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Frequent wildfires erode tree persistence and alter stand structure and initial composition of a fire-tolerant sub-alpine forest

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11 **Title: Frequent wildfires erode tree persistence and alter stand structure and initial**  
12 **composition of a fire-tolerant sub-alpine forest**

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24 **Abstract**

25 *Question*

26 Frequent severe wildfires have the potential to alter the structure and composition of forests  
27 in temperate biomes. While temperate forests dominated by resprouting trees are thought to  
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28 be largely invulnerable to more frequent wildfires, empirical data to support this assumption  
29 is lacking. Does frequent fire erode tree persistence by increasing mortality and reducing  
30 regeneration, and what are the broader impacts on forest structure and understorey  
31 composition?

### 32 *Location*

33 Sub-alpine open *Eucalyptus pauciflora* ('snow gum') forests, Australian Alps, Victoria,  
34 Australia.

### 35 *Methods*

36 We examined tree persistence and understorey composition of *E. pauciflora* open forests that  
37 were unburned, burned once, twice or three times by high-severity wildfires between 2003  
38 and 2013. At each of 20 sites (5 per fire frequency class) we assessed extent of top-kill and  
39 mortality of eucalypt clumps, spatial configuration of surviving and dead clumps, densities of  
40 new and lignotuberous eucalypt seedlings, and shrub and grass cover.

### 41 *Results*

42 At least two years after the last wildfire, proportions of top-killed *E. pauciflora* stems were  
43 significantly greater, and densities of live basal resprouts significantly lower, at sites burned  
44 two or three times compared to once burned or unburned sites. Clump death increased to 50%  
45 of individuals at sites burned by three short-interval wildfires, which led to changes in live  
46 tree patchiness as indicated by nearest-neighbour indices. Increased tree mortality was not  
47 offset by seedling recruitment, which was significantly lower at the twice and thrice-burned  
48 sites relative to single-burn sites – although seedling recruitment was also influenced by  
49 topography and coarse woody debris. In addition to changes in the tree-layer, the prominence  
50 of understorey shrubs was substantially reduced, and the frequency of grasses markedly  
51 increased, after two, and particularly three wildfires.

### 52 *Conclusions*

53 Our study provides strong empirical evidence of ecologically significant change in *E.*  
54 *pauciflora* forests after short-interval severe wildfires, namely, erosion of the persistence  
55 niche of resprouting trees, and a shift in understorey dominance from shrubs to grasses. Our  
56 findings highlight the need to consider the impacts of compounded perturbation on forests  
57 under changing climates, including testing assumptions of long-term persistence of  
58 resprouter-dominated communities.

59 **Keywords:** alternative stable states; compounded disturbances; cumulative impacts;  
60 eucalypt; *Eucalyptus pauciflora*; fire regimes; fire frequency; forest degradation; sub-alpine  
61 forest; temperate forest; wildfire

62 **Nomenclature:** Costermans (2009) for vascular plants

63 **Running head:** Frequent fire erodes resprouter persistence

## 64 **Introduction**

65 Globally, fire is a key factor influencing ecosystem composition and change (Bowman *et al.*,  
66 2009). Trends in global temperature and assessments of changes in fire weather under recent  
67 and projected climate change indicate likely increases in fire activity for many forested  
68 regions of the world (Nitschke & Innes, 2008; Liu *et al.*, 2010). Increased fire activity  
69 increases the potential for shorter fire intervals, and for increased extent of more frequently  
70 burned forest (Nitschke & Innes, 2013). Repeated short-interval fires can be viewed as  
71 ‘compounded perturbations’ (Paine *et al.*, 1998), which can have negative impacts not only  
72 on forest structure and composition, but also forest-dependent species (Jones *et al.*, 2016).  
73 The prospect of such impacts has inspired analysis of forest and fire management (Adams,  
74 2013; Bowman *et al.*, 2013; Stephens *et al.*, 2013), and intensified concerns for forest health  
75 during an ‘era of emerging mega-disturbance’ (Millar & Stephenson, 2015).

76 The persistence of forests after disturbances largely depends on plant traits such as  
77 resprouting and reseeded (Enright *et al.*, 2014; Pausas & Keeley, 2014); however, changing  
78 disturbance regimes can reduce trait effectiveness. For example, in obligate-seeder  
79 communities, shortening of the interval between disturbances (such as fire) can lead to  
80 extirpation of dominant tree species (Bowman *et al.*, 2014a). The vulnerability of obligate  
81 seeders to changing fire conditions has underpinned emerging concepts like ‘interval  
82 squeeze’, where a combination of climate-change factors – more frequent fire, warmer and  
83 drier environments – can reduce the likelihood that woody species will persist within their  
84 current distributions (Enright *et al.*, 2015).

85 Resprouting has been recognised as a trait that ensures a plant’s ‘persistence niche’  
86 (Bond & Midgley, 2001) by allowing established individuals to survive and re-establish  
87 rapidly after disturbances, particularly fire (Burrows, 2013; Clarke *et al.*, 2013a). The ability  
88 of resprouters to withstand disturbances means they have been considered more resistant to  
89 transformational structural and compositional changes than fire-sensitive obligate-seeder

90 forests that have long juvenile phases (Bowman *et al.*, 2013; Fairman *et al.*, 2016). Fire-  
91 tolerant resprouter forests have therefore been considered likely replacements – naturally, or  
92 artificially – for fire-sensitive forests under climate change (Colloff *et al.*, 2016). However,  
93 assumptions of persistence of fire-tolerant resprouters under emerging fire regimes have  
94 rarely been tested. Recent studies have indicated increased mortality of fire-tolerant  
95 resprouting trees under extreme fire conditions (Bennett *et al.*, 2016; Prior *et al.*, 2016a;  
96 Nicholson *et al.*, 2017); however, interactive effects of multiple fires, particularly under high-  
97 severity conditions, remain largely unquantified (Haslem *et al.*, 2016).

98 The role of changing fire regimes – particularly abrupt shifts in frequency – in the  
99 development and maintenance of alternative stable states (Scheffer & Carpenter, 2003) is  
100 increasingly being recognised in many biomes around the world (Warman & Moles, 2009;  
101 Hirota *et al.*, 2011; Scheffer *et al.*, 2012). Wildfires have been identified as a key driver of  
102 alternative states in woody communities, at times decoupling tree cover from the  
103 environmental variables that otherwise determine tree presence (Abis & Brovkin, 2017).  
104 Alternative states have been identified in tropical forest and savanna ecosystems (Murphy &  
105 Bowman, 2012) where grass-fire feedback cycles drive the elimination of fire-sensitive trees  
106 (Bowman *et al.*, 2014b). Similarly, conceptual models indicate the potential for  
107 fragmentation of the tree layer in temperate resprouter forests under repeat short-interval fires  
108 (Fairman *et al.* 2016), as seen in tropical forests (Silvério *et al.*, 2013); however,  
109 contemporary empirical evidence to underpin such models is lacking (Fletcher *et al.*, 2014).

110 This study examines the effects of short-interval repeat wildfires on the structure and  
111 composition of a temperate forest ecosystem dominated by resprouter trees. Our focal  
112 ecosystem is open forest in the Australian Alps dominated by *Eucalyptus pauciflora* Sieber  
113 ex Spreng ('snow gum') – a long-lived tree that vigorously resprouts from a partially buried  
114 lignotuber in response to partial or complete top-kill (death of above-ground stems) by fire  
115 (Coates, 2015). The understorey of this ecosystem is characterised by a variety of shrubs and  
116 grasses with obligate seeder and resprouter fire response traits (Williams & Costin, 1994). As  
117 such, like many other open eucalypt forests of temperate southern Australia, the structure of  
118 *E. pauciflora* dominated communities has invariably been shaped by the presence and  
119 frequency of fire (Barker, 1988). However, the nature of *E. pauciflora* community  
120 interactions with fire seem set to change given expectations of more frequent and severe fire  
121 weather in south-eastern Australia based on recent observations (Clarke *et al.*, 2013b;  
122 Sharples *et al.*, 2016) and future predictions (Clarke *et al.*, 2011). Large mixed-severity fires

123 in 2003, 2007, and 2013 burned a cumulative area of  $\sim 2.3 \times 10^6$  hectares in the Australian  
124 Alps (Williams *et al.*, 2014), meaning that sections of *E. pauciflora* open forest were burned  
125 once, twice, and three times between 2003 and 2013 – notably shorter intervals than the  
126 historic norm of once every 50-100 years (Williams *et al.*, 2008). This natural experiment  
127 provided an opportunity to examine the impacts of short-interval wildfires on the initial  
128 structure and composition of fire-tolerant temperate forests, by examining effects on a)  
129 potential erosion of the dominant tree's persistence niche via increased mortality and  
130 decreased regeneration (both vegetative and seed-based); b) changes in stand structure; and c)  
131 changes in the understorey composition as indicated by the balance of shrubs to grasses. Our  
132 overarching objective was to improve the empirical basis for assumptions about the limits to  
133 tolerance of fire-tolerant forests, particularly those at or near the tree-line in temperate  
134 biomes.

## 135 **Methods**

### 136 *Study area*

137 Our study encompasses an area of  $\sim 250 \text{ km}^2$  in the sub-alpine and alpine regions of Victoria,  
138 south-eastern Australia (37°01' 147°08'). The present climate is characterised by low  
139 temperatures (mean annual maximum 8.0°C; mean annual minimum 1.9°C), and high  
140 precipitation (mean annual total 1421 mm), the majority falling as winter snow (Williams &  
141 Costin, 1994), which typically persists from June until October (1990–2016, Bureau of  
142 Meteorology, Mt. Hotham, VIC Australia; <http://www.bom.gov.au>). Soils throughout the  
143 Victorian alpine region are variable with climate, parent material, topography, and vegetation  
144 type all influencing soil type (Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 2014), although shallow friable brown  
145 gradational soils are predominant at higher elevations (Land Conservation Council, 1977).

146 Sub-alpine forests are dominated by *E. pauciflora* and its subspecies, which occurs  
147 between 1400 and 1900 m ASL at the altitudinal tree limit in Australia, covering  
148 approximately 300,000 ha of mountainous terrain (Ferrar *et al.*, 1988; Slatyer & Noble, 1992;  
149 Costermans, 2009; Green & Venn, 2012). *E. pauciflora* stands are generally classified as  
150 open forests, reaching maximum heights of 20-30 m with 30-70% foliage projective cover,  
151 although they also often form sparser (10-30% cover) low open woodlands at higher  
152 elevations (Specht, 1970; Williams & Costin, 1994; Costermans, 2009). The understorey of  
153 *E. pauciflora* forests can be grassy (*Poa hothamensis* Vickery or *P. hiemata* Vickery) with a  
154 shrub stratum to 3 – 5 m of species such as *Prostanthera cuneata* Benth., *Bossiaea foliosa* A.

155 Cunn., *Phebalium squamulosum* Vent. and *Orites lancifolia* F. Muell (Williams & Costin,  
156 1994). The composition of understorey species reflects site attributes & past disturbance  
157 history, such as fire and cattle grazing (Williams & Ashton, 1987; Wahren et al., 1994), and  
158 are comprised of both obligate seeders (e.g. *Acacia* sp.) and resprouters (e.g. *Bossiaea*  
159 *foliosa*) (Kasel *et al.*, 2017).

160 Our study sites were *E. pauciflora* open forests within or near the boundaries of single  
161 and multiple recent wildfires in two areas of the Victorian Alps: Mount Hotham and Mount  
162 Useful (*Figure S1* & *S2*). Here, combinations of large, mixed-severity megafires (>100 000  
163 ha) between 2003 and 2013 created mosaics of *E. pauciflora* forests that were either  
164 unburned, or burned once (254,775 ha), twice (32,548 ha), or three times (3,622 ha) in that  
165 decade (**Figure 1**; *Figure S1*).

#### 166 *Site selection*

167 Site selection was based on spatial data sets that indicated the vegetation was *E.*  
168 *pauciflora* open forest, and that the area had been burned once, twice, or three times by high-  
169 severity wildfire between 2003 and 2013. Wildfire severity was as indicated by 1:25000  
170 digital maps that were produced within two months of each wildfire, based on changes in the  
171 Normalised Burn Ratio as estimated from pre- and post-fire SPOT images in combination  
172 with Landsat and high resolution aerial imagery (DSE 2009, P. Black pers. comm., 2015).  
173 ‘High severity’ sites were burned by an intense overstorey fire that consumed 70 to 100% of  
174 both *E. pauciflora* and understorey crowns. After in-field verification of vegetation type and  
175 recent wildfire (indicated by tree charring and regeneration as relevant), five sites were  
176 selected to represent each fire frequency class (‘Unburned’, once burned ‘Single’, twice  
177 burned ‘Double’, and thrice burned ‘Triple’), to give a total of 20 study sites. Sites of the  
178 same fire history were located at least 2.5 km apart, and sites of differing fire history were  
179 located as close as possible (*Figure S2*). Our study sites were selected if a) their fire history  
180 was unambiguous; b) they were clearly dominated (prior to fire) by *E. pauciflora*; c) they  
181 represented a continuous patch >3 ha of *E. pauciflora* forest; d) did not include or cross the  
182 tree line; and e) there was no evidence of other anthropogenic disturbances, such as firewood  
183 removal. Triple sites were burned by wildfires in 2003, 2007, and 2013, but the distribution  
184 and overlap of these wildfires constrained the choice of wildfire years in the Single and  
185 Double fire history classes, meaning that fire history varied slightly (see *Table S1*). Unburned  
186 sites were selected for similar vegetation type and structure, even distribution around the

187 burned sites, and no evidence of fire (no stem charring, live overstorey canopy) since 1994  
188 (one site) or 1939 (four sites).

### 189 *E. pauciflora* survival and regeneration assessment

190 All sites were assessed between February and May 2015, approximately two years  
191 after the last wildfire – an adequate interval for recovery and establishment of eucalypts and  
192 associated understorey in comparable forest types elsewhere (Prior *et al.*, 2016a). At each  
193 site, a fixed area plot (10 x 50 m<sup>2</sup>, 0.05 ha) was randomly positioned to be entirely within the  
194 *E. pauciflora* patch, at least 50 m from the patch edges, and with the length of the plot  
195 running along the contour. All ‘large’ eucalypt stems >10 cm diameter at breast height  
196 overbark (dbhob, 1.3 m height) were assessed within the 0.05 ha plot, whereas ‘small’  
197 eucalypt stems (2.5 – 10 cm dbhob), and eucalypt regeneration (<2.5 cm basal diameter),  
198 which both occurred at higher densities, were assessed within two embedded sub-plots of 10  
199 x 10 m<sup>2</sup> (0.02 ha total area).

200 The design of our within-plot measurements was informed by our understanding of *E.*  
201 *pauciflora* habit, particularly its post-fire regeneration. *E. pauciflora* is a thin-barked eucalypt  
202 species that is typically top-killed after complete canopy combustion or scorch. Individuals  
203 typically recover after top-kill through basal resprouting from the lignotuber. This means that  
204 *E. pauciflora* often form a ‘woody clump’ habit (i.e. multiple stems arising from a single  
205 lignotuber; Lacey & Johnston 1990). Accordingly, we assessed each stem as either a singular  
206 stem, or part of a larger ‘clump’ of multiple stems arising from a single lignotuber, which was  
207 confirmed by physically checking the base of the tree for lignotuber presence. The following  
208 attributes of all large and small eucalypt stems were then recorded: dbhob (cm); dead or alive  
209 as indicated by the total absence or presence of live foliage at or above height 1.3 m; single or  
210 clumped with other stems; number of post-fire basal (lignotuber) resprouts; and number and  
211 location of post-fire epicormic resprouts. By assessing the extent of live foliage above and  
212 below 1.3m, we were able to assess the extent of a) stem death (top-kill) and b) clump  
213 mortality, where all stems and the lignotuber had died (for further information on assessment  
214 of resprouting and top-kill/clump mortality, see *Supporting Information*).

215 Eucalypt regeneration (<2.5cm basal diameter) that was not clearly sprouting from  
216 ‘large’ (>10 cm dbhob) stems was assessed in two ways. Firstly we counted ‘lignotuberous  
217 seedlings’ as comprising of one or a clump of stems (all <2.5 cm basal diameter) arising from  
218 a detectable lignotuberous swelling, which also had evidence of charring or the remains of a

219 small burned stem. We grouped these individuals on the basis that it was highly likely they  
220 were present prior to the most recent fire. In contrast, individual seedlings without any  
221 significant signs of a lignotuberous swelling or charring that were predominantly single  
222 stemmed were counted as ‘new seedlings’ and were assumed to have established after the  
223 most recent fire.

#### 224 *Fallen wood and understorey composition*

225 Coarse woody debris (CWD), defined as fallen dead woody material >2.5 cm in  
226 minimum cross-sectional diameter, was assessed as an integrated indicator of fire effects on  
227 woody fuel consumption and tree collapse. Individual CWD pieces were assessed using the  
228 line-intercept method (Van Wagner (1968) along two parallel 50-m transects defining the plot  
229 boundary (total transect length of 100 m per site) and following the protocols of Aponte *et al.*  
230 (2014).

231 Shrubs and grasses were assessed to evaluate the effects of wildfire frequency on  
232 vegetation composition. Shrubs were defined as woody single or multi-stemmed species,  
233 excluding *E. pauciflora*, and were counted by genus along two 10-m transects starting at 10  
234 and 30 m along a 50-m line that bisected the plot. In addition, shrub cover was assessed by  
235 estimating the proportion of each 1-m portion of the 10-m transects covered by a vertical  
236 projection of the shrub crown. This was expressed as a percentage of the total transect length  
237 (20 m) by genus. For analysis, frequency and cover data were converted to prominence  
238 values (PV) following Douglas & Bliss (1977).

239 Grasses were defined as any non-woody plant species, predominantly *Poa spp.*, and  
240 were assessed as either present (1) or absent (0) for each 1-m portion of the 10-m transect.  
241 These values were then summed and divided by 20 to provide an indication of grass  
242 frequency per site, expressed as a proportion.

#### 243 *Statistical Analyses*

244 Effects of wildfire frequency (Unburned, Single, Double, Triple) on percentage tree  
245 stem death (‘top-kill’), percentage clump mortality, number of live basal clumps (stems < or  
246 >10cm dbhob) per hectare, resprouting counts, seedling and lignotuberous seedling  
247 regeneration counts, coarse woody debris piece counts, shrub prominence values, and grass  
248 frequencies were evaluated using one-way ANOVA, followed by post-hoc Tukey’s HSD test.  
249 Distributions of response variables were assessed for normality, and were square-root

250 transformed where necessary. Where transformation did not improve the distribution, a  
251 Kruskal-Wallis test for non-parametric data was used followed by Dunn's Test for pairwise  
252 comparisons using a Bonferroni correction. In addition, we used a two-sample Kolmogorov-  
253 Smirnov test, to compare size-class distributions of sound and rotten CWD across the  
254 different wildfire frequencies.

255 Random Forest analyses (Breiman, 2001) were used to identify explanatory variables  
256 that were most important in explaining plot-level *E. pauciflora* mortality and regeneration. A  
257 total of 15 explanatory variables were considered, although this was reduced to 11 for  
258 analysis after removal of highly correlated variables (Pearson's correlation coefficient scores  
259  $>0.9$ ; Table S2). Landscape and topographic data (elevation at plot centre, predominant  
260 aspect and slope) were measured in-field using a compass and Garmin GPS 62s, and basal  
261 area of trees  $>10$  cm was derived from stand-level measures. Aspect was transformed into  
262 Cosine of aspect ( $COS\alpha = Northness$ ; 1 = Northward, -1 = Southward, 0 = either East or  
263 Westward) and Sin of aspect ( $SIN\alpha = Eastness$ ; 1 = Eastward, -1 = Westward, 0 = either  
264 North or South; Roberts, 1986). Fire history attributes (e.g. frequency of fires since 2000;  
265 time since last fire) were extracted from the Victorian State Government data. Annual mean  
266 temperature data were sourced from Stewart & Nitschke (2017), and annual precipitation  
267 from WorldClim grids (<http://www.worldclim.org>). All Random Forest models were run using  
268 the statistical package "rfPermute" (Archer, 2016).

269 We used a non-metric multi-dimensional scaling ordination (NMDS, R Vegan  
270 package, "metaMDS" function with Bray-Curtis similarity matrix and 3 dimensions) to  
271 examine whether the composition of shrubs and grasses differed among wildfire frequencies.  
272 Species of the same genera were pooled, and ordinations were based both on  
273 presence/absence data of shrub (11 genera) and grass (1 genera), and on shrub prominence  
274 values and grass frequencies per site. Ellipses estimating standard error were drawn around  
275 each fire frequency using the "ordiellipse" function (Oksanen, 2011), and similarity  
276 percentages analyses (SIMPER; Clarke, 1993) were used to quantify degrees of dissimilarity  
277 among wildfire frequencies.

278 To compare the impact of wildfire frequency on the within-plot spatial configuration  
279 of *E. pauciflora* clumps, we calculated Nearest Neighbour Index (NNI) and mean Nearest  
280 Neighbour Distance (mNND) (CrimeStat IV program; Levine, 2015). NNI is a continuous,  
281 unitless metric that provides an estimate of the degree of spatial aggregation, where scores

282 close to 0 indicate a tendency towards a clustered spatial pattern, those approaching 1 a  
283 random dispersed pattern, and those approaching 2.15 a more regular or uniform pattern  
284 (Levine, 2015). In contrast, mNND provides an estimate of the average distance between  
285 neighbours, presented here as the distance (metres,  $m$ ) between live tree clumps (For  
286 additional information on assumptions as part of Nearest Neighbour analysis, see  
287 *Supplementary Material*). Effects of wildfire frequency on NNI and mNND were then  
288 assessed using a one-way ANOVA. Statistical analyses were undertaken using the R  
289 statistical software package (R Core Team, 2016), except for the SIMPER analysis, which  
290 used the PRIMER statistical software (v6; Clarke & Gorley, 2006).

## 291 **Results**

### 292 *Tree stem and coarse woody debris size distributions*

293 Mean numbers of total live and dead standing eucalypt stems were highest at Double  
294 burned sites ( $2,816 \text{ stems ha}^{-1} \pm 1384 \text{ SE}$ ), followed by Single ( $2,000 \text{ stems ha}^{-1} \pm 474$ ),  
295 Unburned ( $1,416 \text{ stems ha}^{-1} \pm 159$ ), and finally Triple burned sites ( $1,362 \text{ stems ha}^{-1} \pm 662$ ),  
296 though there were no significant differences among wildfire frequencies. The majority of  
297 stems ( $\geq 95\%$ ) were  $\leq 35 \text{ cm dbh}$  at all sites irrespective of wildfire frequencies (**Figure 2**).  
298 Live stem densities were relatively even across size classes at Unburned, Double and Triple  
299 burned sites, but skewed towards the smallest size classes at Single burned sites. Mean  
300 densities of standing dead eucalypt stems did not differ among wildfire frequencies (**Figure**  
301 **2**). However, proportions of top-killed stems were significantly greater at Double ( $98.8\% \pm$   
302  $0.8$ ) and Triple burned sites ( $98.2\% \pm 1.8$ ) than Single burned ( $55.0\% \pm 11.1$ ) and Unburned  
303 ( $36.8\% \pm 10.8$ ) sites.

304 Mean total numbers of CWD pieces and mean numbers of sound CWD pieces did not  
305 vary significantly among wildfire frequencies. However, mean numbers of rotten CWD  
306 pieces were significantly greater at Unburned ( $20.6 \pm 8.3 \text{ pieces ha}^{-1}$ ) than Triple ( $4.2 \pm 1.8$ )  
307 and Double burned sites ( $3.4 \pm 1.8$ ), but not Single burned sites ( $8.2 \pm 3.1$ ). Kolmogorov-  
308 Smirnov Tests ( $D = 0.14, 0.17, 0.15$ ;  $P < 0.05$ ) indicated significant differences in the size-  
309 class distribution of sound CWD pieces between Double sites and Unburned, Single, and  
310 Triple sites, quite likely due to the absence of large sound CWD at Double burned sites  
311 (**Figure 2**). Similarly, there were significant differences in the size-class distribution of rotten  
312 CWD between the Unburned and Double burned sites ( $P \leq 0.02$ ; **Figure 2**).

313 *Clump mortality and regeneration*

314 Mortalities of *E. pauciflora* clumps were significantly affected by wildfire frequency  
315 ( $P < 0.01$ ; **Figure 3A**). Total clump mortality at any one site varied from 0% (Single burned  
316 site) to 84% (Triple burned site), reflecting considerable variation in the numbers of live  
317 clumps per hectare particularly those comprised of ‘small’ stems ( $< 10$  cm dbhob; **Figure**  
318 **3B**). Mean total clump mortality was greatest at the Triple burned sites ( $50\% \pm 9\%$ ), which  
319 was significantly greater than mean mortalities at the Single burned sites ( $9\% \pm 7\%$ ), but not  
320 Double burned ( $19\% \pm 8\%$ ) and Unburned sites ( $25\% \pm 9\%$ ; **Figure 3A**). However, while  
321 relatively high mean clump mortalities at Triple burned sites reflected significantly greater  
322 mortality of clumps comprised of at least one large stem ( $> 10$  cm dbhob; 56%), mean  
323 mortality patterns at Unburned sites were dominated by relatively high mortality of clumps of  
324 small stems (67%; **Figure 3A**)

325 The mNND of live *E. pauciflora* clumps was greatest at the Triple burned sites ( $2.7$  m  
326  $\pm 0.43$ ), which was significantly different from the Unburned ( $1.65$  m  $\pm 0.12$ ; **Figure 3C**). In  
327 contrast, the mean NNI of live clumps was significantly lower at the Triple burned ( $0.69 \pm$   
328  $0.04$ ) than Unburned sites ( $0.84 \pm 0.05$ ; **Figure 3C**), indicating stronger spatial clustering at  
329 the Triple burned sites. Numbers of new seedlings were significantly greater at Single than  
330 Double and Triple burned sites, although there were no differences among wildfire  
331 frequencies in the numbers of lignotuberous seedlings (**Figure 3D**). Similarly, mean basal  
332 resprouts on remaining live clumps were significantly greater at Single ( $13.4 \pm 0.92$ ) than  
333 both Double ( $8.6 \pm 0.40$ ) and Triple ( $9.3 \pm 0.90$ ) burned sites (**Figure 3E**), leading to the  
334 greatest numbers of basal resprouts per hectare at Single ( $6064 \pm 1968$  ha<sup>-1</sup>) and Double  
335 ( $10038 \pm 3989$ ) burned sites (**Figure 3F**).

336 *Most important explanatory variables for clump mortality, top-kill and seedlings*

337 The Random Forest analyses confirmed the overriding influence of wildfire frequency  
338 on tree mortality, with the frequency of fires in the 2000 – 2013 period having a positive  
339 relationship with both percentage clump mortality and top-kill, explaining 20% and 26% of  
340 the variation respectively. Time since fire was also important in explaining percentage top-  
341 kill (24% variance explained, negative relationship; **Table 1**).

342 Fire-history variables were not the most important variables for explaining seedling  
343 counts. The volume of coarse woody debris and slope explained 14 and 13% of the variation

344 in new seedling counts respectively, while the most influential fire-history variable (Time  
345 Since Wildfire) explained only 8% (all negative relationships; **Table 1**). Similarly,  
346 “Eastness” was identified as the most important variable in explaining counts of  
347 lignotuberous seedlings (24%, positive relationship; **Table 1**).

#### 348 *Understorey Composition*

349 Wildfire frequency significantly affected both shrub prominence values ( $P < 0.001$ )  
350 and grass occurrence ( $P < 0.05$ ). Mean shrub prominence values increased after a single fire  
351 ( $65.1 \pm 15.4$ ) relative to the Unburned ( $40.9 \pm 11.7$ ) sites, but then were dramatically reduced  
352 with subsequent fires, particularly in the Triple burned sites ( $1.05 \pm 0.45$ ; **Figure 4a**). In  
353 contrast, the mean frequency of grasses increased with the number of wildfires to be  
354 significantly greater at Triple ( $0.83 \pm 0.04$ ) than Single ( $0.18 \pm 0.11$ ) and Unburned ( $0.22 \pm$   
355  $0.1$ ) sites (**Figure 4b**).

356 Shrub genera varied in their persistence with fire frequency. *Olearia* and *Acacia*  
357 species (resprouter and obligate seeder, respectively) were present at Unburned sites, and  
358 persisted after three wildfires although with decreasing prominence (**Figure 4c**). In contrast,  
359 other genera were either absent after one fire (*Leucopogon*, *Podocarpus*; resprouter and  
360 obligate seeder respectively), or were eliminated by two (*Prostanthera*, *Tasmannia*; both  
361 obligate seeders), or three (*Cassinia*, *Pimelia*; both obligate seeders) wildfires (**Figure 4c**).  
362 Still others were only evident after one fire but decreased with fire frequency to either be  
363 absent after three wildfires (*Polycias*, *Bossiaea*, both resprouters) or to persist with decreased  
364 prominence (*Podolobium*, resprouter).

365 NMDS ordinations and SE-ellipses based on presence/absence data, clearly indicated  
366 differences in shrub and grass composition among wildfire frequencies (**Figure 5a**). Each of  
367 the wildfire frequencies occupied a distinct NMDS space, except for the Double burned sites,  
368 which supported an intermediate composition between Single and Triple burned sites.  
369 Similarity percentage analysis of presence-absence data supported these observations,  
370 indicating the greatest dissimilarity between Unburned and Single burned sites (73.0%),  
371 followed by Unburned and Double (69.6%), Single and Triple (65.9%), Single and Double  
372 (60.7%), Unburned and Triple (58.2%), and finally Double and Triple burned sites (43.6%;  
373 data not shown). Separation of wildfire frequencies was also evident in the NMDS ordination  
374 of shrub prominence values and grass frequencies (**Figure 5b**), although with greater  
375 differentiation of the Single and Triple burned sites. Similarity percentages were higher than

376 those for the presence/absence NMDS, and indicated greatest dissimilarity between Single  
377 and Triple burned sites (97.5%), and least dissimilarity between Double and Triple burned  
378 sites (82.7%; data not shown).

## 379 Discussion

### 380 *Clump mortality increased by short-interval wildfires*

381 This study has illustrated that, after three successive fires in a decade, the ability of  
382 resprouting *E. pauciflora* to persist and survive is severely curtailed to such an extent that on  
383 average 50% of clumps died compared to 25% in long unburned forests, with mortality rates  
384 as high as 80% on some Triple burned sites. The rates of death are substantially higher than  
385 mortality rates after high-severity fire in resprouter dry eucalypt forests (25%; Prior *et al.*,  
386 2016a), in forest (8%) and savanna ecosystems (7%; Hoffmann *et al.*, 2009), or following  
387 extreme drought in other eucalypt forests in southern Australia (26%; Matusick *et al.*, 2013).

388 Mean clump mortalities among wildfire frequencies reflected contrasting trends in  
389 clump mortality by size class. Comparatively high mean clump mortalities at Unburned sites  
390 (25%) were largely due to high percentage mortalities in the smaller size classes (67%).  
391 Coates (2015) measured a mean stand density of 665 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> for *E. pauciflora* forests 70  
392 years after wildfire elsewhere in the Australian Alps, which was markedly lower than the  
393 1072 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> measured 23 years after wildfire by Ashton and Hargreaves (1983). This  
394 suggests potential for ongoing self-thinning of *E. pauciflora* forests decades after fire, which  
395 might be exacerbated by overstorey suppression of smaller size classes (Barker, 1988;  
396 Stoneman *et al.* 1994). Other disturbances such as drought (in particular, a ‘very long’ rainfall  
397 deficit from 1996 to 2010 in south-east Australia; BOM, 2010) could have contributed to  
398 seemingly high percentage clump mortalities and top-killed stems (37%) at Unburned sites,  
399 as has been recently recorded for other resprouter forests in southern Australia (Prior *et al.*,  
400 2016a). In contrast to Unburned sites, high overall percentage clump mortalities at Triple  
401 burned sites (50%) reflected elevated mortalities of ‘large’ clumps (56%). This portends  
402 significant potential for structural change of *E. pauciflora* open forests after three short-  
403 interval fires.

### 404 *Tree regenerative capacity eroded by two and three short-interval wildfires*

405 Our study confirms that *E. pauciflora* can regenerate from both resprouts and seeds  
406 after a single fire (Green, 2009; Coates, 2015), making it a ‘facultative seeder’ functional

407 type (Pausas *et al.*, 2016). However, we detected a significant decrease in the number of basal  
408 resprouts per surviving tree after two and three successive wildfires compared with just one  
409 wildfire. While the magnitude of the change was not particularly large, and lignotuberous  
410 resprout numbers are known to vary widely in eucalypts (Noble, 2001), a reduction in  
411 resprouting may indicate a depletion of viable buds, suggesting a physiological limitation to  
412 the persistence niche of *E. pauciflora*. We also detected a significant decrease in the total  
413 number of basal resprouts per hectare between Double and Triple burned sites, reflecting  
414 decreases in the number of resprouts and in the number of living clumps at Triple burned  
415 sites due to elevated mortality.

416         Significant decreases in the densities of both new seedlings, in addition to reduced  
417 basal resprouts, could portend reduced *E. pauciflora* regenerative capacity and decreased  
418 potential to compensate for increased tree mortality. The potential vulnerability of *E.*  
419 *pauciflora* seedlings to high-intensity fire has been considered for some time; for example  
420 Jacobs (1955) suggested a seedling's developing lignotuber could be less protected by soil  
421 than older stems. Our analyses indicated that site-level factors could also play a role in *E.*  
422 *pauciflora* seedling dynamics. While not significantly different among wildfire frequencies  
423 (data not shown), our model indicated a negative relationship between CWD volume and new  
424 seedling abundance, reflecting lower seedling counts and marginally higher CWD volumes at  
425 both Unburned and Triple burned sites. This finding is counter-intuitive, as sheltering has  
426 been shown to benefit *E. pauciflora* seedlings (Egerton *et al.*, 2000), although CWD might  
427 act as a barrier to seedling establishment by physically obstructing substrate, and/or the  
428 relationship could be associative (low seedling numbers reflecting an absence of fire at  
429 Unburned sites, and too much fire at Triple burned sites) rather than causative. Slope and  
430 aspect were identified as important site variables in explaining new and lignotuberous  
431 seedling densities, respectively. There were fewer new seedlings on steeper slopes, which  
432 may be related to less available water in the soil profile, as indicated for seedling  
433 establishment of *E. pauciflora* (Ferrar *et al.*, 1988) and other eucalypt species (Bailey *et al.*,  
434 2012). Lignotuberous seedlings were more abundant on easterly slopes, which may be related  
435 to greater protection. These two findings suggest reduced snow gum regeneration on steep,  
436 unprotected sites, and illustrate that several interactive factors (including post-fire drought;  
437 Harvey *et al.*, 2016) will likely determine seedling abundance in sub-alpine forests in addition  
438 to fire effects.

439 Indications of reduced resprouter and seedling regeneration after two and particularly  
440 three wildfires could have serious ramifications for the future formation and persistence of *E.*  
441 *pauciflora* open forests. Our findings suggest that *E. pauciflora* seedlings in certain landscape  
442 positions may be prone to the ‘immaturity risk’ that characterises obligate seeder  
443 communities (Keeley *et al.*, 1999), where young stems are more vulnerable than mature  
444 stems to the return of disturbance before they have developed regenerative capacity (whether  
445 that is via seeds or, in our example, the ability to resprout from a fully developed or protected  
446 lignotuber).

447 *Signs of altered structure and understorey composition with repeated short-interval*  
448 *wildfires?*

449 Elevated clump mortalities after three short-interval wildfires indicate potential  
450 disruption to the canopy structure of these sub-alpine ecosystems, including significant  
451 changes in the spatial configuration of surviving clumps. Analyses based on distances  
452 between surviving clumps and their spatial aggregation indicate an ‘opening up’ of the tree  
453 canopy after short-interval fires, suggesting a shift from a forest to a woodland- or savanna-  
454 like vegetation structure.

455 In addition to an opening-up of the canopy layer, we detected a general trend in the  
456 understorey away from shrub- to grass-dominance following frequent fire. Decreased shrub  
457 dominance was not solely due to elimination of seeder shrubs, since some resprouting shrub  
458 species were also absent after three (*Cassinia*, *Pimelia*, *Polyscias*, and *Bossiaea*) and in some  
459 cases two (*Leucopogon*, *Prosthanthera*, *Tasmannia*) fires. This contrasts with findings  
460 elsewhere of greater resilience of resprouter than seeder shrubs to changing fire regimes  
461 (Enright *et al.*, 2014), and implies that frequent fire may test the persistence niche of the  
462 broader ecosystem, and not just the overstorey trees.

463 Frequent fires also reduced the number of shrub genera present – after three wildfires,  
464 only three genera of shrubs were detected (*Olearia*, *Acacia* and *Podolobium*); compared with  
465 eight, nine and six genera in Unburned, Single and Double burned sites respectively. In  
466 addition, some shrubs that were only detected after a single fire (*Bossiaea* and *Polyscias*) –  
467 implying a dependence on fire for regeneration from the seedbank (Camac *et al.*, 2017) – were  
468 then eliminated after subsequent short-interval fires. This indicates that frequent fires will not  
469 only rearrange the structure of the understorey – encouraging grasses at the expense of shrubs  
470 – but also alter the initial composition of the understorey following disturbances. In southeast

471 Australia, vegetation communities typically adhere to the Initial Floristics model (Egler,  
472 1954) where species are re-established soon after fire through soil-stored seed, serotiny or  
473 resprouting, allowing persistence over time (Cremer & Mount, 1964; Purdie & Slatyer,  
474 1976). Whether subalpine woodland ecosystems adhere to this model after a single fire  
475 remains unclear, although our results indicate potential for new floristic pathways in the first  
476 decade after multiple short-interval wildfires. Similarly, whether relay floristics (Egler, 1954)  
477 allow species extirpated from some sub-alpine forests after frequent fires to recolonise after  
478 long fire-free intervals remains to be seen, though some of the species found in our study  
479 sites are known for their limited dispersal capacity (Morgan & Venn, 2017).

480 Our study indicates that more frequent fires could add to the complexity of expected  
481 vegetation dynamics in temperate treeline communities under climate change. It is generally  
482 expected that, depending on the type of vegetation community, tree- (and shrub-) lines will  
483 either entirely advance upslope; shift upslope but only within the species existing range; or  
484 collapse and recede as climates warm (Breshears *et al.*, 2008; Kelly & Goulden, 2008).  
485 Global meta-analysis of treelines over the last 100 years found that there were substantially  
486 more instances of treelines advancing (52% of surveyed studies) than receding (1%);  
487 however, those receding showed evidence of disturbances (Harsch *et al.*, 2009). Indeed, *E.*  
488 *pauciflora* forests are known to expand into non-tree alpine areas under long fire-free  
489 intervals (c. > 40 years) in favourable environmental conditions (Wearne & Morgan, 2001;  
490 McDougall, 2003). Our study illustrates the possibility that climate change-associated  
491 changes in large-scale disturbance regimes (such as fire) could override the putative effects of  
492 increased CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature on vegetation composition in alpine and sub-alpine  
493 environments (Jarrad *et al.*, 2008; Camac *et al.*, 2017), leading to ‘ecological surprises’  
494 (Noble, 1993; Paine *et al.*, 1998; Kim & Lee, 2015) such as a relative increase in the  
495 proportion of receding treelines. There is, therefore, a need to acknowledge and incorporate  
496 the effects of stochastic wildfires with short return intervals into predictive models of future  
497 vegetation structure and composition.

#### 498 *Changing trajectories or state shifts for E. pauciflora forests?*

499 Our findings indicate a multitude of ways in which multiple short-interval wildfires  
500 can impact on the structure and composition of *E. pauciflora* open forests, including: a)  
501 increased clump mortality; b) increased spatial clustering of surviving clumps; c) decreased  
502 numbers of new seedlings; and d) compositional change in the understorey from shrub- to

503 grass-dominance. Together these structural and compositional changes indicate that frequent  
504 fires may act to fragment and to change the recovery trajectories of our sub-alpine forests  
505 ecosystems, leading to more open structures reminiscent of ‘sub-alpine savannas’ (*Figure*  
506 *S3*).

507 Whether our different post-fire states translate to ‘state shifts’ (Scheffer & Carpenter  
508 2003) towards more open and potentially more flammable communities cannot yet be  
509 determined. Burning experiments on alpine shrub and grasses have indicated that shrub  
510 species are generally more flammable than densely-packed grasses, which tend to retain  
511 moisture more effectively than aerated shrubs species (Fraser *et al.*, 2016); however, these  
512 field experiments did not address whether increased curing rates – the annual grass death and  
513 drying cycle, expected to be amplified by climate change – would increase the relative  
514 flammability of grasses in alpine areas, making them similarly flammable to other grasslands  
515 in Australia (Prior *et al.*, 2016b). Other studies of *E. pauciflora* sub-alpine forests have  
516 indicated that burned *E. pauciflora* forest is more likely to burn again, and more extensively,  
517 in subsequent fires (Zylstra, 2013). This has analogies with the ‘landscape trap’ hypothesis  
518 for other montane ecosystems of southern Australia (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2011), where fire  
519 severity is arguably higher in younger stands (Taylor *et al.*, 2014); however, this hypothesis  
520 is contested in tall montane forest ecosystems, with evidence that extrinsic factors such as fire  
521 weather and climate override intrinsic stand age factors when it comes to determining area  
522 burned (Bowman *et al.*, 2016). Thus, whether the extent of double- and triple- burned forest  
523 is likely to increase, or exist as a historic landscape anomaly, is likely to be a complex  
524 interplay between stand-level changes and extrinsic factors like fire weather and climate.

525 Numerous conceptual models are being developed to identify the impacts of frequent  
526 disturbances (Enright *et al.*, 2015) and to build ecosystem resilience into the future adaptive  
527 management of many ecosystems (Johnstone *et al.*, 2016), including our study region  
528 (Colloff *et al.*, 2016; Doherty *et al.*, 2017). Many of these frameworks, particularly in the  
529 Australian context, are predicated on a limitless resilience of resprouter-type forests to  
530 rebound from single and compounded disturbances. Our study, combined with recent  
531 evidence of increased mortality of resprouter eucalypts after single high-severity wildfires  
532 (Bennett *et al.*, 2016; Fairman *et al.*, 2016; Prior *et al.*, 2016a), suggests that even  
533 comparatively hardy forests dominated by strong resprouters cannot safely be assumed to be  
534 invulnerable to emerging fire regimes.

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## 809 **Appendix and Supporting Information**

810 **Appendix 1: Additional methodological information for assessment of resprouting, and**  
811 **nearest neighbour analyses.**

812 **Appendix 2: Additional Figures**

813 *Figure S1: Map of broader landscape and extent of recurrent wildfires 2003 – 2013*

814 *Figure S2: Map of plot locations, extent of *E. pauciflora* and Australian Alps bioregion*

815 *Figure S3: Stylised representation of changes in E. pauciflora open forest after recurrent*  
816 *fire.*

817 **Appendix 3: Additional Tables**

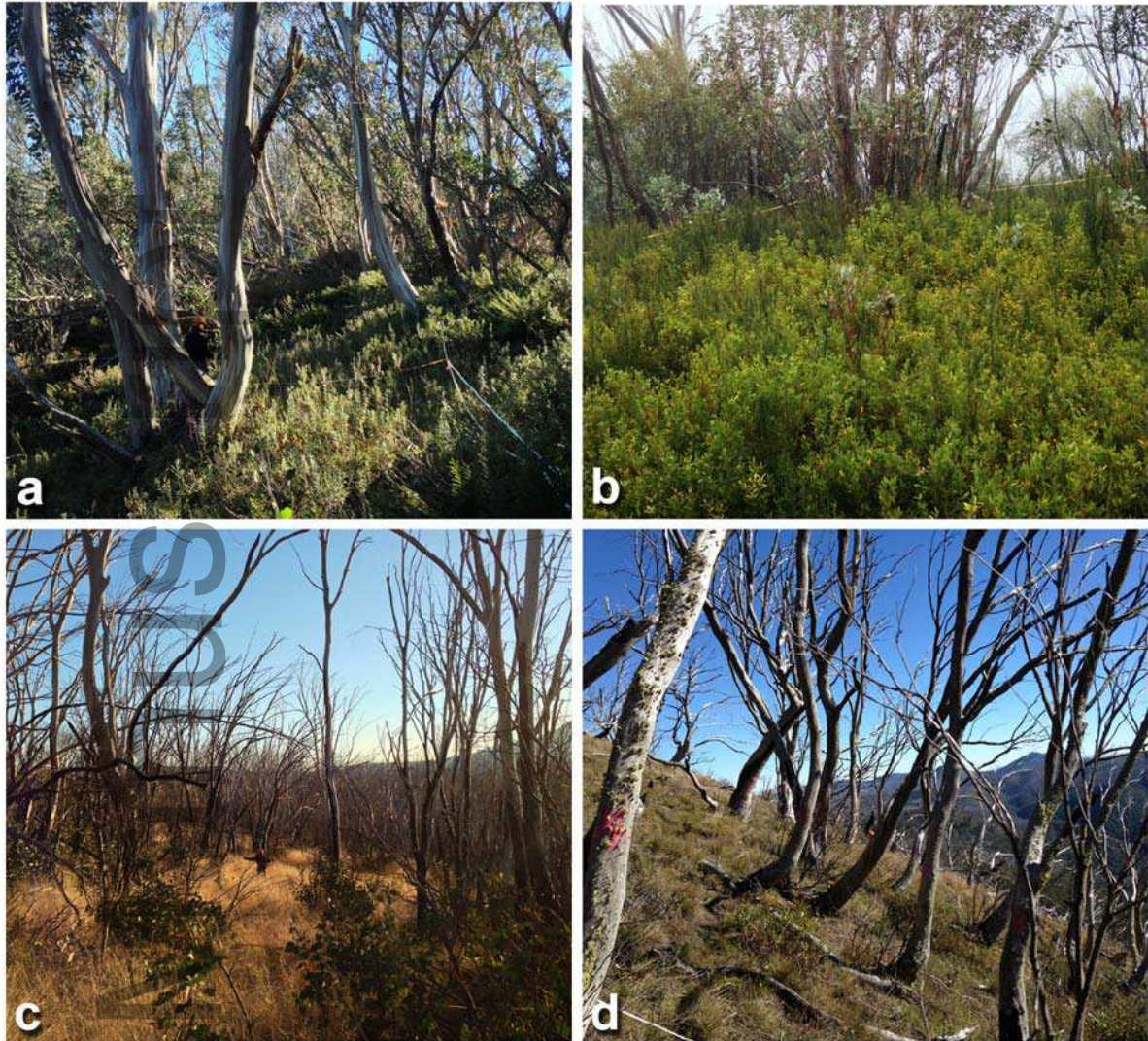
818 *Table S1: Plot data including fire history and site characteristics.*

819 *Table S2: Summary of explanatory variables used in Random Forests analysis*

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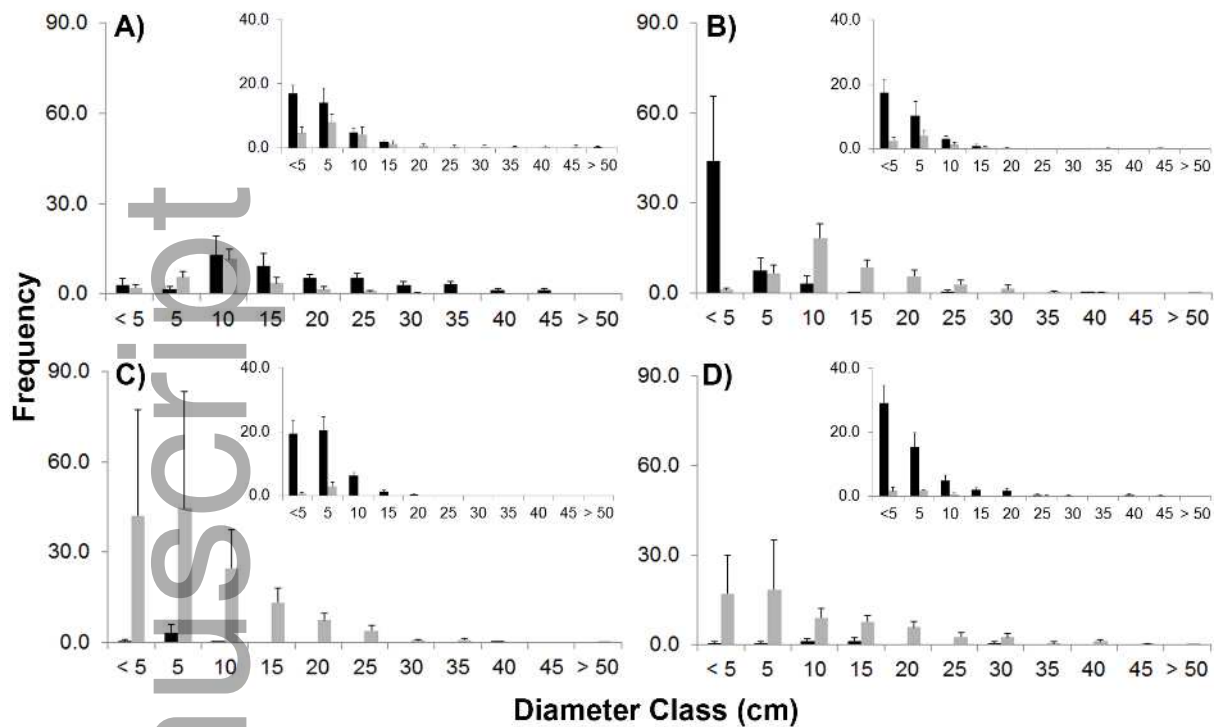
820 **Table 1.** Significant explanatory variables (p-value < 0.05) in order of importance from  
 821 Random Forest models of clump mortality, stem top-kill, and new seedling and lignotuberous  
 822 seedling counts. +/- indicates positive/negative relationship between explanatory and  
 823 response variable.

<b>Response variables</b>	<b>Most important explanatory variables</b>	<b>Variance explained (%)</b>
<b>Clump mortality (%)</b>	+ Fire Frequency (0.02)	19.7
	- Time Since Fire (0.04)	12.0
<b>Top-kill (%)</b>	+ Fire Frequency (0.01)	25.5
	- Time Since Fire (0.01)	24.1
<b>New seedlings (no. 0.01 ha<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	- Coarse Woody Debris (0.05)	13.9
	- Slope (0.02)	13.4
	- Time Since Fire (0.05)	7.9
<b>Lignotuberous seedlings (no. 0.01 ha<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	+ Aspect (Eastness) (0.01)	23.7



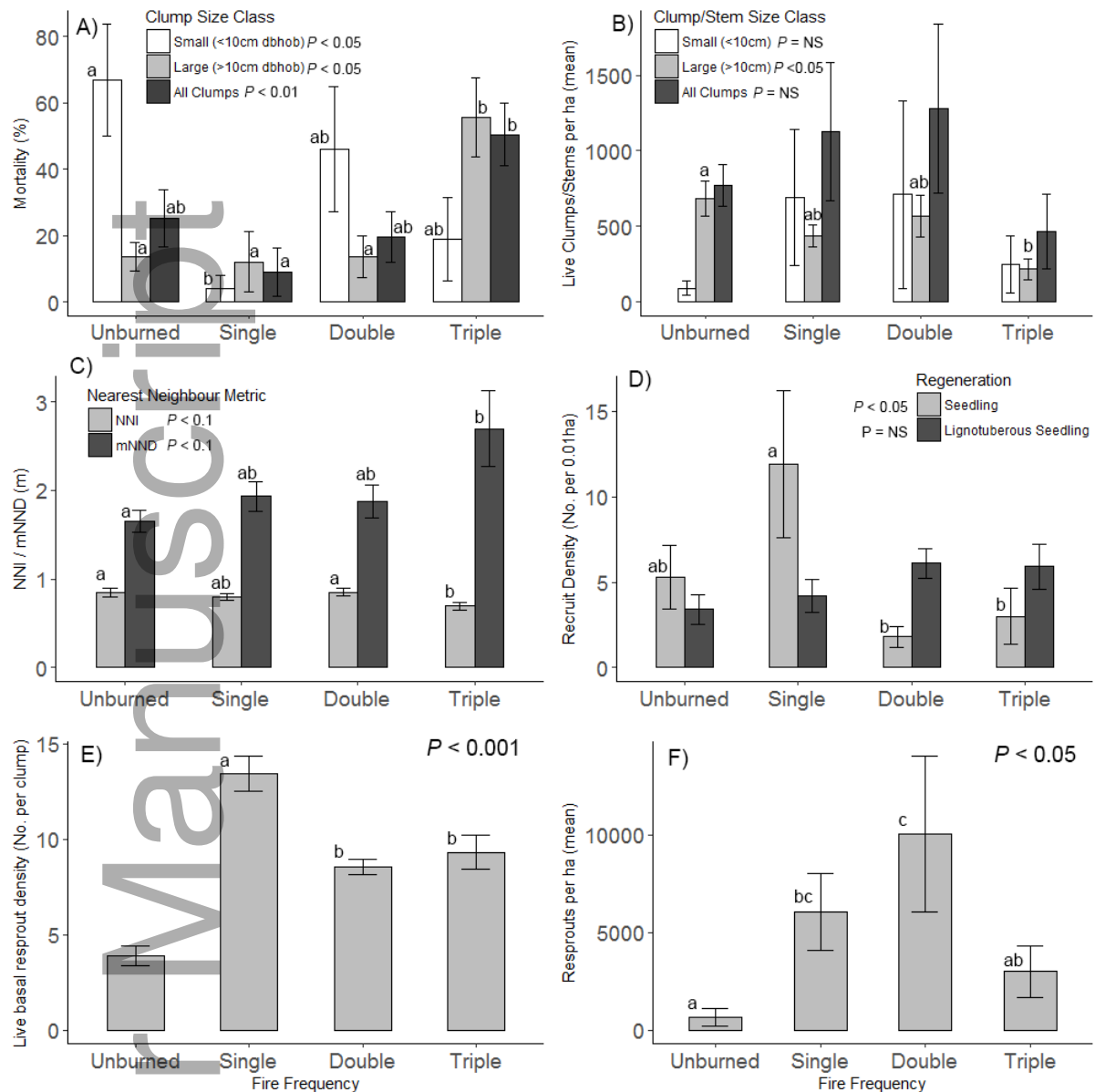
824

825 **Figure 1.** Examples of *E. pauciflora* forest in four fire history categories: a) unburned,  
826 showing live stems of mature overstorey *E. pauciflora* above a discontinuous and mixed  
827 understorey of shrubs and grasses; b) burned once, showing substantial development of shrub  
828 layer and regenerating *E. pauciflora* basal sprouts and seedlings; c) burned twice, showing  
829 reduced shrub cover amongst grasses and *E. pauciflora* basal sprouts; and d) burned three  
830 times, showing predominance of wholly-dead eucalypts and heavily reduced regeneration and  
831 shrub cover.



832

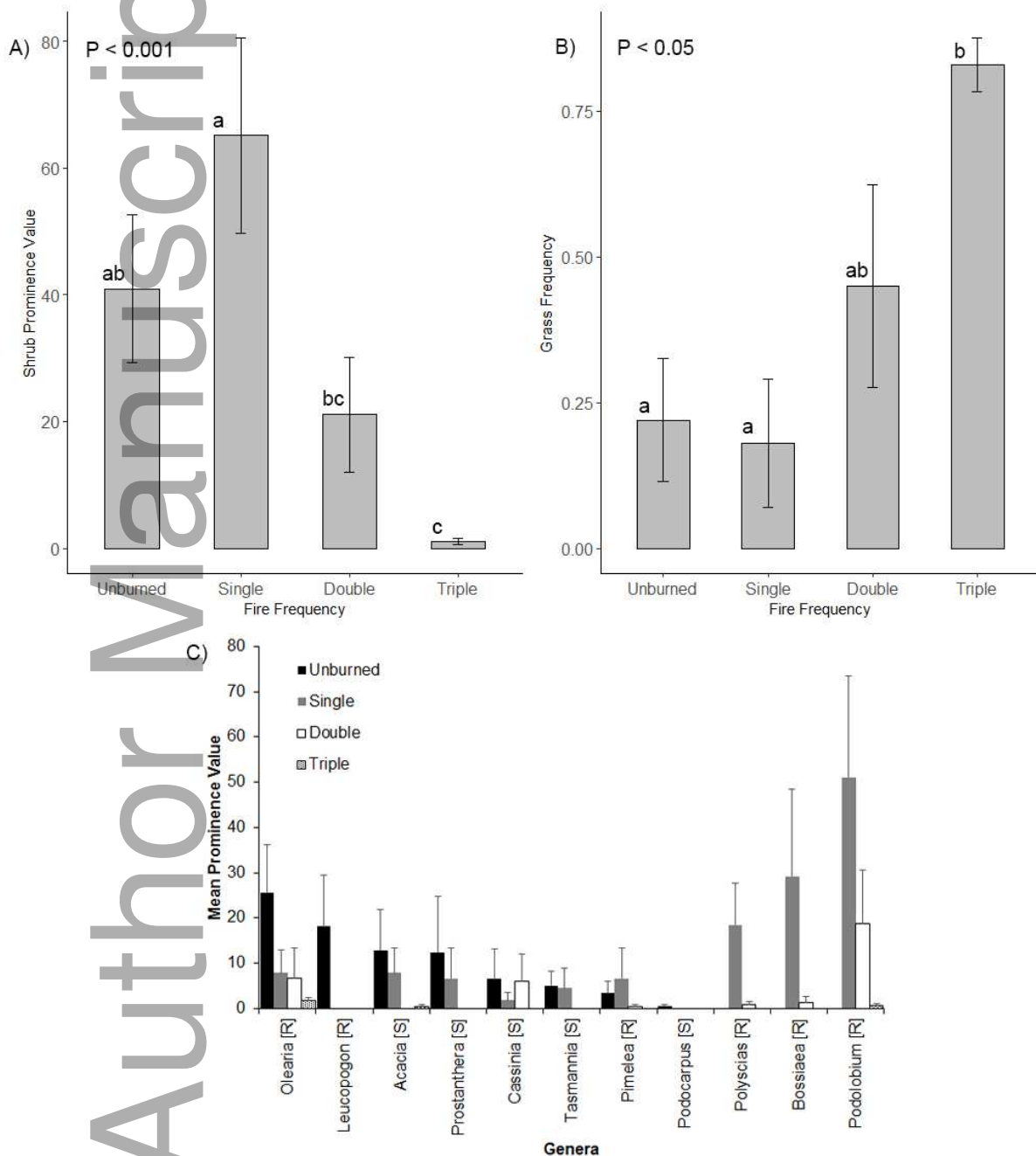
833 **Figure 2.** Mean numbers of live (black) and dead (grey) stems per dbhob class, and, as insets,  
 834 mean number of sound (black) and rotten (grey) coarse woody debris (CWD) pieces per  
 835 diameter class, across A) Unburned, B) Single, C) Double, and D) Triple wildfire  
 836 frequencies. Values are the means ( $\pm$  SE) of five sites per wildfire frequency. Diameter  
 837 intervals are 5 cm, except for the smallest size class, which spanned 2.5 to 5 cm. Note that  
 838 ‘dead’ stems represent stems that were dead above breast height (1.3 m), but may have been  
 839 resprouting from a basal lignotuber. Note for CWD, decay was scored a value between D1 –  
 840 D5, where D1 – D3 represent ‘sound’, and D4 – D5 represent ‘rotten’. Remaining cross-  
 841 sectional area was to nearest 5% (assuming the piece was originally circular).



842

843 **Figure 3.** Effects of wildfire frequencies on **A)** percentage mortality (dead main stem, no  
 844 signs of live leaves or resprouting) of ‘small’ *E. pauciflora* clumps (stem dbhob 2.5 cm –  
 845 10cm, white bar), ‘large’ *E. pauciflora* clumps (stem dbhob >10cm, light grey bar) and all  
 846 *E. pauciflora* clumps combined (dark grey bar); **B)** number of live clumps and stems per  
 847 hectare, as per aforementioned ‘small’ and ‘live’ definitions, and total number; **C)** nearest  
 848 neighbour index (NNI; where scores close to 0 = clustered spatial pattern, 1 = random  
 849 pattern, 2.15 = uniform pattern) and mean distance to nearest neighbour (mNND) of live  
 850 *E. pauciflora* clumps; **D)** new seedling and lignotuberous seedling densities (only live  
 851 individuals); **E)** number of live basal sprouts per live clump; and **F)** total number of live basal  
 852 sprouts per hectare across fire frequencies. Note that for live basal sprouts (D), Unburned  
 853 values are presented but were not included in the statistical analysis as our primary interest

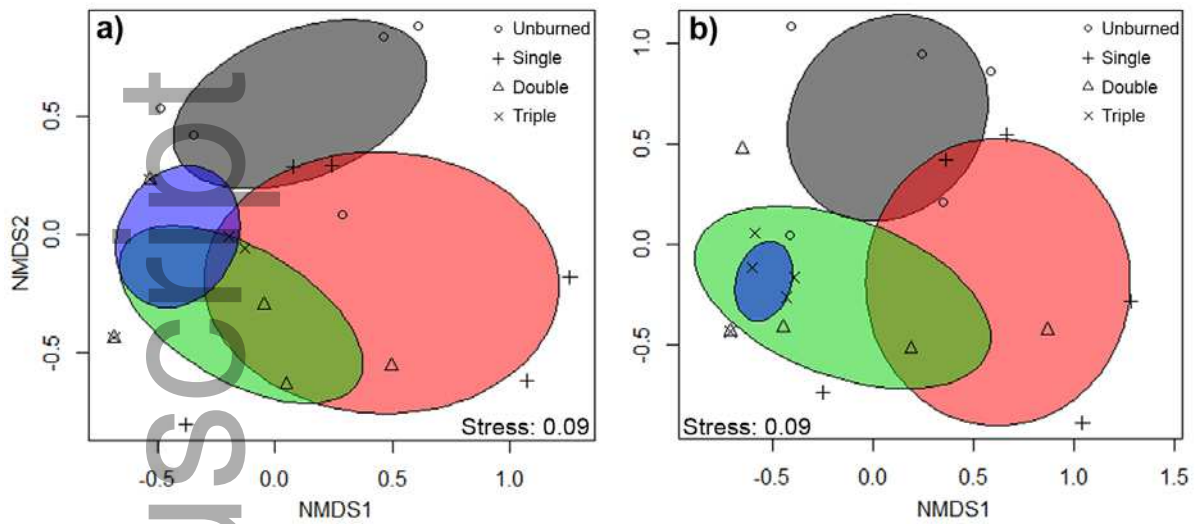
854 was examining the patterns of fire-induced resprouting as it was influenced by fire frequency  
 855 (not fire absence). Values are the mean of five sites ( $\pm$  SE), *P*-values are from one-way  
 856 ANOVAs applied to transformed variables, with different letters indicating that wildfire  
 857 frequencies were significantly different at  $P \leq 0.05$  (Tukey HSD); for non-parametric data, *P*-  
 858 values are from Kruskal-Wallis tests with different letters derived from Dunn Tests.



859

860 **Figure 4.** Changes in understory composition among wildfire frequencies as a) mean shrub  
 861 prominence values; b) mean grass frequencies (as a proportion from 0 - 1); and c)

862 prominence values of shrub genus groups. Values are the means of five sites ( $\pm$  SE), and in  
863 4c) [R] indicates a fire response trait of resprouting, and [S] indicates seeding.



864

865 **Figure 5.** Shrub and grass compositions as influenced by wildfire frequency. Figures are non-  
866 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordinations (stress value = 0.09; dimensions = 3)  
867 based on **a)** shrub and grass genera presence/ absence data (11 shrub and 1 grass genera); and  
868 **b)** shrub prominence values and grass frequencies. Points represent individual sites, with the  
869 legend indicating wildfire frequency. Axis values are arbitrary and distances indicate  
870 similarity between points, as per the rank-based approach of the NMDS. Ellipses indicate  
871 standard error and shading indicates wildfire frequency – Unburned (grey); Single (red);  
872 Double (green); Triple (blue). Note some sites overlap so that not all sites are clearly visible.