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Bird Populations Density in Thinned, Unthinned and Old Lowland Regrowth Forest, East Gippsland, Victoria

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The response of forest avifauna to disturbance from timber harvesting has been well documented in southeastern Australia (Pattemore & Kikkawa 1975; Loyn et al. 1980; Loyn 1980; Kavanagh et al. 1985; Recher 1991; Loyn 1993). One major effect of harvesting is the simplification of the forest structure by decreasing the complexity of the vegetation profile (Recher 1991). This shift towards a more homogenous, even-aged stand alters the foraging, nesting and breeding resources available to forest birds and in most cases reduces species diversity and density (Recher 1991). Where alternative silvicultural techniques to clear-felling are used, the changes to the vegetation structure and composition can be more variable (Brown et al. 1991).

The effect on bird populations of thinning regrowth forest — the removal of a proportion of the basal area of regrowth trees in a selected stand with the aim of increasing resources available to the remaining trees and increasing their growth rate — has been examined in Australia and the United States. In East Gippsland, Brown et al. (1991) found a reduction in bird species richness and abundance in sites recently thinned, while in the United States, Wood & Niles (1978) recorded a decrease in the richness and abundance of native pine forest bird species in response to thinning practices that eradicated the understorey and destroyed dead trees.

This survey examined the differences in the density of bird populations between old regrowth, unthinned regrowth and thinned regrowth forest; it was predicted that lower densities would be recorded in the the regrowth forest types. Other components of this study examined the responses of reptiles (Kutt 1993), arboreal mammals and nocturnal birds (Kutt 1994) and microchiropteran bats (Kutt 1995).

Five sites were surveyed in state forest 50 km east of Orbost, East Gippsland, Victoria. Within these sites, three types of forest stand were examined: 25-35 yearold regrowth coupes thinned between 1988–92 (hereafter thinned), 25-35 year-old regrowth coupes (hereafter unthinned) and old regrowth forest that was only selectively logged approximately 50 years ago (hereafter old). Bird censuses were conducted between 7 January 1993 and 14 March 1993, along 200 m fixedline transects, placed through a representative area of the selected coupe. Transects were at least 100 m from the boundary of adjacent coupes to minimise edge effects. A total of 11 thinned, ten unthinned and five old forest transects were available for sampling. Each transect was surveyed three times and all species seen or heard were identified, counted and their perpendicular distance from the transect line estimated.

Density estimates of total bird populations in each forest type were calculated from these results using the computer program DISTANCE (Laake et al. 1993). This program estimates densities using a variety of models to predict f(0), the probability density function at the location of the transect line. The perpendicular distances of birds observed were grouped into intervals (0-19 m, 20-39 m, 40-59 m and 60-80 m) to enhance the robustness of the model (Buckland et al. 1993).

Two line transect models, the uniform and halfnormal distributions with combinations of hermite, polynomial and cosine adjustments, were used to examine the data. Both of these functions are considered to be suitable starting points for model fitting for estimating vertebrate densities from line-transect data (Vernes 1993). Model selection was made on the basis of Akaike's information criterion (AIC), the model with the lowest AIC being the more appropriate for analysing the data (Buckland et al. 1993). In addition, the higher the resultant probability value, the better the fit of the density function to the data (Laake et al. 1993; Buckland et al. 1993).

Density estimates using the DISTANCE program for each line transect were compared with the mean number of bird observations per transect line using Pearson correlations. This provided an indication of how well a simple estimate of relative density correlated with the estimates of absolute density. Statistical analysis of total densities and observations per transect were made using a non-parametric method: the Kruskal-Wallis one-way Analysis of Variance by ranks (Siegel & Castellan 1988).

A total of 55 species of birds was recorded from all surveys at all sites (Table 1). The half-normal key with cosine adjustment was the appropriate model to use in estimating bird population densities (Table 2). The density detection functions calculated for each forest type were close and the 95% confidence limits were narrow for each forest treatment type indicating comparisons between sites are valid. Density per hectare for all bird species increased from thinned (9.9 \pm 1.1) to unthinned (11.7 \pm 1.3) to old forest (12.7 \pm 1.2) but was not significantly different. Estimates of density for individual species were attempted; however, the total number of observations for most species were too small to confidently predict values using the models in Distance (Buckland et al. 1993). The density of birds estimated for each transect and the mean number of birds observed for each transect were correlated (r = 0.544, d.f. = 1, P = 0.004).

Previous surveys of forest bird communities in Australia have indicated that older aged forest support a greater diversity and density of forest birds due to their floristic and structural complexity (Loyn 1980; Loyn & MacFarlane 1984; Kavanagh et al. 1985; Recher et al. 1985; Loyn 1993). Conversely, studies examining silviculturally thinned forest have suggested that lower total bird density in these forests was due to the loss of this resource complexity (Wood & Niles 1978; Saxon et al. 1990; Brown et al. 1991).

Although the results of this survey were not statistically significant, they indicate a general series trend for increasing bird density from thinned to old forest. Concurrent surveys of vegetation patterns in the surveyed coupes identified a decrease in large overstorey trees, understorey species richness and groundcover complexity and an increase in small tree density from old to thinned forest (B. Thompson & A. Trumbull-Ward unpubl. data). Though these data were unavailable for statistical scrutiny against the estimated bird densities due to differences in survey protocol, intuitive extrapolation of their results suggest at the very least some correspondence between changes in the forest structure and bird density. Further detailed survey of both bird community patterns and environmental variables would be required to confirm this opinion.

In reference to the bird data set collected, the total number of observations was low and represented only a single season. This limitation may account for the lack of a significant result. Bird species vary in visibility over seasons and between sexes (Keast 1984) and may occur sporadically in time and space, with many years of sampling in some sites still not accurately counting total species present in an area (Recher et al. 1983). Longer-term, seasonal recording should be undertaken to more accurately reflect the dynamics of bird species composition and density in the forest types surveyed in this study.

Three criteria for measuring absolute density from line transect bird counts are generally recognised: all birds present on or within the transect area are recorded, no bird is counted more than once and no birds move in or out of the area during census due to attraction or repulsion (Recher et al. 1983; Pyke & Recher 1984; Bell & Ferrier 1985). If these assumptions are violated, then over- or under-estimation of density occurs. The correspondence in the density detection
 Table 1
 Mean number of observations per transect for all bird species recorded in the thinned, unthinned and old regrowth forest sites.

 Bold type indicates forest treatment with the highest number of observations.

Species	Thinned $(n = 11)$	Treatment Unthinned (<i>n</i> = 10)	Old (<i>n</i> = 5)	
Brown Goshawk Accipiter fasciatus	0.1	0	0	
Common Bronzewing Phaps chalcoptera	0	0	0.4	
Glossy Black-Cockatoo Calyptorhynchus lathami	0	0	0.81	
Yellow-tailed Black-Cockatoo Calyptorhynchus funereus	0.54	0.21	1.59	
Gang-gang Cockatoo Callocephalon fimbriatum	0.27	0.21	0	
Rainbow Lorikeet Trichoglossus haematodus	0	0	0.6	
Crimson Rosella Platycercus elegans	0.27	0.6	1.2	
Fan-tailed Cuckoo Cacomantis flabelliformis	0.54	0.6	0	
Horsfield's Bronze-Cuckoo Chrysococcyx basalis	0	0.3	õ	
Shining Bronze-Cuckoo Chrysococcyx lucidus	0.1	0	0.21	
Laughing Kookaburra Dacelo novaeguineae	1.26	0.6	0.36	
Sacred Kingfisher Todiramphus sanctus	0	0.4	0.6	
Superb Lyrebird Menura novaehollandiae	0.27	0.4	0.4	
White-throated Treecreeper Cormobates leucophaeus	3.18	2.79	4.2	
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Red-browed Treecreeper Climacteris erythrops	0.18	0.1	0	
Superb Fairy-wren Malurus cyaneus	5.16	7	6.81	
Southern Emu-wren Stipiturus malachurus	0	0	0.4	
Spotted Pardalote Pardalotus punctatus	0.18	0.1	0.6	
Striated Pardalote Pardalotus striatus	0.1	0.3	0.21	
White-browed Scrubwren Sericornis frontalis	1.62	1.59	5.19	
Brown Gerygone Gerygone mouki	0.63	0	0	
Brown Thornbill Acanthiza pusilla	3.27	1.8	3.6	
Striated Thornbill Acanthiza lineata	5.25	6.9	9.4	
Red Wattlebird Anthochaera carunculata	0	0.4	0.6	
Lewin's Honeyeater Meliphaga lewinii	0.63	0.4	1.0	
Yellow-faced Honeyeater Lichenostomus chrysops	1.44	1.2	0.4	
White-eared Honeyeater Lichenostomus leucotis	0.36	0.3	0.21	
White-naped Honeyeater Melithreptus lunatus	0.1	0.1	0	
Cresent Honeyeater Phylidonyris pyrrhoptera	0.1	0.3	0	
New Holland Honeyeater Phylidonyris novaehollandiae	0.1	0	Ō	
Eastern Spinebill Acanthorhynchus tenuirostris	0.27	0.54	0.6	
Jacky Winter Microeca fascinans	0.1	0	0.21	
Scarlet Robin Petroica multicolor	0.36	0.6	0.21	
Rose Robin Petroica rosea	0	0.1	0	
Eastern Yellow Robin <i>Eopsaltria australis</i>	3.27	2.91	3.0	
Eastern Whipbird Psophodes olivaceus	1.08	0	1.8	
Spotted Quail-thrush Cinclosoma punctatum	0.36	õ	0	
		1.59	0	
Varied Sitella Daphoenositta chrysoptera	0			
Crested Shrike-tit Falcunculus frontatus	0 07	0	0.21	
Golden Whistler Pachycephala pectoralis	0.27	0.7	0	
Rufous Whistler Pachycephala rufiventris	0.18	0.4	0.4	
Grey Shrike-thrush Colluricincla harmonica	0.63	0.81	0.9	
Black-faced Monarch Monarcha melanopsis	0.36	0.3	0.4	
Rufous Fantail Rhipidura rufifrons	0.18	0	0.4	
Grey Fantail Rhipidura fuliginosa	1.65	2.5	2.58	
Black-faced Cuckoo-shrike Coracina novaehollandiae	0.24	0.1	0.81	
Cicadabird Coracina tenuirostris	0	0.18	0	
Olive-backed Oriole Oriolus sagittatus	0.27	0.1	0.6	
Australian Magpie Gymnorhina tibicen	0	0.1	0.6	
Pied Currawong Strepera graculina	2.16	1.29	3.2	
Grey Butcherbird Cracticus torquatus	0	0.1	0	
Satin Bowerbird Ptilonorhynchus violaceus	0.1	0	0	
Australian Raven Corvus coronoides	0	0.1	0.21	
Red-browed Finch Neochmia temporalis	0.45	0	0.21	
Silvereye Zosterops lateralis	0	0.3	0.6	
Mean total individuals per 200 m transect	12.6	13.2	18.6	
Mean total individuals per km	63	66	93	

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Forest type	n	total L (km)	f(0)	AIC	χ^2 probability	Density /ha	S. C .
Thinned	138	2.2	0.04	259.5	0.81	9.9	1.1
Unthinned	132	2.0	0.04	207.9	0.72	11.7	1.3
Old	93	1.0	0.03	168.3	0.31	12.7	1.2

Table 2 Detection function, density and summary statistics for all birds in species recorded in the thinned, unthinned and old regrowth forest sites.

functions across the forest types in this study, and the fact that each detection function decreased monotonically away from the transect line suggest that the these assumptions have not been differentially violated across each forest type and that comparisons between forest types are valid. Furthermore, the DISTANCE sampling program expects objects to be missed, as the direct effects of structural differences on sightablity is covered by modelling the density function (Buckland et al. 1993). One potential problem, unaccounted for by this model, is if particular bird species behave differently (in terms of the assumptions) in each different forest type.

Intensive counts measuring relative density are thought to be sufficient to examine differences between forest types and patch size, as long as the relationship between relative and absolute remains fairly constant (Recher et al. 1983; Loyn 1986), although this relationship breaks down in cases where the detectability of birds differs between sites being compared (Recher et al. 1983). In reference to this study, the significant correlation between relative and absolute density for the each measured transect indicates that some relationship exists. Consequently, relative measures may have been used to describe the density patterns without resorting to detailed modelling of the probability density function. However, examination of the magnitude of change in the total relative (thinned 12.6 birds/transect; unthinned 13.2 birds/transect; old 18.6 birds/transect) and absolute density (thinned 9.9 birds/ha; unthinned 11.7 birds/ha; old 18.6 birds/transect) indicates that the relative measures exaggerate the level of observed change. Differences in sightability has most likely influenced the relative density estimates and modelling the detectability function has overcome this problem. An alternative is to undertake intensive, high repetition, cross-seasonal counts that provide relative measures corresponding more closely to actual values (Recher et al. 1983; Loyn 1986).

Though the results of this study were inconclusive,

they still suggest that in forests where regrowth forms a large component of native vegetation and where larger scale thinning operations may be undertaken, there will be an adverse influence on the bird densities in those forests. Longer term monitoring of these sites is necessary to examine whether the changes observed in this study are significant and how bird species and populations will further respond to changes in the forest if further intensive management is applied to the stands in an effort to enhance wood production potential.

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