

Prescribed Fire Effects on Tree Grades and Wounds on the Monongahela National Forest, WV

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ABSTRACT

Species traits, including but not exclusive to bark thickness and texture, sprouting ability, and litter bulk density and chemistry, may be related to a stem's potential to withstand potential heating from wildland fire. Trees exhibiting similarities for these properties and others may be classified into two broad functional groups: pyrophytes and pyrophobes. To our knowledge, few research studies have been conducted to determine how prescribed fires may affect wood quality of merchantable tree species in the Appalachian Mountains. Understanding potential relationships between wounding and fire tolerance may assist prescribed fire managers as they seek to promote and expand the use of prescribed fire for management purposes.

To investigate this issue, six locations on the Monongahela National Forest, West Virginia, that had been subjected to one or two mixed intensity and severity prescribed fires since 2012 were selected for stand inventory in 2021. Overstory trees within these burned locations and adjacent, unburned locations were measured and graded using variable radius sampling, and additional landscape features and physiographic factors, such as aspect, elevation, and slope percentage, were also recorded at each variable radius sampling location. The most common, commercially valuable deciduous species encountered were red maple (*Acer rubrum*) (17.5%), white oak (*Quercus alba*) (9.8%), chestnut oak (*Quercus montana*) (32.8%), and northern red oak (*Quercus rubra*) (39.9%). Using field measurements and tree grades, the total number and types of wounds, potential volume loss, charring, basal area, and diameters at breast

height (DBH) were compared by species, burn status (burn or control), and the number of burns. Overall, *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra* comprised 93% of the total trees exhibiting volume loss from wounds in the burned locations. However, total volume loss only constituted about 3% of the merchantable timber. Trees in the burned locations experiencing volume loss differed significantly between species ($p=0.0294$) with *Q. rubra* constituting 60% of volume loss trees. In burned and control plots, *A. rubrum* was the most commonly wounded tree with 43.5% of trees having at least one wound. Cat face and oval wounds were the only wound types resulting in volume loss.

Felling and milling stems identified in this study as having potential volume loss from any fire-influenced wounds would be valuable. Furthermore, assessing the potential impact of outer bark char resulting from prescribed fires would be desired to better understand if charring constitutes any potential internal damage to stems. Deploying a similar, field-scale experiment on areas with varying fire frequencies and intensities would be useful to determine how wood quality may be affected after several prescribed burns.

Caroline M. Sharpe

GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

Prescribed fire is a cultural land management practice used historically and currently in many locations around the world. These burns have been and are currently conducted for many reasons, including wildlife habitat management, hazardous fuel reduction, and vegetation control. Trees have innate characteristics that increase potential resistance and resilience to fire damage, however, these characteristics can vary depending on tree species and tree age. These characteristics may include, but are not limited to, bark thickness and texture, litter chemistry, leaf shape, and a species' resprouting strategy.

Prescribed fire is often used in conjunction with other forest management techniques (i.e. herbicides, thinning) in locations where timber value is a management priority, therefore it is important to understand how prescribed fire may affect the growth and quality of merchantable timber species. Few studies have focused on potential wood quality issues posed by the use of prescribed fire in the Appalachian Mountains. Determining if prescribed fires affect wood quality may provide land managers, in many locations, with information that may aid their selection of desired management practices and priorities.

To help address this knowledge gap, a research study was designed and conducted to investigate these issues for the following merchantable timber species in six burned and adjacent, unburned locations of the Monongahela National Forest, West Virginia: red maple (*Acer rubrum*), white oak (*Quercus alba*), chestnut oak (*Q. montana*), and northern red oak (*Q. rubra*).

The results show that one or two mixed intensity and severity prescribed fires, implemented since 2012, resulted in an overall volume loss of 3% from the bottom logs, therefore prescribed fire did not cause a significant reduction in total volume. Two main species, *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra*, comprised 93% of the trees with wounds resulting in volume loss. However, *Q. rubra* alone constituted 60% of trees with volume loss wounds. The results also show that *A. rubrum* was the most commonly wounded tree with 43.5% having at least one wound. Additional research is warranted to more fully understand these dynamics, including sampling locations that have experienced more prescribed fires and fires with different intensities and milling wounded trees and charred trees located in burned locations.

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1 **Chapter 1. Introduction**

2 Wildland fire has been part of the global landscape for millenia (Pyne, 2010; Ryan et al.,
3 2013; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). The frequency and patchiness of fire has often determined
4 the vegetative successional states present in a given location at a specific point in time (Dey and
5 Schweitzer, 2018; Greenberg et al., 2012; Knapp et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2017; Stambaugh et
6 al., 2017; Waldrop et al., 2012). Each vegetative species may respond differently to wildland
7 fire. Some species have unique properties and varying levels of traits that make them more
8 resistant to fire, such as bark thickness and texture, resprouting strategy, and root-fungal
9 associations (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Keyser et al., 2018; Kreye et al., 2013; Smith and
10 Sutherland, 2006; Stambaugh et al., 2017; Stanis et al., 2019; Waldrop et al., 2012; Van Lear and
11 Waldrop, 1989; Varner et al., 2015). Following a disturbance, such as prescribed fire, vegetative
12 competition may be influenced by these differences in traits and properties among species
13 (Waldrop et al., 2012; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989).

14 To date, little is known about how prescribed fire affects wood quality of merchantable
15 timber species in the Appalachian Mountains. This region, like many others in the eastern United
16 States, are experiencing an increased use of prescribed fire to achieve long-term restoration and
17 management goals (Carter and Foster, 2004; Coates et al., 2020; Greenberg et al., 2012; Keyser
18 et al., 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Knapp et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2020; Pyne, 2010; Ryan et al.,
19 2013; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989; Waldrop et al., 2012; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014).

20 Additional information about the potential impacts of prescribed fire on wood quality may assist
21 land managers as they anticipate potential fire effects while planning prescribed fire operations.

22 In this thesis, Chapter 2 highlights current knowledge regarding prescribed fire and wood
23 quality in merchantable hardwood species. Chapter 3 describes how prescribed fires affected

24 wounding and potential volume and value losses of four hardwood species within the
25 Monongahela National Forest in West Virginia. Chapter 4 highlights what was learned from the
26 prescribed fire and wood quality experiment and how additional research may be utilized to
27 derive more broad-scale conclusions regarding potential wood quality impacts resulting from
28 prescribed fire operations.

29 **Chapter 2. Literature Review**

30 **2.1 The phenomenon of wildland fire**

31 Prescribed fire is one of the oldest land management practices used in North America
32 today. It was originally used by Native Americans for hunting, clearing land, and warfare (Pyne,
33 2010; Ryan et al., 2013; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). Later, Europeans primarily used fire as a
34 tool to clear agricultural land and promote grazing conditions (Pyne 2010; Waldrop et al., 2012;
35 Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). Today, people commonly use prescribed fire to mitigate
36 hazardous fuel accumulation, restore fire-dependent ecosystems, and prepare sites for
37 regeneration (Carter and Foster, 2004; Coates et al., 2020; Greenberg et al., 2012; Keyser et al.,
38 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Knapp et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2020; Pyne, 2010; Ryan et al., 2013;
39 Waldrop et al., 2012; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). Several
40 wildlife species, such as red-cockaded woodpeckers (*Leuconotopicus borealis*) and gopher
41 tortoises (*Gopherus polyphemus*), also depend on fire to maintain their desired habitat conditions
42 (Ryan et al., 2013; Waldrop et al., 2012).

43 **2.2 Prescribed fire as a silvicultural tool**

44 Repeated fire, started by lightning and Native Americans, led to the development and
45 proliferation of forests dominated by fire-tolerant and dependent species, such as many oaks
46 (*Quercus* spp.), hickories (*Carya* spp.), and pines (*Pinus* spp.) (Ryan et al., 2013; Pyne, 2010;
47 Stanis et al., 2019; Waldrop et al., 2012). Where they once thrived in fire-sculpted environments,
48 their regeneration now struggles to compete with regeneration of more mesophytic species
49 (Izbicki et al., 2020; Ryan et al., 2013). These fire-sensitive species, such as maples (*Acer* spp.),
50 American beech (*Fagus grandifolia.*), and yellow-poplar (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), have the
51 ability to change forest composition, structure, and function (Izbicki et al., 2020; Reilly et al.,

2016; Ryan et al., 2013). Fire not only alters the way an area looks, but it can have significant impacts on the composition of species present, how they are structurally arranged, and the growth responses of residual stems, which may influence some functions of that forest or ecosystem (Knapp et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2017; Reilly et al., 2016; Ryan et al., 2013; Schweitzer et al., 2018). With the frequent and persistent use of fire, we tend to see more open and diverse understories, reduced midstories, and a less dense overstory, which are characteristics commonly used to describe woodlands or savannas (Izbicki et al., 2020; Knapp et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2017; Reilly et al., 2016; Schweitzer et al., 2018; Stanis et al., 2019). Repeated prescribed fire can halt succession by hindering regeneration (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Greenberg et al., 2012; Knapp et al., 2015; Knapp et al., 2017; Stambaugh et al., 2017; Waldrop et al., 2012). Changes in forest structure and composition also potentially impact wildlife communities that inhabit those ecosystems by altering nesting sites, food availability, and cover types (Coates et al., 2020; Ryan et al., 2013; Waldrop et al., 2012).

2.3 Prescribed fire intensity and frequency

Most prescribed fires in the eastern United States are conducted in order to achieve low fire intensity and severity (Keyser et al., 2018; Mann et al., 2020; Ryan et al., 2013). These types of fires are often implemented during the dormant season, and generally consume forest floor materials, top-killing only the smallest seedlings and saplings (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Schweitzer et al., 2018). Burning during the growing season is much more likely to damage meristematic tissues in trees and reduce the density of smaller diameter stems (Reilly et al., 2016; Waldrop et al., 2012). Forests burned annually do not have time to reaccumulate a reliable surface fuel load, whereas periodically burned (i.e. mean fire return interval of 4-5 years) forests do (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Knapp et al., 2015). This increase in surface fuels may increase

75 fire intensity and therefore the likelihood of damage followed by mortality (Coates et al., 2020;
76 Knapp et al., 2015; Ryan et al., 2013). Among fire-adapted species, as tree diameter increases,
77 the likelihood of mortality from prescribed fire decreases (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Keyser et
78 al., 2018; Knapp et al., 2017; Kinkead et al., 2017; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014). Most larger
79 diameter trees, except for thin barked species such as American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), are
80 not as susceptible to direct stem heating from fire, however, prescribed fires can still induce
81 mortality through feeder root mortality with duff consumption, direct stem heating from severe
82 fires, and delayed mortality from fire-influenced wounds that lead to decay or attract insects
83 (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Smith and Sutherland, 2001; Stephens et al., 2018; Waldrop et al.,
84 2012; Weidenbeck and Smith, 2018; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). Indirect effects of prescribed
85 fires on overstory trees can include decreased competition and increased soil nutrient availability
86 (Waldrop et al., 2012; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989).

87 **2.4 Tree wounding from prescribed fire**

88 Direct stem heating is one of the ways wildland fires may impact overstory trees through
89 cambial tissue injury or death (Keyser et al., 2018; Stambaugh et al., 2017). Most plant cells
90 experience mortality when heated to 50-65°C (Stambaugh et al., 2017; Waldrop et al., 2012).
91 Tissue may be damaged by temperatures in the lower part of the aforementioned range through
92 exposure over an extended period of time (Stambaugh et al., 2017; Waldrop et al., 2012). Trees
93 killed by fire (snags) play an important ecological role by providing wildlife with areas to rear
94 their young, protect themselves from the elements, and store food (Smith and Sutherland, 2001;
95 Stambaugh et al., 2017).

96 A common type of fire damage to trees is wounding, or scarring. Wound wood is an
97 important component to consider when managing for wood quality (Stambaugh et al., 2017).

98 Types of fire scars, or fire-wounds, include catfaces, seams, and bark sloughs (Kinkead et al.,
99 2017; Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Stanis et al., 2019). However, damage may not be visible
100 immediately post-fire (Kinkead et al., 2017; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). It may take several
101 years after a fire for the bark to fall off and reveal cambial injuries (Kinkead et al., 2017; Smith
102 and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). Some of the main factors that may
103 determine whether stems will be injured as a result of wildland fire are fire behavior, stem size,
104 and species characteristics, such as bark thickness and texture (Kinkead et al., 2017; Dey and
105 Schweitzer, 2018; Smith and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). More intense and
106 severe fire behavior, like that of wildfires, often results in more scarring, damage, and potential
107 mortality. However, larger diameter trees with thicker bark have been shown to be less prone to
108 overall wounding (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).

109 Some specific studies have been conducted that focused on trees wounded by prescribed
110 fire. These include the study by Stanis et al. (2019), which was conducted in southern Indiana
111 and looked at species such as white oak (*Q.s alba*), northern red oak (*Q. rubra*), *Carya* spp., and
112 sugar maple (*A. saccharum*). Prescribed fire histories between the 54 study sites varied based on
113 1, 2, 3, or 4+ prescribed fires over a 25-year period. They found that wounding led to a decrease
114 in grade for 2.8% of the 3,654 total trees samples. However, these grade changes were not
115 evaluated to determine potential differences between species. Another study by Kinkead et al.
116 (2017) was conducted in Missouri and looked at southern red oak (*Q. falcata*), *Carya* spp., and
117 *Q. alba* after two burns conducted in 2003 and 2005/2006. They found that *Q. falcata* had a
118 greater percentage of wounded trees than *Q. alba*. However, they lumped all other species,
119 including *A. rubrum*, into an ‘other’ species category. These ‘other’ species were the most
120 susceptible to fire-influenced wounding. <insert concluding statement>

121 A large multi-state study was conducted by Mann et al. (2020) in Missouri, Indiana,
122 Ohio, and Kentucky after 1, 2, 3, or 4+ prescribed burns had been conducted over the course of a
123 25 year period. Species of interest included *Q. alba*, chestnut oak (*Q. montana*), *A. saccharum*,
124 and *Q. rubra*. They found *Q. rubra* exhibited higher volume and value losses from wounding
125 than other oak species. Similar conclusions were found by Knapp et al. (2017) in Missouri where
126 they investigated white oak species, red oak species, *Carya spp.*, and others. They found that
127 fire-influenced wounds resulted in less than 3% value loss in stands that had been burned
128 approximately 15-60 times over the course of 60 years.

129 **2.5 How trees protect themselves**

130 A tree's first line of defense against fire is its outer bark. Thicker, less heat-conductive
131 bark is commonly seen in fire-tolerant species and helps to slow stem heating and prevent
132 cambial injury and death (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Keyser et al., 2018;
133 Stambaugh et al., 2017; Stanis et al., 2019; Waldrop et al., 2012; Wiedenbeck and Schuler,
134 2014). If a tree is damaged by fire, it immediately begins to compartmentalize the wound and the
135 surviving tissue works to grow over it (Smith and Sutherland, 2001). This enables wounded trees
136 to ward off fungus, infections, and decay (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Smith and Sutherland,
137 2001). However, closed wounds have the potential to hide pockets of decay which can lead to
138 reduced wood volume and value (Stanis et al., 2019). Wounds which result in cambial damage
139 trigger induced defenses, such as column boundary layers (compartmentalization), barrier zones,
140 and wound wood ribs (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Smith and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and
141 Smith, 2018). When the bark sloughs off to reveal a wound, the exposed wood is at a higher risk
142 for damage, such as additional charring and disease (Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).
143 Compartmentalization of wounded tissue allows trees to prevent cell dehydration and helps ward

144 off infections (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). When the ribs meet,
145 this junction decreases the amount of oxygen available to any fungus in the wound, which can
146 slow decay (Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).

147 **2.6 Tree grading**

148 Fire scars and other damage can result in decreased wood quality and value (Mann et al.,
149 2020). The first indication of a tree's quality is perceived by grading the best 3.7 m out of the
150 first 4.9 m, or merchantable stem. This grade accounts for all visible defects of a merchantable
151 stem in order to determine its quality, and thus its value (Mann et al., 2020). Since tree grading
152 ignores the side with the most defects, and fire commonly only damages one side of a stem, most
153 fire damaged trees retain their grade (Mann et al., 2020; Stanis et al., 2019). Studies on wood
154 quality conducted soon after burning may not yield accurate results, as trees have not had time to
155 display total damages and decay that occurred in the incipient stage (Kinkead et al., 2017; Stanis
156 et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). Generally, the larger
157 a wound is, the more likely it will have a significant impact on wood quality (Dey and
158 Schweitzer, 2018). The more damage, decay, and discoloration a tree has the greater the
159 reduction in wood quality (Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).

160 **2.7 Management Implications**

161 Most wounds caused by prescribed fires tend to seal within ten years (Stambaugh et al.,
162 2017; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). Scars are more likely to be found in areas burned with
163 prescribed fire periodically (every 4-5 years) than those burned very frequently (every 1-2 years)
164 (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Stambaugh et al., 2017). This is due to the fact that areas burned
165 every year, or every other year, have a lighter fuel load which is more characteristic of lower
166 intensity fire (Knapp et al., 2015). Therefore, frequent burning would be an important

167 management practice if the main objective was to improve timber quality by reducing scarring
168 and scar size (Stambaugh et al., 2017). Managers should be especially careful with first-entry
169 burns, specifically when they plan to follow it up with more frequent burning (Kinkead et al.,
170 2017; Stambaugh et al., 2017). According to Dey and Schweitzer (2018), harvesting injured trees
171 within 5 years of damage can limit value losses (Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Schuler,
172 2014).

173

174 **Chapter 3. Hardwood Tree Grades, Wounds, Volume Losses, and Charring Following**
175 **Prescribed Fires on the Monongahela National Forest, West Virginia, USA**

176
177 **3.1 Introduction**

178 It has been documented that trees exhibit species-specific, fire-adapted traits (Babl et al.,
179 2020; Smith and Sutherland, 2006). These include, but are not limited to, bark thickness and
180 texture (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Keyser et al., 2018; Smith and Sutherland, 2006; Stambaugh
181 et al., 2017; Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014), resprouting ability (Waldrop et
182 al., 2012; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989), and leaf physical and chemical properties (Kreye et al.,
183 2013; Varner et al., 2015). Bark thickness, in particular, helps trees to resist potential heat-
184 induced damage arising from wildland fires and capitalizes on the input of nutrients that typically
185 follows low intensity and severity prescribed surface fires (Schweitzer et al., 2018; Waldrop et
186 al., 2012; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989). The main factors that determine whether stems will be
187 injured or not are fire behavior, time since fire, stem size, and the aforementioned species-
188 specific characteristics, such as bark thickness and texture (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Kinkead
189 et al., 2017; Marschall et al. 2014; Smith and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).
190 Species that possess traits which help them withstand and propagate fire are labeled pyrophytes.
191 Species that possess opposing traits are generally labeled pyrophobes (Blackhall et al., 2017).

192 Wounds are often noted in stems following wildland fires. Types of wounds include
193 catfaces, seams, and bark sloughs (Kinkead et al., 2017; Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Stanis et al.,
194 2019). However, fire-influenced damage may not be visible immediately post-fire (Kinkead et
195 al., 2017; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). It may take several years after a fire for the bark to fall
196 off and reveal cambial injuries and wounds, or “scars” (Kinkead et al., 2017; Smith and
197 Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018). The location, position, and size of wounds is
198 critically important when considering potential prescribed fire effects. Determining if wounds

199 resulting in volume loss may be related to fire tolerance designations could be helpful for
200 prescribed fire managers, especially when targeting specific burn parameters to maximize
201 silvicultural objectives associated with fire. These objectives include controlling undesired
202 vegetation in the understory and mid-story (Carter and Foster, 2004; Dey and Schweitzer, 2018).

203 A study by Wiedenbeck and Schuler (2014), in a mesic, mixed oak forest in northeastern
204 West Virginia, looked at wood quality impacts from prescribed fire on red maple (*Acer rubrum*),
205 northern red oak (*Quercus rubra*), white oak (*Q. alba*), and yellow-poplar (*Liriodendron*
206 *tulipifera*). Trees were harvested five to eight years following two prescribed fires. Minimal fire
207 effects were noted on lumber produced from those trees; with the exception of *Q. rubra*, the
208 second board sawn under the fire-damaged face was clear of defects. Furthermore, Wiedenbeck
209 and Schuler (2014) determined that char, bark slough, small cat faces, and butt scar were
210 superficial in terms of the quality of the underlying wood. Dey and Schweitzer (2018) in their
211 study of oak-dominated systems in North America, concluded that harvesting injured trees
212 within five years of damage may limit volume and value losses (Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck
213 and Schuler, 2014).

214 Another study by Stanis et al. (2019) was conducted in various oak-dominated stands in
215 southern Indiana, and the authors determined that prescribed fire did not significantly affect
216 relative volume loss or grade at the stand-level. Another study conducted by Kinkead et al.
217 (2017) in Missouri consisted of a group of red oak species, including southern red oak (*Q.*
218 *falcata*), a group of white oak species, including *Q. alba*, and hickories (*Carya* spp.). Trees were
219 evaluated after two burns had been conducted in 2003 and 2005/2006. The authors hypothesized
220 that red oak species would have a higher percentage of wounded stems than those in the white
221 oak group due to differences in bark thickness. However, they lumped all other species,

222 including fire-intolerant species, such as *A. rubrum*, into an ‘other’ species category. These
223 ‘other’ species were the most susceptible to fire damage.

224 To investigate potential tree wounding from prescribed fire in the Appalachian
225 Mountains, a field experiment was conducted on the Monongahela National Forest in West
226 Virginia. One hundred thirty study plots (104 burned; 26 unburned control) were established at
227 six units where one or two mixed intensity and severity prescribed fires had been conducted
228 since 2012 to either promote forest health or increase the quality of wildlife habitat (J. Fry,
229 personal communication, 2021). Four commercially valuable hardwood species were inventoried
230 in the study: *A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, chestnut oak (*Q. montana*), and *Q. rubra*. The study hypotheses
231 were:

- 232 1. Tree grades will not be affected by the mixed intensity and severity prescribed fires
233 conducted on the Monongahela National Forest since 2012.
- 234 2. Wounding will differ by species, with *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra* exhibiting more
235 wounds than *Q. alba* or *Q. montana*.
- 236 3. Significant volume and value losses will not be associated with overstory trees found
237 in the burned locations.

238 **3.2 Methods**

239 *3.2.1 Study site*

240 The Monongahela National Forest (MNF) is located within the Allegheny Mountains,
241 part of the broad Appalachian Mountain range, along the eastern edge of West Virginia (Figure
242 1). The mean annual temperature range is 4°C to 17°C and mean precipitation is 116.7 cm (US
243 Climate Data, 2020). Soils within the MNF generally arise from acidic sandstone, shale, and
244 siltstone (Fowler, 2021). Ultisols are the dominant soil order, with the occasional Inceptisol

245 (USDA Web Soil Survey, 2022). A wide variety of tree species are present on the MNF,
246 including, but not limited to, *A. rubrum*, sugar maple (*A. saccharum*), *Q. rubra*, mockernut
247 hickory (*Carya tomentosa*), *Q. montana*, and yellow birch (*Betula alleghaniensis*).

248 3.2.2 Unit selection

249 Six locations within the MNF were selected for assessments of tree grades and
250 measurements of tree wounds. These locations had been burned one or two times since 2012.
251 Burn histories for these locations were obtained solely from management records, and there were
252 no records of burn day parameters or postburn conditions. All units, except one, were burned
253 using hand ignitions; the other burn unit, Big Mountain Unit 6, was ignited aurally using a
254 plastic sphere dispenser (PSD). Adjacent, unburned, or control, locations were located in close
255 proximity to the prescribed burn units. To our knowledge, these control locations had not been
256 exposed to any wildland fires for at least the last 20 years. In total, 130 variable radius plots were
257 established using a prism (basal area factor (BAF) 20). The number of plots was composed of
258 104 plots within burn units and 26 control plots located adjacent to burn units. The specific
259 location of the variable radius plots were randomly established using the fishnet tool in ArcGIS
260 Pro (ESRI Company, Redlands, CA, USA).

261 3.2.3 Field Measurements and Assessments

262 All standing stems greater than or equal to 25.4 cm diameter at breast height (DBH) were
263 inventoried in the BAF 20 variable radius plots. A minimum DBH of 25.4 cm was selected
264 because that is the lower threshold for sawtimber tree DBH. Species was recorded and DBH
265 (cm) was measured for each stem. Dead trees were inventoried and measured when species was
266 discernable. At each location where the BAF prism was utilized, aspect (measured using a

267 clinometer), elevation (m), slope percent, and slope position (upper, middle, or low) were also
268 measured or assessed.

269 *3.2.4 Wound appraisal*

270 Additionally, for each inventoried stem, all wounds above stump height (15.2 cm
271 aboveground) were identified. Wounds occurring below stump height were ignored. Wounds
272 were assumed to be fire-influenced on trees within the burn units if there were visible signs of
273 degradation to the bark or cambium around the wound (Figure 2.) Wounds were classified into
274 four categories: catface, oval, seam, and slough. This deviated from previous studies looking at
275 wounding, such as Marschall et al. (2014) and Stanis et al. (2019), in that the wound category of
276 multiple seams was excluded.

277 Catfaces were defined as measurable, open, triangular-shaped wounds near the base of a
278 tree with distinct depth and wound ribs present (Smith and Sutherland, 2001). Ovals were
279 classified as open wounds with apparent wound ribs. They were typically elliptically-shaped and
280 located greater than 1.37 m on the stem. Seams appeared as cracks in the bark, but looked like
281 the joint of two wound ribs. Bark slough was similar to a seam, but was distinguished by
282 chipped, peeling, and/or missing pieces of bark (Mann et al., 2020). Regardless of wound type,
283 dimensions such as length, height, depth, and width were measured for each wound. Width was
284 measured at the widest point of the wound, and depth was measured at the deepest point (Mann
285 et al., 2020). For wounds such as seams and bark slough, where no measurable depths were
286 present, a depth of 1.3 cm was assigned (Mann et al., 2020; Stanis et al., 2019).

287 In addition to these, char was noted and measured for trees within the burned locations,
288 but char was not considered a wound due to its suspected, superficial nature (Stanis et al., 2019;
289 Smith and Sutherland, 2006). However, char was specifically monitored in this study due to the

290 hesitancy of timber buyers within the Appalachian Region to place bids on timber sales
291 containing charred trees out of concern that any char is associated with poor wood quality,
292 marketability, and value (A. Coates, personal communication, 2019). Char was considered any
293 blackening of the tree bark from fire.

294 *3.2.5 Tree grading*

295 Based upon the wound assessments noted in section 3.2.4, and any other potential defects
296 such as rot, tree grades were also assessed for each inventoried stem using the USDA Forest
297 Service hardwood tree grading system (Hanks 1976) and the protocols developed by Loomis
298 (1974). This grade accounts for all visible defects on a merchantable stem in order to determine
299 its quality, and thus its value (Mann et al., 2020), and is based on the second worst face out of the
300 best 3.7 m section of the bottom 4.9 m butt log (Miller and Wiant, 1986). When a fire-related
301 wound was suspected for a given tree within a burned location, as mentioned in section 3.2.4
302 (Figure 2), these trees were reassessed and given a new grade, taking into account any potential
303 fire-influenced wounds. The following grades could be assigned to each tree: 1, 2, 3, or below
304 grade.

305 *3.2.6 Volume and value loss*

306 For each inventoried and graded tree within the sampling locations, potential volume loss
307 and percentage of cull were calculated for wounds. Specific equations were utilized to
308 approximate potential volume loss and followed those used by Mann et al. (2020), Larsen
309 (2017), and Hilt et al. (1983).

310 *3.2.7 Statistical analyses*

311 All statistical analyses were conducted in JMP Pro 16 (SAS Corporation, Cary, NC,
312 USA) and statistical differences were determined at $\alpha=0.05$. Basal area ($\text{m}^2 \text{ha}^{-1}$) was compared

313 between the burned and unburned locations for all inventoried stems using a Wilcoxon test for
314 non-parametric data (Conover, 1971). Subsequently, all non-commercial species and dead stems
315 were excluded from our analyses. Median tree grades and mean DBH for the four, primary
316 commercial species, *A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, *Q. montana*, and *Q. rubra*, were compared between the
317 burned and control locations using Wilcoxon tests for non-parametric data (Conover, 1971). To
318 assess potential differences in the probability of encountering wounded stems (by wound count,
319 type, and species) between the burned and control locations, models were assessed using Fisher's
320 Exact Test for binomial data with small sample sizes (Ott and Longnecker, 2015). Potential best
321 fit models to assess the probability of encountering a wounded stem in any of the sampled
322 locations were assessed using the full host of physiographic factors (aspect, elevation, slope
323 percent, slope position) assessed at each sampling locations and the measured or assessed
324 variables at each stem using logistic regression (Ott and Longnecker, 2015).

325 For the burned trees, separate assessments of wounding for charred trees were also
326 conducted using Fisher's Exact Test for binomial data (Ott and Longnecker, 2015). Potential
327 models to assess the probability of encountering a charred tree within the burned locations were
328 assessed using the full host of aforementioned physiographic factors assessed at each sampling
329 location and the measured or assessed variables at each stem using logistic regression (Ott and
330 Longnecker, 2015).

331 Potential volume and value loss comparisons between the burned and control locations
332 were planned, however, few trees possessed wounds constituting either volume or value losses
333 (see section 3.3.1.3). Therefore, no statistical comparisons were conducted to assess differences
334 between the burned and control locations for these variables.

335

336 **3.3 Results**

337 *3.3.1 Burned and control comparisons*

338 *3.3.1.1 Basal area, diameter at breast height, and tree grades*

339 In total, 622 trees were measured within the burned and control locations on the MNF in
340 West Virginia. Four hundred eighty-nine of those trees were in burned locations, and the other
341 133 trees were in control locations. Total, live, and dead basal area did not differ between the
342 burned and unburned locations (all $p > 0.05$) (Table 1). For the four selected commercial species,
343 mean DBH only differed between the burned and control locations for *A. rubrum* ($p = 0.0028$)
344 (Table 2). Mean DBH differences between species within the burned and control units were
345 similar, regardless of burn status (both $p < 0.0001$): *A. rubrum* was the smallest, followed by *Q.*
346 *montana*, which was not significantly different than *Q. alba*. *Quercus rubra* stems were the
347 largest, but they did not differ from *Q. montana* (Table 2). Median tree grades did not differ
348 within species between the burned and control locations (all $p > 0.1719$) (Table 3). No trees within
349 the burned or control locations contained wounds or defects that altered tree grade.

350 *3.3.1.2 Wounds*

351 A significantly higher probability of finding wounded stems in burned locations than in
352 control locations existed for all species except *Q. alba* (all other $p < 0.0019$) (Table 4) and the
353 probability of finding each wound type was greater in burned locations than control locations (all
354 $p < 0.0253$) (Table 5). However, according to our visual assessment and determination of fire-
355 influenced wounds on trees located in the burned locations (Figure 2), the probability of
356 encountering a fire-influenced wound did not differ by species within the burned locations
357 ($p = 0.3477$) (Table 6). Without regard for whether or not wounds within the burned locations
358 were categorized as fire-influenced wounds, the probability of encountering an oval wound in *A.*

359 *rubrum* stems was greater in burned locations than control locations ($p=0.0318$) (Table 5). The
360 probability of encountering *Q. montana* and *Q. rubra* stems with seams and sloughs was greater
361 in burned locations than control locations (all $p<0.0213$) (Table 5). Without regard for burn
362 status (burned or control), the likelihood of encountering an oval wound differed by species
363 ($p=0.0184$) and was greatest for *A. rubrum* (Table 5).

364 Comprehensive best fit models to determine the probability of encountering a wounded
365 tree in the burned or control locations, without considering whether or not a wound was fire-
366 influenced within the burned locations, were assessed using the following factors: burn status,
367 burn area, number of burns, DBH, species, aspect, elevation, slope percent, and slope position.
368 The best fit model ($r^2=0.08$) included only burn status (burned or control) ($p<0.0001$) and tree
369 species ($p=0.0471$). According to the odds ratios for this model, an individual would be:

- 370 a. 6.3 times more likely to encounter a wounded tree in a burned location ($p<0.0001$).
- 371 b. 2.6 times more likely to encounter a wounded *A. rubrum* than a wounded *Q. alba*
372 ($p=0.0388$).
- 373 c. 2.7 times more likely to encounter a wounded *Q. rubra* than a wounded *Q. alba*.
374 ($p=0.0192$)

375 3.3.1.3 Volume and value losses

376 Two stems within the control locations possessed wounds that constituted volume losses,
377 one *Q. alba* and one *Q. montana*. Twenty-two stems within the burned locations possessed
378 wounds that constituted volume losses: seven with volume loss not related to fire and fifteen
379 stems with volume loss associated with fire-influenced wounds. The probability of encountering
380 any stems with volume loss wounds in the burned locations did not differ by species ($p=0.0891$)
381 (Table 7), but the probability of encountering stems with fire-influenced volume loss wounds did

382 differ by species ($p=0.0294$), with *A. rubrum* possessing the highest percentage of trees with fire-
383 influenced volume loss, followed by *Q. rubra* and *Q. montana* (Table 7).

384 For all trees sustaining wounds that would result in volume loss, regardless of burn status,
385 all volume losses constituted less than 3% of the first 4.9 m log, therefore value loss was not
386 calculated for any of these stems.

387 3.3.2 Charred stems

388 Mean DBH for charred stems differed by species ($p<0.0001$), with *Q. rubra* stems being
389 significantly larger than *Q. montana* and *A. rubrum*, but not significantly different than *Q. alba*
390 (Table 8). The probability of char presence on stems differed between the six burned locations
391 ($p<0.0001$) (Table 9), but these differences were not significantly related to the number of
392 prescribed burns (either 1 or 2; $p=0.4733$) (Table 10). The range of char presence on stems
393 within the burned units was 54.5%-98.6% (Table 9), with both the low and high percentages for
394 that range constituting locations that were burned only once.

395 Additionally, the probability of charring did not differ by species ($p=0.2146$) (Table 11).
396 For trees that were both charred and wounded, the probability of encountering stems with oval
397 wounds differed by species ($p=0.0299$) and was highest for *A. rubrum*, followed by *Q. montana*
398 and *Q. rubra*; no oval wounds were found on charred and wounded *Q. alba* stems (Table 11).
399 Again, the probability of charring on wounded trees did not differ by the number of prescribed
400 fires ($p=0.4733$) (Table 10), but the probability of charring on wounded stems for *Q. rubra* was
401 greater in locations that were burned twice ($p=0.0187$) (Table 11).

402 Based upon the number of burns, burn area, physiographic factors, and tree assessments
403 conducted within the burned locations, the best fit model to determine the probability of

404 encountering a charred stem included only burn area ($p < 0.0001$; $r^2 = 0.24$). According to the odds
405 ratios, an individual would be:

- 406 a. 56.7 times more likely to find a charred tree in BMU6 than BMU5 ($p < 0.0001$).
- 407 b. 17.5 times more likely to find a charred tree in HUAB than BMU5 ($p = 0.0003$).
- 408 c. 4.0 times more likely to find a charred tree in HUC than BMU5 ($p = 0.01$).
- 409 d. 14.1 times more likely to find a charred tree in BMU6 than HUC ($p = 0.0165$).
- 410 e. 51.0 times more likely to find a charred tree in BMU6 than MMS ($p = 0.0002$).
- 411 f. 15.8 times more likely to find a charred tree in HUAB than MMS ($p = 0.0005$).
- 412 g. 3.6 times more likely to find a charred tree in HUC than MMS ($p = 0.0184$).
- 413 h. 17 times more likely to find a charred tree in BMU6 than RAM ($p = 0.0269$).

414 Mean char height range was 0.48 – 2.13 m and both locations at the poles of this range were
415 burned once since 2012. The burn objectives for these locations differed (0.48 m: timber; 2.13 m:
416 wildlife) (Table 9). However, BMU6 had the highest odds ratios from the best fit model, but had
417 only the second greatest mean char height (1.76 m) (Table 9).

418 **3.4 Discussion**

419 *3.4.1 Tree grades*

420 In this study, tree grades did not differ when fire-related wounds and defects were
421 considered (Table 3). Similar studies using USDA Forest Service hardwood tree grades
422 documented small percentages of trees with grade changes due to fire-influenced wounding
423 (Mann et al., 2020; Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014). In a study by Stanis et al.
424 (2019) of *Q. alba*, *Q. rubra*, *Carya* spp., and *A. saccharum* on the Hoosier National Forest in
425 southern Indiana, 54 sites were evaluated that had been burned at least once over the previous 25
426 years, but included some locations that were burned multiple times (2, 3, or 4+). The authors

427 determined that wounding led to a grade reduction in 2.8% of the 3,654 sampled trees. However,
428 none of these grade changes were attributed to specific species, but were generalized for all
429 species. They also found that grade change increased to 7% for all species except *Q. alba* after
430 four prescribed fires.

431 A comparable study by Mann et al. (2020) conducted on the Hoosier (Indiana), Mark
432 Twain (Missouri), Wayne (Ohio), and Daniel Boone (Kentucky) National Forests looked at
433 species such as *A. saccharum*, *Q. alba*, *Q. montana*, *Q. rubra*. They classified stands into
434 prescribed fire histories of 1, 2, 3, or 4+ prescribed fires in the last 25 years. They found that fire-
435 related wounds led to a grade reduction in 6.6% of the 2,008 hardwood trees sampled. Another
436 study by Wiedenbeck and Schuler (2014) conducted in northeastern West Virginia, looked *A.*
437 *rubrum*, *Q. alba*, *Q. montana*, *Q. rubra*, and *L. tulipifera*. previous prescribed fires had been
438 conducted in 2002 and 2005 before the study began. They found that 10 out of 79 (12%) trees
439 selected and milled showed a reduction in grade or scale volume due to substantial fire effects.
440 However, 7 of those 10 stems were *A. rubrum*. The authors hypothesized these grade reductions
441 were due to a higher fire intensity and increased fire behavior.

442 Based upon the comparison of our study on the MNF to the other studies, it may be
443 hypothesized that a larger sample size or a longer period of time since the last fire occurred may
444 lead to potential grade changes on the MNF. In areas burned one year prior to the study, some
445 wounds were likely still hidden underneath the outer bark and were not observed (Kinkead et al.,
446 2017; Smith and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014; Wiedenbeck and Smith,
447 2018).

448 3.4.2 Wounding

449 In our study, in the burned locations, wounds occurred on 37.6% of trees (Table 6). This
450 is greater than the 19.3% found by Kinkead et al. (2017) in their study of red and white oaks and
451 hickories in Missouri. However, our result was comparable to the percent of wounded trees
452 found in their thin + burn treatment (32.4%). Similar to our study (Table 6), they also found that
453 *A. rubrum*, categorized as an ‘other’ species in their group comparisons, was most susceptible to
454 fire damage. Our study also found that for all species (*A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, *Q. montana*, and *Q.*
455 *rubra*) the percent of trees wounded increased after two prescribed fires (Table 10). The actual
456 number of wounded stems increased for *Q. alba* and *Q. rubra* (Table 10). However, a study by
457 Schweitzer et al. (2018) in central Alabama looked at species such as *A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, *Q.*
458 *montana*, and various pine (*Pinus* spp.) species. They classified one fire as an infrequent fire
459 regime and three fires as a frequent fire regime, and found that wounding may increase after
460 three dormant season prescribed fires. They also found that thinning along with frequent fire
461 (every 1-2 years) led to the greatest number of bole wounds.

462 In our study, it often was difficult to assess whether or not a wound had been caused by
463 fire, especially in areas with two fires. If locations had been burned once and a wound was
464 present with char in it, then that wound was not assumed to be fire-influenced (Figure 2). It was
465 difficult to determine if a wound was fire-influenced in locations that had been burned more than
466 once because the wound may have been caused by the first prescribed fire, not the most current
467 prescribed fire. The mean char heights and patchy nature of char being found on individual trees
468 led us to think that most of the burned locations were subjected to mixed intensity and severity
469 prescribed fires. On trees with no char present, it was especially difficult to determine if a wound
470 was caused by fire or not. As mentioned previously in section 4.1, in areas burned one year prior

471 to the study, some wounds may have resided underneath the bark and were therefore unrecorded
472 (Kinkead et al., 2017).

473 3.4.3 Volume and value losses

474 In this study, the probability of encountering a stem with fire-influenced wounds
475 resulting in volume loss differed by species. *Acer rubrum* had the most trees with fire-influenced
476 wounds resulting in volume loss, followed by *Q. rubra*, and *Q. montana* (Table 7). Similarly, in
477 the multi-state study conducted by Mann et al. (2020), the authors found that *Q. rubra*
478 experienced higher value loss than other oak species, and that as the number of prescribed burns
479 implemented grew, so did sawtimber volume and value loss. Their study showed that volume
480 and value losses increased by +0.9% and +1.5% per burn over a 25-year period. In our study, for
481 all trees exhibiting wounds that may result in volume loss, all volume losses constituted less than
482 3% of the first 4.9 m log. Similar conclusions were found by Knapp et al. (2017) in Missouri in
483 their study of white oaks, red oaks, hickories, and other species. They found that fire-influenced
484 wounds resulted in less than 3% value loss in stands following 60 years of prescribed burning.
485 This agrees with our conclusion on the MNF that all volume and value losses appeared to be
486 very minimal following prescribed fires.

487 In our study, specific value losses were not calculated due to so few trees possessing
488 wounds constituting both volume and value loss. For those few trees that were suspected to
489 contain volume loss, the volume losses were minimal and were confined to locations close to the
490 ground. However, a study by Marschall et al. (2014) conducted in Missouri looked at red oaks
491 (*Q. velutina*, *Q. rubra*, and *Q. coccinea*) following 3-4 prescribed fires over a 10-14 year period,
492 and found that the fire-influenced butt logs of merchantable red oaks only lost approximately
493 10% of their commercial value after harvesting. Trees were harvested a maximum of 14 years

494 after the fire damage occurred. Assuming this is the same for oak stands throughout the eastern
495 US, the value loss associated with prescribed fire is relatively minor (Kinkead et al., 2017; Smith
496 and Sutherland, 2001; Wiedenbeck and Smith, 2018).

497 *3.4.4 Management implications*

498 It has been shown that harvesting wounded stems 5-10 years after a burn will minimize
499 volume and value losses (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Schweitzer et al., 2018; Weidenbeck and
500 Schuler, 2014). A study by Stambaugh et al. (2017) showed that in a periodic prescribed fire
501 regime (mean fire return interval 5 years), wounds would be expected to close prior to the next
502 burn if wounds were small. As time since fire increased, wounds would have a chance to seal
503 before subsequent exposure to the next fire. However, fuels would reaccumulate over this time
504 period, therefore higher fire intensity of any subsequent burns may increase the likelihood of a
505 wounding (Stambaugh et al., 2017). Therefore, selecting a desired fire return interval may
506 benefit from considerations of fuel reaccumulation and time needed for potential wound
507 closures.

508 It has been shown that conducting a prescribed fire right after thinning can lead to a
509 greater percentage of stems with bole wounds than either of those practices by themselves (Dey
510 and Schweitzer, 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Schweitzer et al., 2018). Prescribed fire alone is not
511 likely to accomplish management objectives associated with forest structure in a timely manner,
512 therefore it is recommended that another management practice be used in combination with fire,
513 such as precommercial or commercial thinning (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Kinkead et al.,
514 2017). The long-term benefits of thinning and prescribed fire to promote desired structural
515 conditions and species compositions in eastern oak forests were documented by Waldrop et al.

516 (2016) and Oakman et al. (2019) in western North Carolina. However, wildlife habitat was the
517 primary management objective at this location, not timber management.

518 The Monongahela National Forest plans to continue the use of prescribed fire in our
519 burned locations. In our study, no direct effects of measurable wood quality were obtained
520 because no stems were felled and milled to evaluate lumber quality and potential defects.
521 Continued research is warranted at this site and others where prescribed fire has been used in
522 Appalachian Mountain forest management to determine the effects of prescribed fire on potential
523 value losses in final products. Char is a concern for timber buyers within this region, therefore
524 precommercial and commercial thinning and final harvest operations will continue to be
525 hampered by this suspicion. Documented evidence of the direct effects of fire on wood quality
526 may further assist land managers as they determine how to accomplish their long-term
527 management objectives in specific locations.

528 **3.5. Conclusions**

529 Comprehensively, our results from an evaluation of six locations subjected to 1 or 2
530 prescribed burns on the Monongahela National Forest since 2012 suggested that: 1. Median
531 grade was not impacted by these prescribed fires (Table 3); 2. stem wounding, overall, was
532 greater in the burned locations (37.8% of stems) than the control locations (8.7%) (Table 5 and
533 the best fit probability model, section 3.3.1.2), but additional, visual diagnoses of whether or not
534 a wound was fire-influenced in the burned locations suggested that actual fire-influenced wounds
535 accounted for a much smaller percentage of stems (only 13.5% of stems) (Table 6); 3. All
536 volume and value losses appeared minimal within these locations, regardless of burn status; and
537 4. the probability of charring did not differ by species within the burned locations (Table 11), nor
538 the number of fires (Table 10). Char was not considered a wound for this exercise and no felling,

539 sawing, or milling was conducted to actually assess wood quality. Therefore, continued research
540 is warranted at this site to determine how prescribed fires may impact actual volume and value
541 losses for both wounded and/or charred trees and to determine if char and any of the wounds
542 noted within the burned units constitute additional volume and value losses as time since fire
543 increases or additional burns are conducted. Additional research within this region is justified to
544 determine how differences in fire behavior and time since fire impact responses to heating for
545 these species and additional, commercially marketable species.

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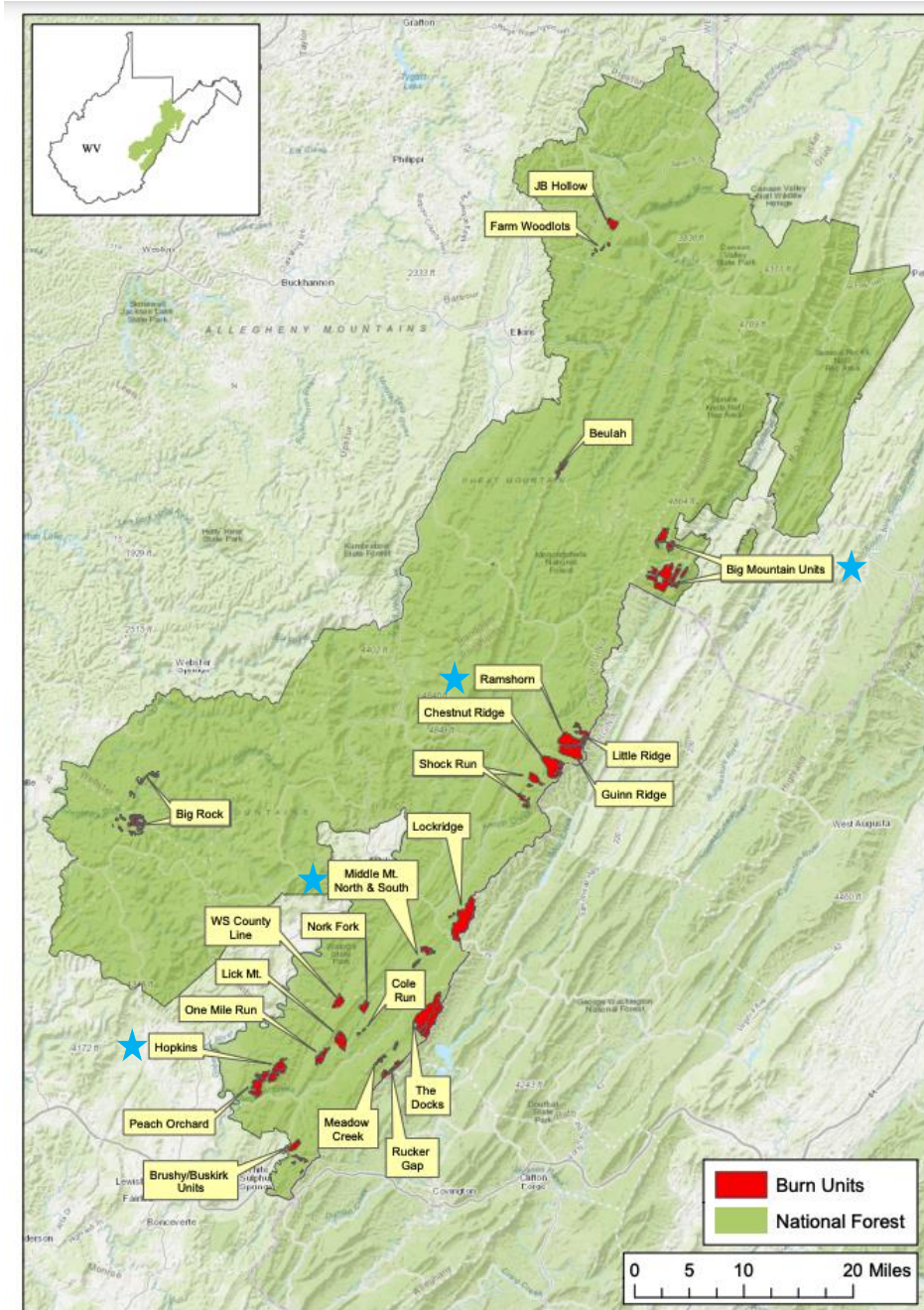
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MNF GIS Staff/KHG
 UTM Zone 17, NAD 83
 August 26, 2019


Prescribed Burn Units
Monongahela National Forest



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Figure 1. Location of the Monongahela National Forest in West Virginia, USA, and burn units within the Forest. The following were selected for assessment of tree grades, measurements of wounds, and observations of charring: Big Mountain Unit 5 (BMU5), Big Mountain Unit 6 (BMU6), Middle Mountain South (MMS), Hopkins Unit A&B (HUAB), Hopkins Unit C (HUC), and Ramshorn (RAM).

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Figure 2. Pictures of tree wounds and char found on the Monongahela National Forest, West Virginia, USA: a. char at base of tree, b. catface, c. oval, d. seam, e. bark sloughing off to reveal a wound, f. tree with char, oval, and bark slough.

732 Table 1. Total, live, and dead basal area (m^2ha^{-1}) within the burned and control plots measured
 733 on the Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.
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Total Basal Area (m^2ha^{-1})			
Burn Status	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	p-value
Burn (n=104)	16.5	0.8	0.2227
Control (n=26)	18.7	1.5	
Live Basal Area (m^2ha^{-1})			
Burn Status	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	p-value
Burn (n=104)	15.7	0.8	0.2167
Control (n=26)	18.2	1.6	
Dead Basal Area (m^2ha^{-1})			
Burn Status	Mean	Standard Error of Mean	p-value
Burn (n=104)	0.8	0.3	0.6933
Control (n=26)	0.5	0.3	

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748 Table 2. Mean diameter breast height (DBH) (cm) differences by burn status within and between species for live trees within the burn
 749 and control units of the Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA. Letter notations listed with the mean values indicate significant
 750 differences between burn status or species.
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Differences by burn status within species						
Species	Burn Status	Mean DBH (cm)	Standard Error of the Mean (cm)	Wilcoxon p-value		
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=84)	Burn (n=62)	38.3 A	1.5	0.0028		
	Control (n=19)	30.5 B	1.1			
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=47)	Burn (n=35)	46.9	2.3	0.2243		
	Control (n=10)	40.9	4.1			
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=157)	Burn (n=112)	43.6	1.2	0.1818		
	Control (n=38)	41.0	2.2			
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=191)	Burn (n=147)	54.9	1.4	0.2139		
	Control (n=36)	50.8	2.5			
Differences by burn status between species						
Species	Burn Units			Control Units		
	Mean DBH (cm)	Standard Error of the Mean (cm)	Steel-Dwass p-value	Mean DBH (cm)	Standard Error of the Mean (cm)	Steel-Dwass p-value
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	38.3 C	1.5	<0.0001	30.5 C	1.1	<0.0001
<i>Quercus alba</i>	46.9 AB	2.2		40.9 AB	4.1	
<i>Quercus montana</i>	43.6 B	1.2		41.0 B	2.2	
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	54.9 A	1.3		50.8 A	2.5	

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754 Table 3. Median grade by species for live trees in the burned and control plots measured on the
 755 Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.

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Species	Burn Status	Median Tree Grade	Wilcoxon Score Mean	p-value
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	Burn (n=62)	2	0.46	0.1719
	Control (n=19)	3	0.61	
<i>Quercus alba</i>	Burn (n=35)	1	0.45	0.2219
	Control (n=10)	2	0.63	
<i>Quercus montana</i>	Burn (n=112)	1	0.48	0.2236
	Control (n=38)	1.5	0.58	
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	Burn (n=147)	1	0.51	0.4661
	Control (n=36)	1	0.47	

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774 Table 4. Number of wounds by species for the live trees in the burned and control plots measured
 775 on the Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.
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Species	Burn Status	Number of Wounds per Tree					Total Count Wounded
		0	1	2	3	4	
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	Burn (n=62)	35 (56.5%)	20 (32.2%)	6 (9.7%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.6%)	27 (43.5%)
	Control (n=19)	18 (94.7%)	1 (5.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.3%)
							p-value 0.0019
<i>Quercus alba</i>	Burn (n=35)	28 (80.0%)	6 (17.1%)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	7 (20.0%)
	Control (n=10)	9 (90.0%)	1 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (10.0%)
							p-value 0.6611
<i>Quercus montana</i>	Burn (n=112)	75 (67.0%)	25 (22.3%)	8 (7.1%)	4 (3.6%)	0 (0.0%)	37 (33.0%)
	Control (n=38)	35 (92.1%)	2 (5.3%)	1 (2.6%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (7.9%)
							p-value 0.0025
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	Burn (n=147)	84 (57.1%)	49 (33.4%)	11 (7.5%)	3 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	63 (42.9%)
	Control (n=36)	32 (88.9%)	3 (8.3%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (11.1%)
							p-value 0.0004
Overall Burn Status	Burn (n=356)	222 (62.4%)	100 (28.1%)	26 (7.2%)	7 (2.0%)	1 (0.3%)	134 (37.6%)
	Control (n=103)	94 (91.3%)	7 (6.8%)	2 (1.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (8.7%)
							p-value <0.0001

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785 Table 5. Tally of wound type by species for the live trees in the burned and control plots measured on the Monongahela National
 786 Forest, WV, USA. Fisher's Exact states the probably of yes for the response variable between the levels.
 787

Wounding by Burn Status within Species					
Species	Burn Status	Catface	Oval	Seam	Slough
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	Burn (n=62)	4 (6.5%)	13 (21.0%)	4 (6.5%)	11 (17.7%)
	Control (n=19)	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	0.5681	0.0318	0.5681	0.0590
<i>Quercus alba</i>	Burn (n=35)	1 (3%)	1 (2.9%)	4 (11.4%)	2 (5.7%)
	Control (n=10)	0 (0%)	1 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	1.000	1.000	0.5607	1.000
<i>Quercus montana</i>	Burn (n=112)	6 (5.4%)	10 (8.9%)	14 (12.5%)	16 (14.3%)
	Control (n=38)	1 (2.6%)	3 (7.9%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.05)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	0.6793	0.2914	0.0213	0.0122
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	Burn (n=147)	18 (12.2%)	9 (6.1%)	25 (17.0%)	20 (13.6%)
	Control (n=36)	1 (2.8%)	2 (5.6%)	2 (5.6%)	0 (0.0%)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	0.1290	0.6894	0.0051	0.0151
Wounding by Burn Status					
	Burn (n=356)	29 (8.1%)	33 (9.3%)	47 (13.2%)	49 (13.8%)
	Control (n=103)	2 (1.9%)	7 (6.8%)	2 (1.9%)	0 (0.0%)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	0.0253	0.0107	<0.0001	<0.0001
Wounding by Species					
	<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=81)	4 (4.9%)	14 (17.2%)	4 (4.9%)	11 (13.6%)
	<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=45)	1 (2.2%)	2 (4.4%)	4 (8.9%)	2 (4.4%)
	<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=150)	7 (4.7%)	13 (8.7%)	14 (9.3%)	16 (10.7%)
	<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=183)	19 (10.4%)	11 (6.0%)	27 (17.8%)	20 (10.9%)
	Fisher's Exact p-value	0.1109	0.0184	0.1810	0.4695

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789 Table 6. Visual estimation of wounded trees within the burn units of the Monongahela National
 790 Forest, WV, USA that possessed fire-influenced wounds (either catface, oval, seam, or slough).
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Species	Wounded Count	Fire-influenced Wounds	
		Count	Fisher's Exact p-value
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=62)	27 (43.5%)	11 (17.7%)	0.3477
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=35)	7 (20.0%)	2 (5.7%)	
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=112)	37 (33.0%)	13 (11.6%)	
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=147)	63 (42.9%)	22 (15.0%)	
Total	134 (37.6%)	48 (35.8%)	

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819 Table 7. Volume loss for trees within the burned units of the Monongahela National Forest, WV,
 820 USA.
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Species	Any Volume Loss	Fire Volume Loss Only
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=62)	7 (11.3%)	5 (8.9%)
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=35)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=112)	4 (3.6%)	1 (0.9%)
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=147)	11 (7.5%)	9 (6.1%)
Fisher's Exact p-value	0.0891	0.0294

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838 Table 8. Mean diameter breast height (DBH) (cm) by species for charred trees within the burn
 839 units of the Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA. Letter notations associated with the mean
 840 values indicate significant differences between species.
 841

Species	Mean DBH (cm)	Standard Error of the Mean	Wilcoxon p-value
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=32)	40.7 B	2.2	<0.0001
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=9)	51.9 AB	4.1	
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=68)	41.6 B	1.3	
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=86)	55.7 A	1.8	

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857 Table 9. Stem counts for charred stems located within the burn areas evaluated on the Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.
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Burn Unit	Number of Burns	Burn 1	Burn 2	Burn purpose	Mean Char Height (m)	Stems in Burn Unit	Charred Stems	
							Count	Fisher's Exact p-value
BMU5	1	Apr. 2019	n/a	Timber	0.48	44	24 (54.5%)	p<0.0001
BMU6	1	Apr. 2018	n/a	Timber	1.76	69	68 (98.6%)	
HUAB	2	Apr. 2014	Apr. 2018	Wildlife	1.12	44	42 (95.5%)	
HUC	2	Nov. 2015	Apr. 2018	Wildlife	0.73	35	29 (82.9%)	
MMS	2	Apr. 2012	Mar. 2021	Wildlife	0.75	42	24 (57.1%)	
RAM	1	Mar. 2019	n/a	Wildlife	2.13	10	8 (80.0%)	
					1.16	244		

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876 Table 10. Number of wounds per stem for charred trees by species based upon the number of prescribed fires since 2012 on the
 877 Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.
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Species	Number of Burns	Number of Wounds per Charred Tree					Total Count Charred and Wounded	
		0	1	2	3	4		
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=32)	One (n=24)	11 (45.8%)	10 (41.7%)	3 (12.5%)	0	0	13 (54.2%)	
	Two (n=8)	3 (37.5%)	2 (25.0%)	2 (25.0%)	0	1 (12.5%)	5 (62.5%)	
							p-value	1.000
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=9)	One (n=0)	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	Two (n=9)	7 (77.8%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)	0	0	2 (22.2%)	
							p-value	1.000
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=68)	One (n=16)	10 (62.5%)	4 (25.0%)	2 (12.5%)	0	0	6 (37.5%)	
	Two (n=52)	32 (61.5%)	11 (21.2%)	5 (9.6%)	4 (7.7%)	0	20 (38.5%)	
							p-value	1.000
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=86)	One (n=60)	38 (63.3%)	19 (31.7%)	3 (5.0%)	0	0	22 (36.7%)	
	Two (n=26)	9 (34.6%)	11 (42.4%)	3 (11.5%)	3 (11.5%)	0	17 (65.4%)	
							p-value	0.0187
Cumulative Species	One (n=100)	59 (59.0%)	33 (33.0%)	8 (8.0%)	0	0	41 (41.0%)	
	Two (n=95)	51 (53.7%)	25 (26.3%)	11 (11.6%)	7 (7.4%)	1 (1.0%)	44 (46.3%)	
							p-value	0.4733

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880 Table 11. Charred trees within the burn units possessing additional wounds by species,
 881 Monongahela National Forest, WV, USA.
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Species	Number of Charred Trees	Charred Trees with Wounds			
		Catface	Oval	Seam	Slough
<i>Acer rubrum</i> (n=41)	32 (78.0%)	2 (6.3%)	8 (25.0%)	2 (6.3%)	11 (34.3%)
<i>Quercus alba</i> (n=14)	9 (64.3%)	1 (11.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)
<i>Quercus montana</i> (n=79)	68 (86.1%)	3 (4.4%)	7 (10.3%)	6 (8.8%)	5 (7.4%)
<i>Quercus rubra</i> (n=110)	86 (78.2%)	10 (11.6%)	5 (5.9%)	13 (15.1%)	20 (23.3%)
Fisher's Exact p-value	0.2146	0.3485	0.0299	0.6393	0.4765

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895 **Chapter 4. Conclusion**

896 Prescribed fire is an important, and commonly implemented land management practice in
897 the southeastern United States (Carter and Foster, 2004; Coates et al., 2020; Greenberg et al.,
898 2012; Keyser et al., 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Knapp et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2020; Pyne,
899 2010; Ryan et al., 2013; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989; Waldrop et al., 2012; Wiedenbeck and
900 Schuler, 2014). Species exhibit traits conducive to fire managed environments, such as varying
901 levels of bark thickness and texture, resprouting strategy, and root-fungal associations (Dey and
902 Schweitzer, 2018; Keyser et al., 2018; Kreye et al., 2013; Smith and Sutherland, 2006;
903 Stambaugh et al., 2017; Stanis et al., 2019; Waldrop et al., 2012; Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989;
904 Varner et al., 2015). After a period of fire exclusion, the eastern region of the United States is
905 experiencing an increased interest in and implementation of prescribed fire to achieve restoration
906 and management goals, mitigate hazardous fuel accumulation, and to prepare sites for
907 regeneration (Carter and Foster, 2004; Coates et al., 2020; Greenberg et al., 2012; Keyser et al.,
908 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Knapp et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2020; Pyne, 2010; Ryan et al., 2013;
909 Van Lear and Waldrop, 1989; Waldrop et al., 2012; Wiedenbeck and Schuler, 2014). However,
910 little is known about the potential negative effects prescribed fires can have on timber volume
911 and quality. The experiment outlined in Chapter 3 attempted to investigate the potential impacts
912 prescribed fire can have on stem wounding and charring dynamics.

913 Based upon this experiment, it did not appear that median tree grades differed between
914 burn and control locations. Yet, the probability of encountering a wounded stem was 2.72 times
915 greater in burned locations than control locations. Out of all species, red maple (*Acer rubrum*)
916 possessed the highest percentage of stems with wounds and fire-influenced volume loss wounds.
917 The probability of char being present on any wounded stems was not affected by the number of

918 prescribed fires in that location, but was greatest for northern red oak (*Quercus rubra*) in areas
919 that had been burned twice. However, there did not seem to be a trend relating mean char heights
920 to the number or intent of burns. Regardless of burn status, volume loss averaged around 3% of
921 the first 4.9 m log, resulting in minimal expected value losses. When these results are considered
922 with other studies that have evaluated tree grades, wounds, and potential volume or value losses
923 throughout the United States (Dey and Schweitzer, 2018; Kinkead et al., 2017; Mann et al.,
924 2020; Marschall et al., 2014; Stambaugh et al., 2017; Stanis et al., 2019; Wiedenbeck and
925 Schuler, 2014), it would appear that potential wounding and volume and value losses might be
926 related to: 1). Specific tree species, 2). fire intensity and severity, which might be related to the
927 number of burns conducted in an area and the length of time that has passed since a wildland fire
928 (wildfire or prescribed fire) last occurred, as well as 3) length of time that passed between the
929 last prescribed fire and the investigation of stem and wood quality.

930 Future investigations of char are warranted on the Monongahela National Forest at our
931 study locations to determine what potential impacts outer bark char has on interior wood quality
932 due to the apprehension most foresters and timber buyers have regarding char. Additionally,
933 felling and milling stems within the burned and control locations to determine the impacts of
934 wounding on actual volume and value losses will more comprehensively address the actual
935 volume and value losses that can be measured following the prescribed fires that have been
936 documented at these locations since 2012.

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