

1 **Role of Soil Disturbances in Determining Post-Harvest Plant**
2 **Biodiversity and Invasive Weed Distributions**

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9
10 SHORT TITLE: Soil Disturbances, Biodiversity, and Invasive Weeds
11

12 **Abstract** - Harvesting for conventional forestry products, bioenergy, or fuels
13 reduction creates varying levels of soil disturbance depending upon the felling and
14 extraction systems used. Site preparation before replanting imposes additional soil
15 disturbances depending on the mix of mechanical, chemical, and fire techniques used
16 These inter-rotation disturbances usually affect subsequent plant diversity in
17 different ways. Although the common assumption is that these impacts are negative,
18 they can be highly positive depending on the type and level of disturbance. The
19 level and direction of impact (negative or positive) of management-related
20 disturbances depend on a number of factors including the severity of the disturbance.
21 One new aspect of environmental concern regarding plant diversity is the potential
22 for harvesting and site preparation soil disturbance to accelerate invasions by
23 noxious weeds. This paper examines how soil disturbances due to harvesting,
24 mechanical site preparation, prescribed fire, and chemical additions as fertilizers or
25 herbicides affect post-harvest plant diversity and noxious weed invasions.

26
27 **biodiversity / soil disturbance / site preparation / harvesting / invasive weeds**

28 **1. INTRODUCTION**
29

30 Harvesting for conventional forestry products, bioenergy, or fuels reduction
31 creates varying levels of soil disturbance depending upon the felling and extraction
32 systems used. Site preparation before replanting imposes additional soil disturbances
33 depending on the mix of mechanical, chemical, and fire techniques used [25]. These
34 inter-rotation disturbances usually affect subsequent plant diversity in different ways.
35 Although the common assumption is that these diversity impacts are negative, they
36 can be highly positive depending on the type and level of disturbance. In many
37 forest ecosystems, plant diversity increases after disturbance and then declines as one
38 principal component of plant diversity, trees, eventually dominates the site. A new
39 aspect of environmental concern regarding plant diversity is the potential for
40 harvesting and site preparation soil disturbance to accelerate invasions by noxious

1 weeds. Successful establishment of some nonnative plants have the potential to alter
2 the quality of site plant diversity or reduce it significantly.

3 4 **1.1 Soil Disturbance**

5
6 Most natural and anthropogenic disturbances produce impacts on forest soils.
7 The level and direction of impacts (negative or positive) from management-related
8 disturbances depend on: (1) the goals and objectives for land management, (2)
9 ecosystem resistance and resilience, (4) disturbance frequency, and (4) the severity
10 of the disturbance. Both frequency and severity are important concepts to consider
11 since they can occur along a spectrum that may or may not involve the same site and
12 the same time period.

13
14 Forest harvesting and its associated reforestation activities produce varying
15 types, amounts, and degrees of impact to the soil. Physical soil disturbance produced
16 by harvesting machinery or mechanical site preparation can result in erosion,
17 compaction, plant seedbed preparation, nutrient redistribution, changes in soil
18 moisture, and alteration of biological activity [25]. Chemical soil disturbance from
19 fertilizer additions or herbicide use results in nutrient additions, altered biological
20 activity, and the exclusion of some plant species. Fire produces thermal disturbances
21 that have the potential to combust much of the soil organic matter, produce both
22 nutrient mineralization and depletion, breakdown soil structure, alter biological
23 activity, and alter soil hydrology [6], [33]. Biological disturbances not directly
24 related to harvesting activities include activities such as grazing, animal burrowing,
25 road and trail maintenance, and infrastructure development such as building,
26 pipeline, and powerline construction.

27
28 Site preparation disturbances can have variable effects on the forest floor that
29 override those of harvesting [25]. Although logging and mechanical site preparation
30 produce easily visible physical effects, their chemical and biological impacts are
31 more subtle and longer lasting. The same is true of prescribed fire [6]. Even
32 prescribed fires contain a spectrum of low-, medium-, and high-severity soil impacts.
33 Nutrient depletion or availability reduction on a site can then lead to reduced growth
34 by native plants, and colonization opportunities for aggressive invasive weeds [24].

35 36 **1.2 Invasive Weed Colonization Strategies**

37
38 Nonnative plants employ a number of strategies to establish a presence on new
39 sites. These include plant height, wind pollination, adaptability to high and low
40 moisture and nutrient sites, and life histories that key into disturbance [31]. Some
41 nonnative weeds are perfectly adept at invading sites in the absence of soil
42 disturbance. *Lonicera tatarica* in the United States [43] and *Hieracium lepidulum* in

1 New Zealand [41] are good examples of such invasions. Usually invasive plants are
2 given opportunities to invade a new site by the presence of soil disturbance, a change
3 in the frequency of disturbance, or an increase in the severity of disturbance [14].
4 Other opportunities are provided by soil erosion, soil compaction, habitat structure
5 alteration, human distribution of plant propagules (vehicles, tools, soil hauling, etc.),
6 fire exclusion, and high severity wildfire [26], [32]. The latter three are becoming
7 more noticeable as the frequency, area, and severity of wildfires builds in western
8 North America [26].

10 **1.3 Sustainability**

11
12 A number of international meetings and conferences have been held to developed
13 management guidelines and criteria to ensure conservation and sustainable
14 management of forests in Europe and North America [13], [23]. The Santiago
15 Declaration, signed at the 2nd Summit of the Americas in 1998, reaffirmed the
16 criteria and indicators for sustainability formulated at the Helsinki Conference and in
17 the Montreal Process.

18
19 Sustainability is the stewardship goal of nearly every forester, but its definition
20 and attributes are complex [22]. Allen and Hoekstra [1] discussed the concept of
21 sustainability and the difficulty in defining it. They clearly pointed out that there is
22 no absolute definition of sustainability. It must be viewed within the context of
23 human conceptual frameworks and societal decisions on the type of ecosystem to be
24 sustained, and the spatial and temporal scales over which attainment of sustainability
25 is to be judged. Forest sustainability is also defined in terms of society's needs, the
26 professional frame of reference of foresters, and the ecological models that are used
27 to predict future conditions for natural resources. However, our ability to predict
28 future ecosystem conditions is often assailed by the uncertainties of increasing
29 encounters with extreme events, poorly understood ecological processes and
30 linkages, surprises by the law of unintended consequences, the development of
31 critical thresholds, and chaotic system behavior.

32
33 Another approach to the definition of sustainability is to define the conditions
34 that warn of or mark ecosystem deterioration into unsustainability [22]. Although
35 the goals of the Montreal Process and Santiago Declaration are to ensure
36 management of forest lands for sustainability, the Criteria and Indicators are in
37 essence warning flags to obtain the attention of land managers before ecosystems
38 decline into unsustainability.

39
40 A key component of the forest sustainability issue is biological diversity. [16].
41 It is the first criterion addressed by the Montreal Process. The concern over
42 biodiversity is due to the currently high rate of loss of undisturbed native forests and

1 the extinction of species in these forests, and the intensification of management of
2 secondary forests. Man-managed forests have become extremely important to forest
3 biodiversity since they make up a large percentage of the globe's forests. Although
4 the greatest threat to forest biodiversity results from permanent conversion of forest
5 lands to agriculture, urban areas, transportation corridors, water reservoirs, or
6 wastelands, forest management and harvesting also have the potential to change
7 biodiversity. These changes need to be carefully considered. Forest management
8 activities that produce disturbances must be examined within the context of what
9 society deems necessary to maintain forest health and ecosystem integrity. This is
10 not an easy task since, like sustainability, the definitions and attributes of
11 biodiversity are complex and open to considerable interpretation [39], [22].
12

13 **1.4 Plant Diversity Concerns**

14

15 Biodiversity in forests is very complex and involves tremendous numbers and
16 types of plant, animal, and micro-biotic species. In order to focus the objectives of
17 this paper, only plant diversity is considered in this analysis. Plant diversity can be
18 measured in terms of organism genetics, species numbers, biomass, and community
19 structure and function. It can also be evaluated at different landscape scales (alpha,
20 beta, and gamma diversity) and in terms of changes over time. As Kimmins [16]
21 clearly pointed out, no clear scientific relationships between biodiversity and
22 ecosystem health, integrity, productivity, and stability have been identified. The
23 Santiago Declaration of 1998 also makes a strong point that no single criterion or
24 indicator stands alone as an indication of sustainability.
25

26 It is generally accepted that natural disturbance regimes are necessary to maintain
27 native plant species diversity [42], [14]. Forest management activities such as
28 harvesting have variable effects on plant biodiversity [36], [7], [30]. Decreases in
29 native plant species diversity are generally linked to increases and decreases in
30 disturbance frequency and intensity, specific ecosystem responses, and changes in
31 the type of disturbance, not necessarily the mechanism of disturbance (Figure 1) [5],
32 [14].
33

34 Forests are naturally dynamic ecosystems, whose system states ebb and flow in
35 response to physical, chemical, and biological disturbances (Figure 2) [15].
36 Ecosystems with some measure of resiliency recover to their natural, dynamic state
37 after disturbances providing that the severity and frequency of those disturbances are
38 not high. The concern about forest harvesting and site preparation is that the
39 frequency and severity of disturbance could result in a loss of ecosystem integrity,
40 and push system states, such as plant diversity, permanently into a stable, but
41 disturbed and lower level state.
42

1 An example of a resilient forest ecosystem with a rapid recovery is shown in
2 Figure 3 [36], [37]. A *Pinus elliottii* ecosystem in north Florida was clearcut,
3 burned, and prepared for planting with mechanical site preparation. Plant diversity
4 increased in the first four years but then declined to pre-harvesting levels in just over
5 a decade as the second rotation pine stand dominated the site. An example of a
6 decline into a stable, but disturbed lower state is shown in Figure 4. A series of
7 mechanical site preparation disturbances of increasing intensity in the uplands of
8 south Texas permanently shifted the plant community from a species-rich shrub
9 community to a species-poor community dominated by acacias (*Acacia* spp.) and
10 mesquite (*Prosopis* spp.) [9]. Roller chopping and cabling, although intensive site
11 preparation techniques, were not of sufficient severity to push the shrub community
12 into a stable, but lower diversity ecological state.

13
14 Forest harvesting and vegetation management are controversial parts of the
15 biodiversity debate because of their potential to change the frequency, intensity, and
16 type of soil disturbance. A new factor in the plant diversity debate is invasive exotic
17 plant species [39]. In the past, exotic species that invaded forests after harvesting
18 were thought to be only reforestation and stand management headaches. With the
19 general acceptance of the Montreal Process criteria as international standards for
20 certification of sustainable forest management [16], the issue of the impact of
21 invasive, exotic weeds on native plant diversity needs to be examined.

22
23 There is growing evidence that, in some forest ecosystems, non-native weeds
24 invasions pose a far greater threat to plant diversity than the physical effects of
25 harvesting or site preparation alone or in combination with other vegetation
26 management techniques [38], [40]. In addition, non-native weed exploitation of
27 recent wildfire sites is being recognized as a developing vegetation management
28 problem [12]. Vegetation management techniques for controlling post-harvest and
29 post-wildfire “weed” species may need reexamination in light of the spread of non-
30 native plant species.

31
32 This paper examines how soil disturbances related to vegetation management
33 affect post-harvest plant diversity and noxious weed invasions. The special focus of
34 this paper is on the role of fire, both prescribed and wildfire, in affecting the outcome
35 of plant diversity in managed forests. This is not an attempt to link vegetation
36 management-related plant diversity changes with ecosystem integrity, health, or
37 stability, only to examine trends.

38 39 **2. METHODS**

40
41 This paper is a review and synthesis of information on soil disturbance after
42 vegetation management and plant diversity. Although different vegetation

1 management techniques (mechanical, fire, and chemical) are discussed, the main
2 emphasis is on fire impacts. Several vegetation management case studies in the
3 Southwest are examined.

4
5 Local information was derived from two studies in Arizona on pinyon-juniper
6 (*Pinus edulis* and *Juniperus* spp.) and ponderosa pine (*P. ponderosa*) sites near
7 Flagstaff, Arizona. These represent forests with different productivities,
8 management potentials, and vegetation management approaches.

10 **2.1 Ponderosa Pine**

11
12 At the ponderosa pine sites in the vicinity of Flagstaff, Arizona, , measurements
13 were taken in 16 pine stands on soils of volcanic parent materials (derived from
14 basalt flows, ash falls, and cinder deposits) with progressively greater degrees of
15 soils disturbance [9], [27]. The treatments and disturbances were: Control - four
16 untreated pine stands with no tree harvesting in past 30 years; Thin Only - four
17 thinned stands, >30% of pine basal area removed between 1987 and 1993; Thin and
18 Burn - four stands thinned as above and broadcast burned within 3-4 years of
19 thinning; and Wildfire - four stands burned by a wildfire in 1996 with >90% of tree
20 basal area killed. The residual impact upon soils, measured in 2000 in a total of 64
21 plots as percentages of exposed bare soil, reduced litter cover, and vegetation basal
22 area. The data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis 1-way ANOVA test ($p < 0.05$).
23 Understory diversity in the above stands was measured in 1999 as both species
24 richness (number of understory plant taxa per plot, including both native and non-
25 native taxa), and evenness (a Braun-Blanquet abundance class was assigned to each
26 understory plant taxon in the plot and summed over all taxa in each plot to yield a
27 plot score).

28
29 At the pinyon-juniper site near Heber, Arizona, , a 10 ha opening was created in
30 a pinyon-juniper stand during a fuelwood harvest [2]. The residual slash was lopped
31 and scattered, and left to dry for two years before burning in the spring of 1991.
32 Locations where slash was piled 2-3 m high had the greatest burn severity. Areas
33 between the piles burned at a low severity of not at all. Vegetation reestablishment
34 was measured periodically after the prescribed fire.

36 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

38 **3.1 Plant Diversity Impacts – Harvesting and Site Preparation**

39
40 A number of investigators have closely examined the effects of forest harvesting
41 and associated site preparation practices on plant diversity. Most of these studies

1 addressed the effects of harvesting on total plant diversity, not the quality of that
2 diversity. A summary of the results reported by Neary et al. [27] are presented here.

3 4 **Harvesting Operations and Mechanical Site Preparation**

5
6 The majority of the research studies dealing mostly with harvesting impacts
7 reported no change or an increase in plant diversity [27] (Figure 5). Of six studies
8 reviewed for this paper that dealt only with harvesting impacts, none reported a long-
9 term decrease in plant diversity, one documented an increase in plant diversity, three
10 measured no changes, and two had mixed results. Halpern and Spies [11] reported a
11 decrease in species richness one year after a Douglas-fir harvesting operation. By 12
12 and 24 years after harvest, total plant species richness had increased from the pre-
13 harvest condition. However, their study included prescribed fire.

14
15 Very few studies have examined mechanical site preparation in the absence of
16 harvesting. Of five papers reviewed by Neary et al. [27] that studied only mechanical
17 site preparation treatment impacts, none reported a long-term decrease in plant
18 diversity, three documented an increase in plant diversity [36], [18], [29], one
19 measured no changes, and one had mixed results. (Figure 5). For the most part,
20 mechanical site preparation has no effect or increases plant diversity. In situations
21 where plant diversity declined the first year after harvesting and site preparation, it
22 either increased or exhibited no change from pre-disturbance conditions over the
23 long-term [36], [37], [20]. A study by Locasio et al. [18] clearly demonstrated the
24 effect of site preparation severity on plant diversity. The most intensive treatment
25 (shear, rake, disk, and fire) was the only one that resulted in a plant diversity decline.
26 The most intensive treatment in the study reported by Swindel et al. [36], [37], and
27 Lewis et al. [17] documented a diversity reduction (plant cover) in the 1st year, but
28 by the 3rd year plant diversity was increased. However after six years, plant diversity
29 indices were trending back towards that of the pre-harvesting and site preparation as
30 a single species (slash pine) began to dominate the site again.

31 32 **Prescribed Fire**

33
34 Fire is a useful tool for increasing herbaceous plant diversity at the expense of
35 woody species that are not fire adapted or eliminating some nonnative invasive
36 species [35]. Schimmel and Granstrom [34] demonstrated the effect of high fire
37 severity on reducing plant diversity. Of the plant diversity studies reviewed by
38 Neary et al. [27], almost as many studies reported increases or no effect as mixed
39 results. None of the studies reported only decreases in plant diversity.

1
2 **Herbicides**
3

4 Herbicides rarely increase plant diversity in the short-term. Brooks et al. [3]
5 measured short-term increases in herbaceous plant diversity due to a reduction in
6 competing woody species from the use of four different herbicides. Although plant
7 diversity is often reduced in the short-term (1-5 years; [44], it usually recovers in the
8 long-term (>7 years; [21].
9

10 **3.1 Ponderosa Pine and Fire - Plant Diversity Impacts**
11

12 Although harvesting and reforestation activities in ponderosa pine forests in the
13 Southwest have historically been low in frequency and intensity relative to other
14 forests in the country, this situation is likely to change in the near future. The need
15 to reduce fuel build-ups in a short time frame will certainly increase the levels of
16 harvesting and extent of soil disturbance to those not seen since the early 20th century
17 [26]. The current experience in ponderosa pine stands in northern Arizona being
18 treated to reduce fuels or subjected to catastrophic wildfire, indicates that harvesting-
19 related soil disturbances invite the establishment of early seral, invasive weeds, and
20 particularly non-native (exotic) weedy species. Harvesting is not the only activity
21 implicated in the invasive weed spread. Wildfires in unthinned stands are also
22 involved in the landscape-level weed invasion. The establishment of these non-
23 native invasive species may pose a far greater risk to plant diversity than harvesting
24 operations.
25

26 Exotic plant abundance has not been significantly increased by thinning
27 operations in the ponderosa pine stands of northern Arizona [9], [27] (Figure 6).
28 There was little difference in the amount of bare soil between the untreated, thinned,
29 and thinned and burned plots (8.6 to 9.9 % bare soil). Harvest-related soil impacts
30 such as soil compaction or erosion were not measured, but in any case weedy exotic
31 plants apparently responded similarly to the different stand conditions [9]. The
32 addition of prescribed fire significantly increased the abundance of invasive weeds
33 (Figure 6).
34

35 The sites burned by a wildfire in 1996 had the greatest residual impact of
36 invasive plants due to reduced litter cover and much exposed soil (36 %). Plots
37 measured in 2000 from the 1996 wildfire were outside of salvage logging areas and
38 hence had no soil impacts from recent mechanized equipment (although prior to the
39 fire many stands were subject to commercial and non-commercial tree thinning).

40 Major exotic species found in the post-treatment stands included *Chenopodium*
41 *album*, *Salsola australis*, *Teloxys graveolens*, *Laennectia schiedeana*, *Conyza*
42 *canadensis*, *Verbascum thapsus*, *Linaria dalmatica*, *Pseudognaphalium viscosum*

1 and the grasses, *Bromus tectorum*, *Poa pratensis*, *Hordeum leporinum*, and
2 *Bromopsis inermis*. Some of the latter were actually introduced as part of the seed
3 mix in post-disturbance re-seeding efforts. Most of these species are invasive. They
4 have prolific seed or vegetative reproduction, high dispersal capability, and rapidly
5 establish on recent soil disturbances. For many of these species, seeds are abundant
6 and have long viability in the soil. Characteristically, these species form virtual
7 monocultures soon after soil disturbances and ensuing years.

8
9 The addition of these exotic species to the understory flora after soil disturbances by
10 recent tree harvests, prescribed fires, and moderate to high severity wildfires changed
11 the patterns of floristic biodiversity. The results were detailed by Griffis et al. [9].
12 The number of understory plant taxa were not affected by any of the disturbances.
13 Plots without tree harvests in the past 30 year also contained non-native and invasive
14 weedy species, but these were never abundant. The weedy species in these plots
15 probably reflect logging disturbances 30 or more years ago and sustained grazing
16 pressures by wildlife (mainly elk) and domestic cattle.

17
18 On the other hand the more severe soil disturbances sharply increase the
19 abundance of weedy and invasive exotic species. The evenness component of
20 diversity [19] increased with tree thinning and prescribed fire and more drastically
21 with stand-replacing wildfire. This highlights the fact that high diversity itself may
22 not be a desired stand condition in ponderosa pine forests, if the content of diversity
23 is an abundance of undesirable weed species.

24
25 While many invasive weedy species are palatable to grazing ungulates and may
26 serve in the short term to reduce soil erosion, they also are suspected of increasing
27 fuels continuity and flammability in stands and inhibiting succession by native
28 plants. These possible effects remain to be studied.

30 **3.1 Pinyon-Juniper and Fire - Plant Diversity Impacts**

31
32 Prescribed fire had a very negative effect on plant diversity at the pinyon-juniper
33 site. Most of the biomass that burned was in slash piles left over from the fuelwood
34 removal. Interval areas did not burn much due to a limitation of woody and
35 herbaceous fuels. The slash pile fires apparently crossed a critical temperature
36 threshold that they burned hot enough to sterilize the soil and kill any residual seeds
37 [6]. Six years after burning most areas where slash piles had burned were still
38 devoid of vegetation (Kruse, personal communication). Other pinyon-juniper areas
39 with the same treatment have been observed to be devoid of vegetation 25 years after
40 burning.

41

1 A ring of blue gramma grass (*Bouteloua gracilis*) was found on many plots in a
2 ring around the outer edge of the burned pinyon-juniper slash piles. No other native
3 pioneer grasses or herbaceous species have entered the burned areas at this time.
4 Unlike the ponderosa pine sites, nonnative invasive weeds have also been absent. It
5 is not known if this was due to the lack of a seed source or the high severity of the
6 prescribed fire. While fire is known to enhance the spread of a number of invasive
7 weed species [8], a high frequency of fire can also keep invasives out of sites with
8 thriving, fire-adapted grasses and forbs [35].
9

10 Plant diversity on the burned pinyon-juniper sites at Heber has certainly been
11 suffered. By comparison, adjacent areas that were harvested and roller-chopped
12 have responded very well. Fire is known to reduce the shrub and grass component of
13 pinyon-juniper stands while increasing the forb cover [4]. Also, the literature record
14 on the effects of fire on biodiversity is mixed [27]. The critical factor in this
15 situation was probably fire severity [6]. Unless fire severity can be reduced by
16 selecting a time when fire will be less active or by reducing fuel loads, pinyon-
17 juniper sites should not be burned to protect plant diversity.
18

19 At another pinyon-juniper site studied by Overby et al. [28], prescribed fire
20 increased the percent cover of perennial grasses, perennial forbs, annuals, and the
21 number of species. Their data indicated that the prescribed fire increased plant
22 diversity (Table I). However, Overby et al. [28] recommended that fire not be used
23 for site preparation due to the high percentage of bare soil and the potential for high
24 loss of total and mineralizable nitrogen on a site that is nitrogen poor. Lopping and
25 scattering or crushing of slash were viewed as less disturbing to potential site
26 productivity. Their conclusions aptly point out that even though plant diversity may
27 be increased on some sites by using fire for site preparation, the loss of critical
28 nutrients during burning and post-fire erosion may offset the ecological advantage
29 gained by burning.
30
31
32

33 4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS 34

35 A review of literature published mostly in the past decade clearly indicates that
36 soil disturbing activities such as harvesting, mechanical site preparation, and fire do
37 not always directly in themselves produce adverse, long-term changes in plant
38 diversity [27]. In many instances, harvesting increases plant diversity for a period of
39 time since disturbance-dependent native plants thrive in the perturbed soil
40 environment. There is growing evidence that, in some forest ecosystems, noxious
41 weeds invasions after soil disturbance pose a far greater threat to plant diversity than
42 the physical effects of harvesting or site preparation alone or in combination. In

1 some instances fire has increased the abundance of invasive weeds and in others it
2 has had no effect at all. Foresters should be aware of the ecological processes and
3 dynamics of weed species invasion and the species of invasive weeds they need to
4 deal with when planning inter-rotation vegetation management activities.
5

6 In ponderosa pine forests in northern Arizona and forests elsewhere, the
7 composition, structure and function of the ecosystem is very sensitive to soil
8 disturbances imposed by various land management treatments, whether they are tree
9 or understory harvests, pesticide applications, fire prescriptions, or manipulations to
10 attain some future stand condition. Ecological “surprises” are hidden and latent in
11 the present stands we manipulate, and these surprises are often triggered by soil
12 disturbances, as our example with pinyon-juniper woodlands suggests. Desired
13 effects of stand and landscape manipulations can be, and more often than not are,
14 offset by less desirable, unforeseen, unwelcome effects such as exotic species weed
15 invasions in either the short- or long-term.
16

17 Despite major science advances in the 20th century, we do not understand all the
18 vast complexities of soil physical, chemical, and biological processes. Some of the
19 results of soil disturbances brought about by heavy machinery, soil seed banks
20 dominated by exotic plants, accumulated residues of alien biochemicals, excesses of
21 soil nitrogen fertilization, disruption of soil carbon cycling processes, wildfires, and
22 other human caused effects, can be likened to results of tuning an auto engine with a
23 sledge hammer. The difference, of course, is that evolution proceeds within the
24 unsustainable chaos we leave behind in the forest, whereas the automobile is
25 destroyed. An ignored or forgotten lesson for management is to treat ecosystems
26 with some humility. We should not forge ahead with extensive and intensive forest
27 manipulations until we understand the processes behind the results at finer scales.
28 Otherwise, we may have to deal with the “law of unintended consequences”. Major,
29 unforeseen and unwanted results, such as the regionally widespread, overstocked
30 forests in the western United States or widespread nonnative weed plant invasions,
31 are likely to continue to occur.
32

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34
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37 pinyon-juniper ecosystem fire effects on plants are gratefully acknowledged.
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16 **Figure Legends**

17

18 **Figure 1** Plant diversity levels as a function of disturbance (Adapted from [5] [9])

19

20 **Figure 2** Changes in the states of ecosystems in response to disturbance (Adapted
21 from [15])

22

23 **Figure 3** Changes in plant diversity of time in a *Pinus elliotii* forest after harvesting,
24 prescribed fire, and intensive mechanical site preparation (Adapted from [36] [37])

25

26 **Figure 4** Alteration in species richness after intensive mechanical site preparation in
27 Texas brushlands (Adpated from [9]).

28

29 **Figure 5** Literature reports of the effect of harvesting, mechanical site preparation
30 and fire on plant diversity (Adapted from [27]).

31

32 **Figure 6** Exotic plant abundance in a ponderosa pine ecosystem of northern Arizona
33 after thinning, thinning plus prescribed fire, and wildfire (Adapted from [27]).

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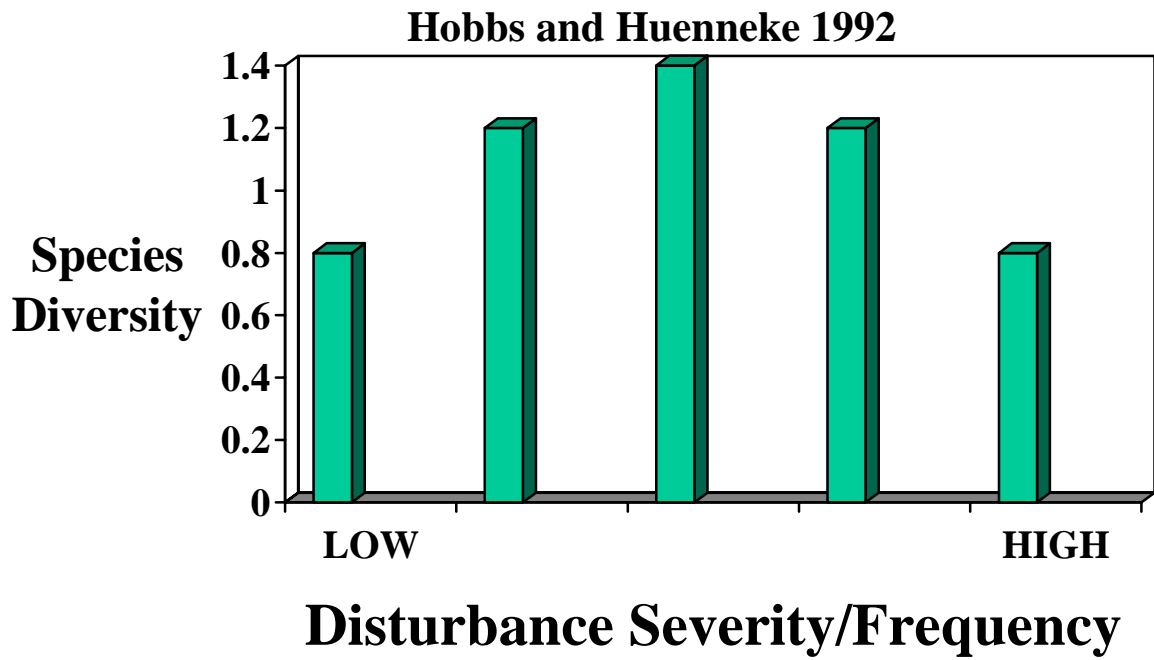
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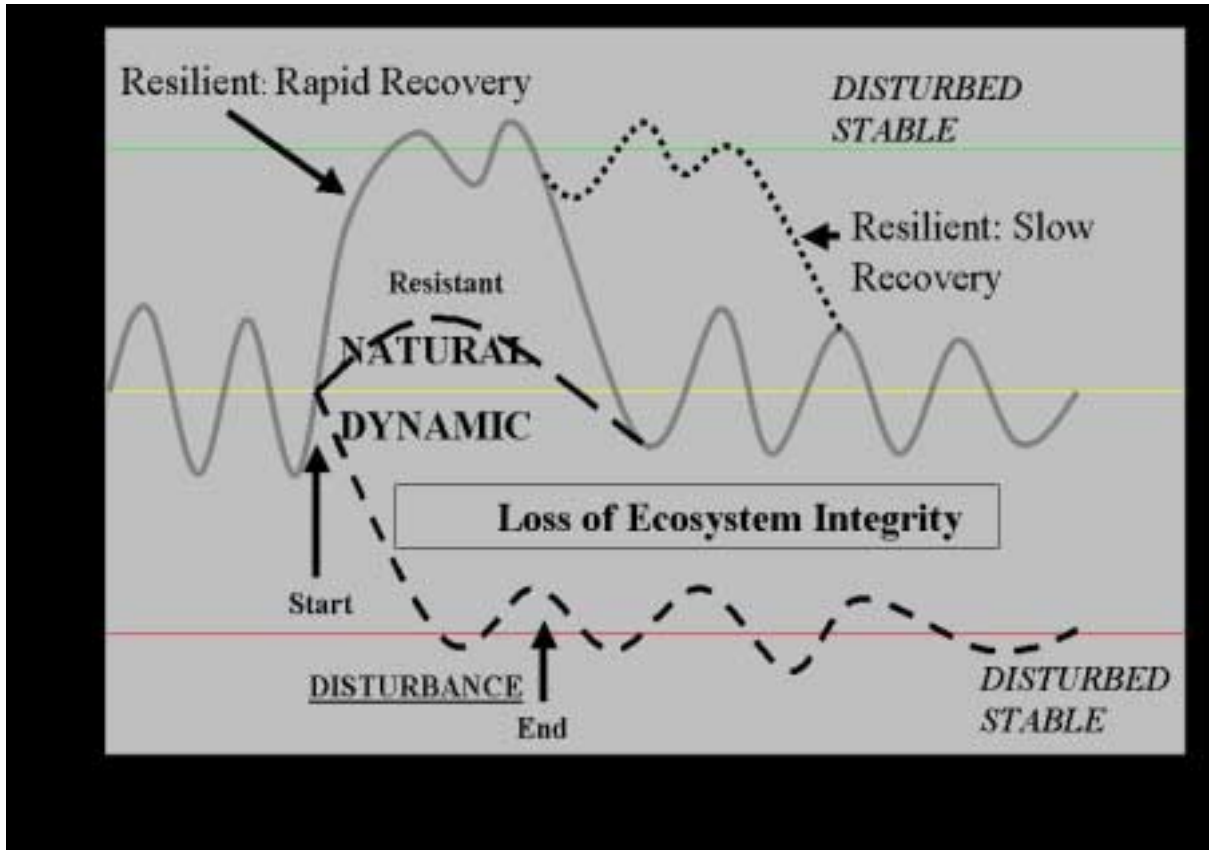
1 **Figures**
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3 **Figure 1**
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DISTURBANCE AND BIODIVERSITY



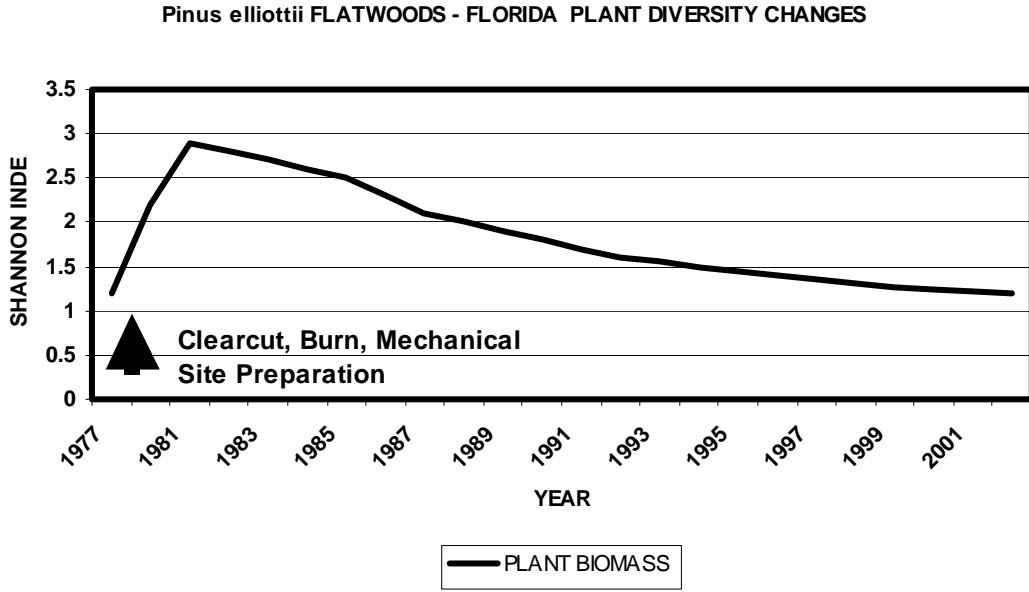
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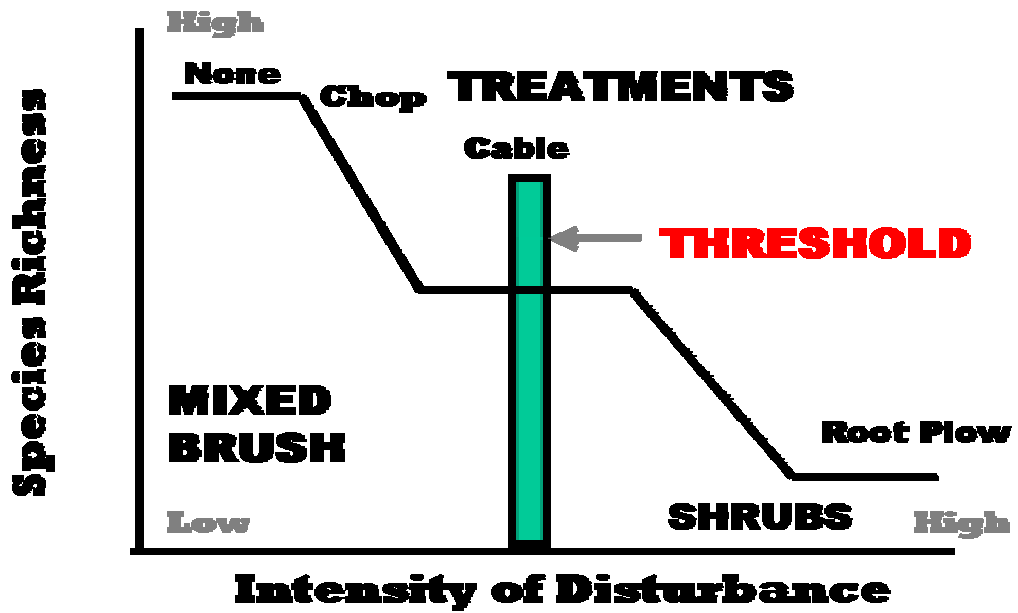


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2 **Figure 3**

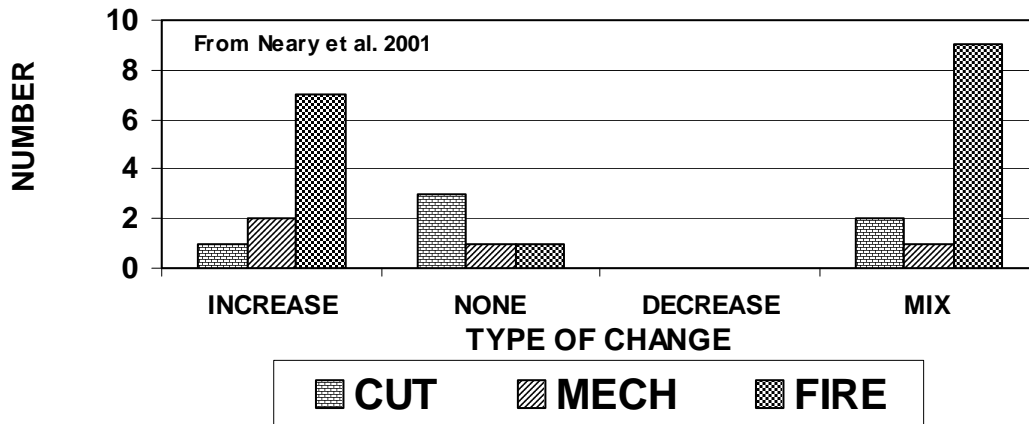


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8 **Figure 4**



1 **Figure 5**

LITERATURE ON PLANT DIVERSITY IMPACTS



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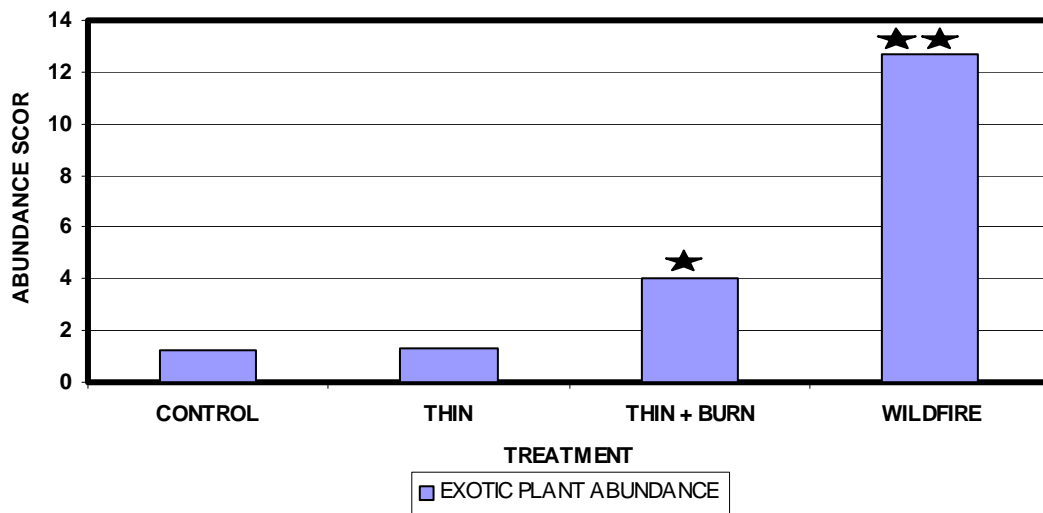
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6 **Figure 6**

EXOTIC PLANT ABUNDANCE IN PONDEROSA PINE



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TABLES

Table I. Vegetation and ground cover in 1997, 2 years after a prescribed fire at the Hogg Pasture pinyon-juniper study site, Coconino National Forest, Arizona (Adapted from [28]).

Cover Category	Unburned	Prescribed Fire
Species (Number)	16	24
.....Percent Cover.....		
PLANTS		
Perennial Grasses	2.0	6.0
Perennial Forbs	0.03	2.0
Annuals	0.03	12.0
Shrubs	9.0	7.0
Unidentified Herbs	0.05	2.0
GROUND TYPE		
Litter	6.0	10.0
Coarse Woody Debris	1.9	1.4
Rock-Gravel	33.0	38.0
Soil	59.0	49.0

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