
12 Valley forests are typical of the Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forests within my area of expertise.

13 2. Before joining the research staff at PSW, I was the Fuels Management Officer on
14 the Mt. Shasta Ranger District of the Shasta-Trinity National Forests for approximately 8 years. I
15 was responsible for a large fuels management program that included several thousand acres of
16 mechanical and prescribed fire treatments each year. I frequently served as the Duty Officer of
17 the day (Type 4 Incident Commander) in charge of initial attack fire suppression activities for the
18 district. I was qualified as and performed the duties of Prescribed Fire Manager I, Prescribed Fire
19 Burn Boss I, and Prescribed Fire Planner I (Level I is the highest level of complexity). I have
20 attached my Curriculum Vita at the end of this declaration. *See Attachment 1.*

21 3. Prior to the 20th Century, forest structure and composition were profoundly
22 influenced by the frequent, mostly low-intensity, surface fires that were originally an integral
23 ecological process in development of the relatively open forests characteristic of northern
24 California mountains within the Sierra Nevada and Southern Cascade ranges (Kilgore 1973;
25 Chang 1996; McKelvey and others 1996; Skinner and Chang 1996; Weatherspoon 1996).
26 Though fires were generally frequent, the frequency of fire occurrence varied with the spatial
27 scale of interest. At the local site level of less than 100 acres, fire intervals generally varied from
28 5 to 35 years with a mean between 8-12 years (Skinner and Chang 1996; Taylor 2000; Beaty and
Taylor 2001; Norman and Taylor 2002). Years in which fires were extremely large (greater than

1 10,000 acres) appear to have occurred with a median fire interval of approximately 20 years
2 (Norman 2002).

3 4. Primarily because the frequent fires helped limit fuel accumulations and forest
4 density, fires were predominantly of low-moderate intensity; this tended to leave many larger
5 trees alive while killing mostly smaller, younger trees and only occasionally patches of larger
6 trees (McKelvey and others 1996; Chang, 1996; Skinner and Chang 1996). Although all of the
7 conifer species (ponderosa pine, sugar pine, Douglas-fir, incense-cedar, and white fir) found in
8 these forests become resistant, in varying degrees, to low-moderate intensity fires when they
9 mature, ponderosa pine achieves a fire resistant condition earlier than the rest because of
10 relatively thick bark and open crowns (Minore 1979; Kilgore 1973; Agee 1993, Weatherspoon
11 1996; Miller 2000). Therefore, the high frequency of fires gave the advantage to ponderosa pine
12 and inhibited the regeneration of the other species. Thus, these frequent fires created mixed
13 species forests that were commonly dominated by or had major components of the fire resistant
14 ponderosa pine (Leiberg 1902; Kilgore 1973; Minore 1979; Chang, 1996; Skinner and Chang
15 1996; Miller 2000). Because ponderosa pine generally has more open crowns than its associates,
16 these types of forests are less likely to support crown fires, especially in the open nature of the
17 original forests. Thus, extensive crown fires were almost unknown before the 20th century
18 (Leiberg 1902; Kilgore 1973; Skinner and Chang 1996).

19 5. Forests of the northern California mountains prior to the 20th century were quite
20 spatially variable, composed of variably sized but mostly small (less than an acre to a few acres)
21 groups of trees that differed from each other primarily in terms of age classes (Kilgore 1973;
22 Oliver and Ryker 1990; Weatherspoon and others 1992; Weatherspoon 1996). At the scale of a
23 few tens-of-acres, the aggregation of these small groups led to stands that were generally
24 multi-aged (sometimes referred to as all-aged) and multi-storied (Oliver and Ryker 1990).
25 Additionally, the openness of the forests created conditions where the understories are believed to
26 have been quite diverse, composed of significant components of grasses and other herbaceous
27 plants and scattered, variably spaced shrubs (Chang 1996). These conditions promoted the
28 regeneration and maintenance of ponderosa pine as a major component of these forests (Oliver
and Ryker 1990; Chang 1996). Due to the openness of the forests and the low fuel loadings

1 compared to today, pre 20th century forests were generally resilient to fires (McKelvey and others
2 1996; Chang, 1996; Skinner and Chang 1996).

3 6. During the 20th century, fire suppression and forest management that focused on
4 the removal of the largest trees have lead to great changes in stand structures and species
5 composition in forests of the Sierra Nevada (Kilgore 1973; Dolph and others 1995; Chang 1996;
6 Skinner and Chang 1996; Weatherspoon 1996; Beaty and Taylor 2001; Youngblood and others
7 2004). These changes in structure and species composition have negatively affected the fire
8 resilience of Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forests. Regarding the change in species composition,
9 excluding fire from the system has allowed the regeneration of non-pine species, especially white
10 fir which is more tolerant of growing in shaded understories (Chang 1996; Weatherspoon 1996,
11 Youngblood and other 2004). Because white fir and incense cedar regenerate well in shady
12 conditions, they are often referred to as “shade tolerant,” while ponderosa pine is considered a
13 “shade intolerant” species due to its greater need for open, sunny conditions to regenerate. By
14 excluding fire from the system, forest canopies have tended to become more dense and shaded,
15 thereby favoring the regeneration of white fir instead of Ponderosa pine.

16 7. White fir an ponderosa pine differ not only in their ability to regenerate in shady
17 conditions, but also in their ability to resist, or survive, fire. Generally, the resistance to fire
18 increases with age for each of the species in these mixed conifer forests. However, ponderosa
19 pine is usually much more resistant to fire throughout its life compared to white fir, due to a
20 combination of factors. The primary difference is that ponderosa pine achieves thick bark – and
21 therefore fire resistance – earlier than most associates, especially white fir. Ponderosa pine also
22 develops more open crowns that are less likely to encourage crown fires than are its associates.
23 Ponderosa pine has a deep rooting habit that allows it to persist well in warm, open environments
24 when compared to shallow rooted white fir. Further, the deep rooting also helps to protect the
25 root system from the heat of surface fires. Trees that are grown in an open environment,
26 preferred by ponderosa pine, generally develop fire resistant qualities more quickly than do trees
27 that grow more slowly in shaded environments. The long needles of ponderosa pine also protect
28 the terminal bud from the heat of surface fires and allow the tree to survive with significant
crown scorch. White fir is not able to withstand nearly so much scorch because the terminal buds

1 are more sensitive to heat (Miller 2000). Now, after many decades of fire exclusion often
2 accompanied by selective harvest of individual large, old ponderosa pines, it is common for these
3 forests to have developed dense understories composed the less fire-resistant species, especially
4 white fir (Chang 1996; Weatherspoon et al. 1992; Skinner and Chang 1996; Miller 2000;
5 Youngblood and other 2004).

6 8. Additionally, without the frequent fires to regularly remove surface dead organic
7 matter, there has been a build-up of fuel in excess of that which would have historically been
8 present (Parsons and DeBenedetti 1979; Biswell 1989; Skinner and Chang 1996; Skinner 2002).
9 The result has been higher stocking densities and increased fuel accumulations that now lead to
10 conditions that more readily support high-intensity fires than is likely to have been the case
11 historically (Kilgore 1973; Chang 1996; Skinner and Chang 1996; Weatherspoon 1996).

12 9. In the context of disturbance ecology, resilience is defined as, “the capacity of a
13 system to absorb disturbance and reorganize while undergoing change so as to retain essentially
14 the same function, structure, identity, and feedbacks...” (Folke and others 2004). Thus, the way
15 resilience is defined in any particular case depends on the type of ecosystem (its structure,
16 function, and characteristics), and is scale dependent – in both time and space (Folke and others
17 2004). Forested systems like those in the Sierras, are characterized by fire regimes of frequent,
18 mostly low-moderate intensity fires, and are dominated by large, long-lived organisms (trees), are
19 considered resilient if the forested landscape exhibits a generally forested condition, including
20 larger trees, shortly following a disturbing event such as fire. On the other hand, chaparral
21 systems or forests where high-intensity crown fires are the norm are considered resilient if they
22 respond to the typical disturbance (e.g., killing of dominant shrubs/trees) by initiating ecological
23 succession. This succession would include the regeneration of species that will eventually lead to
24 development of the dominant species similar to those that existed before the disturbance (Folke
25 and others 2004). The definition of the term ‘fire resilience’ in Paragraph 11 of the Declaration
26 of Dennis C. Odion submitted in this case is appropriate for chaparral systems, but is not the
27 appropriate definition for forested systems where the natural fire regime would be characterized
28 by frequent, mostly low-moderate intensity surface fires.

1 10. In the case of fire in a forested landscape in the northern California mountains
2 where the pre-settlement fire regime was one of frequent fires of mostly low-moderate intensity,
3 achieving resilience would be at best difficult if most of the forest landscape were burned in a
4 high intensity fire that killed most of the trees, since they take so long to grow to larger sizes. In
5 this sense, it is the characteristic of the landscape (not a particular stand or small patch) that is
6 important. There will usually be a few trees and groups of trees killed where more intense
7 surface fire burns in localized concentrations of fuel (these localized concentrations of fuel could
8 be caused by a patch of trees killed by insects or disease, or the death and toppling of a single
9 large tree). The small openings caused by the intense burns in localized conditions contribute to
10 resilience since these open and sunny areas are those that encourage regeneration of the more
11 fire-resistant and shade-intolerant ponderosa pine and help to perpetuate the forest. Over the
12 remainder of the landscape, the general characteristic is still one of an open forest or woodland.

13 11. Group selection, as a component of a broader fuels management program, is
14 designed to help develop the long-term resilience of forested landscapes by providing for small
15 open areas conducive to regeneration of fire-resistant and shade-intolerant ponderosa pine, which
16 keep the forest going while managing stand density (thinning) and surface fuels in the rest of the
17 landscape (McKelvey and Weatherspoon 1992; Weatherspoon 1996). In the short run, stands can
18 be made fire resistant by thinning smaller trees and keeping all the largest trees. However, if the
19 entire landscape is treated this way, and the small trees are successfully kept out for long periods
20 of time through management to help maintain low fire hazard, eventually enough large trees will
21 die that provision must be made for regenerating the forest. That is, there must be small trees and
22 medium sized trees somewhere on the landscape to take the place of the large trees that die.
23 Group selection silviculture anticipates this need and begins the process of maintaining a
24 multi-aged, heavily ponderosa pine forest, through scattering small regeneration patches across
25 the landscape (Weatherspoon 1996). I have attached excerpts from two documents that discuss
26 how group selection silviculture may help achieve fire resilient forests similar to those in the
27 Sierra Nevada prior to the 20th century. *See Attachments 2 & 3.*

28 12. Fire resilience is different from fire risk or hazard in that fire resilience refers to a
long-term potential of the landscape to maintain a forested condition and recover quickly from a

1 fire. Fire risk is simply the potential or likelihood of having a fire of any intensity. Fire severity
2 refers to the degree of effects of a fire. Fire hazard refers to what the nature of a fire would be –
3 its intensity, severity, and difficulty of suppression. A high fire risk is usually not of great
4 concern if there is a low hazard, and a high hazard may not be of great concern if the risk is low.

5 13. The openness of the pre-settlement forests that encouraged the development of a
6 diverse understory of grasses, herbs, and scattered shrubs created a condition of high fire risk.
7 The physical structure of grasses, herbs, and shrubs along with the ponderosa pine needle cast
8 makes these environments quite fire prone; that is, there is a high fire risk. This is why these
9 forests were originally characterized by frequent fires. That these historical fires were mostly of
10 low-moderate intensity and came to be dominated by large trees, heavy to ponderosa and sugar
11 pine, attests to their low hazard condition. The low hazard leading to general low severity of the
12 fires in this environment provided a fire resilient forested landscape.

13 14. Successfully managing fuel conditions across landscapes will increase fire risk
14 because of changes in microclimate and increases in fine fuels (Deeming and others 1977;
15 Weatherspoon 1996; Agee and others 2000). Thinning of stands for a fuel treatment and creating
16 openings by group selection to encourage regeneration of ponderosa pine does allow more sun to
17 reach the forest floor, contributing to faster drying of surface vegetation and more air/wind
18 movement, and the open crowns encourage more fine fuels - herbaceous plants and fresh needle
19 litter. However, when all the effects of these treatments are considered together (e.g., reducing
20 stand density, reducing surface fuels, providing for long-term regeneration of ponderosa pine) fire
21 hazard across the landscape is dramatically reduced, while the prospects of achieving multi-aged,
22 multi-story, resilient forested landscapes are greatly improved. Additionally, fire suppression is
23 generally made more efficient since the reduction of fire hazard more than offsets the increase in
24 fire risk (Martin and Brackebusch 1974; Rothermel 1983; Agee 1996; van Wagendonk 1996;
25 Agee and others 2000).

26 15. For the Meadow Valley project, since the trees are to be whole-tree harvested
27 (entire tree moved to landing and utilized or disposed of there), little slash will be added to the
28 forest floor fuels. Therefore, there should not be a noticeable immediate increase in fire severity.
Also, the reduction in stand densities and ladder fuels will reduce the potential for high intensity

1 crown fires – thus, reducing overall expected fire severity. Reducing the likelihood of crown fire
2 will significantly reduce the associated fire severity (Agee and others 2000; Scott and Reinhardt
3 2001).

4 16. An example of the efficacy of reducing stand density through harvest and its
5 impact on fire behavior is the Cone Fire of 2002, which burned into the Blacks Mountain
6 Ecological Research Project (Skinner and others 2004). This project is located in the interior
7 ponderosa pine forest type on the Blacks Mountain Experimental Forest on the Lassen National
8 Forest to the north of this project area (Oliver 2000). Effects of the Cone Fire were 1) it burned
9 as a severe crown fire through stands not managed for reduced stand density, 2) it ceased to be a
10 crown fire and dropped to the ground immediately upon entering the thinned stands, 3) it burned
11 as a low-moderate intensity surface fire through thinned stands that had not received follow-up
12 prescribed fire treatment, and 4) it died at the edge of stands that had previously been thinned and
13 received follow-up prescribed fire treatment (Skinner and others 2004).

14 17. There are several misleading or incorrect statements in the Odion Declaration that
15 require some response. As to Odion's paragraph 4, to have 'chaparral' develop would require
16 much larger openings than those created through group selection – especially in the time frames
17 in which the patches would develop problems (generally less than 10 years). Research on
18 group-selection patches from the Challenge Experimental Forest on the west side of the Plumas
19 National Forest indicate that in 10 years there will be significant cover of grasses, herbs, and
20 shrubs, but that they will have achieved little height growth (McDonald and Abbott 1994;
21 McDonald and Reynolds 1999). That research showed that small openings characteristic of
22 group selection suppressed growth of shrubs because of shading trees adjacent to the openings.
23 (McDonald and Abbott 1994; McDonald and Reynolds 1999). It is therefore unlikely that,
24 "dense, flammable chaparral shrub vegetation" will aggressively take over the openings created
25 by group-selection cutting in the Meadow Valley project.

26 18. As to Odion's paragraph 5, he states, "The establishment of patches of shrub
27 vegetation therefore would increase the potential for crown fire both in and around the clear cut
28 patches." First, group selection silviculture is not the same thing as clearcutting, and the terms
are not interchangeable. While they both involve cutting most or all trees within a given area,

1 they are distinct silvicultural methods with different purposes and they are applied at different
2 scales. For example, group selection is an uneven-aged method of silviculture that seeks to create
3 a well-distributed range of age classes within a forest stand, while clearcutting is an even-aged
4 method that seeks to create a uniform age class across a forest stand. Second, and more
5 importantly, Odion's conclusion is contradicted by the recent study conducted at the Black's
6 Mountain Experimental Forest. In that study, a significant cover of shrubs (ceanothus and
7 manzanita) had developed in areas where prescribed fire was used following thinning. However,
8 though it occurred five years after the thinning and prescribed fire treatment, the Cone Fire at
9 Blacks Mountain did not spread through these shrub areas (Skinner and others 2004). This was
10 probably due to the low stature of the shrubs, their young, green foliage, and the lack of fine fuels
11 to carry fire into the shrubs. For these reasons, montane chaparral usually does not burn as
12 readily as does southern California coastal chaparral, which more people are familiar with. Just
13 because some areas may develop shrubs, does not mean they will become ready to burn severely
14 (Agee and others 2000).

15 19. Odion's conclusions that it is inappropriate to conduct group selection in
16 previously treated areas overlooks certain benefits of such treatments. Paragraph 12 of the Odion
17 declaration states, "It will be particularly counterproductive to these goals in areas where fuel
18 treatments and prescribed burning had recently been undertaken to reduce fire hazard."
19 Prescribed burning under relatively dense stands before opening them up with thinning can help
20 to reduce the seed bank of the shrubs and reduce the potential for shrubs to be able to
21 aggressively occupy the area. The prescribed fire will kill some of the seeds outright. It will also
22 induce others to germinate, especially ceanothus species. However, these plants do not do well in
23 a shaded environment and many seedlings will likely have died by the time the subsequent
24 thinning and group selection cutting takes place (Weatherspoon 1985, 1988).

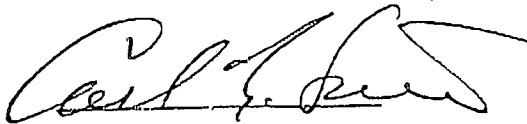
25 20. As to Odion's paragraph 5, he wrongly states, "the EA incorrectly assumes that
26 understory saplings and pole sized trees are part of the forest canopy, and that removing these
27 understory plants would raise the lower level of the canopy overstory." From a fire behavior
28 perspective the understory saplings and poles *are* part of the forest canopy in terms of being the
link that allows the surface fires, when the saplings and poles are dense enough, to move from the

1 surface into the crowns. Removing saplings and poles *would* raise the height of the lower canopy
2 for the purposes of affecting fire behavior (Agee 1996; Agee and others 2000; Scott and
3 Reinhardt 2001; Graham and others 2004).

4 21. Finally, Odion's Curriculum Vita does not indicate that he has significant
5 expertise or experience in the Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forests, which are critical in making
6 conclusions about fire behavior in these ecosystems. Odion's background appears to be primarily
7 in studying chaparral ecosystems in the coastal areas of California. Except for some very recent
8 and limited work, he has very little experience with montane forest systems. The coastal
9 chaparral, especially where chamise or coastal sage are major components, burns quite readily
10 and intensely, which contrasts with shrubs in areas of the Sierras like the Meadow Valley project
11 area. Much of his perspective as presented in the declaration is typical of someone who has
12 experience primarily with systems that regularly burn as crown fires (which is typical of
13 chaparral) rather than someone that has worked with forests like those in the Meadow Valley
14 project area that have historically experienced frequent surface fires.

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19 Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. § 1746, I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and
20 correct. Executed this 27th day of January 2005.

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Carl N. Skinner

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