Diverse upland Eocene forests, western U.S.A.

Daniel I. Axelrod

Axelrod Daniel I 1996. Diverse upland Eocene forests, western U.S.A. Palaeobotanist 45: 81-97.

Mid-to Late Eocene floras in the western United States, preserved in thick piles of volcanic rocks, changed composition with increasing elevation. A deciduous hardwood forest above 455 m was replaced by conifer-deciduous hardwood forest near 1365 m, and it was supplanted by montane conifer forest at levels of about 1730 m. Whereas a normal lapse rate (5.5°C/1000 m, usually indicates elevation of modern upland stations within 100-2000 m, a lapse rate of 3.0°C/1000 m, introduced recently to estimate paleoelevation, yields levels for modern upland stations that are 1000-2000 m higher than actual elevations. Similar levels would be expected for Eocene-Oligocene floras and place treeline fully 1200 m higher than it is today. There is no geologic evidence for such high relief in this area in the Eocene. Furthermore, reasons for the decrease of treeline elevation fully 1000 m in the later Cenozoic—and in the face of increasing relief, are inexplicable.

Key-words—Palaeoecology, Vegetation, Middle-Late Eocene, U.S.A.

Daniel I, Axelrod, Section of Plant Biology, University of California, Davis, CA 95616, U.S.A.

साराँज

पश्चिमी अमेरिका में विभिन्न उपरिभूमि आदिनुतनकालीन वन

डेनियल आई. एक्सॅलरॉड

पश्चिमी संयुक्त राज्य अमेरिका में मध्य से अनंतिम आदिनूतन कालीन वनस्पितजात, जो ज्वालामुखीय चट्टानों में सघन रूप मे पिरिक्षित है, की संरचना ऊंचाई बढ़ने के साथ-साथ बदल गई। लगभग 455 मीटर के ऊपर पर्णपाती वन 1365 मीटर के पास कोनिफर-पर्णपाती वन में पिरवितित हो गया तथा लगभग 1730 मीटर के आस-पास यह पर्वतीय कोनिफर में बदल गया। जबिक सामान्य उंच्चाई पिरवितन दर (5.5/1000 मीटर)100 से 200 मीटर के मध्य वर्तमान उपिरभूमि का होना इंगित करती है। इसी प्रकार के स्तर आदिनूतन ओलिगोसीन वनस्पितजातों के लिए भी हो सकते हैं। आदिनूतन काल में इस क्षेत्र में इतनी ऊंचाई पर वनस्पितजात हेतु कोई भूवैज्ञानिक प्रमाण नहीं है। इसके अतिरिक्त, अनन्तिम नूतनजीवी कल्प में 1000 मीटर की ऊंचाई पर वृक्षों में ह्रास के आदि कारणों की व्याख्या नहीं की जा सकती।

SOME 30 years ago, I described a montane flora of Eocene age (40 Ma), the Copper Basin flora of northeastern Nevada (Axelrod, 1966). In subsequent years, ten additional upland Eocene floras have been recovered from the present mountains of Nevada-Idaho (Text-figure 1). These vary in composition from deciduous hardwood forests, to conifer-

Research supported over a number of years by the National Science Foundation, Washington D.C.; the Committee on Research, University of California, Davis; and the National Geographic Society, Washington D.C. For valued assistance in the field work I am especially indebted to David Weide and Howard Schom.

deciduous hardwood forests, to those at higher levels that are (+90%) dominated by conifers such as *Abies, Chamaecyparis, Larix*, *Picea, Pinus,* and *Thuja.*

These floras differ greatly from those described previously from lower elevations in the bordering region to the east and west. The lower elevation floras represent, broadleaved evergreen forests. Over the years, palaeobotanists have tried to determine age of a flora by comparison with those of known age. The notion has been that if two floras have numerous species in common, they probably are of about the same age. The upland floras that I have collected are

wholly unlike those at lower elevation in the region, yet they are of similar age as judged from mammalian and radiometric evidence.

The floras in the montane region represent different vegetation zones that those in the lowlands. Obviously, comparisons for age determination must made between floras of the same vegetation zone, otherwise there will be few species in common and little evidence for age. Another weakness of the species-similarity method is simply that it neglects the fact that plants inigrate and in the long time involved there may be little significant change in the vegetation of two areas. The Arcto-Tertiary; conifer-deciduous hardwood forest that covered much of the general arctic region in the Eocene (ca. 45 Ma) had shifted into the lowlands of Oregon-Washington-Nevada by the Middle Miocene (18-15 Ma). Also, species of the Madro-Tertiary sclerophyll woodland vegetation, already present in southeastern California by 18-20 Ma, appeared 640 km (400 mi.) farther north in the San Francisco Bay region at 7-8 Ma.

Although species composition of vgetation changed as precipitation decreased, as the inciderice of summer drought increased and as temperatures became more extreme (frost frequency, etc.), the principal composition of vegetation-deciduous hardwood forest, conifer-deciduous forests and sclerophyll woodland-persisted. Obviously, Eocene species were not present in younger floras, but their close descendants were and they contributed to similar vegetation in similar zones of Warmth (W).

GEOLOGIC OCCURRENCE

All the floras under consideration are associated with thick sections of volcanic rocks, the Challis Volcanics in Idaho, the Absaroka Volcanics in northwestern Wyoming-Montana, the Medicine Lodge Volcanics in southwestern Montana, and the Frost Creek Volcanics in northeastern Nevada. These volcanic piles are now some 1500-2000 m thick. As they accumulated, they were slowly subsiding in response to isostatic adjustment. This involved fully 4/5's of the volcanic load. Thus, it is understandable that the fossil floras were not living at very high

As documented here, the Eocene vegetation zones in the western United States were far more diverse than palaeobotanists have previously realized. The relation, no doubt, holds for other areas where some relief was also present, as in central and southern Asia and elsewhere.

elevation as some might assume from their association with the thick volcanic piles.

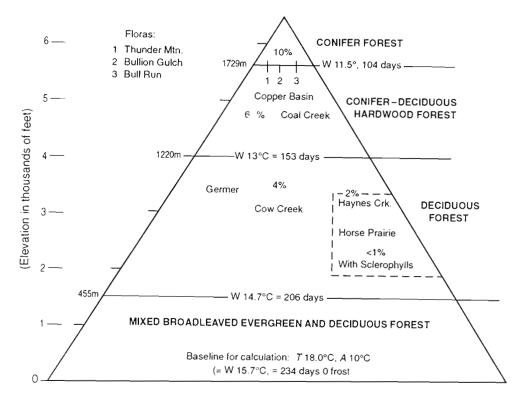
For example, the Thunder Mountain flora (Axelrod, 1990) of central Idaho was estimated to have been near 1547 m (5100 ft), whereas today it is at 2360 m (7500 ft). This suggests that the locality has been elevated on the order of 805 m (2640 ft) since it lived. This uplift may be attributed mainly to isostatic readjustment of the whole region whose chief components are the relatively less dense rocks of the Idaho batholith, the overlying Challis and other volcanics, and large Tertiary plutons. This evidently commenced in the Late Oligocene-Early Miocene as the Snake River basin gradually opened (Hamilton & Meyers, 1966) and has continued to the present with more rapid movement in the Late Miocene to Quaternary as judged from the volcanic and sedimentary record in the basin.

UPLAND EOCENE FOREST ZONES

The location of the floras representing the upland Eocene forests is shown in Text-figure 1. They are well sampled. Several have more than 2000 specimens, and one flora (Bull Run) involved 12,000 specimens counted in the field. As shown in Text-fig-



Text-figure 1—Location of Middle and Late Eocene floras in Idaho and Nevada discussed in this article.



Text-figure 2—Estimated general elevation of Eocene uplanz vegetation zones and their fossil floras. Elevations are an average for the time period (45-35 Ma); % refers to annual hours with subfreezing temperatures (see Text-figure 6, descending lines).

ure 2, there was a major change in composition over the region. This involved (a) the Germer and Cow Creek floras that represent deciduous hardwood forest with few conifers. (b) at the southeast are the Havnes Creek and Horse Prairie floras with numerous deciduous hardwoods and some conifers as well as broadleaved sclerophylls that reflect warmer climate, (c) the Coal Creek, Copper Basin, and Bullion Gulch floras are primarily mixtures of montane conifers and deciduous hardwoods, with the latter close to montane conifer forest, and (d) the Bull Run (upper) and Thunder Mountain (lower) floras are wholly dominated by montane conifers and have only a few. rare dicots with very small (nanophyll) leaves. As Text-figure 2 illustrates, the major changes in composition of vegetation over the region reflect the shift into different climates, to different growing seasons defined by the duration of summer warmth (W) (Bailey, 1960, 1976; Axelrod & Bailey, 1976).

Other than *Metasequoia*, conifers are rare. Dicot leaves, usually microphyll in size. Age: 45 Ma.

Of special interest are two floras that show the transition from conifer-deciduous hardwood forest to pure montane forest. In the Bull Run basin, northeastern Nevada, 10 florules on the west flank of the anticline are distributed through some 1000 m of sedimentary rocks (Axelrod, MS). The lower three represent a mixture of deciduous hardwoods and conifers. They show that with a rise from Locality 1 to Loc. 2 and then to Loc. 3, conifers increase in abundance to fully 75 per cent of the sample. Some 20 m higher, Loc. 4 is wholly dominated (+95%) by montane conifers. By contrast, at Thunder Mountain a montane conifer forest reached down the walls of the caldera to the floor of the basin where it interfingered with conifer-deciduous hardwood forest. At that site two different vegetation zones were in contact (Axelrod, 1990, 1995).

Deciduous Hardwood Forest

This zone, dominated by broadleaved deciduous hardwood trees, includes some conifers but they

were not important in the vegetation except locally along water-courses and in moist swales where Metaseguoia and Seguoia were locally abundant. Broadleaved evergreen trees are essentially absent or very rare, and a few taxa may be present that reflect somewhat warmer conditions. The species in these floras are surprisingly modern in aspect, and most are allied to modern taxa, some distantly because they are extinct species.

COW CREEK FLORA, IDAHO

Ginkgoaceae

Ginkgo

Cupresaceae

Calocedrus

Chamaecyparis

Pinacee

Abies

Picea (2 sp.)

Pinus

Pseudotsuga

Taxaceae

Cephalotaxus

Taxodiaceae

Metaseguoia

Seguoia

Aceraceae

Acer (2 sp.)

Dipteronia

Anacardiaceae

Rhus (2 sp.)

Berberidaceae

Berberis (3sp.)

Mahonia (2 sp.)

Betulaceae

Alnus (2sp.)

Betula

Fagopsis

Cornaceae

Cornus

Ericaceae

Ledum

Rhododendron

Vaccinium (2 sp.)

Juglandaceae

Pterocarya

Cruciptera

Lauraceae

Lindera

Sassafras

Leguminosae

Cassia

3 others

Myricaceae

Comptonia

Rosaceae

Amelanchier

Crataegus (2 sp.)

Malus

Physocarpus

Prunus

Rosa

Salmonensea

Sorbus

Salicaceae

Populus (2 sp.)

Salix (2 sp.)

Saxifragaceae

Ribes

Hydrangea

Ulmaceae

Ulmus

Zelkova

GERMER FLORA, IDAHO (EDELMAN, 1975)

Polypodiaceae

Dennsteadtia

Pinaceae

Abies

Picea

Pinus

Pseudolarix

Tsuga

Taxodiaceae

Metaseguoia

Seguoia

Cupressaceae

Chamaecyparis

Liliaceae

Smilax

Conifers are rare (most cones transported -few seeds). Only Cunninghamia is relatively common. Leaves of moderate size-chiefly microphyll.

Salicaceae

Salix

Myricaceae

Comptonia

Juglandaceae

Carya

Juglans

Betulaceae

Alnus (3 sp.)

Betula

Ostrya

Cercidiphyllaceae

Cercidiphyllum

Lauraceae

Sassafras

Saxifragaceae

Ribes

Eucommiaceae

Eucommia

Platanaceae

Platanus

Rosaceae

Rosa

Meliaceae

Cedrela

Rhamnaceae

Ceanothus

Hippocastanaceae

Aesculus

Specimens of *Metasequoia*, *Sequoia*, and *Pseudolarix* account for 65 per cent of the flora; all other conifers scarcely total 1 per cent of specimens. The flora is dominated by dicots, chiefly of microphyll size. Age: 47 Ma.

Two somewhat younger floras (35-34 Ma) dominated by deciduous hardwoods reflect a slightly different climate. They include more conifers (although not very abundant) and also have broadleaved sclerophyllous trees and one (Horse Prairie) has woody legumes and others that suggest little frost in the area. These younger floras include the following:

HAYNES CREEK FLORA (Axelrod, MS)

Osmundaceae *Osmunda* Ginkgoaceae

Ginkgo

Cupressaceae

Chamaecyparis

Thujopsis

Pinaceae

Abies

Larix

Picea (2 sp.)

Pinus (3 sp.)

Pseudotsuga

Taxodiaceae

Cunninghamia

Metaseguoia

Seguoia

Taxodium

Aceraceae

Acer(5sp.)

Berberidaceae

Mahonia

Betulaceae

Alnus (2 sp.)

Betula (2 sp.)

Caprifoliaceae

Diplodipelta

Symphoricarpos

Cercidiphyllaceae

Cercidiphyllum

Celastraceae

Paxistima

Ericaceae

Ledum

Rhododendron

Eupteleaceae

Euptelea

Fagaceae

Chrysolepis

Lithocarpus

Quercus (5 sp.)

Gentianaceae

Nymphoides

Lauraceae

Sassafras

Leguminosae

Gleditsia

Oleaceae

Fraxinus

Platanaceae Platanus Rhamnaceae Rhamnus Rosaceae Amelanchier Cercocarpus Crataegus (2 sp.) Rosa Sorbus (3 sp.) Spiraea Vauquelinia Salicaceae Populus (2 sp.) Salix (3 sp.) Tiliaceae Craigia Ulmaceae Ulmus(2 sp.)Zelkova

HORSE PRAIRIE FLORA, S.W. MONTANA (BECKER, 1967) (Representative listing)

Osmundaceae Osmunda Cupressaceae Chamaecyparis Juniperus Pinaceae Abies Larix Picea (3 sp.) Pinus (2 sp.) Pseudotsuga Taxodiaceae Metasequoia Sequoia Aceraceae Acer(4-5 sp.)Anacardiaceae

Astronium

Berberidaceae

•Mahonia (2-3 sp.)

Betulaceae

Betula

Carpinus

Fagopsis

Ostrya

Celastraceae

Celastrus

Cercidiphyllaceae

Cercidiphyllum

Ebenaceae

Diospyros

Fagaceae

Castanea

Quercus (4-5 sp.)

Juglandaceae

Carya

Lauraceae

Sassafras

Leguminosae

Cercis

Robinia

Meliaceae

Cedrela

Oleaceae

Fraxinus

Platanaceae

Platanus

Rhamnaceae

Colubrina

Paliurus

Rhamnus

Rosaceae

Cercocarps

Crataegus

Rosa

Rutaceae

Ptelea

Salicaceae

Populus (2 sp.)

Sapindaceae

Cardiospermum

Sapindus

Simarubaceae

Ailanthus

Smilacaceae

Smilax

Tiliaceae

⁺⁺⁺ Numerous legumes reported but illustrations insufficient to identify genera. Those reported include species of Cassia, Diphysa, Mimosites, Pithecolobium, etc.

Tilia Ulmaceae *Ulmus Zelkova*

CONIFER-DECIDUOUS HARDWOOD FOREST

Situated above the dominant deciduous hardwoods was a zone of deciduous hardwoods and abundant conifers. Broadleaved sclerophylls are rare or absent as are taxa such as woody legumes that reflect mild winter climate. This conifer-deciduous hardwood zone was regularly subject to freezing, probably on the order of +5% hours/year. The floras typical of this zone include the following.

COPPER BASIN FLORA (Axelrod, 1966)

Conifers

Cephalotaxus

Abies (2 sp.)

Picea (3 sp.)

Larix

Pinus (3 sp.)

Pseudotsuga

Tsuga

Seguoia

Chamaecyparis

Salicaceae

Salix

Betulaceae

Alnus (2 sp.)

Fagaceae

Lithocarpus

Ulmaceae

Ulmus

Berberidaceae

Mahonia (3 sp.)

Lauraceae

Sassafras

Saxifragaceae

Ribes

Rosaceae

Amelanchier

Crataegus

Holodiscus

Prunus (3 sp.)

Rosa

Leguminosae

Amorpha

Celastraceae

Euonymus

Aceraceae

Acer(4 sp.)

Hippocastanaceae

Aesculus

Ericaceae

Rhododendron

Vaccinium

Leaves are chiefly <microphyllous in size. Conifers (apart from, *Sequoia*, 4%) make up scarcely 2 per cent of the specimans. Age: 40 Ma.

COAL CREEK, IDAHO

Cephalotaxaceae

Cephalotaxus

Pinaceae

Abies (2 sp.)

Larix

Picea(3 sp.)

Pinus (Strobi, Contortae, Balfourineae)

Taxodiaceae

Sequoiadendron

Seguoia

Salicaceae

Salix

Betuylaceae

Alnus

Betula

Juglandaceae

Carya

Berberidaceae

Mahonia

Lauraceae

Sassafras

Caprifoliaceae

Viburnum

Saxifragaceae

Ribes

Rosaceae

Crataegus(2 sp.)

Cercocarpus

Malus

Photinia

Pholimia

Rosa

Salmonensea Sorbus Aceraceae Acer Dipteronia Ericaceae

Rhododendron

Conifers make up fully 75 per cent of all specimens. Dicot leaves include some of nanophy II, microphy II and a few ofr notophy II size. Age: 45 Ma.

LOWER BULL RUN FLORA, LOCS. 1-3

Pinaceae

Abies (3 sp.)

Picea (3 sp.)

Larix

Pseudotsuga

Tsuga

Cupresaceae

Chamaecyparis

Thuja

Salicaceae

Populus

Salix

Betulaceae

Alnus

Betula

Carpinus

Fagaceae

Quercus (2 sp.)

Ulmaceae

Ulmus

Zelkova

Berberidaceae

Mahonia

Berberis

Saxifragaceae

Ribes

Rosaceae

Amelanchier

Crategus (2 sp.)

Prunus

Sorbus (2 sp.)

* Spiraea

Leguminosae

Robinia

Aquifoliaceae

Ilex

Aceraceae

Acer (5-6 sp.)

Rhamnaceae

Rhamnus

Tiliaceae

Tilia

Ericaceae

Rhododendron

Vacciniuum

Caprifoliaceae

Viburnum

Age: 42-40 Ma.

UPPER THUNDER MOUNTAIN FLORA (Axelrod, 1990, 1995)

Cephalotaxaceae

Cephalotaxus

Cupresaceae

Chamaecyparis

Thuja

Thujopsis

Taxodiaceae

Seguoia

Pinaceae

Abies

Larix

Picea (2 sp.)

Pinus (5 sp.)

Tsuga

Berberidaceae

Mahonia (2 sp.)

Betulaceae

Alnus

Caprifoliaceae

Viburnum

Celastraceae

Paxistima

Cornaceae

Cornus

Ericaceae

Arctostaphylos

Ledum

Rhododendron

Fagaceae

Lithocarpus

Quercus

Grossulariaceae Ribes Juglandaceae Pterocarya Myricaceae Comptonia Rhamnaceae Rhamnus (2 sp.) Rosaceae Amelanchier Malus Prunus Salicaceae Populus Salix Vacciniaceae Vaccinium

CONIFER FORESTS (Axelrod, MS)

Two floras are presently known that are wholly dominated by conifers, notably the Upper Bull Run and Lower Thunder Mountain floras. In addition the Bullion Gulch flora, known from only a small collection, appears to have lived at the edge of the conifer forest zone. Freezing was a regular feature of the climate, probably on the order of at least 10% hours/year. All the dicots present in these floras have very small leaves that may be eigher serrate or entire (evergreen).

Representative taxa in these floras include the following:

Upper Bull Run Flora (Localities 4-10), Nevadas

Conifers make up fully 95 per cent of the flora

Pinaceae

Abies (3 sp.)

Larix (2 sp.)

Picea (3 sp.)

Pinus (3 sp.) (Strobi, Banksinae, Aristatae)

Pseudotsuga

Tsuga (2 sp.)

Betulaceae

Alnus

Betula

Ulmaceae

Zelkova Saxifragaceae Ribes Cupressaceae Chamaecyparis Thuja Thujopsis Salicaceae Populus Salix(2 sp.)Berberidaceae Mahonia (2-3 sp.) Rosaceae Holodiscus Prunus Salmonensea Aceraceae Acer(3 sp.)Oleaceae Fraxinus Ericaceae Vaccinium Caprifoliaceae Viburnum

Age: 40-35 Ma.

BULLION GULCH, IDAHO

Pinaceae Abies Picea Pinus(Contortae, Strobi, Aristatae) Pseudotsuga Salicaceae Salix Betulaceae Alnus Carpinus Rosaceae Rosa Salmonensea Ericaceae Vaccinium Rhamnaceae Ceanothus

Remains of conifers are much more abundant than leaves of dicots that are small, chiefly of nanophy II size. Occurs in the Upper Challis Volcanics west of Hailey. Age: ca 35 Ma.

LOWER THUNDER MOUNTAIN FLORA, IDAHO

This flora, dominated by conifers, covered slopes of the Thunder Mountain caldera and adjacent uplands and reached the floor of the caldera where it interfingered with a conifer-deciduous hardwood forest represented by the Upper (Road locality) flora (Axelrod, 1990, 1995).

LOWER THUNDER MOUNTAIN FLORA

Pinaceae

Abies

Larix

Picea

Pinus (2 sp.)

Pseudotsuga

Taxodiaceae

Saquoia

Betulaceae

Alnus

Myricaceae

Comptonia

Rosaceae

Rosa

Spiraea

Sorbus

Salicaceae

Populus

Salix

Ericaceae

Vaccinium

Conifers make up 90 per cent of the florule. Age: 45 Ma.

VEGETATION ZONES AND THEIR ELEVATIONS

Text-figure 1 shows the area where these upland floras occur and Text-figure 2 indicates the major vegetation zones, their Warmth (W), and the elevation at which they probably lived. The temperature (Warmth) of vegetation boundaries used here is based on the data for North America (Greller, 1989; Axelrod, 1966, figs 3-5). They differ by 1-2 °C(2-4°F) from those charted by Wolfe (1979, 1980, 1985) and others, i.e., Wing & Greenwood, 1993). Those boun-

daries are based on present climatic data for eastern Asia

The temperature boundaries of the major vegetation zones charted by Wolfe (1979, plate 2, 1980, 1985) have no significance in terms of Warmth (W) the growing season represented by the vegetation zones (see Axelrod, 1986, fig. 10). Text-figure 3 (from Wolfe, 1985) shows that mean annual temperature (T) and the mean annual range of temperature (A=amplitude) only mark the major thermal boundaries of a vegetation zone. These data are so broad they can only provide a general indication of temperature conditions under which a fossil flora (or vegetation) may have lived. By contrast, Text-figure 4 plots the temperature data charted by Wolfe (1979, pl. 2) and shows that the vegetation boundaries have very different degrees of Warmth (W=growing season) to which the species of the zone are adapted. As illustrated in Text-figures 4 and 6, the growing season (Warmth, temperature (T) is lowered and as the range of temperature (A=amplitude) increases: Table 1 indicates the duration of? Warmth for different temperatures. In addition to Warmth (W) Text-figure 6 also shows (a) the temperateness of climate (M=moderation) rated from an ideal of M 100 to MO; (b) the frequency (% hours) of subfreezing temperatures; and (c) the Water Need (N) of vegetation (Table 2) under stipulated temperature conditions, all features not determinable from the figures presented by Wolfe (1979, 1980, 1985).

Table 1—Warmth (W) and duration of summer (d=days) in British units and metric units. Warmth (W) and Duration (Td) of Summer (British units)

W(°F)	T _d (days)	W(°F)	T _d (days)
50.0	0.0	57.0	179.4
50.1	19.4	57.1	181.0
50.2	27.4	57.2	182.6
50.3	33.6	57.3	184.3
50.4	38.9	57.4	185.9
50.5	43.6	57.5	187.5
50.6	47.8	57.6	189.1
50.7	51.7	57.7	190.7
50.8	55.3	57.8	192.4
50.9	58.7	57.9	194.0
51.0	62.0	58.0	195.6
51.1	65.1	58.1	197.2
51.2	68.2	58.2	198.8
51.3	70.9	58.3	200.4
51.4	73.7	58.4	202.1
51.5	76.4	58.5	203.8
51.6	79.0	58.6	205.4
51.7	81.5	58.7	207.1

W(°F)	T _d (days)	W(°F)	T _d (days)		T _d (days)	W(°F)	T _d (days)
51.8	84.0	58.8	208.7	10.2	36.9	16.2	250.4
51.9	86.4	58.9	210.4	10.3	45.3	16.3	253.9
52.0	88.8	59.0	212.0	10.4	52.4	16.4	257.5
52.1	91.1	59.1	213.7	10.5	58.7	16.5	261.2
52.2	93.4	59.2	215.4	10.6	64.5	16.6	264.9
52.3	95.6	59.3	217.1	10.7	69.8	16.7	268.8
52.4	97.8	59.4	218.8	10.8	74.8	16.8	272.8
52.5	99.9	59.5	220.5	10.9	79.5	16.9	277.0
52.6	102.0	59.6	222.2	11.0	84.0	17.0	281.3
52.7	104.1	59.7	223.9	11.1	88.3	17.1	285.8
52.8	106.2	59.8	225.6	11.2	92.5	17.2	290.5
52.9	108.2	59.9	227.4	11.3	96.5	17.3	295.5
53.0	110.2	60.0	229.1	11.4	100.4	17.4	300.8
53.1	112.2	60.1	230.9	11.5	104.1	17.4	306.6
53.2		60.2					
	114.1		232.6	11.6	107.8	17.6	312.9
53.3	116.1	60.3	234.4	11.7	111.4	17.7	320.0
53.4	118.0	60.4	236.2	11.8	114.9	17.8	328.4
53.5	119.9	60.5	238.0	11.9	118.4	17.9	339.4
53.6	121.7	60.6	239.9	12.0	121.7	18.0	365.1
53.7	123.6	60.7	241.7	12.1	125.1		
53.8	125.4	60.8	243.5	12.2	128.4		
53.9	127.3	60.9	245.4	12.3	131.6		
54.0	129.1	61.0	247.3	12.4	134.8		
54.1	130.9	61.1	249.2	12.5	137.9		
54.2	132.7	61.2	251.2	12.6	141.1		
54.3	134.4	61.3	253.1	12.7	144.1		
54.4	136.2	61.4	255.1	12.8	147.2		
54.5	137.9	61.5	257.1	12.9	150.2		
54.6	139.7	61.6	259.1	13.0	153.3		
54.7	141.4	61.7	261.2	13.1	156.3		
54.8	143.1	61.8	263.3	13.2	159.2		
54.9	144.8	61.9	265.4	13.3	162.2		
55.0	146.5	62.0	267.5	13.4	165.1		
55.1	148.2	62.1	269.7	13.5	168.1		
55.2	149.9	62.2	271.9	13.6	171.0		
55.3	151.6	62.3	274.2	13.7	173.9		
55.4	153.3	62.4	276.5	13.8	176.8		
55.5	154.9	62.5	278.9	13.9	179.7		
55.6	156.6	62.6	281.3	14.0	182.6		
55.7	158.2	62.7	283.8	14.1	195.6		
55.8	159.9	62.8	286.3	14.2	188.5		
55.9	161.5	62.9	288.9	14.3	191.4		
56.0	163.2	63.0	291.6	14.4	194.3		
56.1	164.8	63.1	294.4	14.5	197.2		
56.2	166.4	63.2	297.2	14.6	200.2		
56.3	168.1		300.2	14.7	203.1		
		63.3		14.7	206.1		
56.4	169.7	63.4	303.3				
56.5	171.3	63.5	306.6	14.9	219.0		
56.6	172.9	63.6	310.0	15.0	212.0		
56.7	174.6	63.7	313.6	15.1	215.1		
56.8	176.2	63.8	317.5	15.2	218.1		
56.9	177.8	63.9	321.7	15.3	221.1		
		64.0	326.4	15.4	224.2		
		64.1	331.7	15.5	227.4		
		64.2	337.9	15.6	230.5		
		64.3	345.9	15.7	233.5		
10.0	0.0	16.0	243.5	15.8	236.9		
10.1	26.0	16.1	246.9	15.9	240.2		

9

Moisture/ Veget. V	Arid	Semi-Arid	Semi-Arid Subhumid		Humid		Perhumid	
	2.5	4.7	6.4	8.7	10.7	13.2	16.2	
Water Need N	N Mean annual precipitation (inches)							
1	2.5	4.7	6.4	8.7	10.7	13.2	16.2	
2	5.0	9.4	12.8	17.4	21.4	26.4	32.4	
3	7.5	14.1	19.2	26.1	32.1	39.6	48.6	
4	10.0	18.8	25.6	34.8	42.8	52.8	64.8	
5	12.5	23.5	32.0	43.5	53.5	66.0	81.0	
6	15.0	28.2	38.4	52.2	64.2	79.2	97.2	
7	17.5	32.9	44.8	60.9	74.9	92.4	113.4	
8	20.0	37.6	51.2	69.6	85.6	105.6	129.6	

78.3

Table 2—Translation of lines of relative water need (N) into isohyets of mean annual precipitation (P) according to specified vegetation/moisture (V) categories, where P = N x V.

To determine elevation, the methodology used here relies on the present association of diverse taxa allied to those in a fossil flora. Granted, their physiological responses have changed some what since the Eocene, i.e., greater adaptability of freezing, and the loss of ability of withstand summer drought

22.5

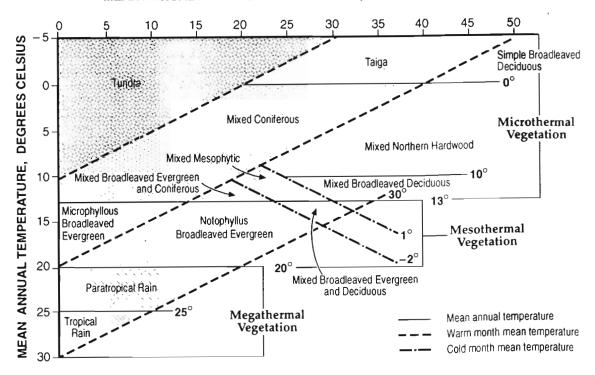
so that taxa are now exotic to the region. But the significant fact is that associations of species allied to the fossils can still be found in areas of similar Warmth-in areas with similar duration of the growing season-as in the Pacific States, the eastern United States, and eastern Asia. Floristic associations provide

118.8

145.8

MEAN ANNUAL RANGE OF TEMPERATURE, DEGREES CELSIUS

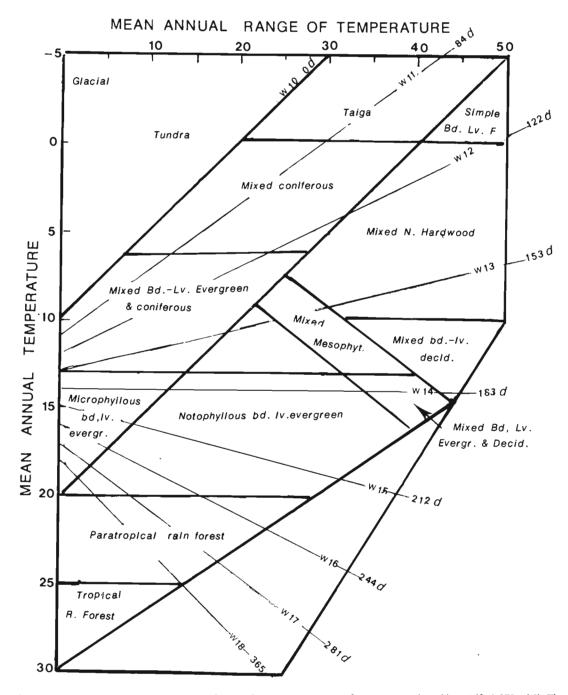
57.6



Text-figure 3—Temperature boundaries of major vegetation zones of eastern Asia channel by Wolfe (1979). They only indicate boundaries of vegetation in terms of T and A. No other climatic conditions are indicated and can not be determined.

a closer approximation of paleoclimate and of elevation than resort to data based on leaf morphology (size, tip, evergreen or deciduous, margin, entire-serrate lobed, etc.) championed by Wolfe (1993). Among the weaknesses of that method are: (a) it does

not consider the climatic significance of conifers that may make up well over 50 per cent of a Tertiary flora, (b) it does not take into account riparian taxa that may dominate vegetation well outside their normal area of forest-riparian occurrence, as on the the Great

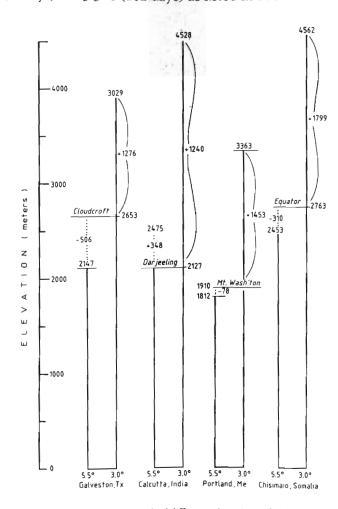


Text-figure 4—By contrast, this charts the temperature data for the vegetation zones of eastern Asia plotted by Wolfe (1979, pl 2). They have very different Warmth (W) or growing seasons, are very different in terms of temperateness, and also of subfreezing conditions, as detailed in Text-figure 6.

plains, in the Kirghis, the Chad, the Ramu Valley or Kenya: (c) the method does not account for the gradual change in climate that occurs in any vegetation zone as it ranges across temperature zones (Warmth) as the oak-hickory forest, the Coast conifer forest, etc. and in which species composition does not change significantly; and (d) large leaf size need not indicate a relatively warm climate. Dicots in the Paleocene-Eocene floras of Spitzbergen are composed of serrate leaves, many of notophy II and mesophy II in size. Their large size need only indicate a response to the long day-length at the area, then near 68-70° N. The effect of a long light period is seen in the gigantic size of lettuce and cabbage leaves at Matanuska, Alaska (lat. 60° N) with only 4.6 months with mean temperature of 10°C and only 2 months with mean temperature of 12.8°C (55°F). In this regard note that the Middle Miocene Seldovia point flora, Alaska (Wolfe, 1980, then near Lat. 63° N (Smith, Hurley & Briden, 1981, has leaves that a group average larger than the Mascall flora, eastern Oregon(Chaney & Axelrod, 1959), situated some 2900 km farther south at Lat. 44° N. One may argue that the Mascall flora had moderate elevation (ca. 300-400 m) and was under a cooler climate and therefore has somewhat smaller leaves than the Kenai from near sea level. However, the Latah flora (Knowlton, 1924; also in Brown, 1937) in eastern Washington, and of similar age as the Mascall and Kenai (ca. 15.5 Ma), and then close to sea level, also has foliage than on average is smaller than the Kenai. The larger leaves of the Kenai flora need not indicate a climate warmer than that at Mascall or Latah, but a longer summer light period for their growth.

Application of the method, captioned CLAMP by Wolfe, to estimate the paleotemperature and elevation of a fossil flora, leads to questionable results. For example, Wolfe and Schorn (1994) state that the mesic forest at Fingerrock lived under a mean annual temperature (T) of 5° C (-5°C in abstract is a printers' error). No estimate was given as to the range of temperature (A=amplitude). As emphasized previously (Axelrod, 1981, fig. 11; 1986, fig. 11; 1992, fig. 2), T alone can not provide an indication of temperature of a modern or of a fossil flora of the Warmth'(W) or growing season under which it lived. If the Fingerrock flora had a range of 0-10°C, it was in a zone of

Tundra (Text-figures 4, 6; Greller, 1988, 1989; fig. 2) if the range was from 10-20°C, the flora was in conifer forest zone. A range of 20-40°C places it in a conifer- deciduous hardwood forest zone, and a range of 40-60° C indicates the area of deciduous hardwood forest. Such a range (A) is unlikely because the flora also includes not only deciduous hardwoods but broadleaved evergreen trees and a few conifers. As illustrated earlier (Axelrod, 1985, fig. 3; 1991, fig. 3), very similar modern associations thrive today under a range of 10-12°C, and Warmth (W) of 12.5°C (136 days) to 13.3°C (162 days) as listed in Table 1.

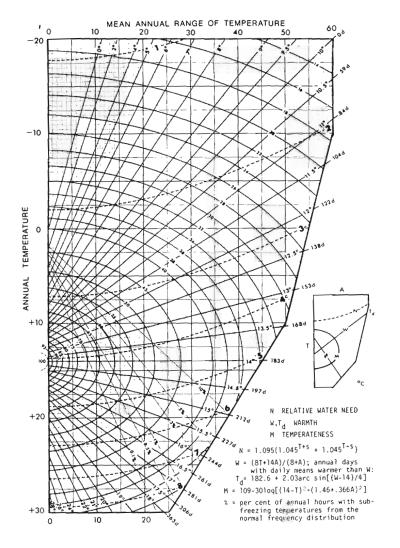


Text-figure 5—Illustrating the marked difference in estimated elevation of modern upland stations using a normal laps rate of 5.5°C/1000 m; the line at the right is calulated from a lapse rate of 3°C/1000m. Temperature data (T = mean annual temperature) from Wenstgedt, 1972 are as follows; Galveston 21.1°C and Cloudcroft 9.3°; Calcutta 26.9°C and Darjeeling 13.3°C; Portland 7.4°C and Mt. Washington -2.7°C; Chisimaio 26.9°C and Equator 13.1°C.

Likewise the pyramid flora, dominated by deciduous hardwoods is stated by Wolfe and Schorn (1994) to represent a mean annual temperature (T) of 7.5°C. Again, no indication is presented as to the range of temperature (A amplitude). If it was 0-5°C the flora was in Tundra zone, with A 5-13°C, it would be in a conifer forest zone, from 13-25°C the flora would represent a conifer-deciduous hardwood forest, and from 25-50°C the flora was in a deciduous forest. But temperatures of amplitude 40-50°C were not present until the Quaternary. Wolfe and Schorn used a lapse rate of 3°C/1000m to estimate elevation

of these floras which places the Fingerrock at 4 km and the Pyramid flora at 3 km. There is no geologic evidence that such relief was in the region (Durrell, 1986). And at such levels subfreezing temperatures would occur on fully 30% hrs/yr and eliminate many of the species.

The method developed by Wolfe to use leaf morphology to estimate paleotemperature has also been used to determine elevation of the Florissant flora, Colorado (Gregory & Chase, 1992; Wolfe, 1992; Gregory, 1994). They infer a T of 11-12°C, but do not indicate the range of temperature (A). With only a



Text-figure 6—Nomogram (Bailey, 1976) showing T (mean annual temperature) and A (=amplitude, mean annual range of temperature); descending lines indicate % annual hours with subfreezing temperatures; arcs centering at T 14°C and AO°C designate a perfectly temperate climate, with lower temperateness indicated by lower values of M (=moderation); heavy dashed lines rising upward designate Water Need (N) as presented in Table 2.

moderate range, say 20°C, at least 10% hrs/year would be subfreezing and eliminate all the subtropicals and broadleaved evergreens from the area. And with a lapse rate of 3°C/1000m, The flora would have an elevation of 2500-3000 m. In such areas today, as in the uplands of Brazil, India, Nepal, or Guatemala, there is only a very low range of temperature (A 5-10°C), they are frost-free, and support broadleaved evergreen forests Wholly unlike that represented at Florissant. The estimate of high elevation for the eaea is not supported by geologic evidence which suggests only low relief for the area if the later Eocene are Early Oligocene (King, 1977; Epis & Chapin, 1985). In my opinion, all evidence suggests that the Florissant flora probably had an elevation near 640 m, a T of ca. 15.5°C and an A of 13°C. This represents a Warmth of W 14.5°C (197 days) and would support all; the frost-sensitive subtropicals, the associated deciduous hardwoods, as well as the conifers and chaparral species.

To estimate elevation, I use a normal lapse rate (Oliver & Fairbridge, 1987) of 5.5°C/1000 m/=182 m/°C. The procedure involves estimating the mean annual temperature (T) and Warmth (W) at sea level, or at the margin of a known floristic vegetation) level defined with Warmth (W) (Bailey, 1960). The difference in T or W between it and that of an upland flora at about the same latitude provides an indication of its elevation. For example, if the difference is 10°C, then the interior upland flora is at 10°x182m or 1829 m (5979 ft.). The method was refined by the climatologist H.P. Bailey (in Axelrod & Bailey, 1976) and gives consistent results for areas with normal lapse rate as well as for areas where lapse rate is lower-as along the Pacific Coast from Washington State southward, as demonstrated earlier by Axelrod 1966, Tables 2-9).

That a normal lapse rate in areas with ample summer rainfall gives a fair estrimate of elevation can readily be tested by calculating elevation of modern upland stations, one at sea level, the other in mountains (Text-figure 5 left vertial line). A recent proposal is that lapse rate 3°C/1000 m (33 m/-°C) gives a close approximation of elecation (Wofe, 1992). However, if used the above example (10°C x 333 m) elevation would be 3996 m (13,108 ft). As illustrated in figure 5 m (right vertical line) elevations determined from lapse rate 3°C/1000 are regularly 1000-2000 m higher than those of known upland stations. Comparable

differences are to be expected if used to estimate elevation of a Tertiary flora.

With respect to the elevation of the Copper Basin flora (Axalrod, 1966), 30 years ago I estimated that it was near 1089-1220 m (3600-4000 ft). This is now revised on the basis of a better understanding of the significance of Warmth (W), the growing season of vegetation zone as developed by Bailey (1960) and illustrated for diverse associations by Axelrod (1956, figs 3-8; 1964, fig. 5; 1980, fig. 5; 1991, fig. 3; 1992, fig; 3); Axelrod and Raven (1985, figs 5,6); and Greller (1988, 1989). The Copper Basin flora was situated in the middle-upper part of the conifer- deciduous hardwood forest of the warm temperate rainforest represented by the Goshen and allied floras noted earlier (Axelrod, 1966, p. 48-49). With a mean annual temperature (T) of 18°C and a mean annual range of A 10°C (A-amplitude), Warmth was W 15.7°C (234 days warmer), as shown in Text- figure 6. With a normal lapse rate, elevation was near 182 x 9.0°C, or at 1635 m (5395 ft.). Because the fossils site is now at 2164 m (7,100 ft), uplift has been on the order of 530 m (1730 ft.). Treeline, situated 13°C above T 18°C and W 15.7°C was then near 2366 m (8710 ft). Which is 395 m (1290 ft.) lower than it is today. This is expectable for with greater equability (temperateness) all Warmth lines coverage (Text-figure 6).

By Contrast, if we use a lapse rate of 3°C/1000 m (Wolfe, 1992), then the Coppwe Basin site would be at 9° x 333 m or at 2995 m (9830 ft). This is 830 m (2730 ft) *higher* than the locality today. Treeline, situated 13°C above T 18°C, W 15.7°C and A 10°C, would then be at 4330 m (14,200 ft.). This is 1220 m (4000 ft.) *higher* than treeline today. The factors that might account for such a major decrease in treeline since the Eocene, and in the fae of the onsiderable geologic evidence that there has been muh regional uplift, are not explainable.

CONCLUSION

The species in these montane floas show that each vegatation zone has an impressive number of modern genera that have survived from the Eocene. Further, the species show relationship to modern speccies-groups, i.e., setionss, series. This is apparent in *Pinus* Sect. Strobi, Ponderosae, Contortae; in *Populus* Sect. Tacamahaca, Leuce; in *Querus* Sects. Phellos, llex, Rubrae, Albae; in *Acer* Sects. Negundo, Integrifoliae, Spicata; in *Betula* Series Acuminate,

Excelse and many other genera. Further, the associations of these species allied to the fossils occupy areas of similar Warmth (W=growing season, the duration of summer). It is this that provides a sound basis for climatic interpretation and also estimating the elevation at which they probably lived.

As charted in an early study (Axelrod, 1955, fig. 12), Miocene floras were arranged with respect to several vegetation zones that represent progressively cooler climate (shorter summers) with increasing elevation. This is also true of the upland Eocene foras. At elevations above mixed evergreen temperate rainforest a rich broadleaved deciduous hardwood forest dominated at elevations from 455-365 m (1195-4180 ft). It gave way to a mixed conifer-deciduous hardwood forest that covered areas at elevations from 1365-1730 m. Above the general level of 1730 m pure conifer forest sumed normal lapse rate of 5.5°C/1000 m, provide a closer estimate of elevation than a lapse rate of 3°C/1000 m which raises serious tectonic, ecologic and climatic problems.

REFERENCES

- Axelrod D1 1964. The Miocene Trapper Creek flora of Southern Idaho. Univ. Calif. Publ. Geol. Sci. 51, 180 pp.
- Axelrod D1 1966. A method of determining the altitudes of Tertiary floras. *Palaeobotanist* **14**(1-3): 144-171.
- Axelrod D1 1980. Contributions to the Neogene Paleobotany of Central California. *Univ. Calif. Publ. Geol. Sci* 121. (The Mt. Reba flora, pp 13-60)
- Axelrod D1 1981. Altitudes of Tertiary forests estimated from paleotemperature, pp. 131-137. Prof. Sympos. Quinghai-xizang (Tibet) Plateau, Beijing. China. Scci. Press Gordon & Breacch, Sciene Publ. In. N.Y.
- Axelrod D1 1986. Analysis of some palaeogeographic and palaeoecologic problems of palaeobotany. *Palaeobotanist* 35: 115-129.
- Axelrod D1 1990. Environment of Middle Eocene (45 Ma) Thunder Mountain flora, Central Idaho. Natn. geogra. Res. 6(3): 355-361.
- Axelrod D1 1991. The Early Miocene Buffalo Canyon flora of Western Nevada. *Uritv. Calif. Publ. Geol. Sci.* **135**, 76 pp.
- Axelrod D1 1992. What is an equable climate? *Palaeogeogr. Palaeoclim. Pataeoecology* **91**: 1-12.
- Axeelrod D1 1992. The Middle. Miocene Pyramid flora of Western Nevada. *Univ. CAlif. Pub. Geol. Sci.* **137**.50pp.
- Axelrod D1 1995. The Eocene Thunder Mountain flora of Central Idaho. Univ. Calif. Publ. Geol. Sci. (submitted Dec. 1994). 77p.
- Axelrod D1 1976. Tertiary vegetation, climate and altitude of the Rio Grande depression, New Mexico-Colorado. *Paleobiology* 2(3): 235-254.
- Axelrod D1 & Raven PH 1985. Origins of the Cordilleran flora. *J. Biogeography* 12:21-47.
- Bailey HP 1958. A simple moisture index based upon a primary law of evaporation. *Geografisker-Annaler* **50**(3-4): 196-215.
- Bailey HP 1960. A method of determining the Warnth and Temperateness of climate. *Geografisker Annaler* 42: 1-16.
- Bailey HP 1964. Toward a unified concept of the temperate climate. Geografisker Rev. 54:516-545.

- Bailey HP 1966. The mean annual range and standard deviation as measures of dispersion of temperature around the annual mean. *GEografisker Annaler* **48**-A: 183-194.
- Bailey HP 1976. Monogram showing Warmth (W). Temperateness (M) and Water Need(N) and frost frequency. Univ. California, Riverside, Geography Department.
- Brown RW. 1937. Additions to some fossil floras of the western United States. U.S. Geol. Surv. Prof. Paper 186.
- Chaney RW & Axelrod D1 1859. Miocene floras of the olumbia Plateau. Carnegie Inst. Wash. Publ.
- Durrell C 1987. Geologi history of the Feather River country, California. Univ. Calif. Press. Berkeley.
- Epis RC & Chapin CE 1975. Geomorphic and tectonic implications of the post Laramide, Late Eocene erosion surface in the southern Rocky Mountains. Geol. Soc. Am. Mem. 144: 45-74.
- Gregory KM 1994. Paleoclimate and paleoelevation of the 35 Ma Florissant flora, Front Range, Colorado. *Palaeoclimates* 1: 23-57.
- Gregory KM & Chase CG. 1992. Tectonic significance of paleobotanically estimated climate of the late Eocene erosion surface, Colorado. *Geology* 20: 581-585.
- Greller AM 1988. Vegetational composition, leaf size and climatic warmth in an altitudinal sequence of evergreen forests in Sri Lanka. *Trop. Ecol.* **29**: 121-145.
- Grellwe A.M. 1989. Correlation of Warmth and temperateness with the distributional limits of zonal forests in estern North Ameria. Bull. Torrey. bot. Club 116(2): 145-163.
- Hamilton W & Myers WR 1966. Cenozoic tectonics of the western United States. *Rev. Geophys* 4: 509-549.
- King PB 1977. The evolution of North America. Princeton Univ. Press. Princeton, N.J. 197 pp.
- Knowlton FH 1926. Flora of the Latch Formation of Spokane, Washington, and Coeur d Alene. Idaho. U.S. Geol. Surv. Prof. Paper 140-A
- Oliver IE & Fairbridge RW 1987. The Encyclopedia of Climatology. Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., New York.
- Smith AG, Hurley AM & Briden JC 1981. Phanerozoic Paleocontinental world maps. Cambridge Univ. Press.
- Wernstedt FL 1972. World Climatic Data. Climatic Data Press, Lemont, P.A. 16851.
- Wing. SL & Greenwood DR. 1983. Fossils and fossil climate, the case for equable continental interiors in the Eocene. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. London* B 141: 243-252.
- Wolfe JA 1979. Temperature parameters of humid and mesic forests of eastern Asia and relation to forests of other regions of the Northern Hemisphere and Australasia. *U.S. Geol. Surv. Prof. Paper* **1106**. 37 pp.
- Wolfa JA 1980a. Tertiary climates and floristic relationships at high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere. Paleogeogr. Palaeoclim. Paleoecol. 30: 313-323.
- Wolfe JA 1980b. The Miocene Seldovia point flora from the Kenal Group, Alaska. U.S. Geol. Surv. Prof. Paper 1105.
- Wolfe JA 1985. Distribution of major vegetational types during the Tertiary *In* Sundquist ET & Broeker WDC (Editors)—The carbon cycle and atmospheric CO₂: National variations Archean to Present: 357-375. *Am. Geophys Union Monogr.* **32**: 627 pp.
- Wolfe JA 1992. An analysis of present day terrestrial lapse rates in the western Contimerous United States and their significance in palaeoaltitudinal estimates. U.S. Geol. Surv. Bull. 1964.
- Wolfe JA 1993. A method of obtaining climatic parameters from leaf assemblages. U.S. Geol. Surv. Bull. 2040: 71 pp.
- Wolfe JA & Schorn H 1994. Fossil floras indicate high altitude for west-central Nevada at 16 MA and collapse to about present altitudes by 12 MA. Geol. Soc. Am. Abstra. Programs. Ann. Meeting. Seattle, WA. pg. A 521.