

The ecological roles of logs in Australian forests and the potential impacts of harvesting intensification on log-using biota

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A review is presented of the ecological values of logs in Australian eucalypt forests. Logs are a key component of stand structural complexity and have critical functional roles for forest biodiversity including:- (1) providing nesting and sheltering sites for biota, (2) providing foraging substrates for predators like snakes and predatory invertebrates such as velvet worms, (3) providing basking and hibernation sites for reptiles, (4) facilitating animal movement, (5) providing places for key social behaviours, (6) acting as plant germination sites, (7) providing substrates to promote the growth of fungi, (8) providing mesic refugia for organisms during drought and/or fire, and (9) contributing to heterogeneity in the litter layer and patterns of ground cover. Logs also play significant roles in nutrient cycling in forests.

The role of logs is often ignored in forestry operations, including those where harvesting intensification will occur through the removal of dead and/or "defective" standing trees and logs under the guise of removing so-called waste or logging "residues". Recently proposed intensive large-scale forestry operations in the Australian native forest estate (e.g., biomass burning power plants and charcoal plants) have the potential to reduce stand structural complexity, alter forest ecosystem function and negatively impact upon log-dependent species in those part of the landscape where harvesting takes place. The risks of such impacts have not been adequately measured in Australia, but they need to be addressed urgently. Prescriptions for the retention and future recruitment of logs must be developed to avert possible losses of biodiversity.

INTRODUCTION

FOLLOWING the approval of Regional Forest Agreements (hereafter RFA's) between the Commonwealth and State governments, there has been an expectation in the wood products industry that harvesting practices will become more "resource-efficient". This has been termed the "intensification of harvesting operations" (Bauhaus 1999; Kanowski and Buchy 1999). However, maintaining a balance between the ecological importance and economic benefits of native forests is fundamental to achieving the primary objective of RFA's — "ecologically sustainable forest management" or ESFM, where ESFM is defined as (after Lindenmayer and Recher 1998):-

"perpetuating ecosystem integrity while continuing to provide wood and non-wood values; where ecosystem integrity means the maintenance of forest structure, species composition, and the rate of ecological processes and functions within the bounds of normal disturbance regimes".

As part of the proposed intensification of harvesting operations, more "defective trees" and more "waste material" from the forest floor will be taken for use in woodchipping and other types of logging operations. Given proposals for the intensification of forestry practices (Connell *et al.* 1999), in this paper we examine the role

and importance of logs for a range of aspects of the ecology and management of Australian eucalypt forests. We considered that an examination of the ecological roles of logs was important because some authors have calculated that dead wood (including logs) provides habitat or has other functions for more than 20% of all forest-dependent organisms worldwide (Hunter 1990; Grove 2001a). A focus on Australian eucalypt forests was chosen because forests outside the reserve system are being targeted for new, large-scale industrial projects such as charcoal-making factories (Environmental Resources Management Australia 2001; Leech 2001) and biomass burning plants for power generation.

Although some of the ecological functions of logs have previously been documented, in part, by other authors (e.g., Dickman 1991), they require current synthesis and appraisal in an Australian forest context. Much of our focus is on logs and biodiversity, but other roles of logs are also highlighted such as their importance as a key structural attribute of native forests. We have not included woodlands and rainforests in this review, although we acknowledge the importance of logs in those ecosystems (e.g., Recher 1985; Grove 2001a, 2002). Part of our examination draws upon published research from overseas, particularly the Pacific Northwest

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of the U.S.A. (e.g., Maser and Trappe 1984; Harmon *et al.* 1986; Maser *et al.* 1988) and to a lesser extent from Scandinavia (e.g., Berg *et al.* 1994; Bader *et al.* 1995; Sverdrup-Thygeson 2001). This information is relevant since the ecological values of logs in other regions are likely to be broadly equivalent to those in Australian eucalypt forests.

DEFINING LOGS AND PROCESSES LEADING TO THEIR RECRUITMENT

Our definition of logs encompasses not only trees and other woody plants that fall to the forest floor, but also large fallen branches and other woody debris that have been shed or lost from standing living and dead trees. We do not make a distinction between logs and large fallen branches because, as outlined below, both may have a range of broadly similar ecological roles.

Several processes contribute to the accumulation of logs to the forest floor. Trees typically pass through a series of stages in their growth and development (Jacobs 1955) and tree death, decay and eventual collapse are key ones (Franklin *et al.* 1987; Peet and Christensen 1987). Many species of trees shed lateral branches as a natural part of growth and development (Jacobs 1955), and self-pruning is well known in many species of eucalypts (Opie *et al.* 1984). Many trees die and collapse well before they reach a stage where they develop cavities — self-thinning is characteristic of many types of eucalypt forest (Jacobs 1955; Ashton 1976). For example, Lindenmayer *et al.* (1990a, 1997) recognized nine stages of development of

trees with hollows in Victorian Mountain Ash *Eucalyptus regnans* forests and of these, the last stage corresponded to logs (Fig. 1). Not all trees pass through each of these stages and some will collapse well before the most advanced stages of senescence. This will, in turn, influence the extent of decay in a recently fallen tree. Notably, in a major North American review, Maser *et al.* (1988) noted strong links between the stages of senescence of standing trees and corresponding log decay categories (Fig. 2). It is likely that similar relationships exist in Australian forests, although research is required to explore such patterns.

LOGS AND STAND STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY

Stand structural complexity is characteristic of all forests (Franklin *et al.* 1981; Berg *et al.* 1994; Catling and Burt 1995; Noel *et al.* 1998) and it embodies not only particular types of stand attributes, but also the way they are spatially arranged (Lindenmayer and Franklin 2002). Structural attributes include:- (1) trees from multiple age cohorts within a stand including large living and dead stems as well as mixtures of ground cover, understorey and overstorey plants, (2) the vertical heterogeneity created by multiple canopy layers, and, (3) large and small diameter logs. This definition makes it clear that logs are a key component of stand structure (Maser and Trappe 1984; Harmon *et al.* 1986; Sollins *et al.* 1987; Niemela *et al.* 1993; Recher 1996; Kaila *et al.* 1997; Lee *et al.* 1997; Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999a).

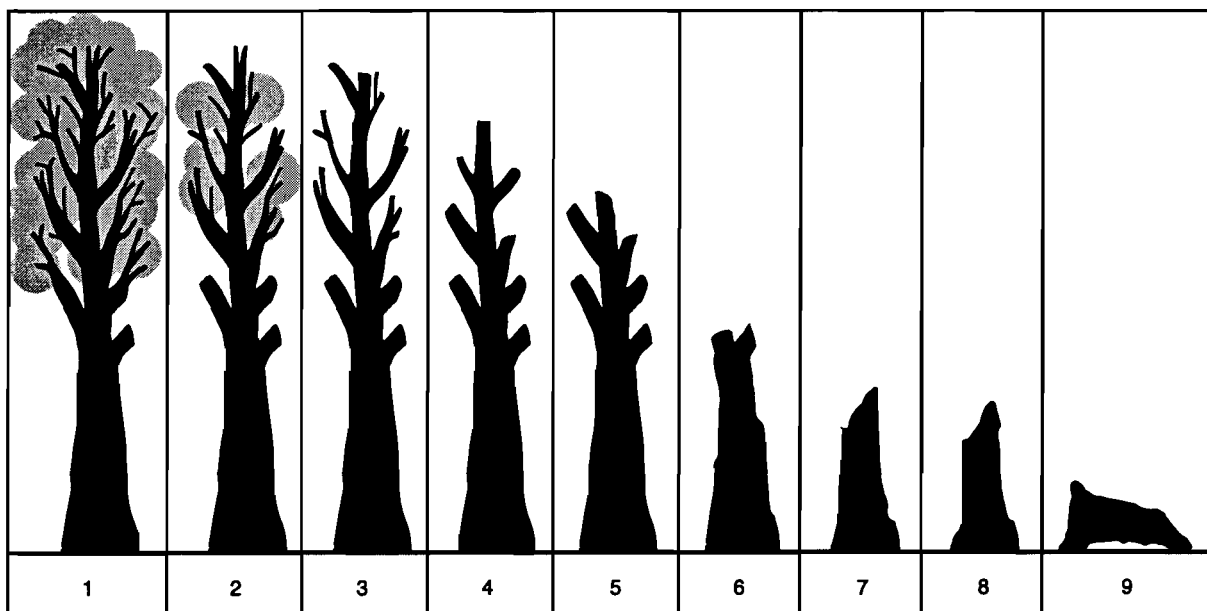


Fig. 1. Decay stages in hollow-bearing Mountain Ash trees in the Central Highlands of Victoria. Logs correspond to trees in decay state 9 (redrawn from Lindenmayer *et al.* 1997).

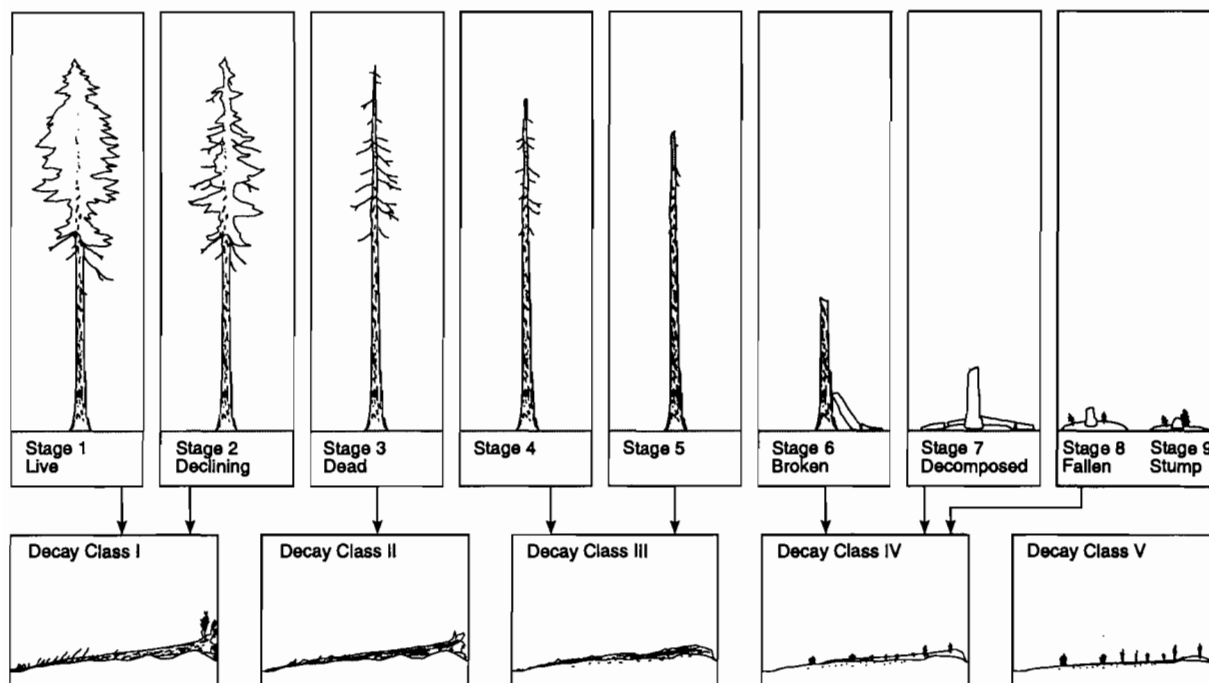


Fig. 2. Relationships between the stage of standing tree senescence and the associated decay status of logs in Douglas Fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) in northwestern North America (redrawn from Maser *et al.* 1988).

Stand structural complexity is important for two key reasons. First, it is well known that structurally complex forests allow the potential for greater inter-specific segregation of resources and microhabitats thereby enabling more species to occur locally (MacArthur *et al.* 1966; Rosenzweig 1995). Second, forests where stand structural complexity has been simplified through intensive management (e.g., Linder and Östlund 1998; Bunnell 1999; Bobiec 2002) have impaired value for biodiversity (Berg *et al.* 1994; Angelstam 1996; Lindenmayer and Franklin 2002). This is because many types of structural attributes can be essential nesting, sheltering and foraging sites for a wide range of species (see below). The loss of key elements of stand structural complexity like large diameter trees (Linder and Östlund 1998; Gibbons and Lindenmayer 2002), thickets of understorey plants (Ough and Murphy 1996) and logs (Smith *et al.* 1992) can: (1) eliminate organisms from logged areas that might otherwise persist there; (2) prolong the period that logged and regenerated stands are unsuitable habitat for species that have been displaced; (3) impair the dispersal of some animals through logged areas, and, (4) eliminate within-stand variation in habitat conditions required by some taxa.

“NATURAL” QUANTITIES OF LOGS IN FORESTS

There have been few investigations of log volumes in Australian forests. A recent study showed that log volumes were large in Mountain

Ash forests — approximately 350 m³/ha averaged across all age classes, with some old growth stands having volumes in excess of 1 100 m³/ha (Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999a). Meggs (1996) calculated mean levels of decaying wood in young (5 and 20 year old) Messmate *E. obliqua* forests in Tasmania and also found large volumes of logs (174 to 455 m³/ha). In drier and less productive forests in southeastern New South Wales, Woldendorp (2000) found the measured biomass of logs in unharvested stands (primarily Brown Barrel *E. fastigata*) varied from 15 to 126 tonnes/ha. Robinson (1997) estimated mean values of logs in River Red Gum *E. camaldulensis* forest to be approximately 125 tonnes/ha.

Few studies in Australia have examined log accumulation rates (but see Robinson 1997). The rate of log decay also has been only rarely quantified and to date there have been just three studies — two from Western Australia (Brown *et al.* 1996; O’Connell 1997) and a third from southeastern Australia which included a major review of the topic (Mackensen and Bauhaus 1999). Log decomposition is significantly influenced by factors such as the presence of termites, log diameter (large logs persist longer than small ones), the position of a log in the landscape, and the durability of the tree species undergoing decay (reviewed by Mackensen and Bauhaus 1999). These influences can lead to markedly different results between studies, even those of the same tree species (compare Brown *et al.* 1996 and O’Connell 1997). Mackensen and

Bauhaus (1999) concluded that the turnover period for logs of most Australian hardwood species (i.e., the time by which 95% of material had been lost) would be at least 25–30 years, although turnover times exceeding 100 years could be expected for more durable species.

In addition to the paucity of data on log accumulation and decomposition, there is also limited information on differences in the volume and decay status of logs in managed and unmanaged forests. A recent study in north Queensland found that log volumes varied from approximately 20 m³/ha in regrowth tropical rainforest to almost 36 m³/ha in old growth tropical forest stands (Grove 2001a). The scarcity of logs in these tropical forests was attributed to rapid rates of decomposition (Grove 2001a). Lindenmayer *et al.* (1999a) found significantly larger logs in mature and old growth stands of Mountain Ash than in regrowth stands recovering after logging. However, they detected no significant age class effects on log volume. Lindenmayer *et al.* (1999a) attributed this to biological legacies (*sensu* Franklin *et al.* 2000) such as dead standing trees and logs that remained after previous disturbance events like logging, fires and wind storms in the 20 and 60 year-old regrowth forests they measured. Therefore, important considerations in age class comparisons of logs in environments, such as those in Mountain Ash where stand-replacing fires can occur, are the condition of a stand when it was previously disturbed and the quantity of biological legacies that remain following disturbance. Notably, under present proposals to increase the intensity of forestry practices (Leech 2001), many biological legacies such as standing dead trees and logs would be removed. This is likely to create significant differences in log characteristics between managed and unmanaged forests and comparative studies of the impacts on stand structure are urgently required (see Discussion section below).

Existing knowledge gaps on log volume, accumulation and decomposition are problematic because they make it difficult: (1) to determine how long it may take to recover to pre-harvesting levels (or other defined levels), and, (2) to plan for ecologically sustainable forest management. These issues are examined further in the Discussion section following an assessment of the role of fallen timber in perpetuating essential ecological and physical processes.

LOGS AND BIODIVERSITY

Logs have many values for forest biodiversity including: (1) providing nesting and sheltering sites for biota, (2) providing foraging substrates for predators ranging from snakes to velvet

worms, (3) providing hibernation sites for biota, (4) providing basking sites for reptiles, (5) facilitating animal movement, (6) providing places for key social behaviours, (7) acting as plant germination sites, (8) providing substrates to promote the growth of fungi, (9) providing mesic refugia for an array of organisms during drought and/or fire, and (10) contributing to heterogeneity in the litter layer and patterns of ground cover. We elaborate on these roles in the following section. We have not differentiated between obligate and facultative log users because there is insufficient available data in Australia to meaningfully do so at present.

Nesting, sheltering and other habitat roles

Logs provide nesting and sheltering sites for many forest-dependent taxa. They provide habitat for numerous species of invertebrates including rich assemblages of detritivores and decay organisms (Taylor 1990; Barclay *et al.* 2000a). Some species of threatened or endangered invertebrates are dependent on logs (Meggs and Taylor 1999). For example, the Threatened Fauna Manual for Tasmania (Forestry Practices Board 1998) listed several threatened forest invertebrates strongly associated with rotting logs including: Broad-toothed Stag Beetle *Lissotes latidens*, Mt. Mangana Stag Beetle *Lissotes menalcas*, Stimson Stag Beetle *Hoplogonus stimsoni*, Northeast Forest Snail *Anoglypta launcestonensis*, Northwest Velvet Worm *Ooperipatellus cryptus*, Blind Velvet Worm *Tasmanipatus anophthalmus*, and Giant Velvet Worm *Tasmanipatus barretti*.

The importance of logs as nesting and sheltering sites has been well documented for many mammals including the Bush Rat *Rattus fuscipes* (Warneke 1971), carnivorous marsupials such as the Agile Antechinus *Antechinus agilis* and the Eastern Quoll *Dasyurus viverrinus* (Dickman 1991; Godsell 2000), the Numbat (Friend 1990), the Mountain Brushtail Possum *Trichosurus cunninghamii* (Owen and Thomson 1965; Davey 1989; Lindenmayer *et al.* 1990b), and the Echidna *Tachyglossus aculeatus* (Wilkinson *et al.* 1998; Rismiller 1999). Dickman (1991) presented information on a range of ground-dwelling and scansorial forest mammals that use logs for shelter. He showed that logs provide a large proportion of the shelter sites used by species such as the Echidna, the Dusky Antechinus *A. swainsonii*, and the Bush Rat. In many eucalypts, hollows in standing and living dead trees remain suitable for use even after a tree has collapsed (Settle and Croft 1982; Williams and Faunt 1997). Hollows in logs are used as sheltering sites by a wide range of other species such as the Numbat *Myrmecobius fasciatus* (Christensen 1975; Christensen *et al.* 1984; Friend 1990) and the Fawn Antechinus *A. bellus*

(Calaby 1995). A radio-tracking study of the Numbat by Christensen *et al.* (1984) showed that individual animals can use more than 20 different logs as nesting sites or places to shelter when alarmed or disturbed.

Review texts on birds (e.g., Schodde and Tiedemann 1986; Higgins *et al.* 2001) show that logs are habitat components for a range of forest-dwelling birds, although relatively few species use them for nesting (Beruldsen 1986). For example, logs provide roosting and perching sites for a range of ground-foraging species. Laven and Mac Nally (1998) demonstrated that the mean occurrence of a range of bird species was nine times higher in areas with logs than areas where such structural attributes were absent.

Logs provide sites for reptiles to shelter overnight and for them to lay their eggs (Rawlinson 1975; Brown and Nelson 1993; Shine 2001). They are also key winter hibernacula (see below). Many studies have documented strong relationships between logs and the occurrence of some species of reptiles (e.g., Goldingay *et al.* 1996; Hannah *et al.* 1998). Cogger (2000) provided a short description of the "habit" of each reptile species in Australia and logs are listed in these descriptions in a substantial subset of terrestrial taxa. Similar outcomes were obtained from examinations of other works on Australian reptiles (e.g., Wilson and Knowles 1988; Ehmann 1992). Given this information, Table 1 lists some of the reptile taxa from forests in southeastern Australia that are known to be associated with logs.

Foraging substrates

Logs are used for foraging by many invertebrate groups (Taylor 1990; New 1995) such as: the Onychophora (velvet worms) (Barclay *et al.* 2000a, 2000b), Chilopoda (centipedes) (Lewis 1981; Mesibov 1986), Isoptera (termites) (Fay and Calaby 1970; Perry *et al.* 1985), Blattodea [cockroaches] (Roth and Willis 1960), and Collembola [springtails] (Greenslade 1985 in Taylor 1990; Greenslade 1990). Logs provide primary habitat for particular stages of the life cycle of several invertebrate taxa; the larvae of lucanid beetles is a classic example.

Invertebrate assemblages that inhabit logs are food for vertebrates. A useful example is the Echidna — a species for which 50% or more foraging observations summarized by Dickman (1991) were from logs. Smith *et al.* (1989) also recorded a large proportion of diggings made by the Echidna from the base of logs. Another example is the Numbat which consumes termites that live in and around rotting logs (Christensen *et al.* 1984). Braithwaite (1979) believed that logs were primary habitat for the invertebrate prey

of the Brown Antechinus. Other studies of *Antechinus* spp. in tropical forests of northern Queensland showed that animals can spend substantial periods foraging on small and large diameter logs (Watt 1991). This may account for the strong relationships that have been observed between the occurrence of *Antechinus* spp. and log abundance (Dickman 1980; Statham and Harden 1982; see below).

Logs indirectly provide food resources for mycophagous (fungus-feeding) mammals. They serve as places where hypogeous (underground-fruited) mycorrhizal fungi develop (see below) and become an important source of food for animals like the Bush Rat, the Southern Brown Bandicoot *Isodon obesulus*, and the Mountain Brushtail Possum *Trichosurus cunninghamii* (sp. nov) (Claridge and Lindenmayer 1993) and the Mountain Brushtail Possum (Claridge and May 1994; Claridge and Lindenmayer 1998).

Logs are used for foraging by a range of Australian forest birds (reviewed in Schodde and Tiedemann 1986; Higgins *et al.* 2001). A small set of the many possible examples is given below. The diet of the Lyrebird *Menura novaehollandiae* includes a wide range of prey which appear to be strongly associated with logs and deep litter (Lill 1996). Similarly, ground-foraging taxa like the Eastern Whipbird *Psophodes olivaceus* forage around logs and turn over ground litter as part of searching for food (A. Gilmore, unpubl. data). The near-threatened Brown Treecreeper *Climacteris picumnus* forages predominantly on and near the ground and makes extensive use of standing dead timber and logs (Noske 1982; Walters *et al.* 1999). Particular forest types often support a large number of bird species that forage extensively around logs. For example, Laven and Mac Nally (1998) and Mac Nally *et al.* (2001) identified a range of bird taxa strongly associated with logs for foraging or cover in box-ironbark and River Red Gum forests of northern Victoria. These included: robins *Petroica* spp., Eastern Yellow Robin *Eopsaltria australis*, thornbills *Acanthiza* spp, White-throated Treecreeper *Cormobates leucophaeus* and other species of treecreepers *Climacteris* spp.

Basking and hibernation sites for reptiles

Logs are basking sites for many species of reptiles (Heatwole and Taylor 1987). Webb (1985) showed that several species of forest skinks used logs as elevated perches for basking during early morning and late afternoon. The importance of logs for some heliothermic lizards is reflected in the relative number of observations on such substrates. For example, in the forests of southeastern Australia, more than half of the observations of the following five

Table 1. Examples of reptiles in southeastern Australian forests (distributed between Sydney and Tasmania) that utilize microhabitats such as logs.

Family	Species	Basking/foraging	Sheltering/Over-wintering	Reference
Gekkonidae	<i>Christinus marmoratus</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Diplodactylus vittatus</i>		x	1,3
Pygopodidae	<i>Delma inornata</i>	x	x	1,3
	<i>Pygopus lepidopodus</i>		x	1
Agamidae	<i>Amphibolurus muricatus</i>	x		2
	<i>Physignathus lesuerii howitti</i>	x		1
	<i>Pogona barbata</i>	x	x	1,3
	<i>Tympanocryptis diemensis</i>	x		2
Varanidae	<i>Varanus rosenbergi</i>	x	x	1
	<i>V. varius</i>	x	x	1
Scincidae	<i>Bassiana duperreyi</i>	x		2
	<i>B. platynota</i>	x		3
	<i>Carlia tetradactyla</i>		x	3
	<i>Cryptoblepharus carnabyi</i>	x	x	1,3
	<i>C. virgatus</i>	x	x	1
	<i>Cyclodomorphus praealtus</i>		x	1
	<i>C. casuarinae</i>		x	1,2
	<i>E. striolata</i>	x	x	1,3
	<i>E. whiteii whiteii</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Eulamprus heatwolei</i>	x		3
	<i>E. kosciuskoi</i>	x	x	1
	<i>E. quoyii</i>		x	1
	<i>E. tympanum</i>	x	x	1,3
	<i>E. tenuis</i>	x	x	1,2
	<i>Hemiergus decreasiensis</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Lerista bougainvilli</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Menetia greyii</i>		x	3
	<i>Morethia boulengeri</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Nannoscincus maccoyi</i>		x	1,3
	<i>Niveoscincus coventryi</i>	x	x	1
	<i>Niveoscincus metallica</i>		x	3
	<i>Pseudomoia entrecateauxii</i>	x		1,2
	<i>P. spenceri</i>	x	x	1
	<i>Saiphos equalis</i>		x	1
	<i>Saproscincus mustelinus</i>		x	2
	<i>Tiliqua scincoides</i>		x	1,3
	<i>T. nigrolutea</i>		x	1
<i>Trachydosaurus rugosa</i>		x	1,3	
Typhlopidae	<i>Ramphotyphlops nigrescens</i>		x	1,2
Boidae	<i>Morelia spilota</i>	x	x	1
Colubridae	<i>Dendrolaphis punctulata</i>	x	x	1
	<i>Boiga irregularis</i>	x	x	1
Elapidae	<i>Austrelaps ramsayi</i>		x	3,4
	<i>A. superbus</i>		x	3
	<i>Cacophis squamulosus</i>		x	1
	<i>Drysdalia coronoides</i>		x	4
	<i>D. rhodogaster</i>		x	4
	<i>Hemiapsis damelii</i>		x	4
	<i>Hoplocephalus bitorquatus</i>	x	x	1,4
	<i>H. stephensii</i>	x	x	1,4
	<i>Notechis scutatus</i>	x	x	3
	<i>Pseudechis porphyriacus</i>		x	3
	<i>Pseudonaja textilis</i>		x	1
	<i>Rhinoplocephalus nigrescens</i>		x	1
	<i>Suta flagellum</i>		x	4
	<i>Suta dwyeri</i>		x	4
<i>Vermicella annulata</i>		x	4	

References 1 = Cogger (2000), 2 = Swan (1990), 3 = Michael (unpubl. data), 4 = Weigel (1990).

species of skinks were recorded on logs:- (1) Southern Water Skink *Eulamprus heatwolei* [88%], (2) Carnaby's Wall Skink *Cryptoblepharus carnabyi* [87.5%], (3) Tree Skink *Egernia striolata* [80%], (4) Spencer's Skink *Pseudemoia spenceri* [78%], and (5) Highland Water Skink *Eulamprus tympanum* [60%] (Webb 1985; Brown and Nicholls 1994; Kutt 1994).

Aggregations of some species over-winter or hibernate deep inside rotting logs. Examples include the Three-toed Skink *Hemiergus decresiensis*, McCoy's Skink *Nannoscincus maccoyi*, and Coventry's Skink *Niveoscincus coventryi* (Robertson 1981; Webb 1985; Bennett 1997).

Animal movement

Logs assist the movement of many species. MacEachern (2001) showed how the spatial arrangement of rotting logs strongly influenced the movement of the wood-dwelling native cockroach *Pariesthia australis*. Barclay *et al.* (2000b) suggested that an increased number, length and volume of logs assisted dispersing velvet worms in finding suitable habitat. The runways of many species of terrestrial animals are often along or directly adjacent to logs (e.g., several species of rodents; see Watts and Aslin 1981; Halstead-Smith 1999). Populations of small mammals use windrows of eucalypt logs within otherwise unsuitable areas of exotic softwood Radiata Pine *Pinus radiata* plantations (Friend 1982; Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999b). Curry (1991) found that windrows of eucalypt logs were used as movement conduits by birds in softwood plantations. The Mountain Brushtail Possum uses large logs as movement pathways and is often captured in traps placed on them (Seebeck *et al.* 1984; Lindenmayer *et al.* 1998).

Social behaviour

Logs can be important in the social behaviour of many forest-dependent species. The Common Wombat *Vombatus ursinus* and the Mountain Brushtail Possum deposit scats in prominent places such as logs to signal territory boundaries (Triggs 1997). Braithwaite (1979) found that areas which supported few logs were occupied by subordinate male Brown Antechinus *Antechinus stuartii*. Skinks may aggressively exclude conspecifics from logs used for shelter, basking or foraging (Stamps 1977). Tasmania's Alpine Skink *Niveoscincus microlepidotus* and *Egernia striolata* are two examples (Melville and Swain 1999). Logs are important in the social behaviour of invertebrates. For example, they are sites where male velvet worms release pheromones to attract females thereby helping potential mates to successfully colonize logs (Barclay *et al.* 2000a).

Germination sites for plants

Logs are nursery sites for some species of plants and provide places for the germination and subsequent growth of ferns, mosses and liverworts (Ashton 1986). As an example, logs are listed as a key substrate for the occurrence of more than ten species of mosses and 20 species of liverworts in Tasmanian forests alone (Jarman and Fuhrer 1995). Tasmanian studies have demonstrated the importance of logs in promoting the regeneration of forest trees (Read and Hill 1983; Cullen 1987). McKenny and Kirkpatrick (1999) showed that the seedlings of many tree species were significantly more abundant on logs than adjacent soil. Moss cover also was considerably greater on logs. For example, the rainforest tree Celery Top Pine *Phyllocladus aspeniifolius* preferentially establishes on logs. As logs rot, the expanding root system of seedlings growing on them penetrates the decomposing mulch and extends into the topsoil (Barker and Kirkpatrick 1994). Myrtle Beech *Nothofagus cunninghamii* trees in Victorian forests are believed to undergo similar patterns of germination and early growth with the moisture in rotting logs facilitating access to water for growing seedlings (Howard 1973). Detailed vegetation surveys in Victorian Mountain Ash forests (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2000) found that a range of understorey plant species such as Dogwood *Cassinia aculeata*, Musk Daisy Bush *Olearia argophylla* and Mountain Pepper *Tasmannia lanceolata* germinated on rotting logs.

Clusters of logs can have a protective role for plants sensitive to grazing and browsing by herbivores through limiting physical access by grazing animals such as wallabies (Kirkpatrick 1997). Similarly, they also provide protection to young seedlings and limit damage from bioturbation by mammals and birds (e.g., the Superb Lyrebird) (McKenny and Kirkpatrick 1999).

Substrates to promote the growth of fungi

Logs in various stages of decay are key microhabitats for many species of fungi. For example, Pearce and Malajcuk (1990) recorded more than 80 species of fungi on residual wood in Karri (*Eucalyptus diversicolor*) forests in Western Australia. The habitat value of logs has been particularly well documented for fungi that form macroscopic fruit-bodies (see Maser and Trappe 1984 for a review in a North American context). cursory examination of Australian mycological field guides reveals that many fungal species fruit only in close association with logs (Table 2). The majority of these fungi form epigeous or above-ground fruit-bodies, and are saprotrophic; i.e., they derive many of their nutrients and energy by utilizing decaying wood.

Table 2. Examples of Australian macrofungi known to utilize logs as primary micro-habitat.

Order	Family	Species	Habit	Nutritional Mode	Reference
Ascomycetes	Leotiaceae	<i>Chlorocibaria aeruginascens</i>	E	SAP	1
	Otidaceae	<i>Scutellinia</i> aff. <i>margartiaecae</i>	E	SAP	1
	Pezizaceae	<i>Peziza scutellela</i>	E	SAP	2
Basidiomycetes	Xylariaceae	<i>Daldinia concentrica</i>	E	SAP	1
	Agaricaceae	<i>Clitocybula</i> aff. <i>cyathiformis</i>	E	SAP	2
	Clavicorniaceae	<i>Clavicornia piperata</i>	E	SAP	1
		<i>C. pyxidata</i>	E	SAP	2
	Coniophoraceae	<i>Podosepula australis</i>	E	SAP/PAR	1
	Coprinaceae	<i>Coprinus</i> sp.	E	SAP	1
		<i>Coprinus disseminatus</i>	E	SAP	2
	Coriolaceae	<i>Pycnoporus coccineus</i>	E	SAP	1
		<i>Piptoporus australiensis</i>	E	SAP/PAR	1, 2
		<i>Trametes cinnabarina</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>T. lilacino-gilua</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Trametes versicolor</i>	E	SAP	1, 2
	Cortinariaceae	<i>Cortinarius</i> aff. <i>sanguineus</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Descolea maculata</i>	E	MYC	1
		<i>Gymnopilus austrosapineus</i>	E	SAP	1
		<i>G. penetrans</i>	E	SAP	2
	Hygrophoraceae	<i>G. purpurata</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Hygrophorus minutulus</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Galerina unicolor</i>	E	SAP	1
	Lentinaceae	<i>Pleurotus nidiformis</i>	E	SAP	2
	Lycoperdeaceae	<i>Lycoperdon pyriforme</i>	H	SAP	2
	Pluteaceae	<i>Pluteus atromarginatus</i>	E	SAP	1
		<i>P. cervinus</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Volvaria</i> aff. <i>taylori</i>	E	SAP	2
	Stereaceae	<i>Stereum hirsutum</i>	E	SAP	1, 2
		<i>S. illudens</i>	E	SAP	2
	Strobilomycetaceae	<i>Fistulina hepatica</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Fistulinella mollis</i>	E	SAP	1
	Strophariaceae	<i>Hypholoma australe</i>	E	SAP	1
		<i>H. fasciculare</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>H. radicosum</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>H. sub-lateritium</i>	E	SAP	2
		<i>Pholiota multicingulata</i>	E	SAP	1
<i>P. aff. squarrioripes</i>		E	SAP	2	
<i>Tubaria rufofulva</i>		E	SAP	1	
<i>Tremella aurantia</i>		E	PAR	1	
<i>T. mesenterica</i>		E	PAR	1	
<i>Tremellodon gelatinosporum</i>		E	PAR (?)	2	
Tricholomataceae	<i>Anthracoephyllum archeri</i>	E	SAP	1	
	<i>Armillaria asprata</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>A. hinnulea</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>Collybia fuscipes</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>C. velutipes</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>Marasmius</i> aff. <i>cinnamomeus</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>Mycena subgalericulata</i>	E	SAP	1,2	
	<i>Ompholima chromacea</i>	E	SYM	1	
	<i>Omphalotus nidiformis</i>	E	SAP	1	
	<i>Panellus ligulatus</i>	E	SAP	1	
	<i>Tricholoma rutilans</i>	E	SAP	2	
	<i>Tricholomopsis rutilans</i>	E	SAP	1	
	Xeromaceae	<i>Boletus ananiceps</i>	E	SAP	1, 2
Xylariaceae	<i>Xylaria polymorpha</i>	E	SAP	2	

Key: Reference; 1 = Bougher and Syme (1998), 2 = Young (1986). Habit; E = Epigeous (above-ground fruit-bodies), H = hypogeous (underground fruit-bodies). Nutritional mode; MYC = Mycorrhizal, SAP = Saprotrophic, SYM = Symbiotic, PAR = Parasitic.

Logs are also microhabitat for a suite of hypogeous (underground-fruiting) fungi, most of which are presumed to be mycorrhizal and are food for many terrestrial mammals (Claridge and Lindenmayer 1993, 1998; Claridge and May 1994). The relationship between these latter groups of fungi and logs is particularly well documented for species in the Pacific Northwest of the United States of America (e.g., Amaranthus *et al.* 1994). As studies of the

microhabitat requirements of Australian hypogeous fungi are in their infancy (Claridge *et al.* 2000a, 2000b), the relative value of logs in this country is an important area of future research.

Logs provide suitable substrate for fruit-body production of fungi for several reasons. Firstly, they retain moisture for longer periods than the surrounding soil, thereby protecting fruit-bodies from desiccation (Amaranthus *et al.* 1994). The

period of fruit-body production by species associating with logs can be longer than that for other fungal species growing elsewhere. Logs can concentrate mobilized nutrients as they move downslope across or through the soil profile (Maser and Trappe 1984). This is because fungi "scavenge" nutrients from the soil and combine them with energy and nutrients obtained from decomposing logs. In some temperate forest types (such as those in North America), the occurrence and relative abundance of fruit-bodies from hypogeous fungi is higher at sites with large logs than at sites without these features (see Waters *et al.* 1997). Thus, overall forest productivity may be influenced by these key structural attributes.

Mesic refugia

Logs, particularly those in the late stages of decay, often have a high moisture content (Yoneda 1986; Sollins *et al.* 1987). The moisture content of logs can be as high as 350% or more of dry weight (Yoneda 1986; Sollins *et al.* 1987). For example, in the Mountain Ash forests of Victoria, luxuriant moss mats develop on large logs (Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999a). Ashton (1986) estimated that the dense mats of the mosses *Wijkia* and *Lepidozia* can hold 960% and 990% respectively of their dry weight as water. Considering the enormous log volumes in Mountain Ash forests and that the average moss cover on logs is approximately 20% (Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999a), these moss mats may hold a substantial store of water. This may be valuable for a range of organisms for which moisture conditions are important such as those associated with decomposition components of food webs and nutrient cycles. For example, Brown *et al.* (1996) suggested that the high water content of logs enabled moisture-sensitive organisms to remain active for longer during dry periods. This is particularly relevant to taxa prone to desiccation such as velvet worms (Tait *et al.* 1990). Indeed, Scott and Rowell (1991) found that the water content of decomposing logs was a major determinant of habitat suitability for the velvet worm *Euperipatoides rowelli*.

Logs and heterogeneity in the litter layer

Logs can act as leaf litter "traps" and influence the movement of fine litter through the forest. Such accumulations of litter can be valuable habitats for some species. For example, Andrew *et al.* (2000) found that ant species richness was significantly higher in leaf litter adjacent to logs than in litter accumulations sampled away from logs.

Logs are a source of fuel for forest fires (Luke and McArthur 1978), and this can be important for some elements of biodiversity. Clusters of

logs lead to high localized levels of fuel and, in turn, high localized fire intensities. This can suppress the growth of plants such as grasses and benefit other plant taxa sensitive to competition from grasses (Kirkpatrick 1997). Conversely, large logs can act as micro fire-breaks, not only because of their diameter and length but also because of the moisture they contain and moisture levels in the adjacent litter (Andrew *et al.* 2000). The moisture content of logs may explain why they are often not completely consumed in a single fire event. The value of logs as micro-refugia has been demonstrated in several studies. Christensen (unpubl. data) in Christensen *et al.* (1981) recorded high numbers of skinks that survived under logs in areas burnt by wildfires of moderate to high intensity. Campbell and Tanton (1981) investigated the effects of low intensity fires on soil and litter invertebrates. They found that invertebrates could survive under logs despite the complete consumption of surrounding litter and attributed this to lower fire temperatures and higher moisture levels under logs.

LOGS IN AQUATIC ECOSYSTEMS AND ASSOCIATED RIPARIAN AREAS WITHIN FORESTS

Aquatic ecosystems such as streams and wetlands, as well as the vegetation associated with them (e.g., riparian and floodplain zones), are an integral part of forest ecosystems in all parts of the world (Naiman and Bilby 1998; Lindenmayer and Franklin 2002). A very large proportion of the biodiversity found in forest landscapes is associated with aquatic ecosystems (e.g., Recher *et al.* 1980; Mac Nally *et al.* 2001). Logs provide cover and breeding sites for fish and other aquatic organisms (Koehn 1993; Crook and Robertson 1999; Lovett and Price 1999) and are locations from which many species of frogs vocalize (Barker *et al.* 1995). The structure of aquatic ecosystems within forest landscapes is strongly influenced by the availability of large logs that influence hydrologic and geomorphic processes (Gippel 1995; Gippel *et al.* 1996) and which need to be delivered at appropriate intervals (Beschta and Platts 1986; Maser *et al.* 1988; Maser and Sedell 1994).

LOGS AND NUTRIENT CYCLING, CARBON BUDGETS AND BUFFERS FOR ECOSYSTEM FUNCTIONS

Logs are valuable long-term sources of energy and nutrients in forest and aquatic ecosystems (see Attiwill and Leeper 1987; reviewed by Harmon *et al.* 1986 in a North American context). For example, they can be valuable sites for nitrogen fixation for micro-organisms with

nutrients eventually finding their way into the soil (Sollins *et al.* 1987; Lamb 1991). Logs are also critical sites for carbon storage — a key ecosystem service (Harmon *et al.* 1990; Brown *et al.* 1997; Wayburn *et al.* 2000; Harmon 2001a; Martin *et al.* 2001). In forests in southeastern New South Wales, the amount of carbon stored in logs ranged from 15 tonnes/ha to 125 tonnes/ha (mean = 53 tonnes/ha) (Woldendorp 2000). In wetter and more productive Mountain Ash forests in Victoria, where extensive log volume measurements were made (Lindenmayer *et al.* 1999a), old growth stands of Mountain Ash forest were crudely estimated to support up to 350 tonnes of carbon/ha (assuming that logs were, on average, 60% decayed). While some of the carbon in logs is released into the atmosphere during the decay process, some of it is incorporated into the soil as long-lived soil carbon (B. Mackey, pers. comm.).

Logs provide a major nutrient store in forests that is released slowly through decomposition (Krankina *et al.* 1999). Swift (1977) noted there were two key consequences of the high lignin content of wood and consequent slow composition rates. First, it ensured a slow release of nutrients giving a buffering effect to nutrient cycles. Second, the humification of wood residues is thought to contribute disproportionately to the formation of soil organic matter. This has important consequences for the long term productivity of a site since organic matter influences soil structure, water holding capacity, and nutrient storage.

The information summarized above highlights the pivotal role of logs in nutrient cycles and carbon budgets and, in turn, the maintenance of the long-term productivity of forest ecosystems. This role needs to be balanced against the additional removal of nutrients (such as phosphorus) that will take place with the removal of more trees from forest stands (see Crane and Raison 1980) associated with the intensification of harvesting.

ATTRIBUTES OF LOGS AND THEIR ECOLOGICAL ROLES

The attributes of logs, particularly their size and decay status, can influence their ecological values. In Tasmanian Messmate forests, the endangered wood-decaying fungus *Pellinus wahlbergii* is strongly associated with large decayed logs (Zi-Qing Yuan, pers. comm.). The species is virtually absent from other, smaller and less decayed substrates. Pharo and Beattie (2002) found that species richness among bryophytes living on logs was positively related to the diameter and decay status. Logs in advanced states of decay had the richest bryophyte flora of any substrate in a study in Victorian Mountain Ash forests (Ashton 1986). Ashton (1986) made a detailed study of the bryophytic communities of Mountain Ash forests and found that mosses which form deep mats were best developed on logs within mature and old-growth stands. In another study in Victorian Mountain Ash forests, Lindenmayer *et al.* (1999a) found that moss cover was significantly greater on logs in mature and old stands than those in younger age classes.

The size and decay status of logs is known to be critical for some invertebrates. For example, suitable habitat for the Blind Velvet Worm is characterized by numerous logs that exceed 50 cm in diameter with a soft-rot centre (Mesibov and Ruhberg 1991). Studies of the velvet worm *E. rowelli* have demonstrated the importance of the water content, length and decay status of logs as key habitat attributes for the species (Scott and Rowell 1991; Barclay *et al.* 2000b; Fig. 3). Importantly, the work by Barclay *et al.* (2000b) demonstrated that logs did not become suitable habitat until more than 45 years of decay had occurred.

In contrast to the results obtained for several species of invertebrates, Dickman (1991) believed that some species of ground-dwelling mammals avoided damp and highly decayed rotting logs as shelter sites, possibly because they

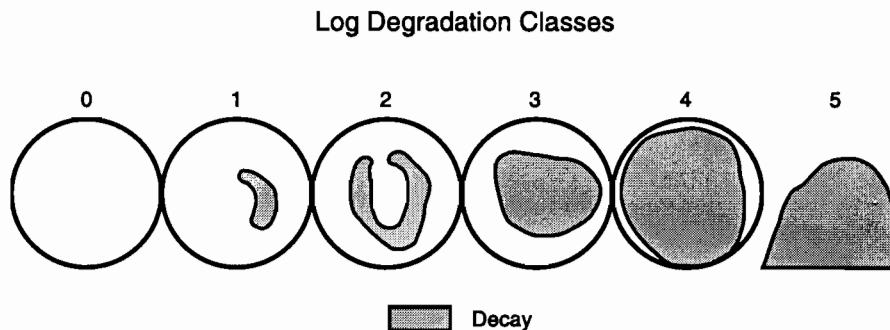


Fig. 3. Decay levels of logs (redrawn from Barclay *et al.* 2000b) and their habitat suitability for the velvet worm *Euperipatoides rowelli*. Logs in the final stages of decay were those most likely to be used by the species.

had poor insulative properties. Large, dry, recently fallen logs appeared to be favoured, particularly those containing cavities with small entrances that precluded potential predators (Dickman 1991). Differences between species in their requirements for logs in different decay states has significant implications for forest management — one of the key topics addressed in the following section.

DISCUSSION

Given the range of ecological roles of logs, it is not surprising that several studies have demonstrated strong habitat associations between log abundance and the occurrence of particular elements of the biota. The *Antechinus* group of small mammals is perhaps the best documented, with positive relationships quantified for the Agile *Antechinus Antechinus ogilis*, Brown *Antechinus*, Fawn *Antechinus* and Yellow-footed *Antechinus A. flavipes* (Barnett *et al.* 1978; Braithwaite 1979; Dickman 1980; Statham and Harden 1982; Friend and Taylor 1985; Mac Nally *et al.* 2001). Another set of well studied examples comes from seminal work on log-animal habitat relationships identified for various species of velvet worms (e.g., Mesibov and Ruhberg 1991; Scott and Rowell 1991; Barclay *et al.* 2000b). However, the cases of the various *Antechinus* spp. and velvet worms are somewhat unusual and most of the ecological roles of logs in Australian forests have received limited study and the majority of relationships are anecdotal without rigorous quantification. Nevertheless, the overview presented above indicates that logs can have many important ecological roles (Lindenmayer and Franklin 1997, 2002).

The impacts of harvesting practices on logs and the potential for stand simplification

The Regional Forest Agreement process in Australia attempted to deliver a land allocation outcome for resolving conflicts over the management and conservation of the nation's native forests. That is, some areas have been gazetted as reserves and the remainder broadly designated for wood and paper production. One problem associated with such a land allocation outcome has been the intensification of harvesting in production forests — a move considered appropriate by some workers (see papers in Connell *et al.* 1997) because of the belief that conservation requirements will be dealt with adequately in the reserve system. However, the importance of off-reserve forests for biodiversity conservation is well known (Recher 1996; Hale and Lamb 1997; Lindenmayer and Franklin 1999) and a shift toward the intensification of harvesting outside the reserve

system is likely to have negative impacts on a range of ecological values (Lindenmayer and Franklin 2002). While conservation strategies within wood production forests like the reservation of patches of old growth forest and the establishment of wildlife corridors are undoubtedly important, it is critical to ensure that stand-level approaches to biodiversity conservation are also implemented (reviewed by Lindenmayer and Franklin 2002). Failure to take account of the need for the maintenance and long-term recruitment of logs in native forests subject to recurrent harvesting will ultimately lead to the simplification of stand structure — with a range of potentially negative outcomes. Indeed, stand simplification has been recognized as a major problem for the conservation of biodiversity and the maintenance of ecological processes in managed forests all over the world (Franklin *et al.* 1997; Linder and Ostlund 1998), and in some places such as Germany for more than 100 years (Gayer 1886). Stand simplification effects will be most prominent in logging coupes subject to recurrent harvesting (i.e., cutting over several rotations) (Meggs 1997). For example, Barclay *et al.* (2000b) forecast negative impacts on the abundance of decayed logs and associated biodiversity (e.g., velvet worms) resulting from the transition from past selective harvesting to more intensive cutting regimes that integrate both sawlog removal and woodchipping in the forests of southeastern New South Wales.

A key problem for biodiversity conservation in parts of wood production forests subject to recurrent intensive harvesting is that many taxa rely on old large diameter logs in a highly decayed state (including those that contain cavities) (see Williams and Faunt 1997; Barclay *et al.* 2000b). Such types of logs can take a prolonged period to develop and failure to make adequate provision for their perpetual supply in logging coupes may have significant negative impacts on the taxa known to be directly or indirectly dependent on them (Recher 1996). For example, Lunney *et al.* (1991) predicted a decline of the skink *Eulamprus heatwolei* in Mumbulla State Forest in south-eastern Australia, due to the decline of large logs — an essential habitat component for the species. Suitably large logs were not projected to be produced by the size classes of trees present during the 40 year commercial rotation age in this area.

Large-diameter living and dead standing trees are important sources of stems that are eventually recruited to the forest floor as logs (Harmon *et al.* 1986). However, the frequency and intensity of repeated harvesting events in wood production forests will limit the

development of large diameter standing trees (Gibbons and Lindenmayer 2002) and Smith *et al.* (1992) predicted that:-

"The resource most susceptible to long term reduction [in wood production forests] is large log cover, which results from the natural collapse and decay of old growth stems. This problem is likely to be most severe in high quality hardwood forests where harvesting intensity is high and only a small portion of forest stems are able to senesce naturally."

Notably, in studies of production forests in western North America, Spies *et al.* (1988) concluded that large logs were the structural elements slowest to recover following human disturbance. The retention of trees at the time of harvesting may partially alleviate this problem. Indeed, Grove (2002) noted that tree retention in Australian production forests was essential to avoid repeating the extinctions of many dead-wood dependent invertebrates that had occurred in the Northern Hemisphere. However, the limited current rate of tree retention in many areas of the Australian wood production estate (Gibbons and Lindenmayer 1997, 2002) means that existing retained trees are likely to contribute only a small fraction of the stems that would be recruited to the forest floor in unharvested forests. This indicates a need to increase the number of retained trees on logged sites. Mortality among a subset of the retained trees before they attain large sizes further increases the number of stems on logged sites need to be exempt from cutting (Ball *et al.* 1999). In addition, some stems will need to grow through and remain standing over several cutting events and/or rotations to ensure the dimensions of logs are the size required by particular elements of the biota. Assessments of the long-term requirements for the numbers and types of logs in different states of decay needed within harvested areas might be facilitated by the use of modelling tools such as those used for such purposes in North America (Sturvenant *et al.* 1979). Such approaches have been applied in modelling the dynamics of trees with hollows in wood production forests (e.g., Ball *et al.* 1999; Gibbons 1999) and they could be adapted to simulate log resources in these same forests.

Careful ecological consideration needs to be given to the numbers of retained logs required to maintain key elements of biodiversity. This is because relationships between the occurrence of fauna and log abundance may not be linear. For example, Mac Nally *et al.* (2002) found that when log volumes exceeded 40–45 tonnes/ha, population densities of the Brown Treecreeper increased significantly. The Yellow-footed Antechinus also appeared to respond positively to similar log volumes in the same ecosystem (Mac Nally *et al.* 2002).

Another key consideration for the maintenance of logs in managed forests is the difference in habitat preferences between different groups (e.g., small mammals versus invertebrates; see above). This highlights the need to maintain logs in different size classes and states of decay within managed forests — a requirement that also has significant implications for the overall number of trees that need to be retained and the time over which new trees need to be recruited to the forest floor. Hence, changes to the abundance of large standing trees resulting from logging operations (Gibbons and Lindenmayer 2002) and, in turn, the abundance of logs, are potentially important changes to stand structural complexity, particularly after several rotations (Meggs 1997). However, in comparison with forests elsewhere in the world, there have been remarkably few studies of logs in Australian temperate forest ecosystems. In view of this major knowledge gap, we suggest there is an urgent need to compare the abundance and characteristics of logs in managed and unmanaged eucalypt forests (see Meggs 1996) and to determine whether such differences have implications for the conservation of biodiversity. Such research is critical given that the intensification of forestry represents essentially new forms of harvesting in Australia of which the impacts are poorly understood.

Potential impacts of forestry operations on other factors

In addition to the retention of adequate numbers of standing trees to promote log recruitment, the potential impacts of other forestry practices need to be taken into account. Three major ones are (1) the impacts of mechanical damage created by harvesting machinery on logs and on soil conditions during harvesting, (2) the impacts on logs of high-intensity regeneration fires used to promote the regeneration of harvested sites, and, (3) the impacts of recurrent prescribed burning on logs and fauna and flora associated with such habitats.

Logs may be broken up by harvesting machinery. Such damage may be important because of the time required for logs to decay to stages where they are suitable habitat for particular species (e.g., some types of velvet worms; see Barclay *et al.* 2000b) and thus the need to ensure that some logs persist through several rotations on logged sites — the concept of ecological continuity discussed below. The potential for damage to log resources is real given the known impacts on other entities such as soil conditions through compaction by harvesting machinery (e.g., Rab 1998). Indeed, the harvesting of residual trees and "waste wood" is likely to result in greater soil compaction and disturbance than sawlog-only

cutting — impacts from which forest ecosystems may take up to 100 years to recover (Rab 1992). The effects of high-intensity regeneration burns on log and associated species are also poorly understood (Taylor 1990). However, a number of species of log-dependent invertebrates are thought to take a prolonged period to recolonize sites subject to high intensity regeneration fires (Forestry Practices Board 1998).

The impacts of prescribed burning on elements of forest structure such as logs is a controversial area of forest management and the results of the array of studies completed to date are equivocal (reviewed by Williams and Gill 1995; Gill *et al.* 1999). King (1985) studied litter invertebrates and their small mammal predators. He found log cover was reduced by prescribed burning and concluded there could be a cumulative impact whereby these structural components of forests could become limiting for some species. Similarly, State Forests of NSW (1996) noted the accelerated decay of large logs as one of the impacts of frequent low intensity prescribed fires. Smith *et al.* (1992) found that many vertebrate taxa were negatively associated with frequently burned forests and logs were among the important habitat attributes reduced under this management regime. In one of the longest running studies completed to date, York (1996 in Gill *et al.* 1999) showed how log attributes changed with prescribed burning such as the extent of charring and desiccation of the outer log surface. There also was a large shift in the composition of invertebrate communities with a trend toward species more tolerant of drier and more open forest environments. Hannah *et al.* (1998) also found that log were less common in forests subject to recurrent prescribed burning and they speculated about the negative impacts of such changes on groups closely associated with such structure such as reptiles.

The three aspects of forest management outlined above clearly require consideration as part of the development of harvesting prescriptions. The impacts of the first two, in particular, must also be key topics for future research in production forests.

Prescriptions to better manage logs in wood production forests

Few forest management agencies in Australia have detailed prescriptions to guide the retention of logs and their long-term recruitment within harvested areas. This is despite the fact that: (1) some organisations are aware that recurrent timber harvesting will reduce log numbers in managed stands (State Forests of NSW 1995), (2) the loss of large hollow logs is listed as a key process threatening species like the Spotted-tailed Quoll *Dasyurus maculatus* in

states such as New South Wales (New South Wales National Parks and Wildlife Service 1999), and, (3) the need for the management of logs is recognized in the Draft Australian Forestry Standard (Australian Forestry Standard Steering Committee and Technical reference Committee 2001). The current limited range of prescriptions is a major deficiency given the array of critical ecological roles played by logs and the known relationships between elements of biodiversity and log attributes (e.g., Hannah *et al.* 1998; Barclay *et al.* 2000b). In Tasmania, the Forestry Practices Board (1998) has made recommendations for the management of logs for a range of threatened invertebrates. These include: (1) setting aside Wildlife Priority Areas (Taylor 1991), (2) the retention of rotting logs (particularly within wildlife habitat tree clumps) within harvested sites, (3) the exclusion of high-intensity regeneration burns in nominated areas, and, (4) limitations on the conversion of native forest to plantations in areas supporting suitable habitat for particular taxa. One of the terms of licensing for timber harvesting in southern New South Wales where is that firewood harvesting must not occur in harvested compartments where threatened log-using species such as the Spotted-tailed Quoll and the Bush Stone-Curlew *Burhinus grallarius* have been recorded (Resource and Conservation Assessment Council 2002). In the Jarrah forests of south-west Western Australia, current prescriptions are for the retention of one hollow log or stump per hectare even if it shows no obvious signs of animal use, as well as all logs longer than three metres and a hollow pipe more than 10 cm in diameter (Department of Conservation and Land Management 1995).

In contrast to the general lack of prescriptions for the management of logs in Australian forests, there are many overseas examples where their values are taken into account as part of on-site harvesting prescriptions (e.g., Brown 1985; Forest Ecosystem Assessment Management Team 1993). For example, a study in the United States of America by Graham *et al.* (1994) discussed the quantities of logs needed to be retained per hectare of logged forest to maintain forest productivity. In the Pacific Northwest of the United States of America, Harmon (2001b) noted that forest managers are moving away from the extensive removal of “woody debris” and adopting prescriptions to maintain and even increase it in managed stands. In Scandinavia log retention within harvested forests is known to facilitate the persistence of diverse groups of fungi that might otherwise be lost from timber-production landscapes (Niemelä *et al.* 1995; Sverdrup-Tygeson and Lindenmayer 2002). Logs left in these environments are also used by saproxylic beetles (Niemelä *et al.* 1993, 1995;

Kaila *et al.* 1997). In parts of northwestern North America, retaining selected structures as part of a harvesting operation can provide the resources required by non-autotrophic organisms such as mycorrhizal fungi that inoculate the remainder of the harvested area and facilitate stand regeneration (Perry 1994; Simard *et al.* 1997).

Prescriptions to maintain spatial and temporal continuity in the availability of logs

In addition to the quantity and decay status of logs that need to be retained in harvested forests, it also will be important to examine spatial patterns of logs. This is because of the importance of logs for animal movement (including dispersal) (see above) and, in turn, the potential to fragment populations of species by disrupting the natural spatial continuity (MacEachern 2001). The long-term availability or temporal continuity of logs is also a significant issue and one that warrants consideration in formulating prescriptions. Continuity in the availability of logs could be critical for the persistence of taxa with limited mobility and which are slow to recolonize harvested areas. Indeed, this issue has been well recognized in Scandinavian forests where the concept of temporal continuity of logs (termed ecological continuity) has been developed (Angelstam and Pettersson 1997). Ecological continuity has been defined as:-

“an ecological attribute that is maintained within an area over time” [Gundersen and Rolstad 1998].

In Nordic countries, the continuous availability of logs is believed to have strongly influenced the occurrence of an array of red-listed invertebrates and fungi associated with wood-decaying habitats (e.g., Høiland 1996; Økland 1996; Lindblad 1998; Svendrup-Thyesson 2001), Provision for the continuous presence of large rotting logs in managed stands is now recognized as a critical part of ecologically sustainable forest management in those nations. Logging practices in many parts of Australia need to follow the lead of other countries and make provision for spatial and temporal continuity in the provision of logs in managed forests.

CONCLUSIONS

Proponents of the intensification of harvesting practices and large scale industrial forestry projects in Australian native forests (e.g., Connell *et al.* 1999; Leech 2001) have often overlooked some of the fundamental structural attributes and ecological processes that are essential to the functioning of forest ecosystems. Advocates of these projects argue that removing “residual wood” is “cleaning up the forest” and “value-adding” (Leech 2001). However, from a

forest ecology perspective, efforts to remove large quantities of defective stems and logs will be “value-subtracting” for some elements of the biota and some key ecological processes. Notably, a major recent review on maintaining the habitat value of managed forests emphasized the importance for biodiversity of leaving so-called logging “waste” in the forest rather than removing or burning it (Grove 2001b). This recommendation is entirely congruent with recent empirical studies which have demonstrated the value of leaving timber to rot on the forest floor (Bonham *et al.* 2002).

Perhaps part of the problem lies with a lack of understanding of the importance of key structural features of natural forests such as logs. In future, forest ecologists may be better to adopt new terminology that better encapsulates the roles of logs and defective stems. Terms such as rotting logs, coarse woody debris and waste wood might be replaced by log habitat, nursery logs, foraging and moisture oases, and nutrient cycling buffers. While it is unlikely that such terminology will be widely adopted, in the face of activities like the proposed intensification of harvesting, it will be critical for forest ecologists to better communicate:- (1) the importance of key structural attributes for forest biodiversity and ecosystem function, and (2) that converting native forests outside the reserve system to “de facto plantations” is bad conservation biology and poor natural resource management.

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