

**OPTIMAL HARVESTING FOR DAHURIAN LARCH
PLANTATIONS UNDER RISK OF PEST OUTBREAK**

Thesis for M.Sc. Degree in Forest Economics

University of Helsinki

Department of Forest Sciences

October 2012

Qi Jin

Tiedekunta/Osasto — Fakultet/Sektion — Faculty		Laitos — Institution — Department	
Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry		Department of Forest Sciences	
Tekijä — Författare — Author			
Jin, Qi			
Työn nimi — Arbetets titel — Title			
Optimal Harvesting for Dahurian Larch Plantations under Risk of Pest Outbreak			
Oppiaine — Läroämne — Subject			
Forest Economics			
Työn laji — Arbetets art — Level		Aika — Datum — Month and year	Sivumäärä — Sidoantal — Number of pages
Master's Thesis		October 2012	63
Tiivistelmä — Referat — Abstract			
<p>The optimal harvesting for a set of even-aged Dahurian Larch (<i>Larix gmelinii</i>) stands located in Aershan area of the northeast of Inner Mongolia, China, are studied. The effects of catastrophic pest outbreaks (i.e. Siberian moth) on the optimal harvesting plan are also studied, and the comparison on these two cases, namely deterministic and stochastic, are analyzed.</p> <p>The simulation is based on an individual-tree diameter growth model, an individual-tree height model, and model for the tree mortality for the coming 5-year period. Combined with the simulation system, the optimization model modified from Hyytiäinen et al. (2005) is able to find the number of thinnings, intensity of thinning, type of thinning, subject to given rotation lengths. In even-aged management, the objective variable is the bare land value with 3.5% discount rate. In addition, a scenario approach is applied when simulating the effects of catastrophes, i.e., pest outbreaks. Stochasticity here is represented by a set of scenarios.</p> <p>The timing of an insect outbreak is random. In order to know the frequency of insect outbreak, an exponential model is applied. The numerical results indicate that the probability that an outbreak at epidemic level will occur within an interval of 5 years is about 0.39. Within a 10-year interval the probability is about 0.63. It is nearly certain that an outbreak at epidemic level occurs within 45 years.</p> <p>The optimal solutions are presented separately for deterministic and stochastic cases. For the deterministic case, the results indicate that high bare land values were associated with stands of high basal area, tree diameters and height. Typically, the higher the mean annual increment and the site quality, the higher the bare land value. Meanwhile, the results show that the optimal rotation may vary considerably (40-58 yrs) at 3.5% interest rate depending on the initial stand state.</p> <p>In the stochastic case, considering the effect of catastrophe of pest outbreak, numerical results show that the optimum rotation is shortened and the mean values of bare land value are about 14.8% to 25.6% lower compared with the deterministic case.</p>			
Avainsanat — Nyckelord — Keywords			
Optimal harvesting, Dahurian Larch (<i>Larix gmelinii</i>), individual-tree growth model, scenario approach, risk, Siberian moth (<i>Dendrolimus sibiricus</i>)			
Säilytyspaikka — Förvaringsställe — Where deposited			
Viikki Campus Library			
Muita tietoja — Övriga uppgifter — Further information			
Supervisors: Prof. Lauri Valsta and Prof. Kari Heliövaara			

Acknowledgements

Sincerely I want to thank my supervisors Professor Kari Heliovaara and Professor Lauri Valsta for guiding me through the process of this thesis. Without their invaluable help, comments and profound knowledge of the topic I would not have been able to finish my work.

I extend a big thankfulness to Mr. Li Jing from Key Laboratory for Silviculture and Conservation of Ministry of Education, Beijing Forestry University (Beijing 100083, P.R.China). Thanks for his support and providing the biological data. In addition, I was amazed how quickly I got replies, even though he was half the globe away.

A hug is worth more than a thousand words. And for numerous hugs, words of encouragement and a listening ear to work on this thesis, I want to thank all my dear friends at the university. And the warmest hug goes to my closest friend Zou Xiaochen, Ph.D. student at the Faculty of Science, University of Helsinki, who drew the GIS-based map for me. And thank you for all the suggestions you gave me.

Finally, I extend my thanks to all those who have helped me in my study in the University of Helsinki.

Qi Jin

Helsinki, October 2012

Contents

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. OPTIMAL FOREST MANAGEMENT AT THE STAND LEVEL.....	1
1.2. FOREST MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING UNDER RISK AND UNCERTAINTY.....	2
1.3. A REVIEW OF PREVIOUS RESEARCHES.....	4
1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE THESIS.....	6
2. MODELS FOR PREDICTING STAND DEVELOPMENT AND OUTCOMES.	7
2.1. CLASSIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION OF GROWTH AND YIELD MODELS.....	7
2.2. INDIVIDUAL-TREE GROWTH MODELS.....	10
2.3. USE INDIVIDUAL TREE MODELS FOR SIMULATION.....	11
2.4. RECENT APPROACHES FOR MODELING CATASTROPHE.....	14
2.5. MODELS FOR STAND DEVELOPMENT IN THIS STUDY.....	17
2.5.1. THE GROWTH MODELS.....	17
2.5.2. MORTALITY MODEL.....	21
2.5.3. AUXILIARY MODEL.....	22
3. THE OPTIMIZATION MODEL.....	23
3.1. INSECT OUTBREAK FREQUENCY.....	23
3.2. OPTIMAL SOLUTION OF BARE LAND VALUE.....	24
4. MATERIALS AND COMPUTATION.....	27
4.1. BIOLOGICAL , GEOGRAPHICAL AND ECONOMIC DATA.....	27
4.2. SAMPLE PLOTS AND DATA COLLECTING METHODS.....	29
4.2.1. SAMPLE PLOTS.....	29
4.2.2. DATA COLLECTING METHODS.....	29
4.3. PEST OUTBREAK FREQUENCY.....	30
4.4. HARVESTING COST.....	31
4.5. COMPUTATIONS.....	32

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	34
5.1. DETERMINISTIC OPTIMAL SOLUTIONS AT 3.5% INTEREST RATE.....	34
5.2. OPTIMIZATION UNDER CATASTROPHIC EVENTS.....	39
5.3. COMPARISON OF CHINESE FOREST LAW AND PREVIOUS RESEARCH RESULTS.....	43
6. CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS.....	43
REFERENCES.....	45
APPENDIX. STATISTICS OF CALCULATING 100 SCENARIOS OF THE BARE LAND VALUE UNDER RISK OF PEST OUTBREAK WITH DIFFERENT ROTATIONS.....	55

Optimal Harvesting for Dahurian Larch Plantations under Risk of Pest Outbreak

1 Introduction

1.1 Optimal Forest Management at the Stand Level

Bettinger et al.(2009, p.103) mentioned that there are at least four physical levels of forest management and planning where decisions must be made: at the tree level, the stand level, the forest level, and the landscape level. And most forest economics theory is based on stand level formulations, and the stand level offers the first meaningful level of decision making (Valsta 1993). According to Cao (2003), the advantages of such an approach on stand level include the mathematical simplicity, and the generality and applicability of results. In recent decades there has been increasing interest in including thinning and silvicultural activities in stand-level models (Hyytiäinen et al. 2005). Also, the diversity of decision problems and size of planning tasks has greatly increased, that has led to larger models and more restrictions led to constraints and restrictions of higher complexity (Rönnqvist 2003). However, with the development of advanced computer technology and powerful solution algorithms, numerical solutions of complex models have become possible to be solved.

A stand is a geographically contiguous parcel of land considered homogeneous in terms of tree vegetation (Davis et al. 2001, p.65). Even-aged stands are ones where the range of tree ages within a stand does not vary by more than 20 percent or so (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.77). Generally, even-aged stands can be created through the following approaches: (1) clear-cut harvesting and subsequent plantings, (2) seed tree or shelterwood harvests, where a minor amount of the overstory remains to provide seed for the new stand, (3) as a result of natural disturbances. In practice, most

private, industrial, and public forests has been planned as even-aged silviculture while most forest research has focused on regeneration and growing plantations (Davis et al. 2001, p.93).

Among the factors which affect stand management, ecological characters of tree growth, harvesting technology and economical causes are the most important ones. According to Bettinger et al.(2009, p.107 - p. 110), in stand level optimization, the main concerns have captured the attention of forest managers are optimum timber rotation, optimum thinning timing, and optimum stand density or stocking.

Forest management involves the integration of silvicultural practices and business concepts (e.g., analyzing economic alternatives) in such a way as to best achieve a landowner's objectives (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.2). While from the economic perspective, researches on stand management demonstrate that the circulation of management activities from stand establishment, fertilization, thinning to clearcutting are supposed to be optimal timed and scaled. By doing that, it is possible for the forest manager to yield the highest net benefit to humans while the management actions are ecologically sound and socially acceptable.

1.2 Forest Management and Planning Under Risk and Uncertainty

As in forest management, we have to consider a long planning period, considerable risks and uncertainties concerning the future state of the forest and the effect of different management activities have to be dealt with (Forsell 2009). According to United Nations (1992), risk has been defined as the expected loss due to a particular hazard for a given area and reference period. However, risk is not the same as uncertainty while uncertainty presents a risk if the result of the uncertainty is an expected loss (Dadow 2000). Among the source of uncertainties, some are due to natural disturbances such as forest fire, wind damage, disease, and insect attacks.

These natural disturbances can be viewed as stochastic, or random, events as we cannot precisely determine if, when, or where they will occur (Forsell 2009). Besides, other sources of stochasticity that enters forest management may come from incorrect or inaccurate information concerning the present forest, short- and long-term variations in the biological or economic environment, the actual outcomes of forest operations, and incomplete knowledge about the goals of forest management now and in the future (Valsta 1992b). Noticeably, natural hazards can cause significant economic losses in forestry. For example, Schelhaas et al. (2003) reported damage to 35 million m³ timber, on an annual basis, in European forests in the years 1950- 2000, of which 54% was caused by storm, 16% by fire and 8% by insects (and 22% by other reasons). In order to get strategies and actions for reducing risk and uncertainty, risk management has to be undertaken (Hollenstein 1997). And one mature method is to take into account the risks such as tree growth, mortality, timber price and preferences of decision maker by stochastic optimization based on scenario technique. Through this, the research can produce results on optimal stand density, optimal rotation, and optimal timing and intensity of thinning under different circumstances of damage and its probability. This kind of knowledge is indispensable in the forest management decision making, especially valuable for the management of the huge amount of economic plantations in northern China. Since decisions made in forestry and forest planning in this part of China often concern large areas and long time horizons. Therefore, it is of particular importance to consider the risks related to specific management scenarios and expected uncertainties related to forest management. Besides, it is also significantly important for government officers who are responsible for forest policy and legal instructions on forestry practice to know the knowledge.

1.3 A Review of Previous Researches

Since Faustmann (1849) made the theoretical framework for solving the even-aged management problem, economic studies on stand-level forest management start to concentrate on analyzing the factors of optimum rotation. Numerous studies (e.g. Amidon and Akin 1968, Kilkki and Väisänen 1969, Brodie et al. 1978, Zhang 1986, Jiang and Li 1989, Sun et al. 1998) have focused on determining optimal timing, number and intensity of thinning by applying variable-density whole model. The state variables (basal area, number of trees, tree volume, etc.) contained in these models evolve over time because of tree growth, mortality and harvesting. Meanwhile, the classical rotation problem can be solved using univariate growth models, where stand development follows a predetermined trajectory over stand age (Getz and Haight 1989). However, their application is limited to solving optimum rotation with exogenously given prior management (Hyytiäinen et al. 2005). After that, more and more studies coming up on optimal timber management by using more advanced approaches of simulating tree growth, such as using individual-tree growth models (e.g. Valsta 1992a, Vettenranta 1996, Pukkala and Miina 1998, Vettenranta and Miina 1999). While in China, the relevant research was a little lagging behind, but still lots of research fruits came out during the past decades (e.g. Li and Hao 1991, Liu et al. 2003, Jiang 2009, Liu and Li 2010). Among the huge number of past studies, some pointed out that thinning from above or from both ends of the diameter distribution is superior to thinning from below (Haight et al. 1985, Valsta 1992a,b, Eriksson 1994), while thinning from below could be optimal for first commercial thinning (Haight et al. 1985) or precommercial thinning (Roise 1986).

Furthermore, lots of studies focusing on the stochastic optimization of forest management and management under uncertainties have incorporated scenario approach or scenario technique, as stochastic process do have effects on both the development of forest ecosystem and forest management activities such as the timing,

intensity, and type of thinning, and rotation length. As Pukkala and Miina (1997) pointed out, scenario technique allows different states of nature are produced as realizations of stochastic models for uncontrollable variables such as timber price, mortality and growth rate of trees. Meanwhile, forest management and planning by using scenarios can reduce uncertainty by anticipating the future in a systematic way, thus reducing the likelihood of unexpected events (Gadow, K. v. 2000). In these circumstances, when the events are so influential to the management of forests, the potential effects are of interest to forest managers and decision makers (Davis et al. 2001, p.733). Previous studies to stochastic stand level under natural catastrophes include studies under the risk of wind damage (e.g. Pellikka and Järvenpää 2003, Meilby et al. 2001, Valinger and Pettersson 1996, Lohmander and Helles 1987), these studies have tried to incorporate the probability of wind damage into the optimization of the forest management; studies under the risk of forest fire (e.g. González et al., 2006, Caulfield 1988, Reed and Errico 1985, Reed 1984, Martell 1980), the optimization models in these research incorporate the risk of stochastic forest fire damage and resulted in the reduction of the optimal rotation period; and studies with the losses from insect (e.g. Hennigar et al.2007, Hof et al.1997, Moll and Chinneck 1992, Reed and Errico 1986), although most of them propose a number of deterministic optimization approaches for forest management when a pest outbreak has occurred. However, as the stochastic management strategies were optimized under the deterministic development of the forest, they only gave approximate solutions to the stochastic problem (Forsell 2009).

Besides, some work has also tried to incorporate multiple types of uncertainties and disturbances (Xi et al.2008, Wanga et al.2006a, 2006b, Valsta 1992b). Also, some of the simulated models were developed that can incorporate several types of risk, for example, the LANDIS model (LANdscape DIsturbance and Succession model) (Scheller et al., 2007; Mladenoff, 2004; Mladenoff et al.1996), which can incorporate stochastic wind, fire, and insect damage events.

1.4 Objectives of the Thesis

The general objective of this thesis is to analyze the optimal harvest regime for a set of even-aged Dahurian larch (*Larix gmelinii*) stands under the risk of pest outbreak. The simulation is based on an individual-tree growth model and stochasticity is incorporated by scenario approach. The sample plots are located in Aershan area of northeast Inner Mongolia, China. Management of 9 Dahurian larch (*Larix gmelinii*) stands was optimized, and the optimal solutions were characterized by bare land value, rotation length and number, timing, type and intensity of thinning.

The specific objectives of the thesis are: (1) to decide optimal thinning and rotation for a set of initial states; (2) to find out how the risk of insect attack affects optimal thinning and rotation; (3) to analyze differences of optimal solutions between deterministic and stochastic situation; (4) to compare the solutions to Chinese forest law, and previous research results.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2, Models for Stand Development, describing the simulation models of tree growth and yield. Section 3, The Optimization Model, presenting the methodology of optimization. Section 4 explains the data, materials and computations. Section 5, Results and Discussion, in which the main results on optimal stand management under both deterministic and stochastic situation are displayed, and then comparisons are discussed. The conclusion and limitation are further discussed in the last section.

2 Models for Predicting Stand Development and Outcomes

2.1 Classification and Description of Growth and Yield Models

Stand management optimization requires a projection model to compute the effects of chosen treatments (Cao 2003). Such models are customarily called (stand) simulators (Valsta 1993). A growth and yield simulator allows forest manager to project into the future the structural characteristics of a stand of trees, and forecast the likely characteristics of the stand under varying management regimes (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.93). Compare with the normal volume or yield tables, stand growth and yield models are more advanced since they are useful for developing estimates of projected future states of forests, and given the broader suite of factors involved in predicting growth dynamics. Table 1 shows the classification of growth and yield models based on Bettinger et al. (2009, p.94-96), Davis et al. (2001, p.186-187) and Liu and Ashton (1994).

Table 1. A classification of growth and yield models

Model stand	Definition and escription
Whole stand models	Density-free models work as yield tables which illustrate the expected volume of wood using a combination of measurable stand characteristics such as age, site quality, and stand density. Traditional normal yield tables do not use density, while empirical yield tables assume nature's average density.
A. Density-free models	
1. Normal yeild tables	
2. Empirical yield tables for average current stands	
B. Variable-density models	These models are still in use in practice since their convenience for using.
1. Predict current volumes	Variable-density models split by whether current for future volume is directly estimate by the growth functions. A second distinction in the variable density whole stand models is whether the model predicts growth directly or uses a two-stage process that first
a. Explicit models	
b. Implicit models (diameter distribution)	
2. Predict future growth and volumes	
a. Explicit models	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i .Direct growth prediction ii .Stand density prediction <p>b. Implicit models (diameter distribution)</p>	<p>predicts future stand density and then uses this information to estimate future stand volume and subsequently growth.</p>
<p>Diameter class models</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Empirical stand table projections B. Diameter class growth models 	<p>Diameter class models use more detail than whole stand models in projecting forest conditions through time, and rather than project the entire stand condition at once, they project the development of each diameter class within a stand separately.</p> <p>The two diameter class methods are distinguished by whether actual rdial increment data collected from the subject stand are used to model the trees or whether generalized growth functions based on research sample data are used. Referred to stand table projection systems, they represent a compromise between the whole-stand models and individual tree models.</p>
<p>Individual tree models</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Distance-dependent B. Distance-independent 	<p>Individual tree models are the most complex and individually models the future for each tree on a sample tree list. These models are used by foresters to assist timber production and evaluate growth and yield of one to several commercial timber species in managed forests. Site-specific environmental and species information is necessary for constructing the models.</p> <p>A general distinction between model types is based on how the crown competition index is calculated, i.e. whether or not the calculation is based on utilizing information about the locations of other trees close to the subject tree within its zone of competition.</p>
<p>Gap Simulators</p>	<p>In gap simulators, trees serve as the basis for simulation. Each tree is represented spatially in the model by the gap that it might occupy in the canopy over a given space. Forest dynamics are then simulated based on the light made available from gaps in the canopy caused by mortality. These models were initially developed for ecological modeling purposes rather than timber production purposes. Ecologists developed these models to explore ecological mechanisms and patterns of structure and functional dynamics in natural forest ecosystems. Gap models include stochastic elements, and</p>

therefore may need to be run multiple times to develop a pattern of forest growth behavior.

Source: Bettinger et al. 2009. *Forest Management and Planning*. p.94-96

Davis et al. 2001. *Forest Management*. p.185-187

Liu and Ashton. 1994. *Individual-based simulation models for forest succession and management*

Until now, whole-stand models especially variable-density whole stand models are still widely used in forest economics simulation and computation. For the most part, whole-stand models are relatively easy to use in comparison to individual tree models, but they may not provide information as reliable as individual tree models for stands with mixed species (Sironen et al. 2001). While to determine volumes using diameter class models, the diameter classes are grown, then expanded by the trees per unit area that are represented by the class and applied the appropriate volume computation methods (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.96).

In order to get the optimal plans of action where the schedule of activities will best meet the objectives of the landowner within the scope of their perceived physical level of forest management (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.103), numerical methods have been used to solve the simulation models. For different types of models, such as whole-stand models (e.g. Shi and Feng 2005, Li 1987, Brodie et al. 1978), stage-structured models (e.g., Haight 1987, Solberg and Haight 1991), distance-independent models (e.g., Roise 1986, Haight and Monserud 1990) and distance-dependent or spatial model (e.g., Vettenranta 1996, Pukkala and Miina 1998), various numerical solutions were derived from the models.

However, all growth and yield models have their limitations. Some of these models make projections beyond the range of data that were used to create the growth and yield relationships. As Ritchie (1999) pointed out, the legitimacy of the output from a growth and yield model must ultimately be determined by the user. Bettinger et al.

(2009, p.94) supplemented that managers and analysts who need to project stand conditions into the future should consider the geographic location, management history, and composition of the data prior to deciding which model is more appropriate for the objectives of the effort.

2.2 Individual-tree Growth Models

Growth and yield simulators are programs that allow the user to understand how management may play out under different circumstances (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.103). Among all the simulators, individual tree models give us the best available tool for simulating how tree communities grow under different management prescriptions (Davis 2001, p. 210). Besides, individual tree models also provide us with our best tool to project future structure, habitat, and other ecological outcomes from the forest. Individual-based models simulate each individual tree as a unique entity in respect to establishment, growth and death (Huston et al., 1988, DeAngelis and Gross 1992). The growth and mortality of individual trees is a function of the size and location of trees in a stand with respect to other vegetation with which it will compete for light, water, and nutrients. Distance-independent growth and yield models use measures of stand density, such as basal area, as a proxy for competition among trees. Competition can also be implied given the diameter, height, and crown characteristics of a tree in a relation to other trees being modeled in the stand. On the other hand, distance-dependent models use detailed measurements of the spatial position of each tree in relation to their neighbors to model competition among trees. Some of these types of models emulate three-dimensional structures of tree attributes (tree location, height, diameter, and crown characteristics) to derive a three-dimensional view of the stand structures (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.94). Models such as these can be used in pure and mixed stands of all age combinations, thus are of value in projecting the growth and yield of uneven-aged stands (Hanewinkel and Pretzsch 2000). Furthermore, only individual tree models have the ability to simulate

the competitive environment of each tree, although both stand and individual tree models can use sample survey plot data as input (Davis et al. 2001, p.211).

2.3 Use Individual Tree Models for Simulation

Davis et al. (2001, p.211) mention that the core idea of individual tree models is that they take detailed data about individual trees gathered from inventory plots and use this data to forecast how that set of trees will grow and change in the future under different management prescriptions. The model initiates the projection with the tree list and uses a mathematical simulation model, to implement the chosen prescription for that plot for one growth cycle of 5 or 10 years, or even a longer period. At the start of the cycle, each tree on the tree list is selected to be harvested, to die naturally, or to remain as a living tree at the end of the growth cycle. Then all remaining live trees, including the new reproduction and ingrowth, are grown in height, diameter, and crown to the end of the growth cycle. In order to determine stand-level characteristics using individual tree models (Bettinger et al. 2009, p.94), each tree record first is grown and perhaps subjected to a mortality probability function, then the volume of all the trees of a certain status (e.g., still alive) are determined and applied the appropriate expansion factor (trees per unit area). The sum of the contribution of each individual tree record for each stand-level characteristic is then used to produce stand-level estimates.

Furthermore, beyond the stand level, individual tree models can simulate the dynamics of a combination of stands within a forest which may be as large as hundreds or thousands of hectares in size. A large number of sample plots are customarily set up in a forest but each plot is small (usually less than 1 hectare) (Liu and Ashton 1994). For example, Adlard (1974) constructed his model from the record of approximately 1200 plots with several remeasurements in a majority of the plots.

Since Newnham (1964) published the first individual-based model, hundreds of models have been developed, tested, and applied to forest research and management (Mitchell 1969, Munro 1974, Shugart 1984). Subsequently, a series of dissertations focused on the development of individual-based tree models (Lee 1967, Lin 1969, Bella 1970, Hatch 1971, Arney 1972) were coming up. And among which, a large part were applied to uneven-aged pure and mixed stands. Munro (1974) distinguishes between distance-dependent models, which use actual stem positions for calculating distances and competition, and distance-independent approaches. After that, in the 1980s single tree models have been widely used in the United States (Wykoff et al. 1982, Burkhart 1987), whereas in Europe the practical application in actual forest management was a little later. Encouraged by these early models, individual tree models have been developing rapidly during the past three decades. Here, Table 2 and Table 3 show some examples of diameter growth functions and mortality functions in individual tree models.

Table 2. Examples of diameter growth functions in individual tree models

Source	Equation
Wan Razali and Rustagi, 1988	$Z = a + b \times D + c \times D^2 + e \times LDG + f \times BAT + g \times LBAG + h \times LTBAG + i \times D / RS$ <p>Z, annual diameter growth (cm year⁻¹); D, tree diameter; LDG, tree diameter growth rate during the previous measurement period (cm year⁻¹); BAT, total plot basal area (cm² plot⁻¹); LBAG, annual tree basal area growth rate during the previous measurement period (cm² year⁻¹); LTBAG, total annual basal area growth of all species per plot during the previous measurement period (cm² year⁻¹); RS, ratio of species group basal area to the total plot basal area; a-i, estimated constants</p>
Wykoff and Monserud, 1988	$DDS = POT \times MOD$ <p>DDS, squared diameter; POT, potential DDS: $POT = c_0 + \exp(c_1 + c_2 \ln(DBH + c_3 DBHC^4))$ <p>c₀-c₄, site index dependent parameters MOD, modifier for the potential growth $MOD = c_5 / [1.0 + \exp(c_6 + c_7 DBH + c_8 BAL + c_9 CR)]$ <p>c₅-c₉, regression coefficients</p> </p></p>

Wykoff and Monserud, 1988	$\ln(\text{DDS}) = \text{HAB} + \text{LOC} + b_1 \ln(\text{DBH}) + b_2 \text{DBH}^2 + b_3 \text{BAL} + b_4 \text{BAL} / \ln(\text{DBH} + 1) + b_5 \text{CR} + b_6 \text{CR} + b_7 \text{CCF} + b_8 \text{SL} \times \cos(\text{ASP}) + b_9 \text{SL} \times \sin(\text{ASP}) + b_{10} \text{SL} + b_{11} \text{SL}^2 + b_{12} \text{EL} + b_{13} \text{EL}^2$ <p>DDS, squared diameter; DBH, diameter at breast height; CR, crown ratio; SL, slope; ASP, aspect; CCF, crown competition factor; EL, elevation; LOC, intercept dependent on plot location; HAB, intercept dependent on habitat type; BAL, estimate of stand basal area represented in trees that are larger than the subject tree; b_1-b_{13}, regression coefficients</p>
HiltadTeck, 1988	$\text{DGROW} = [(c \times \text{DBH}^2 + \text{POTBAG} \times \text{MOD}) / c]^{1/2} - \text{DBH}$ <p>DGROW, diameter growth rate; c, constant; DBH, diameter at breast height; POTBAG, potential basal area growth; MOD, modifier of basal area growth $\text{POTBAG} = b_1 \times \text{SI} \times [1.0 - \exp(-b_2 \text{DBH})]$ SI, site index; DBH, diameter at breast height; b_1-b_2, regression coefficients $\text{MOD} = \exp(-b_3 \text{BAL})$ BAL, basal area; b_3, regression coefficient</p>
Zeide, 1989	$D = D_m \times [1 - \exp(-at)]^b$ (Chapman-Richards equation) $D = D_m \times \exp[-a \times \exp(-bt)]$ (Gompertz equation) $D = D_m / [1 + a \times \exp(-bt)]$ (Logistic equation) $D = D_m \times \exp[-a / (b - 1)] \times t^{1-b}$ (Power decline equation) $D = D_m \times [1 - \exp(-at)]^b$ (Weibull equation) D, diameter at breast height at age t; D_m , maximum diameter (or asymptotic diameter); a, b, parameters specific for each equation

Source: Liu and Ashton. 1995. Individual-based simulation models for forest succession and management

Table 3. Examples of mortality functions in individual tree models

Source	Cause of mortality	Mortality functions
Chang, 1990	Suppression	$\text{MP} = (1 + \exp(a + b_1 \text{DBH} + b_2 \text{DGR}))^{-1}$ <p>MP, mortality; DBH, diameter at breast height; DGR, diameter growth rate; a, b_1, b_2, parameters</p>
Ek and Monserud, 1974	Suppression	$\text{MP} = 1.0 (\text{RATIO} < \text{THOLD})$ $\text{RATIO} = \Delta D / D$ <p>D, diameter; ΔD, average annual diameter increment; THOLD, a value derived from remeasurement data on dying trees</p>
Hegy, 1974	Random	$\text{MP} = 0.20$ (of all the trees to be removed)

Lin, 1974	Random	MP varies to match the field data
Ek and Monserud, 1974	Harvesting	MP (degree of cutting) may be set by the user
Reams, 1988	Pests and diseases	$f(t; Z)=f_0(t)\exp(Z \times b)$ $f(t; Z)$, probability of dying at time t , given alive before t ; f_0 , baseline hazard at time t ; Z , covariate matrix; b , vector of regression coefficients

Source: Liu and Ashton. 1995. Individual-based simulation models for forest succession and management

It has been over five decades, since the publication of the first individual-based growth-yield model (Newnham 1964). During this period of time, numerous individual-based models have been developed and applied. As Huston et al. (1988) pointed out, the individual-based modeling approach has a great potential to be explored. It is expected that during the coming years individual-based forest simulation models will become an even more important tool for understanding mechanisms of forest dynamics and for managing forests sustainably (Liu 1995).

2.4 Recent Approaches for Modeling Catastrophe

As a key part of this study, the effect of catastrophes on forest management had to be studied. Until now, various approaches for predicting the mechanisms and/or risk of catastrophes have been developed in recent decades. Hanewinkel et al. (2010) pointed out that these models, dealing with vulnerability and/or risk, can be grouped as being either empirical (statistical) models, mechanistic models or physical models. Mechanistic models have been developed as generic tools for risk assessment, predicting the threshold catastrophes needed for uprooting or stem breakage of trees under a range of silvicultural conditions, based on the properties of the trees within single species stands. Similarly, empirical models have been developed to assess the risk for single trees (Schmidt et al. 2010) or forest stands (Hanewinkel et al. 2004). Recently, they have also been used together with growth and yield model simulations

to consider the potential risks of wind damage over time at a regional level (e.g. Zeng et al. 2006). In addition, fire risk has been simulated based on empirical and semi-physical models, which are able to predict surface fire spread and intensity with accuracy. These models usually require, as input data, information about the local weather conditions during the fire simulation period, and the amount and moisture of fine and dead fuels (Rothermel 1983). Table 4 gives an overview of recently developed mechanistic, empirical and physical models for different risk of catastrophes.

Table 4. Examples of recently developed mechanistic and empirical models for various catastrophes to forests.

models	Type of model	Country/species/remarks
ForestGALES (Gardiner et al., 2000, 2008)	Mechanistic	Great Britain/most European commercial coniferous species
HWIND (Peltola et al., 1999)	Mechanistic (snow)	Finland/Scots pine, Norway spruce, birch spp.
FOREOLE (Ancelin et al., 2004)	Mechanistic	France/Norway spruce
WINDA (Blennow and Sallnäs, 2004)	Mechanistic	Sweden/Scots pine, Norway spruce, birch spp.
FORGEM-W (Schelhaas et al., 2007)	Mechanistic	Netherlands/Douglas fir
GLM (Lanquaye-Opoku et al., 2005)	Empirical	British Columbia, Canada/no species specific models
GLMM, Cross Correlation, Spectral Analyses (Hanewinkel et al., 2008)	Empirical (snow, insects)	Black Forest (Germany) conifers + hardwoods, long term series
GLM, GAM (Schmidt et al., 2010)	Empirical	South-West Germany, large scale NFI-data, Lothar
FIRETEC (Dupuy and Morvan, 2005)	Physical	USA/adapted for pine stands in Europe
CL-CV (Mitsopoulos and Dimitrakopoulos, 2007)	Semi-physical	Greece/Alepo pine/crown fire potential
CL-CV (Fernandes, 2009)	Semi-physical	Portugal/conifers, hardwoods/fire behaviour, NFI data
BL (Fernandes et al., 2008)	Semi-physical	Europe/pines/post-fire mortality

BL (Rigolot, 2004)	Empirical	S- France/Mediterranean pines
BL (Sidoroff et al., 2007)	Empirical	Finland/Scots Pine/low intensity prescribed burnings
GLM, BL (González et al., 2007)	Empirical	Catalonia (N-E Spain)/conifers and hardwoods/long period, large scale, NFI data
BL (Moreira et al., 2007)	Empirical	South Portugal/cork oak/post fire survival
PPPY (Cruz et al., 2008)	Empirical, semi-physical	—/pine plantations

Legends: GL(M)M = generalized linear (mixed) models, GAM = generalized additive models, CL-CV = Classification and cross validation with existing fire spread models; BL = binary logistic models; GLM = generalized linear models

Source: Hanewinkel et al. 2010. Recent approaches to model the risk of storm and fire to European forests and their integration into simulation and decision support tools

Noticeably, all mechanistic models are sensitive to model inputs and parameter values, and thus, any inaccuracies in the input tree characteristics (e.g. dbh, height, crown depth and width) and parameters that control the magnitude of the catastrophes, while empirical models are statistical models that relate the presence or magnitude of wind damage to variables (e.g. tree/stand characteristic, topography, stand exposure, site conditions etc.) measured following a damage inventory.

To date, the effects of forest dynamics on the risk of catastrophes have been typically considered using time series of tree and stand characteristics as inputs in risk models without considering the feedback mechanism between them (see e.g. Zeng et al. 2006, Gardiner et al. 2008). Furthermore, Hanewinkel et al. (2010) summarized that the inclusion of risk can be done in different ways: i) a probability of a specific risk can be assigned to a single tree. In a stochastic approach, a random number can be drawn and the decision whether the tree will be damaged is taken by comparing the probability to the random number. In order to achieve stable results, the simulations have to be repeated; ii) Probabilities that are assigned to whole stands can either be distributed to the single tree level by randomly selecting trees or by applying rule

based algorithms including expert knowledge. In addition, new approaches for combining tree- and stand-level growth models (Yue et al. 2008) may be promising for solving these types of problems.

2.5 Models for Stand Development in This Study

2.5.1 The Growth Models

Tree growth is a complex process, although growth modeling methodologies are evolving to better describe this process with the development of process based or mechanistic models (Landsberg 1986). Usually, growth-yield models describe growth rate as a regression function of variables such as site-index, basal area, and tree density (Liu 1995). And individual tree models are normally composed of models for tree basal area growth (measured at breast height), height growth, tree crown ratio and mortality. In the present application, trees are only of single species, namely Dahurian larch (*Larix gmelinii*). Here because of desirable properties with the error structure (e.g. homogenous variance), a logarithmic model for basal area increment as a function of tree size, competition, and site variables based on Monserud (1996) and Jiang (2009) were applied:

$$\ln(\text{BAI}) = a + b \times \text{SIZE} + c \times \text{COMP} + s \times \text{SITE} \quad (1)$$

where BAI is the 5 year basal area increment (outside bark), a is the intercept, b is the vector of coefficients for the tree size variables, c is the vector of coefficients for the competition variables, and s is the vector of coefficients for the site variables.

In this study, on all trees, diameter at breast height was used as a measure of stem size and crown ratio as a measure of crown size, yielding the expression as:

$$b \times \text{SIZE} = b_1 \times \ln(\text{DBH}) + b_2 \times \text{DBH}^2 + b_3 \times \ln(\text{CR}) \quad (1.1)$$

where DBH (cm) is the diameter at breast height and CR is the crown ratio. Although here DBH and CR are referred as size variables, they also reflect the effects of past competition.

Also, competition effects were expressed as:

$$c \times \text{COMP} = c_1 \times \text{BAL} + c_2 \times \text{CCF} \quad (1.2)$$

where BAL is the basal area ($\text{m}^2 \text{ha}^{-1}$) of trees larger in diameter than the subject tree, and CCF is the crown competition factor of Krajicek et al. (1961). Noticeably, BAL for the largest tree is 0.0, and for the smallest tree equals stand basal area minus that tree's basal area.

Site description is a very important influencing the tree growth, site function was expressed as:

$$s \times \text{SITE} = d \times \text{SITE}_1 + e \times \text{SITE}_2 \quad (1.3)$$

The first term in Equation (1.3) describes the topographic effects of elevation, slope, and aspect:

$$d \times \text{SITE}_1 = d_1 \times (\text{ELEV} - d_2)^2 + d_3 \times \text{SL}^2 + d_4 \times \text{SL} \times \sin(\text{AZ}) + d_5 \times \text{SL} \times \cos(\text{AZ}) \quad (1.3.1)$$

where ELEV is the elevation in hectometers (100 m), SL is the tangent of the slope angle ($\% / 100$), and AZ is the azimuth in radians.

The second term of Equation (1.3) combines qualitative and discrete site descriptors using dichotomous 0-1 dummy variables:

$$e \times \text{SITE}_2 = e_1 \times S + e_2 \times V + e_3 \times \text{GD} \quad (1.3.2)$$

where S is a set of dummy variables for the soil groups, V is a set of dummy variables for the vegetation types, and GD is a set of dummy variables for the growth districts.

In order to estimate the coefficients of the model, stepwise regression analysis was used to get the calibrated model for larch plantation. During this process, variables without significant coefficient were omitted (Jiang 2009). In addition, the number of observations and the ecological similarity of the site descriptors were considered when hypothesizing the dummy variables (Monserud 1996; Jiang 2009). The purpose of these procedures was to avoid introducing unnecessary parameters that only described peculiarities of the sample that did not generalize to the wider population. The coefficients for the variables and the value of corresponding dummy variables of the basal area growth model for larch plantation are given in Table 5:

Table 5. coefficients for the necessary variables and value of the corresponding dummy variables.

(i) coefficients for the necessary variables

a	b ₁	b ₂	b ₃	c ₁	c ₂	d ₁	d ₂	d ₃	d ₄	d ₅	e ₁	e ₂	e ₃
0.7144	1.1547	-0.000101	0.4999	-0.0159	0	-0.00174	0	0	0	0	0.1882	0.3309	0.2

(ii) value of the corresponding dummy variables

S	V	GD
1	1	0

Height growth is predicted by a dynamic height growth curve equation of site index, age at breast height and tree diameter. The height growth curve is originated from Chapman Richards model and adjusted for larch by Li (1994):

$$HT = h_0 + h_1 \times A_b^{h_2} \times [1 - \exp(h_3 \times SI^{0.7548} \times DBH)] \quad (2)$$

where HT is tree height (m), A_b is age at breast height, SI is site index, DBH is diameter at breast height (cm). The coefficients for the variables of the height growth model are given in Table 6:

Table 6. coefficients for the variables of the height growth model.

h_0	h_1	h_2	h_3	h_4
1.3	1.3432	0.7571	-0.02296	0.7548

The site index of Equation (2) was decided by the following equation:

$$SI = H_{\text{mean}} * \exp\left(\frac{12.51004}{A} - \frac{12.51004}{A_1}\right) \quad (2.1)$$

where H_{mean} is the stand mean height, A is the stand age, A_1 is the index age (the index age for larch plantation is 30).

Live crown ratio is the ratio of live crown length to total tree height. It is a good indicator of tree vigor. As such, it is an important predictor of periodic increment even though it has substantial shortcomings. For predicting tree crown ratio, the following model which is based on Wykoff et al. (1982) and Jiang (2009) was applied:

$$\ln(\text{CR}) = a_0 + a_1 \times \text{BA} + a_2 \times \ln(\text{DBH}) + a_3 \times \ln(\text{HT}) + a_4 \times \ln(\text{PCT}) \quad (3)$$

where BA is stand basal area (m²/ha), DBH is Current diameter at breast height (cm), HT is Current height (m), and PCT is tree's percentile in the stand basal area distribution. The coefficients for the variables of the live crown ratio model are given in Table 7:

Table 7. coefficients for the variables of the live crown ratio model.

a ₀	a ₁	a ₂	a ₃	a ₄
-0.95042	-0.008886239175	0.30066	-0.59302	0.19558

2.5.2 Mortality Model

Tree mortality model is an important part of tree growth model system. Individual tree survival rate is obtained with models predicting the probability of a tree dying during the next five-year growth period. The model is based on Monserud (1999) and Du (1999) for Larch:

$$P = [1 + \exp (b_0 + b_1 / D + b_2 \times \text{CR} + b_3 \times \text{BAL} + b_4 \times D + b_5 \times D^2)]^{-1} \quad (4)$$

where P is the probability of mortality (5-year), D is diameter (cm) at breast height (1.3 m), CR is crown ratio, BAL is basal area in larger trees (m² ha⁻¹), and b₀ - b₅ are parameters. Furthermore, D, CR, and BAL are values at the beginning of the 5-year period. The coefficients for the variables of the mortality model are given in Table 8:

Table 8. coefficients for the variables of the mortality model.

b_0	b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4	b_5
4.407	-12.9395	2.2039	-0.0326	0	0

2.5.3 Auxiliary Model

Volumes of stems are predicted by applying the tree volume equation. The tree volume equation is predicted using information on tree diameter and height. Individual tree volume equations for larch (Zhang 1986,Wu and Wang 2000) were applied. Individual tree volume equation for sawlog and pulpwood:

$$V_s = 0.000050168241 \times DBH^{1.7582894} \times H^{1.1496653} \quad (5.1)$$

$$V_p = 0.001569 + 0.00003582 \times DBH^2 \times H \quad (5.2)$$

where V_s is stem volume for sawlog, V_p is volume for pulpwood, DBH is diameter at breast height, H is tree height.

Noticeably, the minimum diameter for pulpwood here is 5 cm and the minimum length is 2 m. Additionally, log volumes obtained are based on individual tree volume equation 5.1. While in practice this usually overestimates log volumes, because it ignores all the various defects that generally appear in stems.

3 The Optimization Model

What is the value of land if we use it to grow trees? The answer can be found with a simple, yet powerful, formula originally developed by Martin Faustmann in 1894. Faustmann's fundamental insight can be generalized to define the value of any forest, regardless of its initial condition, and the values of the constraints that apply to its management. According to Getz and Haight (1989), if we assume that even-aged forest management would be practiced indefinitely, Faustmann defined forest value as the sum of the present values of harvests from the ongoing rotation, and land expectation value, which is the present value of an infinite series of plantations.

In this study, the optimization model is anticipatory, and stochasticity is introduced in the form of scenarios. Valsta (1992b) mentioned that anticipatory models are used for deriving optimal decisions for the whole period of time under planning, in advance. An anticipatory solution takes into account the uncertainties over time, and it is optimal overall, according to selected criterion.

3.1 Insect Outbreak Frequency

Siberian moth (*Dendrolimus sibiricus*) as an important defoliator of larch in northern China has several outbreaks and caused tremendous loss on both economic and ecological level in the past years. As previous research (Yuan et al. 2008) revealed, there had been several outbreaks occurred in the past years, while the outbreaks in 1992 and 2002 were on a very large-scale. Therefore, the effects of catastrophes of insect outbreak have to be studied. In this study, catastrophes are modeled as random events that damage a part of the growing stock. Although the timing of insect outbreak is random, this random process can be described with probabilistic models (Buongiorno and Gilles 2003, p325). For each occurrence of a catastrophe, it is modeled as an exponential probability distribution. According to the exponential

model, the insect outbreak probability $P(T)$ is expressed by this exponential law:

$$P(T) = 1 - \exp(-T/a) \quad (6)$$

where T is the time span that an insect outbreak will occur within T years since last outbreak, a is the average interval between outbreaks.

Meanwhile, Buongiorno and Gilless (2003, p326) pointed out that stochastic simulation entails generating, every T years, a random number R_t between 0 and 1. Then a catastrophe of insect outbreak occurs if and only if R_t is greater than or equal to $P(T)$; that is:

$$R_t \geq 1 - \exp(-T/a) \quad (6.1)$$

3.2 Optimal Solution of Bare Land Value

The optimization model for even-aged larch stands applied here is based on Hyytiäinen et al. (2005), under the situation where stand development is projected with an individual-tree growth and yield model. Noteworthy, the optimization model here is adjusted where the effect of catastrophe that damage a part of the growing stock, is incorporated into the model:

$$\max_{\{h_u, t_u, u=1, \dots, k; Z_0\}} V = \frac{\sum_{u=1}^k \left\{ \left[\sum_{j=1}^2 p_j \cdot (g_j(Z_{t_u}, h_u) + s \cdot L_j(Z_{t_u}, b_{t_u})) \right] - C_u(Z_{t_u}, h_u) - C'_u(Z_{t_u}, b_{t_u}) \right\} (1+r)^{-t_u} - C_0(Z_0)}{1 - (1+r)^{-t_k}} \quad (7)$$

subject to

$$Z_{t_u} = f(Z_{t_{u-1}}, h_{u-1}, t_u - t_{u-1}, b_{t_u}) , \quad \forall u = 1, \dots, k, \quad (7.1)$$

$$t_u \leq t_{u+1} , \quad \forall u = 1, \dots, k-1, \quad (7.2)$$

$$h_u \in \sigma_{t_u} , \quad \forall u = 1, \dots, k, \quad (7.3)$$

where

V = bare land value,

$u = 1, \dots, k$ harvests,

j = timber assortments (sawlog, $j = 1$; pulpwood, $j = 2$),

k = the final harvest,

Z_0 = matrix describing the initial state of the stand,

t_u = stand age at the u^{th} harvest,

Z_{t_u} = matrix describing the stand state before the u^{th} harvest at stand age t_u ,

h_u = n -dimensional vector as the ratio of trees removed in the u^{th} harvest,

p_j = roadside price of timber assortments as products (RMB/m³)

g_j = harvested volumes of timber assortments (m³ ha⁻¹),

L_j = salvaged volumes of forest lost to the catastrophe (m³ ha⁻¹),

b_{t_u} = a random number between 0 and 1, which gives the proportion of trees
destroyed by the catastrophes

s = salvage rate,

C_u = harvest cost of the u^{th} harvest,

C'_u = cost of cleaning up and reforesting the insect-attacked stand area,

C_0 = establishment and silvicultural costs,

r = interest rate,

σ_{t_u} = the set of admissible thinning at stand age t_u .

Gross harvest revenues of the u th harvest are summed over number of trees, j timber assortments as products of prices p_j (¥/m³), harvested volumes g_j (m³ ha⁻¹), and salvaged volumes of forest lost to the catastrophe L_j (m³ ha⁻¹). The net harvest revenues are attained by subtracting the harvest cost, C_u and C'_u , consisting of felling and on-site transport costs. The net harvest revenues are discounted to the beginning of the rotation period by a factor $(1 + r)^{-tk}$, where r is the rate of interest.

The value of bare land in Equation 7 is maximized subject to the stand dynamics that define the stand state just before the harvest at age t_u , and the scenario of catastrophes between present (t_u) and previous (t_{u-1}) harvest. This is given as a function of stand state before the previous harvest ($Z_{t_{u-1}}$), intensity of the previous harvest (h_{u-1}), the possible of catastrophe happening and its damage intensity ($b_{t_{u-1}}$) and time difference between present t_u and t_{u-1} . In this study, stand structure is described for n trees, each tree is characterized by variables reflecting its current dimensions (age, diameter, height etc.) and an expansion factor representing the number of trees per hectare. In the final (k th) harvest all the remaining trees are removed.

The thinning rate equation 7.3 defines thinning rates for each diameter class. In this study, thinning rate is a piecewise linear function of tree diameter, relative to the smallest and the largest diameters in the stand. The thinning parameters define the thinning rates at the corner points of the piecewise linear function. The thinning definition can be adjusted to simulate different types of thinning with only a few parameters per thinning. (for more details, see Valsta 1992b). In addition, more details about optimizing the management schedule (number and timing of thinnings) are explained in section 4.5.

The structure of the simulation-optimization system accommodates the relationships between different inputs and outputs, while optimization searches for the best combination of treatments, by way of which the forest yields the best combination of multiple products and services (e.g., Bare land value in this study). The parameters that specify the treatment schedule are called decision variables. The ‘goodness’ of the outputs obtainable from the forest with a given set of decision variables is described via the objective function.

In forestry, simulation program comprises various models and algorithms (Pukkala and Miina 1997). In addition, as in most situations, the objective function is to maximize the economic return in this study. Besides, Osyczka (1984) revealed that in multiobjective optimization, another possibility for the objective function is to simultaneously maximize several objective functions, one for each management objective. Thus, the basic technical tool for finding instructions for forest management consists of two computation parts, one for simulating stand development, and the other for computing the optimal plan.

Noticeably, the function applied in this study is made stochastic by the scenarios, where different states of nature are produced as realizations of stochastic models for uncontrollable variables such as timber price, growth rate of trees and severities of catastrophes.

4 Materials and Computations

4.1 Biological, Geographical and Economic Data

The biological data are collected from 9 sample Dahurian Larch (*Larix gmelinii*) stands. The sample stands are located in Aershan area (47°07'-47°55'N,

119°51'-120°57'E, mean elevation 1100 m), the northeast of Inner Mongolia, China (Figure 1). The site borders the Chuoer and Chaihe forests in the northeast and southeast respectively, shares an edge with the Great Xing'an Mountain and abuts the Bailang and Wuchagou forests to the south. Its northern brim is adjacent to Ewenke County and its northwestern fringe borders on Xinbaerhu County. The area belongs to the cold and wet temperate zone with annual average temperature is -3.2°C and precipitation 452.11 mm. Total area of the Ecological function zones is 4.83×10^5 hectare, with forest coverage accounting for 3.45×10^5 hectare. The forest coverage rate is 71.4%. The main forest species in this area are pure Dahurian Larch (*Larix gmelinii*) and White Birch (*Betula platyphylla*) plantations, while Dahurian Larch (*Larix gmelinii*) is the only tree species largely planted in this region (Li et al. 2009).



Figure 1. Location of the Aershan area included in the biological data.

4.2 Sample Plots and Data Collecting Methods

4.2.1 Sample plots

The sample plots were set and chosen by researchers from Key Laboratory for Silviculture and Conservation of Ministry of Education, Beijing Forestry University (Beijing 100083, P.R.China), as part of the research plots in Aershan, Inner Mongolia. The field trial was carried out in July and August 2008. During the field trial, data of two types of forests, i.e., natural forests (NF) and plantations (PL) were recorded. All of the sample plots were as similar as possible in gradients, slopes and distribution proportion of tree species as well as corresponding effects from human activities.

4.2.2 Data Collecting Methods

As for the location and measurement of arbors, an original pole was placed in one corner of each of the 20m × 20m sample plots. Using one side as *X* axis and the other side as *Y* axis, a sample plot was divided into 16 quadrates (5m × 5m) by a measuring-rope. After this, the measurement of every tree was carried out according to a “Z” path from the original pole in the quadrates. Diameter at breast height (DBH), height, crown width, height to first live branch of trees, species names, degree of damage (healthy tree, disabled tree, dead tree, fallen tree) were recorded. Original data used in this study can be retrieved from Mr. Li Jing of Key Laboratory for Silviculture and Conservation of Ministry of Education, Beijing Forestry University.

4.3 Pest Outbreak Frequency

Siberian Moth (*Dendrolimus sibiricus*) as one of the most destructive defoliators for larch in northern China has caused large impact. Noticeably, the disaster in 2002 caused by the Siberian moth (*Dendrolimus sibiricus*) has destroyed tens of thousands of hectares of larch forests, which has caused immeasurable loss to the forest resources in northern China (Li et al. 2009). It is clear that when at endemic levels, the pest kills only a few trees in a stand. These trees are often weakened by fire, injuries, root disease, or competition. At epidemic levels, however, the pest causes considerable mortality in large-diameter trees. The shift of pest populations from endemic to epidemic levels has been attributed to several factors. If these trees are large, then brood survival is often high; and the next generation of these pests and many secondary pests build quickly to epidemic population levels (Marsden et al. 1993). In this thesis, the effects of pest outbreak at epidemic levels that cause considerable mortality are studied and simulated through scenario approach. Additionally, although the timing of the pest outbreak is random, this random process can be described with probabilistic models. The models are necessarily simple, but they are consistent with the scarce information that is usually available. And in this study, previous outbreak information reveals that at the stand outbreak (i.e. at epidemic levels) probability at every cycle is normally 10 years.

Figure 2 shows the graph of the exponential distribution for an average interval between outbreaks at epidemic level $a = 10$ years. The graph shows that the probability that a pest outbreak will occur increases at a decreasing rate as T increases. The probability that an outbreak will occur within an interval of 5 years is about 0.39. Within a 10-year interval it is about 0.63. It is nearly certain that an outbreak at epidemic level would occur within 45 years.

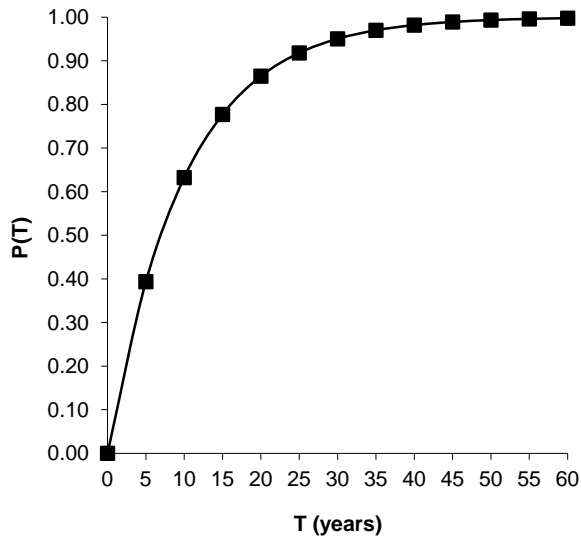


Figure 2. Probability that an insect outbreak at epidemic level occurs within T years, given an average time between outbreaks of $a = 10$ years.

The economic data consist of regeneration cost and roadside prices of larch sawlog and pulpwood. A 3.5% rate of interest is applied to calculate the optimal solutions. The regeneration cost is assumed to be ¥ 3828.15 yuan per hectare (including land preparation cost, planting and seedling cost, silvicultural operations cost, and tending cost). The roadside price of larch are ¥ 950 yuan/m³ and ¥ 650 yuan/m³ for sawlog and pulpwood, respectively (Gao et al. 2009).

4.4 Harvesting Cost

From forest harvesting point of view, harvesting cost consists of felling cost, transport cost and other fixed cost (Cao 2003). In this study, these costs were kept as constant. In detail, the felling costs employed here are ¥110 yuan/m³ (including both direct and indirect cost) for thinning or selective harvest, and ¥149 yuan/m³ (including both direct and indirect cost) for final harvest. The transportation cost is ¥0.5 yuan/m³/km, while the average distance of transporting to timberyard is 57km. Since the other fixed costs were partly calculated within the felling costs, the

remaining part mainly is loading and storage cost which is ¥10 yuan/m³ (Gao et al. 2009).

4.5 Computations

As a development that is helping to bridge the gap between forest resource managers and model builders, the computer spreadsheet becomes popularity. Modern spreadsheets have sophisticated built-in functions, including optimizers that avoid the need for specialized computer programming. In this study, the Microsoft Excel was used for solving the problem. Like several other spreadsheets, Excel contains a Solver to find the best solution. Besides, Excel offers a friendly user interface, flexible data manipulation, built-in mathematical functions and instantaneous graphing of data. The Solver is capable of solving small-scale linear programming (LP) and mixed integer programming (MIP) problems. Included in nearly 100 million copies of Microsoft Excel, it offers Excel spreadsheet users an easy introduction to classical methods of optimization (Nenov and Fylstra 2003).

The computations in this study consist of two parts: optimal solutions at both deterministic and stochastic level, and the results comparisons. Maximum bare land value, optimal rotation, optimal thinning frequency, optimal thinning intensity, and timing of thinning and clearcutting at deterministic level are calculated using a 3.5% interest rate and three thinning points. For the effect of stochasticity which is pest outbreak in this study, it was modeled as random events that damage a part of the growing stock. And we assume the damaged trees have to be harvested with thinning with a 25% reduction in their stumpage volume and a doubling of the logging cost. These economic parameters were set subjectively as no data were available from applicable silvicultural conditions.

Noticeably, optimizing the management schedule means finding the optimal values for a set of decision variables (DV), i.e. the optimal values of decision variables for each thinning and final cutting (Minna 1996; Pukkala and Miina 1997, 1998). In addition, schedules with different number of thinnings are to be treated as separate optimization problems. The management regime was specified by the number of thinnings, and by the DVs. In this study, the DVs were chosen as follows:

For each thinning:

- Years (with 5-year accuracy) since previous thinning, or if it is the first thinning stand age when the thinning occurs.
- Remaining basal area.

For final cuttings:

- Years since the last thinning to the first regenerative cut.

In order to optimal management schedule, firstly the initial stand, timber prices, discounting rate were kept as constant, then an initial solution (a guess for the optimal combination of DVs) was first fed to the computation. By doing this, the value of the objective function with these values of DVs and the given set parameters (timber prices, unit costs, and discounting rate) was calculated. Based on the feedback from the simulation system, we made changes in the values of DVs, in an effort to improve the schedule, and then we calculated the objective function with the new DVs values again. The optimal management schedule for a given number of thinnings is eventually found, after repeating this search-process several times when a defined convergence criterion was met. The optimization was carried out for 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 thinnings to find the number of thinnings that maximized the objective variable. In addition, in order to get a better economic return, the limit for intensities of thinning for small and medium size trees were set as 40%, which was tested as effective for larch plantation in northeast China in previous research (Sun et al. 2005).

5 Results and Discussion

5.1 Deterministic Optimal Solutions at 3.5% Interest Rate

Table 9 shows the deterministic optimal solutions at 3.5% interest rate for different plots. The symbols in the tables are as follows: D_g is diameter at breast height in cm; S-trees (%) denotes the portion of small size tree removed; M-trees (%) denotes the portion of medium size tree removed; L-trees (%) denotes the portion of large size trees removed; $Ro.dg$ denotes mean diameter at the end of rotation, in cm; M.A.I denotes mean annual increment in cubic meter per year; SI denotes the site index, which is the dominant height in meters at the index age (index age is 30 years for larch plantation in this study).

In this study, the criteria for grouping trees are based on their diameter at breast height. Thereby, tree volumes and stumpage values are computed by diameter class. Here, small size tree refer to tree with diameter ranging from 4 to 13 cm; medium size tree refer to tree with diameter ranging from 14 to 21 cm; large size tree refer to tree with diameter equals to or great than 22 cm. In addition, the computation of the amounts of sawlogs and pulpwood were also mainly based on the diameter classification. As Martin (2004) mentioned, in the logging of mixed forest stands, the better trees are usually used for sawlogs for lumber production, while the inferior trees and components are harvested for pulpwood production. Pulpwood usually derives from four types of woody materials in a mixed logging operation:

- Open-grown trees, that are heavily branched low on the trunk, and so make poor sawlogs.
- Dead or diseased trees.
- Tops cut from trees harvested for sawlogs (branches are rarely used since they contain little usable wood after the bark has been removed).

- Small trees, too small to harvest for sawlogs

Hereby, for the computation of the amounts of pulpwood in this study, small trees with diameter ranging from 4 to 13 cm, and dead or diseased trees (natural death or because of pest outbreak) were used as pulpwood; the computation of the amounts of sawlogs are based on the volume of medium size trees (diameter ranging from 14 to 21 cm) and large size trees (diameter equals to or great than 22 cm). This also corresponds to the Chinese national criteria for timber assortment and purpose (i.e. GB142-1995; GB /T 11717-2009).

The sample plots in this study were different in initial stand age, site fertility, initial stand density and geographic location. Besides, the prior management treatment may be various. Also, the successful application of prior silvicultural management may vary. However, the bare land values were calculated assuming no prior harvest revenues and constant establishment costs in this study.

Table 9. Deterministic optimal solution with 3.5% interest rate

Initial state	Dulaer 76	Dulaer 80-2	Yiershi 48	Yiershi 53	Yiershi 57	Yiershi 58	Yiershi 57 opposite-1	Yiershi 57 opposite-2	Yiershi 57 opposite-3
Biological age (yrs)	28	24	30	33	25	28	24	22	20
Age at breast height (yrs)	21	21	27	26	19	21	19	17	16
Elevation (m)	809	829	893	904	907	857	907	908	910
Site Index (SI, m)	11.2	12.9	15.8	11.8	8.5	8.5	10.9	10.5	11.0
Dg (cm)	12.9	10.9	14.1	13.8	10.5	12.9	12.8	14.2	13.0
Mean height (m)	10.9	10.9	16.0	11.9	7.8	8.3	9.8	9.0	9.0
Basal area (m ² /ha)	30.0	18.5	39.1	37.3	19.4	34.5	29.3	32.5	28.0
Trees/ha	2150	1875	2050	2100	2025	2250	2025	2100	1975
1st thinning (yrs)	33	29	35	38	30	33	29	27	25
Intensity (%)	36.4%	31.3%	43.5%	44.0%	40.0%	49.1%	37.5%	30.2%	31.6%
S-trees (%)	40.0%	28.0%	40.0%	40.0%	40.0%	18.0%	40.0%	40.0%	40.0%
M-trees (%)	30.0%	26.0%	20.0%	20.0%	36.0%	54.0%	30.0%	30.0%	30.0%
L-trees (%)	100.0%	100.0%	92.5%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
2nd thinning (yrs)	38	34	40	43	35	38	34	32	30
Intensity (%)	27.1%	26.8%	31.1%	32.1%	44.1%	41.1%	32.1%	34.9%	35.6%
S-trees (%)	10.9%	21.0%	40.0%	40.0%	40.0%	35.0%	36.0%	38.6%	29.0%
M-trees (%)	30.0%	30.0%	30.0%	30.0%	33.2%	38.0%	32.0%	36.0%	36.5%
L-trees (%)	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
3rd thinning (yrs)	43	39		48	40	43	39	37	35
Intensity (%)	26.3%	23.0%		37.1%	41.1%	41.6%	32.3%	41.0%	37.1%
S-trees (%)	0.0%	0.0%		40.0%	40.0%	36.5%	46.0%	32.0%	21.0%
M-trees (%)	30.0%	30.0%		30.0%	32.0%	36.5%	26.8%	31.6%	36.0%
L-trees (%)	100.0%	100.0%		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
4th thinning (yrs)		44			45	48	44		
Intensity (%)		29.7%			41.4%	50.3%	32.7%		
S-trees (%)		0.0%			40.0%	40.0%	52.0%		
M-trees (%)		28.0%			38.0%	40.0%	23.0%		
L-trees (%)		100.0%			100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		
5th thinning (yrs)					50				
Intensity (%)					41.2%				
S-trees (%)					32.0%				
M-trees (%)					43.5%				
L-trees (%)					100.0%				
Rotation (yrs)	52	54	48	56	55	58	49	42	40
Ro.dg (cm)	16.7	16.1	15.8	15.9	15.5	16.8	16.6	17.5	16.4
M.A.I. (m ³ /year)	7.8	7.2	8.9	6.9	6.2	5.8	7.2	9.4	9.2
Bare land value (¥)	87047	77074	103582	81015	68512	76165	93044	121814	121172

The deterministic optimization results indicated that the bare land values were associated with stands of high basal area, tree diameters and height. From this outcome, it is easy to affirm that the development of basal area, diameter and height are the key factors affecting bare land value. Besides, site fertility is another important factor as fertile site plots have higher bare land value than infertile sites. For all the plots in this study, Yiershi 57 opposite-2, Yiershi 57 opposite-3 and Yiershi 48 produced the highest bare land values among all the plots.

Stands that had high mean annual increment ($8.9 \text{ m}^3/\text{yr}/\text{ha}$ in Yiershi 48, $9.4 \text{ m}^3/\text{yr}/\text{ha}$ in Yiershi 57 opposite-2 and $9.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{yr}/\text{ha}$ in Yiershi 57 opposite-3) gave the higher bare land value. Besides, compared with other three plots, Yiershi 57 opposite-3 was characterized by a younger age (20 yrs biological age) and a lower initial density (1975 trees/ha) but high growth of tree diameters, height, basal area and timber volume. These lead to a short optimal rotation and a high level of timber production. In addition, for plot Yiershi 48, only two thinnings were exerted, while the rotation age was relatively shorter (with a rotation of 48 years) than the plots with lower bare land value. Noticeably, Yiershi 57 opposite-2 and Yiershi 57 opposite-3 are the youngest plots among all the nine plots but gave the high bare land value. This result revealed the fast growth of basal area possible after thinning during the tree's growing period.

Many factors can affect rotation age, such as planting density and thinning frequency and intensity. In table 9, the proportion of trees removed in optimal thinnings for all plots at 3.5% interest rate were illustrated. The thinning type is defined with three variables that define thinning rate for minimum, middle and maximum diameters. Thinning rates for other diameters are interpolated. In this deterministic optimal solution, except plot Yiershi 58 that was mainly with the thinning type from above in the first thinning, other plots were typically thinned from both above and below in first thinning. This is partly because that the development of diameter of larger trees

had already reached sawlog dimensions before the first thinning. In addition, for all the sample plots, the first thinning removed intermediate trees with 20% or higher thinning rate.

Thinning can increase the quality of the remaining stock, improve the value growth of the remaining trees and, also yield income before rotation-end (Klemperer 1996, p.242-243). In this study, the first thinning typically removed pulpwood from small size trees as well as sawlogs from large size trees, with the exception of plot Yiershi 58 where the development of diameters of some smallest trees have not already reached pulpwood or sawlog dimensions. Additionally, the higher density of Yiershi 58 also played as another important factor.

According to the solution of Table 9, we can get that the intensity of the first thinning was 30-45% in the majority of the plots. After the first thinning, the subsequent thinning removed trees mainly from above with light or medium thinning intensities. The purpose of subsequent thinning might be to keep the level of basal area high, and to reduce mortality. Meanwhile, thinning for large size trees was on a relatively heavy intensity level. That also corresponds to the practice in China for larch plantation as an economic plant. In addition, normally, higher fixed harvesting costs decrease the optimal number of thinning.

Clearcutting would happen around 40 to 60 years old based on various plots. Noticeably, mean diameters at the end of rotation (Ro.dg) for all plots in this deterministic case are about 16 to 17 cm, which is different compared with some other studies (e.g. Zhang 1986, Li 1987, Sun et al. 2001, Shi and Feng 2005). In those studies, rotation ages are longer and mean diameters at the end of rotation are at a bigger level which is usually over 20 cm. On the other hand, Sun et.al (2005) and Gao et al. (2009) reported similar results about mean diameters at the end of rotation (Ro.dg) in their research as in this study. The heavy intensity cutting for large size

trees in previous thinnings, and the variance of the initial state and site quality might be key reasons for the difference of mean diameters at the end of rotation (Ro.dg). In fact, most plots in this study include a part of tree with smaller DBH than average in the initial state. In addition, the volume equations (i.e. equation 5.1 and 5.2) used in this study give the total stem volume of a sawlog or pulpwood tree, instead of the sawlog part of a tree. Therefore, we can get sawlog volume from already trees with relatively medium or small diameters (i.e. diameter less than 22 cm) at a tree age. That makes the practice of a heavy cutting of large size trees in thinnings reasonable.

5.2 Optimization under Catastrophic Events

The optimum thinning schedule above was derived for the deterministic case. In order to reveal the effect of catastrophic events, which is pest outbreak in this study, scenarios with different probabilities and intensity of catastrophes were applied. In addition, since the uncertainty of the risk, the thinning in this study didn't depend on catastrophes. So the thinning rate was kept constant as in the deterministic case. Hereby, 100 scenarios were exerted so as to get a better picture of the variability of the results since the smaller number of scenarios application may cause instability.

In addition, in even aged management, one key decision variable is the rotation age (Buongiorno and Gilless 2003, p330). To make good statistical statements regarding the effect of the rotation age, the same scenario approach was used. This means 100 replications of the simulation at different rotation ages were made, holding all parameters constant except for the string of random numbers (e.g. timing and intensity of catastrophes). The statistics, which are described in detail in the Appendix, represent the effects of pest outbreak on bare land value at different rotation ages. Here, Table 10 is the summary statistics of the computation. For each different rotation, they give the largest and smallest bare land value observed in 100 replications with different scenarios, the mean bare land value, the standard deviation

of the bare land value, and the standard error of the mean. Also, the optimal solution for each plot in the deterministic case was added in order to make comparison. The optimal bare land value for both deterministic and stochastic cases were in bold characters.

Table 10. Summary statistics of calculating 100 scenarios of the bare land value under pest risk with different rotations (bare land value, unit: ¥ yuan/ha) and the optimal bare land value under deterministic situation.

(a) Dulaer 76						
Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	58	53	52	51	48	52
Max	81335	86806	91714	92056	93300	
Min	52429	42574	48371	45935	49000	
Mean	67917	70096	71403	73602	74189	87047
SD	6081	8220	9678	10323	9526	
SE	608	822	968	1032	953	

(b) Dulaer 80-2						
Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	54	50	49	48	44	54
Max	72741	73508	74006	75467	68290	
Min	37830	39956	40416	35308	33088	
Mean	57491	58922	58171	60013	55595	77074
SD	8301	7352	8670	7818	8208	
SE	830	735	867	782	821	

(c) Yiershi 48						
Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	55	49	48	45	40	48
Max	101678	101860	98915	104308	91292	
Min	62913	47041	54452	60583	43789	
Mean	84923	81301	82780	85628	77030	103582
SD	8303	11996	9788	10300	14625	
SE	830	1200	979	1030	1462	

(d) Yiershi 53

Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	58	56	53	48	43	56
Max	76000	79259	74034	75063	75056	
Min	40817	35256	43462	35071	32896	
Mean	65034	64644	65245	66274	62367	81015
SD	7190	8182	7001	7864	12566	
SE	719	818	700	786	1257	

(e) Yiershi 57

Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	55	52	50	48	45	55
Max	61991	59506	59100	68487	56910	
Min	36822	34614	30383	32541	23175	
Mean	51987	50567	50238	52798	48585	68512
SD	5962	6124	6693	7652	7068	
SE	596	612	669	765	707	

(f) Yiershi 58

Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	58	56	53	48	43	58
Max	71039	67473	67642	66684	65554	
Min	39763	42794	41903	41899	31387	
Mean	59465	59582	60322	58221	56131	76165
SD	6685	6187	6009	6477	8835	
SE	668	619	601	648	884	

(f) Yiershi 57 opposite-1

Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	54	51	49	44	39	49
Max	87618	88667	90375	93036	83748	
Min	57121	48748	53631	51199	41978	
Mean	75199	75355	74971	78116	71162	93044
SD	6926	8573	8461	8083	11412	
SE	693	857	846	808	1141	

(g) Yiershi 57 opposite-2

Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	52	47	42	40	37	42
Max	115881	120976	115602	113129	110156	
Min	73293	71025	59386	59035	59153	
Mean	97360	97774	98379	99331	93206	121814
SD	8719	10702	12704	11793	15096	
SE	872	1070	1270	1179	1510	

(h) Yiershi 57 opposite-3						
Stochastic						Deterministic
Rotation (y)	45	42	40	35	30	40
Max	118560	113971	116149	120401	113481	
Min	58442	69655	66545	60733	36819	
Mean	97631	94707	94835	100879	93492	121172
SD	10589	12568	11904	12636	21806	
SE	1059	1257	1190	1264	2181	

Legends: Max = maximum bare land value, Min = minimum bare land value, Mean = mean bare land value, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error of the mean.

Table 10 indicates that the mean values of bare land value from the stochastic simulation are about 14.8% to 25.6% lower than the deterministic simulation, which are corresponding to different plots. Based on the comparison with the optimal solution of deterministic case, we can easily find that the effect of catastrophe shortened the optimal rotation length while the thinning rate was kept as constant.

The results in Table 10 show that in these 100 replications of various scenarios for each plot, the bare land value ranged from a minimum value to a maximum value. For example, for plot Dulaer 76 at rotation age 48, the bare land value ranged from a minimum of ¥93300 yuan/ha to a maximum of ¥49000 yuan/ha. The mean bare land value was ¥74189 yuan/ha, with a standard error of ¥953 yuan/ha. The 95% confidence interval of the mean bare land value is: $74189 \pm 2 \times 953 = (\text{¥}73237/\text{ha}, \text{¥}75142/\text{ha})$. This 95% confidence interval doesn't contain the bare land value obtained by the deterministic simulation, ¥87047/ha. Thus, the mean results from the stochastic simulation are very different from those of the deterministic simulation.

In addition, what has been gained from the stochastic simulation is information about the possible variability of outcomes. While the law of averages may be relevant for owners who have many stands of this type such as the owner in this study, it may not be for owners of a single woodlot. For them, any one of the outcomes of the stochastic simulation is possible, and variability in outcomes will affect property

values and influence managerial decisions.

5.3 Comparison of Chinese Forest Law and Previous Research Results

According to the updated management approach of forest harvesting (National Forestry Bureau 1987), a stand must reach a certain minimum age before it can be clearcut. For larch plantation, the requirement is: stand age \geq 41 years. From this point of view, the optimal rotation period for plots Yiershi 57 opposite-3 is illegal at 3.5% interest rate. However, some earlier studies reported that the optimal rotation can be shorter than the recommendations. For example, Sun et.al (2005) claimed that the rotation of larch is 37-39 years with the first thinning at 25 years old. Gao et al. (2009) even got a more surprising result that the economic rotation of larch plantation is 13-18 years. Of course, this result was found based on a different discount rate, timber price and site location. In the present study, the rotation of Dahurian larch depends on various plots. The catastrophes decreased the bare land value of different plots. And given a constant thinning rate, the optimum rotation was also shortened under the risk of catastrophes.

6 Conclusions and Limitations

From this study, we can get some clear conclusions about the optimal stand management of Dahurian Larch under the risk of insect outbreak in Aershan area, Inner Mongolia, China. It was found that compared with the deterministic case, the optimal rotation age under stochastic simulation is shorter than the deterministic optimal solution, which means increasing risk of catastrophe shortens the optimum rotation considerably. Similar results had also been found in some previous research (e.g. Caulfield 1988, Valsta 1992b). Noticeably, thinning in this study didn't depend on catastrophes since the uncertainty of the risk. Also, numerical results in a

risk-neutral case show that in the stochastic simulation, the optimal bare land value is about 14.8% to 25.6% lower than the deterministic simulation, which are corresponding to different plots.

This study was restricted by the availability of biological, geographical and economic data. Firstly, the roadside prices of sawlog and pulpwood were constant in this study. In practice, the market price fluctuates with demand, supply, and the elasticity of demand with respect to price, since it implies that as the volume harvested increases, the market supply amplifies, the price received by the owner declines. This suggests the necessity of considering the timber price fluctuation in the modeling. On the other hand, non-timber values such as stand diversity, carbon storage, also sometimes affect decision making. This may require further study as well. As a hot topic recently, the strong assumption was made that the forest used as an effective tool of store carbon and ease global warming. If the carbon storage was considered, the optimal solution would be different from the pure seeking of timber income. In contrast to the timber revenues which depend on periodic harvests, carbon sequestration in the forest depends on the amount of timber that is left standing. As in the carbon storage market, with a good price per unit of carbon stored, carbon storage could be treated similarly to timber production to arrive at a global measure of economic performance. Then what we have to do is to seek the best combination of timber production and carbon storage.

In addition, the application of individual-tree growth model was based on statistics of extensive field measurements. That means that the parameters used in the simulation models are based on measurements from present forests and forests with similar geographic and biological attributes in the same area. Hence, these values can be applied only within the domain of the data.

In this study, the stochasticity was introduced relying on deterministic predictions. However, it would be theoretically sound and produces more realistic predictions of actual tree growth. FOX et al. (2001) mentioned that benefits from incorporation of stochastic structure include valid statistical inference, improved estimation efficiency, and more realistic and theoretically sound prediction. It is proposed that individual-tree modeling methodologies need to characterize and include structured stochasticity in future research.

References

- Adlard, P.G., 1974. Development of an empirical competition model for individual trees within a stand. In: J. Fries (Editor), Growth Models for Tree and Stand Simulation. Res. Notes 30, Department of Forest Yield Research, Royal College of Forestry, Stockholm. p. 22-37.
- Amey, J.D. 1972. Computer simulation of Douglas fir tree and stand growth. Ph.D. Dissertation, Oregon State University.
- Bazaraa M.S. and Shetty C.M. 1970. Nonlinear programming: Theory and algorithms. Wiley, New York. 560 p.
- Bella, I.E. 1970. Simulation of growth, yield, and management of aspen. Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada.
- Bettinger, P., Boston K., Siry, J.P. and Grebner, D.L. 2009. Forest Management and Planning. Academic Press. 331 p.
- Brodie, J. D., Adams, D. M. and Kao, C. 1978. Analysis of Economic Impacts of Thinning and Rotation for Douglas-fir Using Dynamic Programming. Forest Science 24: 513-522.
- Buongiorno, J. and Gilless, J. K. 2003. Decision methods for forest resource management. San Diego, CA: Academic Press. 439 p.
- Burkhart, H.E. 1987. Data collection and modelling approaches for forest growth and

- yield prediction. Predicting forest Growth and Yield-current Issues, Future Prospects. Institute of Forest Resources, University of Washington. p. 3–16.
- Cao, T. 2003. Optimal Harvesting for Even-aged Norway Spruce Stands Using an Individual-tree Growth Model. Master's thesis, University of Helsinki, Finland.
- Caulfield, J.P. 1988. A Stochastic Efficiency Approach for Determining the Economic Rotation of a Forest Stand. *Forest Science* 34(2), 441–457.
- Davis, L. S., Johnson, K. N., Bettinger, P. S. and Howard, T. E. 2001. *Forest Management: To Sustain Ecological, Economic, and Social Values*. Fourth Edition. McGraw-Hill. 804 p.
- DeAngelis, D.L. and Gross, L.J. (Editors). 1992. *Individual-based Models and Approaches in Ecology: Populations, Communities and Ecosystems*. Chapman and Hall, New York.
- Du, J.S. 1999. Tree Mortality Model of Larix. *Scientia Silvae Sinicae*, Vol 35, No.2: 45–49
- Eriksson, L.O. 1994. Two methods for solving stand management problems based on a single tree model. *Forest Science* 40: 732–758.
- Faustmann, M. 1849. Reprinted in Translation as: Calculation of the Value which Forest Land and Immature Stands Possess for Forestry. *Journal of Forest Economics*. 1: 7–44. (The original article was published in *Allgemeine Forst- und Jagd-Zeitung*, vol.15, 1849.)
- Forsell, N. 2003. *Planning Under Risk and Uncertainty: Optimizing Spatial Forest Management Strategies*. Doctoral Thesis, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Umeå, Sweden.
- Fox, J.C., Ades, P.K. and Bi, H. 2001. Stochastic structure and individual-tree growth models. *Forest Ecology and Management* 154: 261–276.
- Gadow, K. v. 2000. Evaluating risk in forest planning models. *Silva Fennica* 34(2): 181–191.
- Gao, H., Li, F. and Jia, W. 2009. Study on Diameter Class Distribution and Economic Rotation of Larix gmelini Plantation. *Forest Engineering*, Vol.25, No.4:

10–14. (In Chinese, with English summary)

- Gardiner, B., Byrne, K., Hale, S., Kamimura, K., Mitchell, S., Peltola, H. and Ruel, J.C. 2008. A review of mechanistic modelling of wind damage risk to forests. *Forestry* 81(3): 447–461.
- Getz, W. M. and Haight, R. G. 1989. *Population Harvesting: Demographic Models of Fish, Forest and Animal Resources*. Princeton University Press. N. J. p. 225–319.
- González, J.R., Palahí, M., Trasobares, A. and Pukkala, T. (2006). A fire probability model for forest stands in Catalonia (north-east Spain). *Annals of Forest Science* 63(2), 169–176.
- Haight, R.G., and Monserud, R.A. 1990. Optimizing any-aged management of mixed-species stands. II. Effects of decision criteria. *Forest Science* 36: 125–144.
- Haight, R.G., Brodie, J.D. and Dahms, W.G. 1985. A dynamic programming algorithm for optimization of lodge pole pine management. *Forest Science* 31: 321–330.
- Hanewinkel, M., Pretzsch, H. 2000. Modelling the conversion from even-aged to uneven-aged stands of Norway spruce (*Picea abies* L. Karst.) with a distance-dependent growth simulator. *Forest Ecology and Management*. 134(1–3): 55–70.
- Hanewinkel, M., Peltola, H., Soares, P. and González-Olabarria, J.R. 2010. Recent approaches to model the risk of storm and fire to European forests and their integration into simulation and decision support tools. *Forest Systems* 19(SI), 30–47.
- Hanewinkel, M., Zhou, W. and Schill, C. 2004. A neural network approach to identify forest stands susceptible to wind damage. *Forest Ecology and Management* 196, 227–243.
- Hennigar, C.R., MacLean, D.A., Porter, K.B. and Quiring, D.T. (2007). Optimized harvest planning under alternative foliage-protection scenarios to reduce volume losses to spruce budworm. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 37(9):

1755–1769.

- Hatch, C.R. 1971. Simulation of an even-aged red pine stand in northern Minnesota. Ph.D. Dissertation, the University of Minnesota.
- Hof, J., Bevers, M. and Kent, B. (1997). An Optimization Approach to Area-Based Forest Pest Management Over Time and Space. *Forest Science* 43(1): 121–128.
- Hollenstein, K. 1997. Analyse, Bewertung und Management von Naturrisiken. Hochschulverlag AG der ETH Zürich. 191 p.
- Huston, M., DeAngelis, D. and Post, W., 1988. New computer models unify ecological theory. *Bioscience*, 38: 682–691.
- Hyytiäinen, K., Tahvonen, O. and Valsta, L. 2005. Optimum Juvenile Density, Harvesting, and Stand Structure in Even-Aged Scots Pine Stands. *Forest Science* 51(2):120–133.
- Jiang, S. 2009. Study on Forest Dynamic Model for Larix in Plantation. Doctoral Thesis, Northeast Forestry University, Hei Longjiang, China. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Jiang, Y. and Li, F. 1989. A Study On the Growth and Yield of Natural Dahurian Larch Stands. *Scientia Silvae Sinicae*, Vol.25, No.5: 477-482. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Klemperer, W.D. *Forest Resource Economics and Finance*. 1996. McGraw-Hill. 551 pp.
- Krajicek, J.E., Brinkman, K.E. and Gingrich, S.F. 1961. Crown competition – a measure of density. *Forest Science*, 7: 35–42.
- Landsberg, J.J. 1986. *Physiological Ecology of Forest Production*. Academic Press, London. 198 p.
- Lee, Y. 1967. Stand models for lodgepole pine and limits to their application. Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada.
- Li, F. 1987. Study On Diameter Distribution and Models Predicting Yields for Natural Dahurian Larch stands. *Journal of North-east Forestry University*, Vol.15, No.4: 8–16. (In Chinese, with English summary)

- Li, F. 1994. A Simulation System of Stand Dynamics for Larix Olgensis Plantation. Doctoral Thesis, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing, China. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Li, J., Luo Y., Zeng, Y., Shi, J., Ma, L., Yang, X., Wang, Z. and Kari, H. 2009. Plant Diversity Patterns in Different Forests in Aershan, Inner Mongolia. *Forestry Studies in China* 11(1): 55–60.
- Li, L. and Hao, W. 1991. Simulating Stand Growth Based On Individual Tree Growth Model. *Journal of Northeast Forestry University*, Vol.19, No.3: 21–27. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Lin, J.Y. 1969. Growing space index and stand simulation of young western hemlock in Oregon. Ph.D. Dissertation, Duke University.
- Liu, J.G. and Ashton, P.S. 1995. Individual-based simulation models for forest succession and management. *Forest Ecology and Management* 73: 157–175.
- Liu, W., Li, F. 2010. Distance-independent Individual-tree Growth Models of Larix olgensis Plantation. *Journal of Northeast Forestry University*, Vol.38, No.5: 24–27. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Liu, Z.G., Li, F.R., Yu, J.C. 2003. The Study of Individual Tree Model on Larix Olgensis Plantation. *Bulletin of Botanic Research*, Vol.23, No.2: 237–244. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Lohmander, P. and Helles, F. 1987. Windthrow probability as a function of stand characteristics and shelter. *Scandinavian Journal of Forest Research* 2: 227–238.
- Marsden, M. A., Eav, B. B. and Thompson, M. K. 1993. User's guide to the Douglas-fir beetle impact model. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service.
- Martell, D.L. 1980. The optimal rotation of a flammable forest stand. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 10(1): 30–34.
- Martin, S. 2004. Paper Chase [online]. Ecology Communications, Inc. Available from: <http://www.ecology.com/2011/09/10/paper-chase/> [Accessed 21 September 2007].
- Meilby, H., Strange, N. and Thorsen, B.J. 2001. Optimal spatial harvest planning

- under risk of windthrow. *Forest Ecology and Management* 149: 15–31.
- Miina J. 1996. Optimizing thinning and rotation in a stand of *Pinus sylvestris* on a drained peatland site, *Scan. J. For. Res.* 11: 182–192.
- Mitchell, K.J. 1969. Simulation of the growth of even aged stands of white spruce. *School of Forestry Bulletin, No. 75.* Yale University, New Haven.
- Mladenoff, D.J. 2004. LANDIS and forest landscape models. *Ecological Modelling* 180: 7–19.
- Mladenoff, D.J., Host, G.E., Boeder, J. and Crow, T.R. 1996. LANDIS: a spatial model of forest landscape disturbance, succession, and management. Fort Collins, CO, USA: GIS World Books. p. 175–180.
- Moll, R.H.H. and Chinneck, J.W. 1992. Modeling regeneration and pest control alternatives for a forest system in the presence of fire risk. *Natural Resource Modeling* 6(1) : 23–49.
- Monserud, R.A. and Sterba H. 1996. A basal area increment model for individual tree growing in even- and uneven-aged forest stands in Austria. *Forest Ecology and Management* 80: 57–80.
- Monserud, R.A. and Sterba H. 1999. Modeling individual tree mortality for Austrian forest species. *Forest Ecology and Management* 113: 109–123.
- Munro, D. D. 1974. Forest growth models: A prognosis. In: J. Fries (Editor), *Growth Models for Tree and Stand Simulation.* Res. Notes 30, Department of Forest Yield Research, Royal College of Forestry. Stockholm. p. 7–21.
- Nenov, I.P. and Fylstra, D. H. 2003. Interval Methods for Accelerated Global Search in the Microsoft Excel Solver. *Reliable Computing* 9: 143–159.
- Newnham, R.M., 1964. The development of a stand model for Douglas fir. Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of British Columbia. Vancouver, Canada.
- Osyczka, A., 1984. Multicriterion optimization in engineering with FORTRAN programs. Ellis Horwood. Chichester. 178 p.
- Parton, W. and Innes, G. 1972. Some graphs and their functional forms. *International Biological Program Grassland Biome Technical Report No. 153,* Natural Resource

- Ecology Laboratory, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA. 41 p.
- Pellikka, P. and Järvenpää, E. 2003. Forest stand characteristics and wind and snow induced forest damage in boreal forest. In: Proceedings of International Conference on Wind Effects on Trees. p. 269–276.
- Pukkala, T. and J. Miina. 1997. A method for stochastic multiobjective optimization of stand management. *Forest Ecology and Management* 98: 189–203.
- Pukkala, T. and J. Miina. 1998. Tree-selection algorithms for optimizing thinning using a distance-dependent growth model. *Can. J. For. Res.* 28: 693–702.
- Rautiainen O., Pukkala T. and Miina J. 1999. Optimising the management of even-aged *Shorea robusta* stands in southern Nepal using individual tree growth models. *Forest Ecology and Management* 126: 417–429.
- Reed, W.J. 1984. The effects of the risk of fire on the optimal rotation of a forest. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 11(2): 180–190.
- Reed, W.J. and Errico, D. 1985. Assessing the long-run yield of a forest stand subject to the risk of fire. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 15(4): 680–687.
- Reed, W.J. and Errico, D. 1986. Optimal harvest scheduling at the forest level in the presence of the risk of fire. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 16(2): 266–278.
- Ritchie, M.W. 1999. A Compendium of Forest Growth and Yield Simulators for the Pacific Coast States. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Pacific Southwest Research Station, Albany, CA. General Technical Report PSW–GTR–174.
- Roise, J. P. 1986. An Approach for Optimizing Residual Diameter Class Distribution when Thinning Even-aged Stands. *Forest Science* 32: 871–881.
- Rönnqvist, M. 2003. Optimization in Forestry. *Math. Program., Ser. B* 97: 267–284.
- Schehaas, M.J., Nabuurs, G.J., Schuck, A. 2003. Natural disturbances in the European forests in the 19th and 20th centuries. *Global Change Biology* 9: 1620–1633.
- Scheller, R.M., Domingo, J.B., Sturtevant, B.R., Williams, J.S., Rudy, A., Gustafson, E.J. and Mladenoff, D.J. 2007. Design, development, and application of

- LANDIS-II, a spatial landscape simulation model with flexible temporal and spatial resolution. *Ecological Modelling* 201: 409–419.
- Schmid, M., Hanewinkel, M., Kändler, G., Kublin, E. and Kohnle, U. 2010. An inventory-based approach for modeling single tree storm damage-experiences with the winter storm 1999 in southwestern Germany. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 40(8): 1636–1652.
- Shi, L.P. and Feng, Z.K. 2005. Basic methods for establishing plantation stand growth estimate models. *Journal of Beijing Forestry University*, Vol. 27, Supp. 2: 222–225. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Shugart, H.H. 1984. *A Theory of Forest Dynamics: The Ecological Implications of Forest Succession Models*. Springer, New York. 278 p.
- Sironen, S., Kangas, A., Maltamo, M., and Kangas, J. 2001. Estimating individual tree growth with the k-nearest neighbour and k-most similar neighbor methods. *Silva Fennica*. 35(4): 453–467.
- Solberg, B. and R.G. Haight. 1991. Analysis of optimal economic management regimes for *Picea abies* stands using a stage-structured optimal-control model. *Scandinavian Journal of Forest Research* 6: 559–572.
- Sun, C., Shen, G., Li, J. and Jia, L. 2001. Study on the Present Condition and the Potentialities of the Productivity of Main Tree Species Plantation of China. *Forest Research*, 14(6): 657–667. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Sun, J., Li, S. and Wang, Y. 2005. Consideration of Short Regulatory Rotation Age of Larch Plantation. *Forestry Science and Technology Information*, Vol. 37, No. 2: 4–5. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- United Nations. 1992. *Internationally agreed glossary of basic terms related to disaster management*. United Nations Department of Humanitarian Affairs, Geneva.
- Valinger, E. and Pettersson, N. 1996. Wind and snow damage in a thinning and fertilization experiment in *Picea abies* in southern Sweden. *Forestry* 69: 25–33.
- Valsta, L. 1992a. *An Optimization Model for Norway Spruce Management Based on*

- Individual-tree Growth Models. *Acta Forestalia Fennica* 232. 20p.
- Valsta, L. 1992b. A scenario approach to stochastic anticipatory optimization in stand management. *Forest Science* 38: 430–447.
- Valsta, L. 1993. Stand Management Optimization Based on Growth Simulators. Finnish Forest Research Institute, Research Papers 453. 51p.
- Vettenranta, J. 1996. Effect of species composition on economic return in a mixed stand of Norway spruce and Scots pine. *Silva Fennica* 30: 47–60.
- Vettenranta, J. and J. Miina. 1999. Optimizing thinnings and rotation of Scots pine and Norway spruce mixtures. *Silva Fennica* 33: 73–84.
- Wanga, X., He, H.S., Li, X. and Hu, Y. 2006a. Assessing the cumulative effects of postfire management on forest landscape dynamics in northeastern China. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 36, 1992–2002.
- Wanga, X., He, H.S., Li, X., Chang, Y., Hu, Y., Xu, C., Bu, R. and Xie, F. 2006b. Simulating the effects of reforestation on a large catastrophic fire burned landscape in Northeastern China. *Forest Ecology and Management* 225(1–3): 82–93.
- Wu, G. and Wang, Z. 2000. Individual tree growth-competition model in mixed plantation of Manchurian ash and Dahurian larch. *Chinese Journal of Applied Ecology* 11(5): 646–650. (In Chinese, with English summary)
- Wykoff, W.R., Crookston, N.L. and Stage, A.R. 1982. User's Guide to the Stand Prognosis Model. United States Department of Agriculture.
- Xi, W., Coulson, R.N., D., W.J., Tchakerian, M., Lafon, C.W., Cairns, D.M., Birt, A.G. and Klepzig, K.D. 2008. Landscape Modeling for Forest Restoration Planning and Assessment: Lessons from the Southern Appalachian Mountains. *Journal of Forestry* 106(4): 191–197.
- Yuan, F., Luo Y., Zeng, Y., Shi, J., Kari, H., Qi, G., Li, X., Han, Y., Chen, C. 2008. Invasive Sequence and Ecological Niche of Main Insect Borers of *Larix gmelinii* Forest in Aershan, Inner Mongolia. *Forestry Studies in China* 10(1): 9–13.
- Yue, C., Kohnle, U., Hein, S. 2008. Combining tree- and stand-level models: a new

- approach to growth prediction. *Forest Science* 54(5): 553–566.
- Zeng, H., Peltola, H., Talkkari, A., Venäläinen, A., Wang, K., Kellomäki, S. 2006. Simulations of the influence of clear-cutting on the risk of wind damage on a regional scale over a 20-year period. *Canadian Journal Forest Research* 36, 2247–2258.
- Zhang, S. 1986. Study on Natural Dahurian Larch Stand Growth Model and Variable Density Yield Table. *Journal of North-East Forestry University*, Vol. 14, No. 3: 17–26. (In Chinese, with English summary)

REPLICATIONS (Bare Land Value) for Yiershi 48

Rotation (y)		55	49	48	45	40					
1	84460	78760	97376	84587	78008	56	89886	88963	84058	95693	76793
2	91950	62131	84218	87377	91292	57	94581	65499	80913	86526	91292
3	71349	76340	83856	88998	91292	58	91575	83919	93224	90822	68734
4	88145	92440	81773	98533	53996	59	81909	59067	66760	102681	50885
5	90188	53926	71242	95693	91292	60	77089	82008	93224	90608	91292
6	63183	92440	73834	70061	87223	61	85518	82087	93224	86707	91292
7	93002	80211	90874	75593	91292	62	85054	67255	93224	65156	76902
8	80102	95405	74045	80166	51931	63	90345	82755	91555	80444	69667
9	87343	92440	81732	89945	47352	64	88224	84238	93224	82678	91292
10	70538	85258	55797	66639	55989	65	101678	86483	67924	60583	60093
11	86071	86130	88489	86285	91292	66	91834	81511	82139	70390	76010
12	88982	70121	66121	81375	91292	67	92976	80067	93659	90016	91292
13	91549	86531	85675	104308	83400	68	87314	87496	75078	74685	60434
14	91229	86576	86366	85810	53133	69	73621	59179	94670	95693	91292
15	89151	68254	85060	88595	60854	70	81563	88491	78408	91369	88419
16	84685	76800	93224	89423	91292	71	85590	79803	93224	91525	91292
17	92136	47041	85945	70879	87726	72	90307	61963	91656	91923	85319
18	74755	72594	88049	72918	91292	73	91199	77872	84335	90359	91292
19	89777	86117	80440	95693	57744	74	75464	81662	81911	91340	91292
20	91834	92563	93224	82963	65499	75	95328	97967	78663	99490	80738
21	88129	86470	54452	81039	60220	76	83839	92440	78113	85524	67498
22	80792	87613	79410	70892	53697	77	86189	100046	96583	88729	77584
23	87434	92440	67701	80361	68348	78	79630	87778	84975	85490	83533
24	96264	101860	91550	71597	70122	79	84515	84747	93224	82069	69949
25	88947	83096	69607	71422	91292	80	91279	101507	73784	77382	91292
26	87968	86687	84192	104097	76156	81	81730	86283	73314	85636	91292
27	91834	78353	93224	95693	66033	82	89969	87844	76339	75301	91292
28	80459	77699	80537	100225	91292	83	66042	75834	75301	95693	90086
29	90323	92440	93224	68361	91292	84	91834	92440	76879	85357	60547
30	71198	65622	70221	92040	81115	85	91387	85425	71940	96936	64787
31	82322	82978	86204	95693	91292	86	86004	100981	93224	95693	67033
32	63841	92440	71039	73544	73302	87	79775	92440	74305	95693	91292
33	62913	83485	79808	86329	82082	88	91199	83406	76828	95693	91292
34	91834	78247	68908	86822	91292	89	87890	54915	67444	90623	91292
35	77295	101217	67154	72230	91292	90	85136	68497	90989	90446	67924
36	88758	68712	71974	79745	71656	91	69770	71134	90068	90174	91292
37	86874	92060	87360	69985	91292	92	86224	66393	87274	96479	65353
38	85660	69776	93224	87420	82792	93	91870	97108	98915	95693	84425
39	88095	92440	83534	81411	72657	94	87109	71127	94698	95693	46522
40	87036	90507	87672	90946	91292	95	87598	49658	93224	88197	80593
41	76180	84698	90856	84934	54581	96	90249	92440	79225	70397	91292
42	89905	70780	93224	82426	57368	97	65173	87137	80018	82126	43789
43	83243	76757	86758	95693	91292	98	82953	70323	90065	62166	68841
44	65619	71471	78059	88871	74801	99	97012	71048	93224	68645	73616
45	73188	63379	74181	90674	57643	100	80160	61398	71105	97773	91292
46	72033	92440	93224	68316	46352						
47	71346	76490	88598	99554	60676						
48	91834	88325	86836	103346	74984						
49	91834	92440	76644	84613	54303						
50	87192	86758	69119	82171	91292						
51	81912	87956	93537	86287	91292						
52	92317	82677	93224	91255	75291						
53	87950	84362	89012	92365	68781						
54	86451	77867	77842	65498	62054						
55	97349	96887	66447	88859	91292						

Rotation (y)	55	49	48	45	40
Max	101678	101860	98915	104308	91292
Min	62913	47041	54452	60583	43789
Mean	84923	81301	82780	85628	77030
SD	8303	11996	9788	10300	14625
SE	830	1200	979	1030	1462

REPLICATIONS (Bare Land Value) for Yiershi 57

Rotation (y)											
	55	52	50	48	45						
1	61661	59506	53802	49925	39869	56	61747	48010	53601	55756	48988
2	45774	54160	44415	68196	56350	57	48507	45695	51936	54650	49522
3	50601	39648	59100	55872	48114	58	51280	51509	57191	51541	51466
4	52252	53783	48048	53942	33160	59	52426	56975	46151	62076	54171
5	54378	49901	55084	56032	50974	60	52014	50371	33117	47185	56910
6	39276	55355	39240	49921	42105	61	56547	49453	49333	55945	44954
7	48877	59478	45731	49310	41326	62	54361	59478	48713	67582	53236
8	57012	49265	42033	58752	56910	63	57788	49704	52601	59629	51504
9	52111	48380	53540	59272	43561	64	49441	56319	59100	53031	56910
10	48831	59271	42672	52662	56910	65	46094	38531	43783	51372	54292
11	58451	55749	59100	62708	56910	66	57328	44275	49335	60307	56910
12	58423	51712	45030	45532	45716	67	61661	53660	55215	46382	52952
13	60401	53643	40620	50127	53665	68	49767	54426	47855	38258	37205
14	46928	58521	45201	50294	23175	69	46263	56020	56930	45206	45599
15	49422	59478	47411	60307	45545	70	49951	51889	46276	57788	38925
16	55613	45833	42562	56048	50707	71	57487	39313	46975	60307	40809
17	52901	37409	59100	47635	56910	72	56640	48466	57277	56312	48306
18	49129	53970	48190	47018	48343	73	58036	44055	50784	50042	56606
19	36822	52397	44625	38842	44535	74	61991	46681	54945	53235	42561
20	42345	52677	51633	47706	38226	75	53220	48859	54327	61892	53737
21	53902	48124	53574	54749	56910	76	56441	46447	56976	60643	46440
22	51414	51209	51867	51538	38846	77	51959	43578	59100	65261	48422
23	53756	54675	54972	54735	41318	78	53837	55533	50173	57611	46891
24	55265	34614	31280	58003	50446	79	61661	47032	57838	59956	56910
25	50649	53818	58750	60307	46855	80	43145	52727	43809	53467	56910
26	56614	59478	38693	49389	49085	81	54445	55702	56890	45257	53280
27	50853	43360	45665	54672	56910	82	58853	54792	55209	68487	50372
28	49501	47360	40403	58245	44164	83	44096	54079	54743	38270	56910
29	61661	46687	53089	50901	53968	84	48118	50258	47016	53525	36928
30	57878	40584	44773	53664	50080	85	43411	37208	47882	46669	47432
31	54276	57411	59100	42422	32357	86	61154	56586	54274	48369	52092
32	48243	56484	47118	45598	42365	87	57742	48392	59100	39567	52119
33	48914	48769	52197	53814	50371	88	41941	59478	44132	39186	56910
34	42196	54047	55114	32541	52141	89	45910	53358	38788	44705	38020
35	47306	41375	59100	42848	52319	90	58737	49762	55847	53950	56910
36	50806	59478	47774	55298	51515	91	57551	49103	30383	49761	56910
37	48460	53851	50351	41809	54256	92	52941	55399	41446	54981	56910
38	55966	54780	49858	52314	49655	93	53451	58135	50449	58331	46637
39	50629	57042	57627	55264	46870	94	40133	56258	59100	60307	56910
40	43433	41229	51795	53124	44884	95	55756	54769	59100	35543	45994
41	52076	47714	59100	60307	50378	96	39660	39719	50852	59261	49257
42	60797	55271	48241	34035	56910	97	43039	51236	54247	60307	39609
43	49306	46361	51887	32758	45270	98	49823	40235	51639	68071	51364
44	52756	51405	59100	52823	45839	99	45329	49564	39120	60307	54070
45	59372	42205	47762	51933	36191	100	50281	52694	59100	50960	43562
46	55607	42769	47676	52079	45538						
47	56643	48067	43182	49653	56910						
48	51113	37586	41570	51626	47102						
49	56044	54543	49584	53396	54869						
50	40875	59478	56692	57023	31702						
51	55817	48323	48837	60307	39804						
52	52832	54543	46631	54316	56910						
53	47848	52520	56950	52917	42626						
54	43325	49278	49605	56948	46565						
55	59425	46375	54073	57060	50229						

Rotation (y)	55	52	50	48	45
Max	61991	59506	59100	68487	56910
Min	36822	34614	30383	32541	23175
Mean	51987	50567	50238	52798	48585
SD	5962	6124	6693	7652	7068
SE	596	612	669	765	707

REPLICATIONS (Bare Land Value) for Yiershi 57 opposite-2

Rotation (y)		52	47	42	40	37					
1	107061	109906	89907	112465	99510	56	99848	109560	70063	112366	94392
2	81784	85468	91580	111125	93156	57	108675	91888	87227	110639	91087
3	108468	100640	106293	99077	69395	58	82068	94688	99437	82411	64641
4	101758	96536	101845	101980	92064	59	98854	86671	109633	84278	71203
5	89129	97962	102233	90836	91891	60	101679	93943	108955	102482	110156
6	90866	100610	112533	111689	90256	61	97412	94322	90614	112163	94085
7	90428	120976	105743	79131	107779	62	93152	106750	78564	111125	91055
8	86443	83290	93026	99267	109811	63	103842	93028	109633	91590	110156
9	109561	90988	95053	113072	110156	64	94206	99871	76380	109990	69257
10	100147	101003	103530	90542	106327	65	73293	95142	107709	111125	77769
11	87769	103844	73151	113129	110156	66	95550	73791	103557	85378	102665
12	99972	95121	70708	90950	103078	67	97311	94121	109633	98851	82980
13	94786	97918	104399	78949	83474	68	103759	115109	100248	94634	93004
14	87480	109543	105334	101947	68984	69	78355	104331	97956	73912	83520
15	99420	90339	98771	111125	79353	70	81463	106609	93147	86521	59153
16	99468	82710	109633	111125	65632	71	104036	104523	82010	111125	95638
17	90966	101766	74088	105480	94666	72	106381	76318	109633	110924	90512
18	102430	103879	95629	111125	110156	73	100903	92769	101273	97540	104101
19	97404	111305	115602	105135	107648	74	102517	86644	109633	105625	110156
20	103740	108900	106307	112805	107472	75	95145	93814	111092	80471	110156
21	91207	99383	109633	104523	99867	76	100774	100808	89237	106709	103638
22	96738	102687	102286	94631	78143	77	115881	96067	106332	107711	101770
23	103790	109806	88380	111125	104042	78	88269	91200	104860	59035	103690
24	106004	94546	108967	87683	90027	79	91323	119685	102710	111125	60184
25	86969	104537	94778	94979	110156	80	87172	106743	93673	100263	95682
26	105688	108988	113160	104131	61286	81	89845	109560	112415	102981	63804
27	96520	103570	109633	82561	94392	82	100018	109560	101053	92100	75627
28	94312	98386	99453	111125	72643	83	110369	102731	94937	89743	110156
29	100300	80537	61056	111125	110156	84	94351	86905	89049	90895	110156
30	87066	112024	93379	91491	65126	85	100617	107278	109633	111125	68462
31	104141	96705	109633	105102	91184	86	100932	95299	109633	75079	59789
32	109561	90048	96186	111125	110156	87	100556	90014	114149	99504	77267
33	108838	109560	109633	101375	110156	88	83134	76830	109633	81438	100064
34	80572	100918	70971	111125	89205	89	104150	104278	108565	92031	99246
35	94676	104130	100175	89449	81942	90	107077	71025	86515	94746	101354
36	110061	87878	67221	111125	110156	91	87729	99125	74305	68266	85044
37	89066	94344	95688	100097	110156	92	109561	88924	96193	105056	110156
38	83978	102617	114834	111125	110156	93	100284	71065	111938	99686	105135
39	91754	91609	109633	111125	88540	94	98077	97847	89586	97828	105748
40	108636	109935	90351	104414	102760	95	84034	78951	104921	103389	110156
41	100768	95953	87783	105659	99985	96	96864	95929	80800	84553	101372
42	89888	110939	100724	99247	83363	97	95311	104991	102933	103699	102107
43	96898	104970	105561	72858	68853	98	112302	99880	95187	87975	97910
44	109830	109560	94494	97732	97918	99	97430	97575	106820	111125	92002
45	81186	95975	100952	99037	110156	100	103987	97962	109633	94677	81022
46	97656	82685	103449	111125	89976						
47	96396	86646	109633	86493	84824						
48	98821	91863	105162	111125	110156						
49	96390	109560	109633	97142	99013						
50	93944	82594	103830	96999	96362						
51	102190	78051	59386	106686	110156	Rotation (y)	52	47	42	40	37
52	92388	116296	91928	97918	84339	Max	115881	120976	115602	113129	110156
53	109561	100664	109633	111125	95868	Min	73293	71025	59386	59035	59153
54	110422	113951	92996	93486	90506	Mean	97360	97774	98379	99331	93206
55	102233	88668	101186	102171	80680	SD	8719	10702	12704	11793	15096
						SE	872	1070	1270	1179	1510

REPLICATIONS (Bare Land Value) for Yiershi 57 opposite-3

Rotation (y)	45	42	40	35	30						
1	94600	89660	98107	116298	68880	56	116069	86745	79298	75133	113481
2	85221	81114	82633	96607	113481	57	98018	108503	105456	115462	113481
3	79915	108141	110882	100194	85450	58	107550	110938	90023	116298	113481
4	107696	90201	108922	116298	103924	59	104466	89830	86435	112014	113481
5	113729	93669	93415	102935	113481	60	88085	77850	111850	96488	113481
6	98411	110232	66545	108769	113481	61	104842	101559	108922	116321	113481
7	86660	108503	103937	104626	86177	62	105078	107086	105990	100838	50639
8	107550	101556	87550	81496	106670	63	111806	75916	103903	114420	92956
9	92720	105294	66597	97625	85564	64	104117	108503	72684	88685	68369
10	91354	110415	111531	86130	113481	65	98172	105519	108922	104370	113481
11	111981	101280	100559	110825	53847	66	104833	88082	107473	91054	77802
12	103760	113971	77476	105530	91129	67	104017	96201	89580	116298	90404
13	85189	112664	100397	86155	83355	68	98462	104977	67028	110811	53266
14	87972	108503	102478	116171	113481	69	98951	108503	103846	85010	113481
15	93080	112991	102936	86918	85116	70	58442	108503	105425	93577	113481
16	104314	108503	88676	104948	68340	71	100512	105356	90101	84212	113481
17	89169	69655	88572	98642	113481	72	104534	81033	71208	115169	59241
18	109218	76105	78589	109241	113481	73	104321	96180	94848	99489	113481
19	85487	72180	97303	106839	60095	74	76410	92769	80633	96842	113481
20	99042	104647	98418	114434	113481	75	101761	86243	103175	116289	111772
21	108511	97828	79938	101308	111885	76	98289	96775	85355	100098	113481
22	102878	97567	79374	106836	63175	77	96417	89689	83557	82501	113481
23	109558	85670	89604	109345	63992	78	94185	105166	98309	119516	82424
24	90347	113362	108922	95725	113481	79	99652	90634	86432	107470	81750
25	99749	108503	95794	106472	84247	80	116118	107207	84064	116298	68943
26	75128	85150	101698	60733	80680	81	107550	108503	102288	102975	60868
27	102964	78970	99322	115838	113481	82	88559	93253	108922	79193	113481
28	101971	91457	108922	95848	57756	83	107654	95551	72563	116298	113481
29	103427	97619	95411	97232	72230	84	87116	85179	84276	116210	60969
30	104546	77149	100554	99014	91554	85	112631	107530	95011	120401	113481
31	96937	90286	100022	118158	113481	86	92029	79262	88118	73311	66523
32	89348	98399	97563	118914	68593	87	98153	72661	106702	116298	103231
33	92827	100694	86808	94212	113481	88	110338	82641	87642	114755	93198
34	93418	88167	97577	96562	113481	89	88749	89400	104061	110553	59061
35	89710	95697	98934	89528	94522	90	103853	70529	82870	101737	69782
36	98067	108503	103153	92188	113481	91	86953	111372	108922	96234	113481
37	81950	87882	96953	101378	36819	92	76197	108503	100063	94379	76589
38	101541	111364	108922	84415	113481	93	77617	103970	108922	112114	71413
39	104429	76914	108922	109708	60931	94	107550	96626	108922	84754	89634
40	115728	108503	82928	114879	110607	95	88427	80091	89962	113685	113481
41	94622	95850	108922	94444	113481	96	82259	108503	82287	105688	113481
42	109307	78565	108420	91778	99298	97	78517	102315	91247	102159	74241
43	93232	74955	96953	80093	74050	98	102294	78632	116149	93430	92748
44	92718	79169	84999	111754	59927	99	95665	75445	79613	105710	79489
45	118560	98073	80756	88748	90439	100	107550	82533	100893	87291	113481
46	97617	83544	108922	116298	113481						
47	95939	91861	81622	92766	69579						
48	96941	96774	85816	80576	67683						
49	100919	73904	101029	85684	113481						
50	109727	82690	81795	92831	113481						
51	88767	87767	95029	94805	113481						
52	94007	80682	93973	93053	84185						
53	88745	108503	106358	83718	113481						
54	95125	108503	108922	95363	113481						
55	102006	88604	89225	105187	113481						

Rotation (y)	45	42	40	35	30
Max	118560	113971	116149	120401	113481
Min	58442	69655	66545	60733	36819
Mean	97631	94707	94835	100879	93492
SD	10589	12568	11904	12636	21806
SE	1059	1257	1190	1264	2181