

*Seeing the forest for the trees: fertiliser increases tree growth but decreases understorey diversity in the Northern Jarrah Forest, southwest Australia*

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1 **Seeing the forest for the trees: fertiliser increases tree growth but**  
2 **decreases understorey diversity in the Northern Jarrah Forest,**  
3 **southwest Australia**

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6 **TIBBETT<sup>2</sup>**

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19 Forestry science and practice suggests thinning and fertiliser increase the growth rates of  
20 individual trees. In a recent paper reporting on a long-term experiment conducted in the  
21 Northern Jarrah Forest, Bhandari *et al.* (2021) found positive effects of both thinning and  
22 fertilisation, and suggested these management practices will result in a shorter return interval  
23 for large trees within the population, which poses significant benefits at an ecosystem scale.  
24 We argue that whereas thinning alone may be beneficial, the application of fertiliser to native  
25 ecosystems within the South West Australian Floristic Region requires caution due to impacts  
26 on understorey plant diversity. Not only are the soils in the region generally deeply-  
27 weathered and highly nutrient-deficient, but the evolution of a suite of adaptations for  
28 nutrient-acquisition is implicated in both speciation and the maintenance of plant species  
29 diversity. Furthermore, recently published long-term experiments in restored jarrah forest

30 indicate that applied fertiliser both reduces species diversity and increases fine fuel loads. In  
31 conclusion, thinning, but not fertiliser application, is an appropriate management strategy to  
32 improve tree growth in this global biodiversity hotspot.

33

34 **Keywords: diversity; *Eucalyptus*; nutrients; phosphorus; thinning**

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36

## 37 **INTRODUCTION**

38 A key motivation within silviculture is to maximise plant productivity and tree growth by  
39 applying a range of management strategies such as stand thinning. Bhandari *et al.*'s (2021)  
40 study on a long-term, large-scale experiment demonstrates the sustained benefits of stand  
41 thinning on jarrah (*Eucalyptus marginata*) tree growth. Their study builds on a significant  
42 body of knowledge on Northern Jarrah Forest (hereafter jarrah forest) silviculture developed  
43 from studies of forest re-growth post-logging (e.g. Abbott & Loneragan 1986 and references  
44 therein; Stoneman *et al.* 1997) and newly established stands in areas cleared for bauxite  
45 mining (e.g. Grigg & Grant 2009). Bhandari *et al.* (2021) also demonstrate, consistent with  
46 previous findings (e.g. Stoneman *et al.* 1997; Grigg & Grant 2009), that thinned jarrah stands  
47 exhibit a growth response to applied fertiliser, unlike dense jarrah stands, presumably because  
48 growth of the latter is more constrained by water than by nutrient availability. These studies  
49 suggest the combination of thinning and fertiliser application will result, over time, in a  
50 greater number of large trees per unit area of jarrah forest. However, there is increasing  
51 evidence that applying fertiliser, especially phosphorus (P) for jarrah and eucalypt forest  
52 restoration reduces floristic diversity, alters plant community structure and may increase fire  
53 fuel loads (Daws *et al.* 2013, 2015, 2019a, b; Grant *et al.* 2007; Spain *et al.* 2015; Standish *et al.*  
54 2008; Tibbett *et al.* 2019, 2020). Consequently, we argue that Bhandari *et al.* (2021) have  
55 missed critical aspects of the ecology of the jarrah forest, particularly the well-recognised  
56 drawbacks of fertiliser application.

## 57 **JARRAH FOREST ECOLOGY**

58 The jarrah forest on the Darling Range of south-west Western Australia contains tall  
59 eucalypts dominated by jarrah, with *Corymbia calophylla* as a sub-dominant (Fig. 1). Unique  
60 among vegetation types in Mediterranean climates, the forest contains especially tall jarrah

61 (up to 40 m) trees. Jarrah attains these heights due to its deep root system (up to 40 m; Abbott  
62 & Loneragan 1986) enabling access to water stored within the deep, highly weathered  
63 regolith. Some trees die due to competition for water, and their pursuit of nutrients and water  
64 is more important than any contest for light (Cowling *et al.* 1996). The canopy in the jarrah  
65 forest is comparatively open with projective cover rarely exceeding 50% (Abbott 1984) and  
66 self-thinning is slow (Stoneman *et al.* 1989).

### 67 **Remarkable plant diversity on severely phosphorus-impooverished soils**

68 A feature of the ancient deeply weathered nature of the landscape within the South West  
69 Australian Floristic Region, including the jarrah forest, is that soil nutrient concentrations,  
70 including P, are exceptionally low (Lambers *et al.* 2018; Tibbett *et al.* 2020). Understorey  
71 diversity is high, with 400–600 species per km<sup>2</sup> in the jarrah forest (Williams & Mitchell  
72 2003). One factor that may have driven speciation and the maintenance of species diversity in  
73 this region is the suite of adaptations that species have evolved to enable growth given such  
74 low P concentrations (Lambers *et al.* 2018; Sander & Wardell-Johnson 2011). These  
75 adaptations for nutrient and P-acquisition include cluster roots, mycorrhizal symbioses and  
76 exudation of carboxylates and phosphatases (Lambers *et al.* 2008, 2018). However, many  
77 species are unable to down-regulate their P-uptake capacity when P is applied at  
78 concentrations just above the natural range in soils and display symptoms of P-toxicity  
79 including leaf necrosis and plant death (Shane *et al.* 2004; Fig. 2).

### 80 **Returning large trees**

81 From 1820 to the early 1900s, the jarrah forest produced sawlog quality trees of 150 cm  
82 diameter at breast height over bark (DBHOB) on an estimated rotation of 800–1000 years.  
83 However, almost all high-quality stands were logged prior to 1919, and most of the current  
84 forest has been cut two to three times (Abbott & Loneragan 1986). This history has largely  
85 transformed the jarrah forest from being dominated by a small number of widely spaced,  
86 large-diameter trees to a regrowth forest with relatively higher densities of small-diameter  
87 trees (Havel *et al.* 1989). The rapid return of large trees with old growth features has tangible  
88 economic benefits, given the logging legacy throughout the jarrah forest. There are few large  
89 old trees and many stumps. Tree hollows characteristic of large trees provide critical nesting  
90 habitat for threatened fauna such as black cockatoos. Assessing the implications of their  
91 findings, Bhandari *et al.* (2021) state that:

92 Large sized trees resulting from thinning and fertilizer application are likely to provide  
93 a greater volume of timber, forage and habitat for arboreal fauna and birds including  
94 threatened cockatoos, and more visually appealing forests.

95 Assuming the annual diameter growth increments reported by Bhandari *et al.* (2021) are  
96 maintained over time, their data suggest that the time to grow poles of 30 cm diameter at  
97 breast height under bark (DBHUB) into trees with a DBHUB of 80 cm (the average size of  
98 nest trees for threatened black cockatoos; Johnstone *et al.* 2013) is approximately 67 years for  
99 heavily thinned and fertilised stands, compared with 625 years for unfertilised stands not  
100 subject to thinning. However, applying fertiliser in combination with thinning only reduces  
101 this time frame to 51 years, so the growth benefits of thinning and fertiliser application  
102 (Bhandari *et al.* 2021) were almost entirely due to thinning. Nonetheless, this largely  
103 thinning-driven reduction in the time frame to grow trees of >80 cm DBHOB is a significant  
104 finding and could potentially make a difference to black cockatoo conservation (Bhandari *et*  
105 *al.* 2021), although the process of hollow formation likely reflects both time and tree age  
106 rather than simply being a function of tree size (Stoneman *et al.* 1997). For example, the  
107 lowest average age of nest trees recorded for local parrot species is 275 years, and 446 years  
108 for local threatened cockatoo species (Mawson & Long 1994).

## 109 **EVOLVING BEST PRACTICE: THINNING AND FERTILISER APPLICATION**

110 Multiple benefits may accrue from thinning in the jarrah forest. These include:

- 111 1) increased growth rates and hence timber production of retained trees (Stoneman *et al.*  
112 1997; Bhandari *et al.* 2021);
- 113 2) reduced water use by thinned stands resulting in retained trees being more resilient to a  
114 drying climate (Grant *et al.* 2013);
- 115 3) reduced water use maintaining ground water levels and stream flows in the face of a drying  
116 climate (MacFarlane *et al.* 2010);
- 117 4) an increase in inflows to public drinking water dams (MacFarlane *et al.* 2010); and
- 118 5) more rapidly setting thinned stands on a trajectory towards developing large trees and a  
119 structure more similar to that in old-growth stands prior to European settlement and logging  
120 (pre-1820; MacFarlane *et al.* 2010; Bhandari *et al.* 2021). Perhaps this latter benefit is what  
121 Bhandari *et al.* (2021) meant by ‘more visually appealing forests’.

122 We suggest there are significant downsides associated with applying fertiliser. The earliest  
123 fertiliser research focused on the response of jarrah in the context of maximising timber

124 production (e.g. Abbott & Loneragan 1986). The wider impacts of fertiliser on forest  
125 dynamics were not considered until jarrah forest restoration started in earnest in the 1980s  
126 (Fig. 1). Whereas fertiliser does increase tree growth in thinned stands, it is necessary to  
127 assess what impacts this strategy may have on the diverse and unique understorey flora  
128 species of the jarrah forest, many of which are long-lived, slow-growing plants with  
129 specialised adaptations for P-acquisition (Fig. 2). Research suggests a cautious approach to  
130 using P fertiliser in inherently P-impooverished systems is warranted. Research includes  
131 negative impacts on both native fungal communities (Hilton *et al.* 1989), and understorey  
132 diversity in jarrah forest restored after bauxite mining (e.g. Daws *et al.* 2013, 2015, 2019a;  
133 Tibbett *et al.* 2020). Moreover, fertiliser P persists in jarrah forest soils potentially affecting  
134 vegetation dynamics for decades after a single application (Daws *et al.* 2019b; Standish *et al.*  
135 2008). These findings are consistent with findings for P-impooverished systems elsewhere in  
136 the region (e.g. Lambers *et al.* 2018), and declining species diversity in a range of global  
137 studies of nutrient effects on nutrient-limited ecosystems (e.g. Ceulemans *et al.* 2014; Isbell  
138 *et al.* 2013; Wassen *et al.* 2005). Multiple short- (<5 years) and long-term (20 years) studies  
139 of jarrah forest restoration unequivocally demonstrated that adding fertiliser, especially P,  
140 reduces understorey species diversity and alters community composition by stimulating the  
141 growth of some highly P-responsive N<sub>2</sub>-fixing legume species which outcompete slower-  
142 growing species (Daws *et al.* 2013, 2015, 2019a, b; Standish *et al.* 2008; Tibbett *et al.* 2020)  
143 and increase fine fuel loads in the understorey (Daws *et al.* 2019a).

144 The understorey responses to applied fertiliser have not been assessed in the experiment  
145 reported by Bhandari *et al.* (2021). Consequently, we believe that this study presents a unique  
146 opportunity to further inform this debate, by enabling assessment of long-term fertiliser  
147 impacts on the understorey community in the severely nutrient-impooverished environment of  
148 the jarrah forest.

149

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155 ecosystems after mining.

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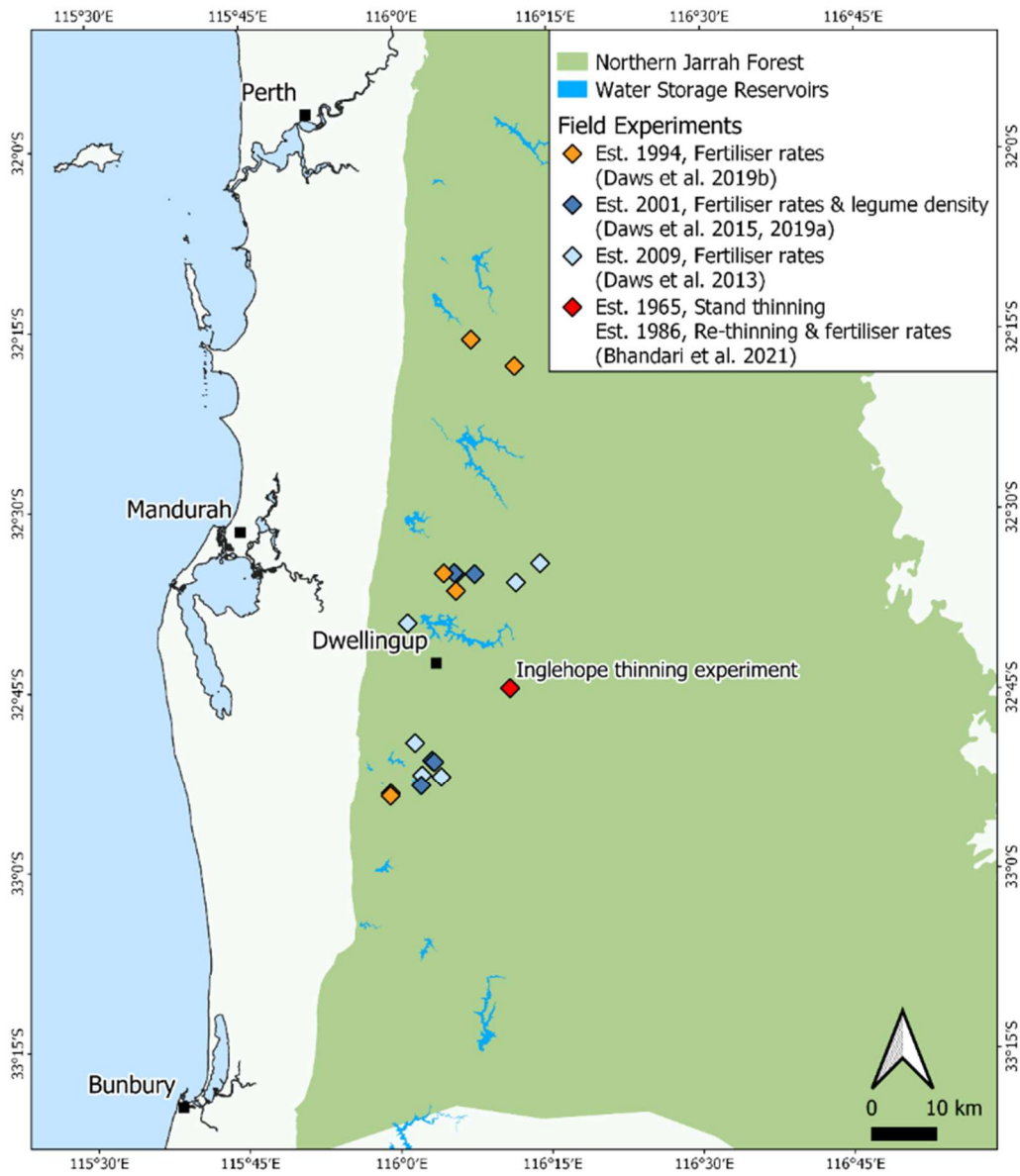
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262 Figure 1. The location of the Inglehope thinning experiment (Bhandari *et al.* 2021) as well as  
263 a range of experiments investigating fertiliser application to restored jarrah forest.



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267 Figure 2. a) An example of the diverse understorey layer in the jarrah forest; b, c) *Banksia*  
268 *grandis* and *Hakea amplexicaulis*, respectively—two species that are sensitive to elevated  
269 soil phosphorus concentrations; and d) *Acacia pulchella* a legume that exhibits a vigorous  
270 growth response to applied P. Photo credits: a) & b) RJS; c) & d) MID.

