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Abstract

This handbook describes quick, effective methods for documenting change in vegetation and soil through repeat photography. It is published in two parts: field procedures in part A and concepts and office analysis in part B. Topics may be effects of logging, change in wildlife habitat, livestock grazing impacts, or stream channel reaction to land management. Land managers, foresters, ranchers, wildlife biologists, and land owners may find this monitoring system useful. Part A discusses three critical elements: (1) maps to find the sampling location and maps of the photo monitoring layout; (2) documentation of the monitoring system to include purpose, camera and film, weather, season, sampling system, and equipment; and (3) precise replication in the repeat photography.

Keywords: Monitoring, photography.
Preface
This handbook is a synopsis of repeat photography principles and photo point sampling from the publication *Ground Based Photographic Monitoring*, PNW-GTR-503, which is based on 45 years of experience in repeat photography by the author. During those years, many nuances were discovered that bear discussion and emphasis so that new users can avoid the pitfalls I ran into. The terms *should, must, do not,* and *will* are used to help users avoid problems and are not meant as rules.
Introduction
Anyone interested in quick and effective documentation of change in vegetation or soil through repeat photography will find this handbook useful. Illustrations cover such topics as streamside changes, riparian willow response to beavers, logging, livestock use, and mountain pine beetle (*Dendroctonus ponderosa*) kill of lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta* var. *latifolia* Englm.). People, such as foresters, ranchers, wildlife biologists, and nature enthusiasts, interested in natural resources can establish photo point monitoring (discussed here) to appraise changes (see part B) in natural resources. No special skill or training is required other than some knowledge of cameras.

There is one essential criteria if repeat photography is used to document change. Distance from camera to photo point must remain the same (part B). For this reason, both the camera location and photo point require permanent markers. The system recommended is use of cheap fenceposts or steel stakes, usually \( \frac{1}{2} \) inch (1.2 cm) diameter concrete reinforcing bar.

This field procedure handbook is divided into several parts: basic foundations for photo monitoring, with discussions on objectives, selecting an area, techniques for general photography, procedures for specific topic pictures, shrub profile monitoring, and tree cover sampling. Use of forms in part B are illustrated.

Basics
The primary consideration in photo monitoring is an objective. Ask yourself several questions: What is the topic of this photograph? Why do I want to take this picture? What am I trying to show? What appeals to me? What will the picture demonstrate? (Hedgecoe 1994, Johnson 1991).

Photo Monitoring Objectives
Consider the five basic questions for any inquiry: why, where, what, when, and how (Borman 1995, Nader and others 1995).

Why—“Why” to monitor reveals the question or questions needing to be answered. Implementation monitoring asks *if* we did what we said, effectiveness asks if it *did* what we wanted, and validation asks if it *is* meeting the objectives. The “why” question
Figure 1—A ponderosa pine stand with pinegrass ground vegetation showing effects of logging: undisturbed in 1981, 1982 after the first selection cut, and in 1989 after the second selection cut and precommercial thinning. These views, with their dramatic differences, emphasize the need for permanent marking of both camera locations and photo points. Exact picture reorientation uses the “1M” of the meter board as the photographic center (also see fig. 18) and for focusing the camera for best depth of field at the meter board.
sets the stage for all other discussion. Is a proposed treatment to be monitored (fig. 1)? Is animal distribution to be appraised? Are things changing as a result of management decisions (Borman 1995, Nader and others 1995)?

Figure 2—Filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points” showing general photographs of Pole Camp taken from the witness stump: (A) the left landscape, and (B) the right landscape diagramed in figure 6. Note repeat of fenceposts 1 and 2 in both pictures. Fenceposts identify camera locations 1, 2 and 3 and photo points “D” for the dry meadow, “W” for the wet meadow, and “S” for the streambank. Photo identification cards similar to figure 10, a form from part B, appendix A, are at the bottom of each picture. The purpose of these photographs is twofold: to illustrate the general sampling area and to show location of the photo monitoring layout. Used in conjunction with the map in figure 6, someone other than the original sampling crew could find and rephotograph this site.
Where—“Where” to monitor depends on the “why.” How does one select representative tracts, animal activity areas, treatment sites, or particular kinds of treatments? How are number, size, and location of activities, such as fire, logging, revegetation, livestock grazing or flood, selected? Ask yourself, “Where is the best location that will answer my questions (fig. 2; Borman 1995, Nader and others 1995)?” Critical documents are a map to locate the site and a site map to document all camera locations and photo points.

What—“What” to monitor means selecting specific items (topics) on the tract to support the “why” questions: vegetation, soil, streambanks (fig. 3), or animals. Ask yourself, “What are the critical few items that must be documented? What is expected to change? What will the picture demonstrate (Borman 1995, Johnson 1991, Nader and others 1995)?” The “what” dictates the sampling layout.

Figure 3—A general photograph taken in 1997 at Pole Camp; the topic is streambank stability. This streambank photo point is taken upstream from camera location 2 (shown in fig. 2 and on the map in fig. 6). Fencepost 1 is camera location 1, fencepost 3 is camera location 3 looking downstream at photo point “S,” “S” is the photo point for the streambank, and fencepost "W" is the photo point for the wet meadow.
Figure 4—Pole Camp “W” (wet meadow) photo point showing three dates of the same year. June 15 is before scheduled grazing, August 1 is at change in rotation pastures, and October 1 is after grazing. This pasture was rested from June 15 to August 1. October 1 illustrates the degree of livestock use on Kentucky bluegrass at the meter board, on aquatic sedge behind the board, and on willows.
When—“When” to monitor supports the “why” and “what” questions. Does it encompass a year or years? one or more times a year (fig. 4)? specific dates? specific time(s) of day (Borman 1995, Nader and others 1995)? All are important with both animal and site monitoring. Scheduling when to photograph deals with before and after treatment and how often thereafter. Unplanned disturbances, such as fire or flood, pose special problems. A monitoring protocol may have to be developed on the spot during an event to establish photo points and define a followup schedule.

How—“How” to monitor is determined by “what” as influenced by “why” and “when.” It may encompass detailed protocols for photographic procedures, which may be to obtain either qualitative data (estimates) or quantitative data (measured in the field or measured from photographs).

A simple question might deal with effects of livestock grazing on a riparian area: (1) Are streambanks being broken down? (2) Are riparian shrubs able to grow in both height and crown spread? (3) Is there enough herbage remaining after grazing to trap sediments from flooding? (4) Is herbaceous vegetation stable, improving, or deteriorating?

These questions require selection of a sampling location, placement of enough photo points to answer each of the four questions, and establishment of camera locations to adequately photograph each photo point. Try to select camera locations that will photograph more than one photo point. Next, time or times of year to do the photography must be specified, such as just prior to animal use of the area, just after they leave, or fall vegetation conditions. Will a riparian site be monitored for high spring runoff? late season low flows? or during floods? Monitoring of stream flows vs. animal use probably will require different scheduling.

Recommendation—Write down the specific objectives and protocols for each photo monitoring project. Write them so that someone other than the installer can understand the purpose, can follow the protocols, and can become enthusiastic about the project.
Selecting an Area
Selection of a monitoring area requires a great deal of professional expertise liberally mixed with artistic finesse. The purpose for photographic monitoring is the most critical factor in considering where to monitor (Borman 1995, Nader and others 1995): Where in the landscape is my topic of concern, and once at the area, what kind of change do I want to document? In some cases, “where” is straightforward; for example, documentation of logging impacts requires an area being logged (fig. 1), and effects of beavers on a stream requires beaver dams. On the other hand, documentation of impacts from livestock grazing requires understanding livestock distribution plus knowing the location of areas sensitive to grazing and the most critical season of use.

Once in an area, the real decisions must be made. Determine specifically what to monitor for change. Figure 2 shows two general views of Pole Camp in northeast Oregon where some examples of photo monitoring are located. The purpose was to document effects on a riparian area from livestock grazing. Pole Camp was selected because it was preferred by livestock. Specific objectives were to evaluate grazing effects on streambanks (fig. 3); willow (Salix spp.) shrub utilization (fig. 3); differences in use between Kentucky bluegrass (Poa pratensis L.) by the fencepost on the right (1) and aquatic sedge (Carex aquatilis Wahlenb.) at the fencepost in the left background (W). The topic in figure 3 is streambank stability.

Figure 1 is a different situation. The purpose for photo sampling was to document effects of a two-stage overstory removal and subsequent precommercial thinning on stand structure and ground vegetation. The sale area determined the site. Stand conditions of open ponderosa pine (Pinus ponderosa Dougl. ex Laws.) and clumped reproduction across an opening were chosen for the photo point. The opening was selected to avoid tree crown encroachment between the camera location and photo point and to appraise logging effects on livestock forage. It was photographed before and after each entry to log.
After appraising the area, establish the photo monitoring system as discussed below in “General Photography” and “Topic Photography.” The sampling layout must be mapped as described next.

**Locating the Monitoring System**
Assume that the person installing the monitoring program will not be the one to find and rephotograph the area. Provide maps and instructions accordingly. A local map showing roads and the site locates Pole Camp, one of three locations for the Emigrant Creek riparian study (fig. 5).

After laying out the photography system, select a witness site to mark the area. Identify it with a permanent marker, such as an orange aluminum tag, and determine direction and measured distance to camera locations, photo points, or both. Inscribe these on the identification tag. Next map the camera locations and photo points with directions and measured distances on the filing system form “Photographic Site Description and Location” (fig. 6), found in part B, appendix A. Note whether the direction
Figure 6—Filing system form “Photographic Site Description and Location” showing the monitoring layout for Pole Camp. In the lower left corner is a reference to the junction of roads 43 and 4365 at 0.25 mile (0.4 km). Immediately opposite the road turnout is a lodgepole pine witness stump 28 inches (71 cm) in diameter. An aluminum tag, orange for visibility, is attached to the stump with directions and distances to camera locations. An additional map, noted by the square labeled “See detail attached,” is shown in figure 17. It documents triangulation of the streambank photo point “S.” Another note, “Shrub transect - see attached,” refers to an installation in 1997, which is shown in figures 22, 23, and 25 dealing with shrub profile photo monitoring.

is taken in magnetic or true degrees by indicating either “M” or “T.” A 21-degree deviation in the Pacific Northwest must be accounted for. Measure distances between the witness site, camera locations, and photo points on the ground. Do not attempt conversion to horizontal distance.
**Fenceposts or stakes**—Monitoring, by definition, means repeated observation; therefore, all camera locations and photo points must be permanently marked. The recommended method is stamped metal fenceposts shown in figures 2 and 3. In 2000, these cost about $2.75 each for a 5-foot (1.5-m) post. Stamped metal has several advantages over strong T-bar posts: they are flimsy and will bend if driven over by a vehicle or run into by an animal; they will bend flat and remain in the ground to mark the spot; they resist theft because they are just as difficult to pull out as a good fencepost but are not worth the trouble; and they are easy to carry and pound. The primary advantage of flimsy fenceposts is their visibility, as seen in figures 2 and 3. If visibility is not desired, steel rebar stakes are a choice but require a metal detector for relocation (White’s Electronics, Inc. 1996).

Steel stakes, preferably concrete reenforcing bar (rebar) have been used and may be required for shallow soils, areas that will be disturbed, or locations where fenceposts may be obtrusive. If disturbance or shallow soils prevents the use of fenceposts, stakes should be driven flush with the ground. If left a few inches above the ground, stakes will damage tires, hooves, or feet. They are always difficult to find. When driven flush with the ground, they require a metal detector for relocation (White’s Electronics, Inc. 1996), but even then, the stakes must be of some mass for detection with a simple, $250 machine. Angle iron should be 1 inch (2.5 cm) on the angle and at least 12 inches (30 cm) long. Cement reenforcing bar should be at least ¾ inch (1 cm) in diameter and at least 12 inches (30 cm) long. Shorter lengths may be needed for shallow soils.

**Distance from camera to photo point**—One overriding consideration in photo monitoring is to use the same distance between the camera location and photo point for all subsequent photography of that sample. Any analysis of change depicted in the photographs can be made only when the distance remains the same (part B). Therefore, always measure the distance from camera location to photo point and mark with steel fenceposts or stakes.
Figure 7—A site locator fieldbook is my system for finding camera locations and photo points. It is a pocket-sized set of photographs and directions mounted on cardboard (file separator thickness). (A) The left landscape view of the sampling area at Pole Camp shown in figure 2. (A) also locates camera locations 1, 2, and 3. Camera location 1 has two photo points: “D” is Pole Camp dry meadow and “W” is Pole Camp wet meadow (figs. 2 and 6). (B) The upstream photo point taken from camera location (2) to “S” (illustrated in fig. 3). A map of this area is shown in figure 6.
A fixed distance for all photo monitoring is not required. It may differ from one photo point to another. Camera format also may change, such as first pictures with a 50mm lens and next pictures with a 35mm lens, but distance must remain the same. It can remain the same in repeat photography only if permanently marked.

**Site locator fieldbook**—A photo monitoring fieldbook is recommended for carrying the original photos and some intervening photographs into the field (fig. 7). If previous photographs were done by different people, you may discover some disorientation of subsequent views. For that reason, a copy of the original photograph is very important. Rephotograph from the original and not from any misoriented intervening views.

My system for Pole Camp is depicted in figure 7. Figure 7A is a landscape view of the Pole Camp flood plain from the witness site that identifies camera locations and some photo points. It locates the left of two flood-plain scenes, both shown in figure 2 (and mapped in fig. 6). Figure 7B is a view from camera location 2 to photo point “S” on the streambank, the scene in figure 3.

The pocket-size booklet has a picture from each witness site to each camera location and photo point and includes directions from the witness site to camera location and orientation of the photo point.

Once at the area, review the photographs for changes in vegetation. Next, note the number of years since the last photograph, particularly if it was taken more than 3 years previous. The purpose is to evaluate change in the vegetation that might make previous photographs difficult to interpret (fig. 1).

**Relocating Photo Points**
If camera locations and photo points were not marked, they may be approximated by the following triangulation procedure. Align items in the original photograph as shown in figure 8A. Start in the center of the photograph to orient the direction of the picture and draw line 1 on the photo, the photo point direction. Then, for

*Text continues on page 15.*
Figure 8—Photograph reorientation uses a black-and-white photo on which a triangulation system is diagramed. A center line (1) is established on the original photograph (A) for direction. The center line is identified by position of trees in the background and framing the picture with trees in the foreground. Then positions of items 2 and 3 at the sides of the picture are used to triangulate the camera location. Looking to the right, note the position of trees at arrow 2 while also looking left for tree positions at arrow 3. For (B), the photographer moves forward and backward along the center line until items at arrow 2 and arrow 3 are aligned. Try to include some unusual object in the photograph, such as the pair of stumps in the lower right corner. Photograph (A) is preunderburn condition and (B) is postburn and salvage of killed trees. In (B), note the missing trees at arrows “a” and “b,” and a burned-out stump at arrow “c.”
Figure 9—Relocation of a historical photograph taken in 1914 of Branson Creek, Wallowa County, Oregon. Skovlin and Thomas (1995, p. 22-23) took the bottom view in 1992. On a copy of the original (1914) photo, mark orientation lines. “A” identifies the centerline orientation. Then choose objects on the edges of the picture, such as “B” and “C,” to triangulate location of the original camera. Once centered on the original photograph, move forward or backward until the angles of B and C are similar to the original photograph. Slight differences in orientation lines between 1914 and 1992 suggest that in 1992, the camera was a few yards left of the original location. The usefulness of black-and-white photographs is illustrated here by being able to draw triangulation lines directly on a copy of the 1914 picture.
the camera location, find items on the sides of the picture, shown by arrows 2 and 3, to triangulate the location. The items are distances between trees. Move forward or backward along line 1 (fig. 8B) to repeat the distances shown at 2 and 3. This is the camera location and photo point direction. Mark the camera location with a fencepost and add a meter board (photo point) location 25 to 35 feet (8 to 10 m) distant.

Figure 9 applies this triangulation concept to relocation of landscape photographs.

If major vegetation manipulation has occurred as shown in figure 1, relocation may be very difficult.

**When to Photograph**

When to photograph is usually determined by the activity being monitored. Pole Camp, for example, is part of a study evaluating effects of cattle grazing on a riparian area. Figure 3 illustrates one topic of concern, streambank stability. Photographs have been taken three times per year to correspond with livestock activity: June 15 just before grazing, August 1 as cattle change pastures, and October 1 after animals leave the allotment (fig. 4). This three-season monitoring is repeated every year.

Figure 1 illustrates a very different monitoring schedule. Photographs were planned for the first week in August as an index to appraise vegetation development. They were taken just before logging and in each of the two seasons after cutting to document rapid changes in ground vegetation. Then a 5-year rephotography cycle was established to follow slower changes in both stand structure and ground vegetation. The routine was repeated with the second logging and the precommercial thinning.

If vegetation is a primary topic, consider establishing a fixed date or dates for rephotography. Established dates have several advantages: (1) they set a consistent reference point to evaluate seasonal differences in plant phenological development, (2) they provide a consistent reference for comparing change over several years, and (3) they establish a consistent time interval over which change is documented.

*Text continues on page 18.*
Figure 10—An example of a photograph identification card to be placed in the camera view (fig. 2). This has been reduced to 60 percent of its original size. Part B, appendix A has blank forms that can be reproduced onto dark blue paper. The best paper colors are Hammermill Brite Hue Blue or Georgia Pacific Papers Hots Blue. Light colored paper, common in the office environment, bleaches out under direct sun and should not be used.
Figure 11—Filing system form “Photo Points and Close Photos” documenting a ponderosa pine/elk sedge community. This area had not been previously logged and had only sporadic sheep use because water was 1.5 miles (2.4 km) distant. The general view is followed by pictures to the left and right of the meter board. The concept is to show both a general view and a pair of closeups to document change. Figure 18 illustrates what happened in this view after logging and 18 years later. Species noted are: CAGE (*Carex geyeri* Bick.), PONE (*Poa nervosa* (Hook.) Vasey), CARO (*Carex rossii* Bick.), and FRVI (*Fragaria virginiana* Duchesne).
Photograph Identification
Each photograph should be identified by site name, photograph number, and date. Figure 10 is an example for use with general or topic photographs (fig. 2). A critical factor is identifying negatives for color or black-and-white pictures or digital images. The borders of slides can be written on, but there is no similar place to identify negatives or digital memory card images. Placing a photo identification card in each picture assures a permanent record on the negative or image. This—negative identification—has been one of my biggest problems. Part B, appendix A, contains blank photo identification forms (“Camera-Photo” and “Shrub Photo Sampling”), which can be copied onto medium blue colored paper.

Paper color is the next consideration. Plain white or light colors, common in the office environment, are not suitable because they are too light in color and will bleach out when photographed. The recommended paper color is either Hammermill Brite Hue Blue or Georgia Pacific Papers Hots Blue (part B, app. A). Tests have shown these darker blue hues to be superior to other intense colors such as green and yellow.

Describing the Topic
Describe what is in the photographed scene. Include plant species, ground conditions, disturbances, or any other pertinent item. Part B, appendix A, contains forms having provision for recording these notes. For example, the filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points” is shown in figure 2 with two views of Pole Camp and brief comments about each photo. And figure 11 is the “Photo Points and Close Photos” form for a general view and two closeup photographs of a ponderosa pine/elk sedge (Carex geyeri Boot.) plant community in undisturbed condition. Canopy cover estimates of dominant species are recorded in each closeup photo. Other topic description forms are discussed below in “Shrub Profile Photo Monitoring” and “Tree Cover Sampling.” The forms are available in part B, appendix A.

General Photography
General photographs document a scene rather than a specific topic marked by a meter board. They are similar to landscape pictures in that they may not contain a size control board (meter
board) on which to focus the camera and orient subsequent photographs. A photo usually covers an area of 2 to 20 acres (0.8 to 8 ha) and distances of 50 to 200 yards (40 to 180 m) (figs. 12 to 15).
Figure 13—Filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points” documenting stand conditions in 1977, one year after mountain pine beetle attack on lodgepole pine. The needle color on trees killed in the first year changed from green to dark red (not visible here). Compare to figures 14 and 15. Photo orientation used the road center line.

**Concept**

In many cases, general photographs document a scene in which a meter board cannot be placed to orient and focus the camera. One use of general photographs is shown in figure 2. Filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points” is used in two pictures of Pole Camp where fenceposts marking camera locations and photo points may be identified. Another use is illustrated in figures 13 to 15, which document effects of mountain pine beetle attacks on lodgepole pine.
Figure 14—Stand conditions in 1978, 2 years after beetle attack in 1976. Photo point “A” has 90 percent kill and massive standing dead fuel. Photo point “B” was salvaged the winter of 1977-78.

**Equipment**

The following equipment is needed:

1. Camera or cameras for different film, or digital camera.
2. Photograph identification form “Camera-Photo” from part B, appendix A (fig. 10).
4. Compass and 100-foot (30-m) measuring tape.
5. Previous photographs for orientation of the camera.
6. Filing system forms “Photographic Site Description and Location” (figs. 6 and 12) and “Camera Location and Photo Points” (figs. 2 and 13-15) from part B, appendix A.

7. Fenceposts and steel stakes sufficient for the number of camera locations desired. Include a pounder.

8. A tripod to use for camera reorientation.

Figure 15—Stand conditions in 1991, 14 years after beetle attack and 13 growing seasons since figure 13. Photo point “A” shows most dominant trees are down, which creates severe burn conditions at ground level. Photo point “B” illustrates natural regeneration height growth. Orientation of repeat general photography without a meter board requires skill and a set of orientation pictures similar to those in figure 7.
Technique
Select a scene that will meet your monitoring objectives. Describe it, including plant species, ground cover items, disturbance, or whatever the topic of the photograph is by using the filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points.” Photograph the scene.

Make maps of the location and layout of the scene on the filing system form “Photographic Site Description and Location” (figs. 6 and 12). In figure 6, the two photos from figure 2 are labeled “Pan Left” and “Pan Right.”

Reorientation—Reorientation of subsequent pictures is a major concern due to lack of a meter board. Identification of key items in each view will be needed. In figure 6, for example, the tall tree in the right background of picture (A) is the same tree as in the left background of picture (B). Panoramic views, such as figure 6, always should include about 10 percent overlap between photographs.

Systems used for landscape photo reorientation (discussion at fig. 8) are of major help. On a black-and-white copy of the scene, mark reorientation items as shown in figures 8 and 9. With the camera mounted on a tripod, compare the picture in hand with the scene through the camera. Orient the camera accordingly.

Figure 7 illustrates a site locator fieldbook for rephotographing general views. It has 3- by 5-inch (7.5- by 12.5-cm) photographs mounted on 5- by 5-inch (12.5- by 12.5-cm) cardboard. Instructions are given under each picture for its location and orientation. These fit into a vest pocket for use in the field. Figure 3 is a recent picture of figure 7B.

Example—Figures 13 to 15 illustrate general photography documenting effects of mountain pine beetle on lodgepole pine along highway 244 in the Blue Mountains of eastern Oregon. Figure 12 is filing system form “Photographic Site Description and Location” mapping two camera locations. Camera location 1 has two photo points (figs. 13 to 15) and camera location 2 has three photo points. Monitoring started in 1976 when beetles first attacked the stands.
Figures 13 to 15 show the use of filing system form “Camera Location and Photo Points” to document beetle effects over a 14-year period. Figure 13 depicts second-year effects of beetle attack where trees killed the first year have started to drop their needles. Figure 14 is the third year after attack and shows massive standing fuel (14A) and salvage (14B). Figure 15, 14 years after initial attack and 13 growing seasons after figure 13, illustrates tree fall (15A) and growth of natural regeneration (15B).

**Topic Photography**
Topic photography narrows the subject from a general view to a specific item of interest. It adds a meter board, or other size control object, to identify the photographic topic (figs. 1, 3, 4, and 11).

**Concept**
We will assume monitoring objectives have been established as discussed in “Basics.” A meter board, or other size control board, is placed at the selected topic for several reasons: to (1) identify the item being monitored for change; (2) establish a camera orientation reference point for subsequent photography; (3) set up a constant size-reference by which change can be documented, for example by grid analysis; and (4) provide a point on which to focus the camera for optimum depth of field.

Figure 3 illustrates identification of a very specific topic, stream-bank stability. Figure 1 deals with a general view limited to area around the meter board; the topic is effect of logging and pre-commercial thinning on stand structure and ground vegetation. Purpose of topic monitoring is the primary factor in selecting a monitoring layout.

The effect of distance from the camera to the meter board to emphasize a topic is shown in figure 16. The topic in 16A is a transect for nested frequency, in 16B it is density of grass and big sagebrush (*Artemisia tridentata* Nutt.), and in 16C it is species density and use (none in this case). Select a camera-to-photo-point distance that best depicts what you want to emphasize. Remember that once the distance is established, it **must** remain fixed.