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**Long-term empirical studies highlight multiple drivers of temporal change in bird fauna in the wet forests of Victoria, south-eastern Australia**

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20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Birds are high profile elements of the vertebrate biota in almost all terrestrial ecosystems  
22 worldwide. Many studies have uncovered evidence of a decline in bird biodiversity, but  
23 temporal patterns of change vary among ecosystems and among bird species with different  
24 life history traits. Ecosystem-specific, long-term studies are critical for identifying patterns of  
25 temporal change in bird biodiversity and the drivers of that change. Here we present a case  
26 study of drivers of temporal change in the bird fauna of the Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
27 eucalypt forests of south-eastern Australia. Using insights from observational studies and  
28 experiments conducted over the past 18 years, we discuss the direct and interactive effects of  
29 fire and logging on birds. The extent and severity of wildfires have major negative effects on  
30 almost all bird species, and have persisted for more than a decade after the last major  
31 conflagration (in 2009). Logging has markedly different effects on birds than those quantified  
32 for fire, and may have resulted in elevated levels of site occupancy in remaining uncut areas  
33 in the landscape. Both fire and logging have led to marked losses in the extent of old growth  
34 forest in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems. This is a concern given the strong  
35 association of most species of birds with old forest relative to younger age cohorts.

36 Based on an understanding of the effects of fire and logging as drivers of change, we propose  
37 a series of inter-related management actions designed to enhance the conservation of avifauna  
38 in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems. A particular focus of management must be on  
39 increasing the interval between fires and limiting spatial extent of wildfires and, in turn,  
40 significantly expanding the extent of old growth forest. This is because old growth forest is  
41 where most bird species are most likely to occur, and in the event of future wildfires, where  
42 fire severity will be lowest. Expansion of the old growth estate will require commercial  
43 logging operations to be excluded from large parts of Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests.

44

45 **KEYWORDS:** Mountain Ash forest, logging, fire, landscape change, interacting drivers, old  
46 growth forest, birds

47

## 48 INTRODUCTION

49 Birds are a high profile component of almost all terrestrial ecosystems worldwide  
 50 ([Gill, 1995](#)). Numerous studies have highlighted the extent to which avifauna are declining in  
 51 many parts of the world ([Sanderson et al., 2006](#); [Ceballos et al., 2017](#); [Intergovernmental Science-  
 52 policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services \(IPBES\), 2019](#)). However, patterns of  
 53 temporal change are not consistent across regions, nor between groups of birds (e.g. large  
 54 versus small-bodied species, common versus rare species ([Inger et al., 2014](#); [Lindenmayer et al.,  
 55 2018c](#))). Detailed long-term ecosystem-level studies are therefore essential for quantifying  
 56 patterns of temporal change in populations of birds and identifying the drivers of those  
 57 changes. Indeed, such an approach is critical for developing informed conservation programs  
 58 that are both ecologically effective and cost effective ([Sodhi and Ehrlich, 2010](#); [Wintle et al.,  
 59 2019](#); [Lindenmayer et al., 2020b](#)).

60 Here we provide a general synthesis of the change in avifauna over the past 18 years  
 61 in the iconic wet eucalypt Mountain Ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*) and Alpine Ash (*Eucalyptus  
 62 delegatensis*) forest ecosystems in mainland south-eastern Australia. A particular focus of this  
 63 article is on temporal responses of birds to the drivers of change in these ecosystems,  
 64 especially high-severity wildfire, clearcut logging, and their interaction. Climate change is  
 65 also emerging as both a direct and indirect driver of change in the bird fauna of Mountain  
 66 Ash and Alpine Ash forest ecosystems, especially through its impacts on altered fire regimes  
 67 (*sensu* [Keeley, 2009](#); [Boer et al., 2020](#)). Given the challenges facing the conservation of bird  
 68 biodiversity in these ecosystems, the final part of this paper is dedicated to a discussion of  
 69 management policies and strategies that should be implemented to enhance the protection of  
 70 the avifauna in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests.

## 71 STUDY AREA AND BACKGROUND DATASETS

72 This case study is focused on the Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests of the Central  
 73 Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia (Figure 1a). Mountain Ash forests are  
 74 dominated by Mountain Ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*) trees, the tallest flowering plants on earth,  
 75 which can exceed 90 metres in height ([Ashton, 1981b](#)). Alpine Ash (*Eucalyptus delegatensis*)  
 76 forests are also spectacular with trees approaching 50-60 m in height ([Boland et al., 2006](#)).  
 77 These forests support a diverse understorey consisting of midstorey *Acacia* species, broad  
 78 leaved shrubs including *Olearia agrophylla*, *Bedfordia arborescens*, tree-ferns and a mesic  
 79 ground layer rich in fern and herb species ([Blair et al., 2016](#); [Bowd et al., 2018](#); [Bowd et al.,  
 80 2020](#)).

81 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems support a wide range of bird species ([Loyn,  
 82 1985](#)) that comprise many functional groups from large nocturnal predators to small diurnal  
 83 leaf-gleaning species. We have recorded a total of 79 species of birds in repeated field  
 84 surveys since 2004. The bird assemblages in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests include a  
 85 number of taxa of conservation concern ([Taylor and Lindenmayer, 2019](#)). For example, they are  
 86 strongholds for species such as the Eastern Yellow Robin (*Eopsaltria australis*), Flame Robin  
 87 (*Petroica phoenicea*) and Crested Shrike-tit (*Falcunculus frontatus*) which are declining  
 88 markedly elsewhere in their respective distributions ([Montague-Drake et al., 2009](#); [Lindenmayer  
 89 et al., 2018c](#)). These forests are also important for species such as the Sooty Owl (*Tyto  
 90 tenebricosa*) and Masked Owl (*Tyto novaehollandiae*) which are of conservation concern  
 91 throughout much of their range in eastern Australia ([Debus et al., 2009](#)).

92 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems sometimes support areas of cool temperate  
 93 rainforest within, or adjacent to them ([Lindenmayer et al., 2000b](#)). However, there are few  
 94 differences in bird assemblages between ash-type forests and cool temperate rainforest

95 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2010](#)) and we do not consider the avifauna of rainforest further in the  
96 remainder of this paper.

97 Fire is the primary form of natural disturbance in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
98 forests (Figure 1b). These obligate seeder eucalypts are typically killed by fire, although they  
99 require fire to stimulate natural regeneration from canopy stored seed ([Smith et al., 2016](#)).  
100 While these ecosystems have coevolved with fire, they are vulnerable to decline under short  
101 fire return intervals (< every 30 years) that prevent tree species from maturing to an age  
102 where they produce viable numbers of seeds ([Ashton, 1981a](#); [Bowman et al., 2014](#); [Enright et al.,  
103 2015](#)). The natural fire regime in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests is high-intensity and  
104 high-severity stand-replacing wildfire that occurs every 75-150 years ([McCarthy et al., 1999](#))  
105 (Figure 2a). However, there appears to have been an increase in the frequency of fires (and a  
106 reduction in the interval between fires) in the past century ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#); [Cary  
107 et al., 2021](#)) with major conflagrations in 1926, 1932, 1939, 1983, and 2009. There have also  
108 been less extensive wildfires in 1908, 1918-1919, 1948 and 2019.

109 Clearcut logging is the primary form of human disturbance in Mountain Ash and  
110 Alpine Ash forests (Figure 1b, Figure 2b) and extensive areas of forest have been harvested  
111 in the past 50 years ([Taylor and Lindenmayer, 2020](#)). Under such operations, all merchantable  
112 trees within stands of approximately 15-40 ha in area are cut with the remaining non-  
113 merchantable trees and understorey vegetation then left to dry before being burnt in a high-  
114 intensity fire lit to promote the regeneration of a new stand ([Flint and Fagg, 2007](#)). In more  
115 recent times, there have been attempts to reduce the environmental impacts of logging  
116 operations by moving to alternative forms of harvesting to clearcutting, such as by using  
117 variable retention harvest systems ([sensu Fedrowitz et al., 2014](#)). Under such silvicultural  
118 systems, parts of the original stand are retained during logging operations ([Lindenmayer et al.,  
119 2019a](#)). However, they have remained high-intensity logging operations and continue to  
120 resemble conventional clearcuts (see Figure 3).

121 A second form of logging in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests is post-fire  
122 “salvage” logging ([Noble, 1977](#); [Lindenmayer and Ough, 2006](#)) (Figure 2c). The harvest method  
123 for salvage logging is similar to that of clearcutting, except that the sequence of “treatments”  
124 is reversed. That is, following a wildfire, all potentially merchantable burnt trees are  
125 removed. Sometimes a second (deliberate) burn is applied to remove logging slash (such as  
126 tree heads, lateral branches and disturbed understorey vegetation) and, in turn, promote the  
127 regeneration of a new stand of young regrowth trees after salvage logging operations have  
128 been completed ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)).

## 129 BIRD SURVEYS

130 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests have been targeted for extensive, repeated  
131 surveys of birds on an almost annual basis since 2004. The work on birds has entailed both  
132 observational studies and true experiments ([sensu Cunningham and Lindenmayer, 2016](#)). Details  
133 of these investigations are summarized in Table 1. Results from these respective studies have  
134 provided the basis for this synthesis article.

135

136 **Table 1. Summary of the range of studies of birds conducted in the Mountain Ash and**  
137 **Alpine Ash forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria.**

Study	Description	Number of sites and	Citations
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		<b>survey period</b>	
Long-term monitoring (observational study)	Repeated counts conducted on a predominantly annual basis at permanent, long-term 1 ha sites first established in 2004. Sites range in disturbance history, stand attributes (e.g. age), and environmental characteristics (e.g. slope, aspect, time since fire)	88 sites 2004-ongoing	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2009)</a> <a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2014)</a> <a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2019c)</a>
Snapshot study of eucalypt forests versus rainforests (observational study)	Repeated counts of birds at 1 ha sites in Mountain Ash forest and cool temperate rainforest sites	60 sites in Mountain Ash forest and 24 sites in cool temperate rainforest 2006-2007	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2010)</a>
Variable retention harvesting experiment (true experiment)	Repeated counts conducted on a predominantly annual basis at sites subject to different timber harvesting treatments – clearcutting, variable retention (with retained islands of either 0.5 ha or 1.5 ha), and uncut controls	28 sites 2003-ongoing	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2015)</a>
Salvage logging experiment (combination of true experiment and observational studies)	Repeated counts conducted on a predominantly annual basis at sites subject to different timber harvesting treatments – post-fire (salvage) clearcutting, post-fire variable retention harvesting (small [0.5 ha] and large [1.5 ha] retained islands), and uncut but burned areas	28 sites 2010-ongoing	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2018d)</a>

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139 The datasets in the studies outlined in Table 1 have been gathered in broadly the same  
140 way, using repeated point interval counts ([Pyke and Recher, 1983](#)) along a permanent transect  
141 established at a given site. All surveys have been conducted in late November of a given year,  
142 which is the time when spring migrants have arrived and are actively calling. Birds are  
143 surveyed at least twice by different observers and on different days in an attempt to limit the  
144 effects of observer heterogeneity and day effects on datasets ([see Cunningham et al., 1999](#)).  
145 Broad consistency in bird counting protocols has enabled the integration of datasets to answer  
146 particular questions, such as bird responses across a disturbance intensity gradient  
147 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)) and comparisons of bird assemblages between ash-type forests and  
148 cool temperate rainforest ([Lindenmayer et al., 2010](#)).

149 Allied with the work on counting birds on long-term sites and experiments, extensive  
 150 data have also been gathered on the vegetation structure, plant species composition,  
 151 disturbance history and stand age at each survey site. Such surveys include measurements of  
 152 the abundance and condition of large old trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018a](#); [Lindenmayer et al.,](#)  
 153 [2018b](#)) and the abundance and richness of vascular plant species and plant life forms ([Blair et](#)  
 154 [al., 2016](#); [Bowd et al., 2020](#)). We also have gathered data on spatio-temporal changes in  
 155 landscape-level forest cover (including the age of the forest) surrounding each site that has  
 156 resulted from wildfire (at varying levels of severity) and clearcut logging ([Lindenmayer et al.,](#)  
 157 [2019c](#); [Taylor and Lindenmayer, 2020](#)). These data have been used to develop sets of covariates  
 158 for use in analyses of the factors influencing the occurrence of birds (including patterns of  
 159 temporal change) (e.g. [Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). They have also been used to assist in the  
 160 interpretation of the results of experimental studies ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)).

## 161 **TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF CHANGE IN SITE OCCUPANCY**

162 Data gathered from repeated surveys over the past ~ 20 years indicate that 79 bird  
 163 species inhabit Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests. Of these, approximately half are  
 164 detected sufficiently frequently (> 5% of detections from site x year surveys combined over  
 165 the duration of studies) to enable detailed statistical analyses. Overall, 24 species have  
 166 exhibited strong evidence of a decline, with temporal patterns for eight example taxa shown  
 167 in Figure 4. Examples of other species exhibiting temporal declines (in addition to those in  
 168 Figure 4) include the Superb Lyrebird (*Menura novaehollandiae*) and the Pied Currawong  
 169 (*Strepera graculina*) ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). One species, the Flame Robin, exhibited a  
 170 trend for a strong temporal increase over the duration of our studies.

171 Many bird species are responding to factors that are changing through time. For  
 172 example, as outlined in the following section of this article, statistical analyses have revealed  
 173 complex interactions between the occurrence of bird species, time and the amount of fire in  
 174 the landscape ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). In addition, birds respond to the amount of logging  
 175 in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash landscapes ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)), a variable that  
 176 changes over time with increasing numbers of cutblocks associated with annual harvesting  
 177 operations. These associations with spatio-temporal disturbance patterns, coupled with data  
 178 on temporal changes in vegetation and forest age, enable an assessment of the factors  
 179 influencing temporal changes in bird biodiversity. We present commentary of these drivers in  
 180 the following section.

## 181 **DRIVERS OF CHANGE IN THE BIRD FAUNA OF MOUNTAIN ASH AND ALPINE** 182 **ASH FOREST**

### 183 **Loss of old growth forest**

184 Our analyses of the habitat requirements of birds in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
 185 forests indicate a strong positive association between the occurrence of most bird species and  
 186 the presence of old growth forest ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). That is, almost all bird taxa are  
 187 more likely to be detected in sites dominated by old growth forest, relative to stands of  
 188 younger age. Old growth forests appear to be particularly important for small-bodied bird  
 189 species ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). Recent studies have documented a significant decline in  
 190 the amount of old growth Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forest over the past 25 years  
 191 ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#)). Indeed, the extent of old growth Mountain Ash forest is now  
 192 currently just 1.16% of the ecosystem ([Burns et al., 2015](#)). This is 1/30<sup>th</sup> to 1/60<sup>th</sup> of what the  
 193 extent of old growth forests was thought to have been historically ([Lindenmayer and McCarthy,](#)  
 194 [2002](#)). In the case of Alpine Ash forest, 0.47% of the ecosystem is currently old growth,  
 195 although there are no estimates of historical levels of old growth cover.

196 As the extent of old growth forest has been declining, populations of key elements of  
197 old growth forest such as large old trees have also been in rapid decline ([Lindenmayer et al.,](#)  
198 [2018a](#)). These trees occur both in old growth stands and also as single trees and small clusters  
199 of trees embedded within much younger regrowth forest ([Lindenmayer et al., 1991](#)). However,  
200 rates of loss of such trees are significantly slower in old growth stands than they are in  
201 regrowth forest ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018a](#)). Losses of individual large old trees are important  
202 because they are critical nest sites for a range of species, including iconic birds like the  
203 Yellow-tailed Black Cockatoo (*Calyptorhynchus funereus*) ([Nelson and Morris, 1994](#)). Large  
204 old living trees also support extensive bark streamers ([Lindenmayer et al., 2000a](#)) which can be  
205 important foraging substrates for a range of forest birds ([Loyn, 1985](#)) such as the Crested  
206 Shrike-tit, a species which is declining in many parts of its range ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018c](#)),  
207 including in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forest (see Figure 4). Other forest attributes such  
208 as the presence of mistletoe are lost when large old trees are lost from Mountain Ash and  
209 Alpine Ash ecosystems. This, in turn, may result in the decline of taxa strongly associated  
210 with mistletoe, like the Mistletoebird (*Dicaeum hirundinaceum*).

## 211 **Fire**

212 The impacts of wildfire on the bird fauna of Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests  
213 have been profound. The last major wildfire in the Central Highlands region occurred in  
214 2009, and resulted in depressed levels of bird species richness (Figure 5). Site-level  
215 occurrence of the vast majority of species (84%) was negatively associated with the amount  
216 of burnt forest in the surrounding landscape ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). Such declines may be  
217 explained by associated habitat losses and limited resources ([Whelan, 1995](#)), but also the many  
218 individual birds that were likely killed directly by fire ([Keith et al., 2002](#)). Just one species, the  
219 Flame Robin, has benefitted from the effects of fire and was more likely to occur in  
220 landscapes with large amounts of burnt area ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). Indeed, the Flame  
221 Robin is the only early successional specialist that inhabits Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
222 forests ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). Notably, 76% of bird species are not exhibiting signs of  
223 recovery following the fire in 2009, suggesting that it may require years or even decades for  
224 bird biodiversity to return to pre-fire levels. Indeed, data from other obligate seeder  
225 vegetation types ([Franklin et al., 2002](#); [Gosper et al., 2019a](#)) suggest that a return to pre-fire bird  
226 assemblages may take centuries. Nevertheless, some species in Mountain Ash and Alpine  
227 Ash forests are responding better to the effects of fire than others. For example, large-bodied  
228 birds and migratory taxa are more prevalent in landscapes subject to large amounts of fire  
229 relative to species with other life history attributes ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)).

230 An important outcome of studies of fire effects on birds is that current levels of bird  
231 species richness are greatest in areas where richness was highest prior to fire ([Lindenmayer et](#)  
232 [al., 2014](#)). We suggest that this effect is occurring because of inherent environmental factors  
233 (possibly site productivity) that result in some areas remaining suitable for more bird species,  
234 even in the event of major disturbances such as wildfire ([Lindenmayer et al., 2014](#)).

## 235 **Logging**

236 None of our long-term sites have been logged between 2004 and 2019 when surveys  
237 were conducted. However, the landscapes surrounding many of our sites have been subject to  
238 widespread clearcutting. We have found evidence of relationships between patterns of  
239 temporal change for some individual species and the amount of logging in the landscape.  
240 Most of these relationships are positive, with birds more likely to be detected in long-term  
241 sites with increasing amounts of logging in the surrounding landscape ([Lindenmayer et al.,](#)  
242 [2019c](#)). This is possibly because of a “concentration effect” (*sensu* [Darveau et al., 1995](#)) with



243 animals moving to unlogged areas with increasing amounts of logging in the broader  
244 surrounding landscape ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)).

245 In contrast to work conducted at our long-term sites where timber harvesting is  
246 excluded, sites surveyed for birds in the variable retention harvesting experiment and the  
247 salvage logging experiment (see Table 1) have been logged. Results from the variable  
248 retention harvesting experiment show that logging has negative effects on bird biodiversity  
249 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2015](#)) (Figure 6). Bird species richness was depressed most markedly in  
250 areas subject to clearcutting, relative to unlogged control sites. Clearcutting also significantly  
251 altered the composition of bird assemblages with some of the species most negatively  
252 affected including the Eastern Spinebill (*Acanthorhynchus tenuirostris*) and the Grey Fantail  
253 (*Rhipidura albiscapa*) ([Lindenmayer et al., 2015](#)). Areas subject to variable retention  
254 harvesting supported intermediate levels of bird species richness, relative to clearcutting and  
255 unlogged controls ([Lindenmayer et al., 2015](#)) (Figure 6). Thus, some of the negative effects of  
256 clearcutting can be partially offset by the retention of islands of uncut forest within the  
257 boundaries of cutblocks ([Lindenmayer et al., 2015](#)).

258 Logging has other impacts on forest structure that may, in turn, influence patterns of  
259 occurrence of birds. For example, clearcutting results in a major reduction in mesic elements  
260 of forests such as tree ferns ([Blair et al., 2016](#)) and rainforest trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2000a](#)),  
261 with some of these key components of stand structure known to be important in the habitat  
262 requirements of bird species such as the Eastern Yellow Robin (*Eopsaltria australis*)  
263 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2009](#)) and the Pink Robin (*Petroica rodinogaster*) ([Loyn, 1985](#);  
264 [Lindenmayer et al., 2010](#)). Logging also can reduce soil fertility and moisture ([Bowd et al.,](#)  
265 [2019](#)), potentially affecting species that forage extensively in the leaf litter layer such as the  
266 Superb Lyrebird ([Maisey et al., 2020](#)). Finally, increased logging in the landscape can elevate  
267 rates of loss of large old trees in areas that remain uncut areas ([Lindenmayer et al., 1997](#);  
268 [Lindenmayer et al., 2018b](#)) with potentially negative effects on bird species that require access  
269 to these trees for nesting sites, for foraging resources, or both. It is likely that changes in the  
270 spatial patterns of forest cover as a result of logging lead to greater wind fetch and  
271 windspeeds (see [Gratkowski, 1956](#); [Miller, 1981](#)) that promote the collapse of living and dead  
272 large old trees in uncut areas within wood production landscapes ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018b](#)).

### 273 **Fire and logging**

274 Post-fire (salvage) logging has been practiced following major conflagrations in  
275 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests since the 1940s ([Noble, 1977](#)) including after wildfires  
276 in 1939, 1983, and 2009 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)). An experimental study has found more  
277 pronounced impacts of salvage logging on bird species than those from conventional (green  
278 forest) clearcutting ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)). For example, bird species richness is more  
279 severely depressed in areas subject to post-fire salvage logging than in areas subject to  
280 wildfire or clearcutting. The impacts of salvage logging on birds can be mitigated to a limited  
281 extent by the retention of islands of burnt forest within the perimeter of cutblocks  
282 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)). Nevertheless, negative impacts are more pronounced in salvage  
283 logged areas, relative to those of other disturbances in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests,  
284 especially wildfire ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)).

### 285 **Interactions among drivers**

286 Salvage logging is an interaction chain ([sensu Foster et al., 2016](#)) between fire and  
287 subsequent logging that can effect bird biodiversity. However, there are other important  
288 interactions between the key drivers of decline in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests. For  
289 example, areas that are logged and then regenerated are at elevated risk of burning at higher

290 severity in the event of a subsequent fire ([Taylor et al., 2014](#); [Taylor et al., 2020](#)). Increased fire  
 291 severity matters for birds. This is because of established relationships between severity and  
 292 bird responses ([Lindenmayer et al., 2014](#)). High severity fire also results in the rapid loss of  
 293 large old trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2012](#)), which as outlined above, are important components  
 294 of habitat for a range of bird species. High severity fire retards the recruitment of new cohorts  
 295 of old growth, which is detrimental to bird populations given the importance of such age  
 296 classes of forest for bird biodiversity in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests ([Lindenmayer et  
 297 al., 2019c](#)).

298 Other stand-age fire severity relationships may have implications for birds. For  
 299 example, forests that are young when they are burned have fewer biological legacies ([sensu  
 300 Franklin et al., 2000](#)) such as large old trees, relative to when old growth stands are burned  
 301 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019d](#)). In addition, the regeneration of mesic understorey elements  
 302 (where birds often nest ([Beruldsen, 2003](#))) can be impaired when young versus old forests are  
 303 burned ([Bowd et al., 2020](#)).

### 304 GENERAL DISCUSSION

305 Based on a brief synthesis of key outcomes from several empirical studies over almost  
 306 two decades, we have presented a case study of the responses of bird fauna to key drivers of  
 307 change in the Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forest ecosystems in mainland south-eastern  
 308 Australia. The work has highlighted the impacts of wildfire, logging, and the interactions  
 309 between these drivers (e.g. post-fire salvage logging) on bird biodiversity. Such drivers of  
 310 change are seen in numerous forests globally ([Hutto et al., 2016](#); [Sommerfeld et al., 2018](#)) and it  
 311 is possible that the kinds of responses described in this article may be replicated (at least in  
 312 part) in some of these ecosystems. The paucity of early successional specialists in Mountain  
 313 Ash and Alpine Ash forests is consistent with some other obligate seeder vegetation types  
 314 where such types of species are rare ([Gosper et al., 2019b](#)). However, it is in marked contrast  
 315 to yet other forest types globally where high-intensity and high-severity stand-replacing  
 316 disturbances are a part of natural fire regimes and early successional species can be prevalent  
 317 ([Burton et al., 2003](#); [Swanson et al., 2011](#); [Hutto et al., 2016](#)).

318 The empirical studies to date in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests suggest that  
 319 temporal changes in birds are strongly influenced, not only by the direct effects of key drivers  
 320 such as fire and logging which can kill animals or trigger concentration effects in undisturbed  
 321 areas, but also interactions among disturbances which can have compounding effects. These  
 322 include: (a) wildfire reducing the amount of old growth forest ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#)),  
 323 (b) wildfire triggering salvage logging, (c) wildfire and logging driving in losses in key  
 324 biological legacies such as large old trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2012](#); [Lindenmayer et al., 2018b](#)),  
 325 and (d) logging resulting in subsequently elevated fire severity ([Taylor et al., 2014](#)). These  
 326 direct and interacting effects of drivers of change are summarized in Figure 7. An  
 327 understanding of such relationships, in turn, highlights some of the strategies that might be  
 328 employed to best tackle drivers of change as part of efforts to better conserve forests and the  
 329 avifauna that it supports (see Table 2).

### 330 Strategies for mitigating the drivers of temporal change in birds

331 Fire is a key driver of change in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems. Extensive  
 332 fires have had direct effects on birds (presumably by killing them ([Keith et al., 2002](#); [Shine,  
 333 2020](#))), but also indirectly by reducing areas of old growth forest ([Lindenmayer and Taylor,  
 334 2020](#)), elevating the rate of decline of large old trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2012](#)) and altering the  
 335 structure and composition of the understorey ([Blair et al., 2016](#); [Bowd et al., 2018](#)); Figure 7).  
 336 Reducing the extent of wildfire in Australian forests, including those dominated by Mountain

337 Ash and Alpine Ash, is a major challenge. This is, in part, because extreme wildfire is driven  
338 by climate and weather ([Boer et al., 2020](#); [Jones et al., 2020](#)) and addressing the effects of  
339 climate change will require global action. Practices like hazard reduction burning are not a  
340 management option to reduce the severity of wildfire in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
341 ecosystems. This is because, as obligate-seeding species, Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash are  
342 typically killed by fire which would not satisfy the objective of using prescribed fire to  
343 reduce fire severity..Indeed, relative to old growth forests, young regrowth stands are highly  
344 flammable and at risk of elevated fire severity ([Taylor et al., 2014](#); [Zylstra, 2018](#)). Moreover, the  
345 environments occupied by Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash are either too wet to enable low-  
346 severity burns to be applied or when fires are actually ignited then such forests are at risk of  
347 suffering high severity crown burns. In addition, repeated fires at short intervals can eliminate  
348 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems altogether ([Bowman et al., 2014](#); [Enright et al.,](#)  
349 [2015](#)). This is because trees fail to reach maturity before they are killed, leading to them being  
350 replaced by other ecosystems such as those dominated by *Acacia* woodland ([Lindenmayer et](#)  
351 [al., 2011](#)). However, there may be a role for hazard reduction burning in drier forest types to  
352 occur in areas adjacent to Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems, although recurrent fire  
353 in these environments can trigger resprout failure ([Fairman et al., 2019](#)) and hence elevated  
354 tree death. There are also risks associated with a loss of control of prescribed burning  
355 operations and them becoming wildfires.

356 Efforts to reduce the risks of fire in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash ecosystems will  
357 require expanding the currently very limited areas of old growth forest (as this is where fire  
358 severity is lowest) ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#)). This will take considerable time as old  
359 growth stands require a prolonged period to develop the key attributes that define them  
360 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2000a](#)) – in the order of 40-100 years at least. Notably, old growth stands  
361 are currently not subject to logging in Victoria, although relatively recent changes in  
362 definitions of old growth have made it harder for areas of advanced growth forest to actually  
363 be classified as old growth. This is because the age criterion for old growth has been lifted  
364 from 120 to 250 years old ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#)). Given the current scarcity of old  
365 growth Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash, coupled with its critical importance for the vast  
366 majority of bird species ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)), we strongly suggest that the Victoria  
367 Government must revert to the previous definition of old growth (of any stands greater than  
368 120 years old) and ensure that they remain unlogged. An advantage of growing more old  
369 growth forest is that fire severity is lowest in these forests ([Taylor et al., 2014](#); [Taylor et al.,](#)  
370 [2020](#)) and hence this may reduce the risk of widespread wildfires in the landscape  
371 ([Lindenmayer et al., 2011](#)). The reasons why fire severity is reduced in old growth forest  
372 remain unclear. However, they may be related to: **(1)** the greater abundance of mesic  
373 elements such as rainforest trees and tree ferns in older forests ([Lindenmayer et al., 2000a](#))  
374 ([Blair et al., 2016](#)), **(2)** high levels of soil moisture in long undisturbed forests ([Bowd et al.,](#)  
375 [2019](#)), and **(3)** reduced ladder fuels (that characterize flammable young regenerating forests)  
376 ([Zylstra et al., 2016](#)). Notably, other forest types around the world, including those dominated  
377 by obligate seeding species and where wildfires are typically stand replacing events, are  
378 characterized by lower levels of flammability in old growth stands (e.g. [Zald and Dunn, 2017](#);  
379 [Tiribelli et al., 2018](#)).

380 Beyond greater protection of stands of old growth forest, there also will be a need to  
381 protect some areas of younger forest that have the potential of growing through to become  
382 old growth (in the absence of further disturbance). For example, the oldest forests in the  
383 Central Highlands region (other than the limited areas of old growth forest), are stands that  
384 regenerated following wildfires in 1939. These 80+ year stands are the next nearest old  
385 growth and we argue that they should be exempt from logging as part of an old growth

386 restoration strategy in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests. Notably, population viability  
 387 analyses have suggested that greater levels of protection to eventually expand the extent of  
 388 the old growth estate will be critical for the long-term conservation of birds of conservation  
 389 concern such as the Sooty Owl in the Central Highlands region ([Taylor et al., 2017](#)).

390 In the event of future fires, we suggest that the forest policies that result in salvage  
 391 logging should be abandoned. This is because of the highly detrimental impacts that these  
 392 forestry operations have on bird biodiversity both directly, and indirectly through impacts on  
 393 other forest elements including the composition and structure of vegetation communities  
 394 ([Blair et al., 2016](#); [Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)). Areas of old growth forest that have been burnt  
 395 should be a particular target for conservation (and hence the exclusion of salvage logging).  
 396 This is because the key biological legacies in such areas (like large old fire-scarred trees and  
 397 dead trees) can be critical habitat elements for post-fire biotic recovery ([Lindenmayer et al.,](#)  
 398 [2019d](#)). This may be one of the reasons explaining why sites with high values for birds prior  
 399 to wildfires remain relatively species rich for birds after fire in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash  
 400 forests ([Lindenmayer et al., 2014](#)). Therefore, areas of burnt forest should not automatically be  
 401 placed into areas available for logging under planned harvesting schedules.

402 Given that old growth Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests are rare, and it will take  
 403 a prolonged period to recruit new cohorts of such age classes, remaining large old trees in  
 404 regrowth forests are likely to be important for some elements of bird biodiversity. However,  
 405 they are at risk of collapse when surrounding areas are logged ([Lindenmayer et al., 2016](#);  
 406 [Lindenmayer et al., 2018b](#)). On this basis, we suggest a key management strategy should be to  
 407 promote the protection of these individual large old trees with buffers of unlogged forest to  
 408 reduce their susceptibility to edge effects such as windthrow.

409 **Table 2. Summary of possible management actions to promote the conservation of birds**  
 410 **in the Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria.**

Recommended action	Description	Citations
Conserve all existing stands of old growth forest	All areas of old growth Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forest should be exempt from logging because of their importance for bird fauna in these forests. The definition of old growth should revert to being stands dating from before 1900 to ensure that late stage mature forest (that is close to developing into old growth) is not logged.	<a href="#">Lindenmayer and Taylor (2020)</a>
Significantly expand the extent of the old growth estate	Areas that are presently advanced regrowth forest (e.g. stands that are ~80 years old and which regenerated after the 1939 wildfires) should be exempt from logging and protected so they can mature and become old growth forest	
Protect all existing large old trees	Large living and dead old hollow-bearing trees are critical habitat elements for many species of birds, but populations are declining rapidly. They need to be protected by buffers of unlogged forest to reduce the rate at which they are collapsing	<a href="#">Lindenmayer (2017)</a>

Ensure that islands of intact forest are retained within areas subject to logging operations	The impacts of logging on bird fauna in Mountain Ash forests can be mitigated by employing Variable Retention Harvesting systems as an alternative to conventional clearcutting	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2015)</a> <a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2019b)</a>
Ban post-fire (salvage) logging operations	Post-fire (salvage) logging is the most detrimental form of logging in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests. It can set back the recovery of habitats for fauna by up to 200 years, especially for cavity-dependent taxa. Post-fire logging should not occur in old growth forests that have been burnt given the prevalence of key biological legacies (such as large fire-scarred trees) in these areas.	<a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2018d)</a> <a href="#">Lindenmayer et al. (2019d)</a>

411

412 **Caveats and limitations**

413 The collective set of studies in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash has focused largely on  
414 birds for which sufficient data can be gathered from standardized, routine, repeated surveys  
415 to facilitate subsequent statistical analyses. However, some key species of conservation  
416 concern like large forest owls (e.g. the Sooty Owl) are not detected by conventional diurnal  
417 counting protocols; fit-for-purpose studies are needed to understand both temporal changes in  
418 populations and the drivers underpinning those changes (e.g. [Milledge et al., 1991](#)). We do note  
419 that species such as the Sooty Owl and other large forest owls such as the Masked Owl are  
420 sometimes detected in night-time counts of arboreal marsupials and annual records of them  
421 are now far less prevalent than 20 years ago (Lindenmayer et al. unpublished data). This  
422 is possibly as a result of the steep decline in prey items such as possums and gliders in  
423 Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests during this time ([Lindenmayer et al., 2020a](#)).

424 The focus of this paper has been on key drivers of change in Mountain Ash and  
425 Alpine Ash forests and their implications for bird biodiversity. One major driver that has not  
426 been explicitly considered to date is climate change. The direct impacts on birds resulting  
427 from likely reduced rainfall and increased temperatures that are likely to manifest in the  
428 Central Highlands region have, to date, not been modelled. However, the impacts are likely to  
429 be substantial. For example, elevated temperatures and marked rainfall deficits preceding the  
430 2009 wildfires appeared to contribute to widespread death of large old trees in the Central  
431 Highlands region ([Lindenmayer et al., 2012](#)). Climate and weather are critical drivers of fire  
432 regimes in south-eastern Australia ([Bradstock, 2010](#)) and climate change has a high likelihood  
433 of resulting in more frequent, more extensive, and more severe wildfires in Mountain Ash  
434 and Alpine Ash forests ([Cary et al., 2012](#)). This will, in turn, drive further losses of old growth  
435 forest ([Lindenmayer and Taylor, 2020](#)), increase the rate of decline in populations of large old  
436 trees ([Lindenmayer et al., 2012](#)) (see Figure 7), and alter the suitability of sites and landscapes  
437 for birds ([Lindenmayer et al., 2019c](#)). Additional fires may also trigger further salvage logging,  
438 with corresponding negative impacts on birds ([Lindenmayer et al., 2018d](#)). A major current  
439 knowledge gap is the extent to which climate change and weather influence the ability of bird  
440 assemblages to recover following wildfire and this area of work will be a focus for future  
441 research.

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687

688 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

689 Figure 1. **A.** The location of the montane ash (Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash) forests in the  
690 Central Highlands of Victoria where a series of long-term studies of birds have been  
691 conducted over the past 18 years. **B.** The extent of disturbance from wildfire and logging in  
692 the Central Highlands of Victoria.

693 Figure 2. Key forms of disturbance in Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests: A. Wildfire. B.  
694 Clearcut logging. C. Post-fire salvage logging. (Photos by David Lindenmayer).

695 Figure 3. Logged area subject to variable retention harvesting in Alpine Ash in the Central  
696 Highlands of Victoria (Photo by Chris Taylor).

697 Figure 4. Patterns of temporal change in eight example species of birds in the Mountain Ash  
698 forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria. Redrawn from Lindenmayer and Sato (2018) and  
699 Lindenmayer et al. (2009). The different measures on the respective axes for the top four  
700 versus bottom four species correspond to differences in the ways data were analyzed in the  
701 two different studies.

702 Figure 5. Temporal changes in bird species richness and the amount of fire in 2009 in  
703 landscape surrounding long-term field sites in the Mountain Ash and Alpine Ash forests of  
704 the Central Highlands of Victoria (modified from Lindenmayer et al., 2019b). The dashed  
705 line is for species richness at sites where limited amounts (< 5%) of the forest were burnt and  
706 the solid line corresponds to sites where ~ 20% of the landscape surrounding sites was burnt  
707 in 2009. The orange vertical line shows the timing of the 2009 wildfires. In many cases, sites  
708 surrounded by forest that was burned also were burnt themselves.

709 Figure 6. Plot-level mean bird species richness at unlogged control sites, cutblocks subject to  
710 variable retention harvesting, and conventional clearcut blocks (redrawn from Lindenmayer  
711 et al., 2015).

712 Figure 7. Direct and interacting drivers of temporal change in bird fauna in Mountain Ash  
713 and Alpine Ash forests in south-eastern mainland Australia.

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