A slow unpicking of the landscape thread? Changes in tropical savanna birds

on a gradient of habitat modification over 12 years of monitoring

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Abstract (250)

In south-eastern Australia, land clearing has been extensive, resulting in an avifauna that

has been significantly depleted. In northern Australia, land clearing is less but increasing.

In this study, I examined the change in bird composition in a Queensland tropical savanna

woodland where some land clearing has commenced. The data were collected from 60

sites sampled seven times between 2004 and 2016. I used a range of multivariate and

non-parametric methods to examine the variation in species composition over the three

categories of habitat modification, and years of survey. 21 899 bird records, representing

116 species were recorded. The was a significant difference in species composition

across years, habitat modification and the interaction though marginal tests for

environmental variables (green and non-green fractional cover, preceding 12-month

rainfall, and Yellow-throated Miner *Manorina flavigula* abundance) indicated a low of

explanatory power (45%). Forty-eight species were recorded in significantly different

abundances across the three habitat modification categories (22 more abundant in intact

vegetation, 12 in thinned, and 14 in cleared) and 53 species were recorded in significantly

different abundances over the seven years of survey. Species associated with cleared

sites were the Zebra Finch *Taeniopygia castanotis*, Budgerigar *Melopsittacus undulatus*,

Nankeen Kestrel *Falco cenchroides*, with intact sites, Grey Shrike-thrush *Colluricincla*

harmonica, Crested Bellbird *Oreoica gutturalis*, Striped Honeyeater *Plectorhyncha*

lanceolata and thinned sites, Jacky Winter *Microeca fascinans* and Brown Treecreeper

Climacteris picumnus. This study indicated that in largely intact tropical savanna

landscape, small scale modifications can result in significant changes to the bird

community.

Introduction

Despite being the single most significant threat to biodiversity globally (Tilman *et al.* 2017),

land clearing for agriculture continues at a depressingly high rate in Australia, and

especially in the state of Queensland (Reside *et al.* 2017). This clearing is predominantly

broad scale and often including pasture improvement using exotic perennial grasses,

targeted clearing of productive areas such as alluvial floodplains for crops, or selective

the removal of a proportion of the canopy or understory (i.e., thinning) to promote grass

growth (Walker and Weston 1990). The extent of clearing at both a local scale and regional

can have small to significant impacts on the fauna (Tilman *et al.* 2017); and in the case of

birds - a functionally diverse component of woodlands and forests - the effects can be

substantial (Hannah *et al.* 2007; Martin and McIntye 2007). In southern and eastern

Australia, land clearing has been extensive, and resulting in an avifauna that has been

significantly depleted and therefore much less resilient to extended periods of climate

extremes (Bennett *et al.* 2014). As a consequence, the subtropical and temperate

woodland bird community in these areas, has been proposed for listing as a threatened

ecological community under national legislation (Fraser *et al.* 2019).

The time lag to species decline and extinction after substantial landscape change, is long

and can be commence many decades prior to the depletion of species becoming

manifest (Liao *et al.* 2022). In Australia, the ongoing loss and fragmentation of woodlands

and forests is linked to the regional loss of species (Ford *et al.* 2009) and the

reconfiguration of both the bird community and vegetation has promoted a change in

such as the dominance and despotism of hyper-aggressive colonising avifauna that

continue to promote the reduction of functional groups such as small-bodied birds

(Maron *et al.* 2013). In areas where the clearing for pastoralism is still limited, there is

evidence that small scale disturbance can initiate changes in the avifauna (Kutt and

Fisher 2011), that could signal the commencement of a longer term impact on birds

(Hannah *et al.* 2007).

In this study, I examined the change in bird composition in a tropical savanna woodland in

sites sampled over multiple years, and representing a gradient of habitat modification

from clearing, thinning and intact vegetation. What is notable in this study is that the

landscape is predominantly uncleared, unlike other parts of eastern Australia; however,

clearing in Queensland continues to cumulatively increase. I investigated a very simple

question: what the change in the bird community (composition and species abundances)

in response to both habitat modification and over the 12-year period of survey.

Articulating how species and communities change in the initial phase of habitat

modification is important for planning, managing, and mitigating the long-term negative

effects of these changes, especially in the context of overarching climate change.

Methods

Study Area

The study area is situated in the Desert Uplands bioregion in central-north Queensland

(Fig. 1). The vegetation of the region consists of predominantly *Eucalyptus, Corymbia* and

Acacia woodlands, open grasslands and ephemeral lakes (DERM 2012). The region is

within the southern more arid area of Australia's tropical savannas, with a long term

(1912-2023) mean annual rainfall of 473 mm (Uanda Station, Bureau of Meteorology

2020). The dominant land use is cattle grazing, and vegetation clearing in the Desert

Uplands bioregion is estimated to be 7.4%, largely within the Jericho, Bogie River Hills and

Prairie – Torrens Creek sub-regions (the latter sub-region being the location of this study)

(Queensland Department of Environment and Science 2022).

The study was undertaken across four properties (Kalleroo, Penrice, Timaru and Woura

Park stations) located within a 50 km radius of Torrens Creek (20°48'S, 145°00'E) (Fig. 1).

Sixty sites were selected for sampling reflecting three habitat modification types –

predominantly cleared of native vegetation, thinned native vegetation, and intact native

vegetation (hereafter cleared, thinned and intact). All sites sampled in this study were in a

single broad vegetation unit (1: 1,000,000) *Eucalyptus populnea* (poplar box) and *E.*

melanophloia (silver-leaved ironbark) or *E. whitei* (White's ironbark) dry woodlands to

open woodlands on sandplains or depositional plains.The three habitat modification

types including the thinning method is described in Tassicker *et al*. (2006). The details of

the survey periods, and treatment breakdown across the properties is provided in

Supplementary Material 2 and 3.

Bird surveys

The bird surveys were undertaken seven times between 2004 and 2016, with no data

collected in 2007, 2009-2012 and 2015. All surveys were conducted in the dry season

between May and October, the exact timing dictated by access due to prevailing weather

and permission from property managers. Sixty sites were sampled in 2004 and 2005

before Kalleroo managers revoked permission to access the property; therefore 50 sites

were sampled in the remaining years. One site at Kalleroo could not be accessed in 2005.

The bird surveys were undertaken within a 1 ha site (Perry *et al.* 2016). In each site, 8 x 10-

minute meandering diurnal bird census were conducted over a four-day period. Two

counts were undertaken at each site on each of the four days: one in the morning between

dawn and the three hours after dawn and the other after this period and before dusk. All

birds seen and heard within the site were recorded, though species flying over the site

were not recorded unless they were interacting with the site (i.e., hunting, Perry *et al.*

2012).

As there were no consistent site-based habitat data collected at each site except for 2004

and 2005, I used seasonal fractional cover and rainfall as environmental predictors.

Fractional cover is the estimated proportion of bare ground (i.e., soil), green (i.e.,

photosynthetic vegetation in the ground, shrub, and tree layer) and dry (i.e., non-

photosynthetic vegetation, litter, logs and tree branches) cover, within each pixel. For this

project, we used the twelve-month seasonal Landsat composite product, which selects

representative pixels through the determination of the medoid (multi-dimensional

equivalent of the median) of three months (a season) of fractional cover imagery (Joint

Remote Sensing Research Program 2021). For further details on this compositing method

see Flood (2013). The product was extracted via the VegMachine^{TM} API (Beutel *et al.* 2019),

which now uses an updated version of fractional cover products (Joint Remote Sensing

Research Program and Department of Environment and Science 2022).

Monthly (and therefore annual) rainfall data were extracted from the Bureau of

Meteorology monthly gridded rainfall dataset

(http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/averages/climatology/monthly-rainfall-

metadata.shtml). The grids are generated using statistical or optimal interpolation which

is basically a form of least squares regression applied in two dimensions (Daley 1993).

The background error correlation and variance form the most important elements of

statistical interpolation, which are determined from interstation correlations for each

month, across the climatology period 1981 to 2010. For a given realisation, the

observation increment is spread out according to the spatial structure of the respective

background error variance for that month. This means that the level of accuracy is

expected to be better in data dense areas and degrade to those defined by the

background error variance in areas of data sparseness. To effectively account for low

network density in parts of Australia, two passes of the statistical interpolation technique

are applied (Glowacki *et al.* 2012). See Evans *et al.* (2020) for full details of the analysis

approach.

I used the mean seasonal fractional cover for the 12-month period (i.e., the mean of the

four three-month data periods) directly prior to each bird survey calculated for a 500 m

radius surrounding each survey site. Rainfall is the total monthly rainfall for the survey

site, again for the 12-month period prior to the bird survey.

Analysis

For each site and for each survey, I was able to derive total species richness and total

abundance of all birds, and abundance of each species. Abundance data were calculated

as the total number of birds of each species recorded during each site surveys (i.e., total

of eight counts), rather than any calculation of absolute density. Previous studies have

demonstrated that measures of relative abundance provide patterns of population trends

proportional to those derived from estimates of absolute abundance (Hopkins and

Kennedy 2004; Slade and Blair 2000). The scientific and common names, and taxonomic

order for birds tabulated, follow the BirdLife Australia working list of Australian birds

version 4.1 (BirdLife 2022).

I examined the pattern in the bird composition via several multivariate methods. In the

first instance I constructed a site by species abundance array, forth-root transformed the

data and then created a Bray-Curtis resemblance (similarity) matrix. I then examined the

variation in bird composition across the survey years and habitat modification treatments

(and their interaction) via multivariate analysis using the PERMANOVA in PRIMER v7.0.13

(Anderson *et al.* 2008). PERMANOVA is a distance-based, non-parametric, multivariate

analysis of variance that calculates a pseudo *F*-statistic and associated *P*-value by means

of permutations, rather than relying on normal-theory tables (Anderson *et al.* 2008).

Secondly, I examined the relationship between these variables and the bird composition

using the multivariate regression routine DISTILM in PERMANOVA. This routine uses

distance–based redundancy analysis (dbRDA) and performs a constrained ordination and

multivariate multiple regression to find linear combinations predictor variables (Anderson

et al. 2008). I used the best subsets selection procedure in DistLM and Akaike's

Information Criterion (AIC) as the selection criterion and examined the percentage

variation explained for the fitted model and the total variation.

Thirdly, I undertook a constrained canonical analysis of principle coordinates (CAP) for

species composition across habitat types (in this instance, using species abundance

averaged across the years in each habitat modification type) to find the strongest axes of

species correlation through the multivariate cloud that best characterises *a priori* habitat

group differences (Anderson *et al.* 2008). This method also measures agreement between

a priori habitat modification categories species composition. I also fitted species as

vectors to the multivariate ordination via Pearson rank correlations, and I truncated the

vectors to those with a correlation >0.6. I overlaid four environmental predictor variables

as vectors: fractional green and non-green cover, rainfall and Yellow-throated Miner

Manorina flavigula abundance. Fractional bare cover was excluded as it was strongly

negatively correlated to both green (R= -0.69) and non-green cover (R= -0.74). I used the

abundance of Yellow-throated Miners *Manorina flavigula* recorded at each site as this

species is known to influence bird community composition, particularly small-bodied

birds in northern Queensland (Kutt *et al.* 2012c). I used rainfall as many birds in semi-arid

and arid region have a strong association (i.e., presence or abundance) with antecedent

rainfall (Kutt and Kern 2023).

Finally I examined if there was any significant variation in species abundance across the

habitat modification categories using the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric analysis of

variance in Statistica version 13.5.0.17 (TIBCO Software Inc 2018). Given the large number

of samples and species I chose a more conservative significance level of 0.01. I also

examined the variation across years, and again, because of the large number of samples

and categories (i.e., seven years), I used Mood's median test which is a special and more

moderate case of Pearson's Chi-squared test. This non-parametric test compares data

above or below the median, and then examines the observed and expected frequencies

(TIBCO Software Inc 2018).

I tabulated the average abundance (and standard error) for all species for each year and

habitat modification category separately, and then indicated which species demonstrated

significant variation across each category, and which species were only recorded in a

single year or habitat modification category, and which were recorded in all categories.

Results

This study recorded a total of 21,899 birds representing 116 species from the 389 sites

over the seven years of sampling. The most frequently recorded species were Weebill

Smicrornis brevirostris (n=341 sites), Singing Honeyeater *Gavicalis virescens* (n=296),

Rufous Whistler *Pachycephala rufiventris* (n=282), Striated Pardalote *Pardalotus striatus*

(n=282) and Yellow-throated Miner *Manorina flavigula* (n=265). The most abundantly

recorded species were Weebill (n=3263 records), Budgerigar *Melopsittacus undulatus*

(n=1400), Variegated Fairy-wren *Malurus lamberti* (n=1161), Zebra Finch *Taeniopygia*

castanotis (n=1090) and Yellow-throated Miner (n= 872). Twelve bird species were only

recorded once, and 10 of these were only via a single record. Considering the distribution

of species across the habitat modification categories, 23 species were only recorded in a

single category, while 70 species were recorded in all three; for years, this breakdown was

15 and 48 respectively.

The highest mean site species abundance and richness was in the intact vegetation (59.4

± 2.1 and 19.7 ± 0.4 respectively) and lowest in the cleared vegetation (48.9 ± 6.4 and 14.4

± 0.5) (Fig. 2, Table 1). The highest mean site species abundance was recorded in 2005

(85.8 ± 12.1) and the lowest in 2008 (38.7 ± 2.9) and the highest mean site species

richness was in 2014 (20.1 ± 0.7) and the lowest in 2008 (13.8 ± 0.8) (Fig. 3, Supplementary

Table 1).

The PERMANOVA results indicated that there was a significant difference in species

composition across years (df = 6, Pseudo-F = 6.94, P(perm) = 0.001), habitat modification

(df = 2, Pseudo-F = 25.4, P(perm) = 0.001) and the interaction (df = 20, Pseudo-F = 2.43,

P(perm) = 0.001). The larger Pseudo-F (a measure of effect size) for habitat modification

suggest this is a stronger effect than year.

The DistLM marginal test for the habitat modification treatment indicated that for the four

variables tested, all were in the best subset (residual df = 58, AIC = 400.6) and the total

percentage of the variation explained was moderate (R^2 = 36.3%). The marginal tests for

each variable and proportion explained was also small: fractional green (Pseudo-F = 14.6,

P = 0.001, Proportion = 20.1%), fractional non-green (Pseudo-F = 4.6, P = 0.001, Proportion

= 7.3%), rainfall (Pseudo-F = 5.06, P = 0.001, Proportion = 8.0%) and Yellow-throated

Miner abundance (Pseudo-F = 6.63, P = 0.001, Proportion = 10.3%).

The CAP indicated that there was strong separation in species composition across the

habitats, and the assessment of classification veracity indicated that 83.6% were correct

and 16.7% were mis-classified. The thinned treatment had the lowest classification

success (70.0%). The vector fitting (Fig. 4) indicated that species such as Zebra Finch

Taeniopygia castanotis, Budgerigar *Melopsittacus undulatus*, Little Button-quail *Turnix*

velox, Crimson Chat *Epthianura tricolor*, Nankeen Kestrel *Falco cenchroides* were

positively correlated with the cleared sites, Grey Shrike-thrush *Colluricincla harmonica*,

Crested Bellbird *Oreoica gutturalis*, Striped Honeyeater *Plectorhyncha lanceolata* were

positively correlated with the intact sites, and Jacky Winter *Microeca fascinans* and Brown

Treecreeper *Climacteris picumnus* positively correlated with the thinned sites (Fig. 4).

Fractional cover green and non-green were positively correlated with the intact sites, and

rainfall and Yellow-throated Miner were positively correlated with the thinned sites (Fig. 4).

From the entire suite of birds recorded, the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric one-way

analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that 48 species were recorded in significantly

different abundances across the three habitat modification categories (22 more abundant

in intact vegetation, 12 in thinned, and 14 in cleared). Examples of species that were more

abundant in different habitat modification categories included Striped Honeyeater

Plectorhyncha lanceolata, Spiny-cheeked Honeyeater *Acanthagenys rufogularis*, Grey-

crowned Babbler *Pomatostomus temporalis*, Rufous Whistler *Pachycephala rufiventris*,

Double-barred Finch *Taeniopygia bichenovii* (intact vegetation), Yellow-throated Miner

Manorina flavigula, Weebill *Smicrornis brevirostris*, Jacky Winter *Microeca fascinans*

(thinned vegetation), Crested Pigeon *Ocyphaps lophotes,* Nankeen Kestrel *Falco*

cenchroides, Galah *Eolophus roseicapilla*, Crimson Chat *Epthianura tricolor* and Zebra

Finch *Taeniopygia castanotis* (cleared vegetation) (Table 1).

For years of survey, 53 species were recorded in significantly different abundances, and

examples included Peaceful Dove *Geopelia placida* in 2014, Horsfield's Bronze-Cuckoo

Chalcites basalis in 2006, Little Button-quail *Turnix velox* in 2005, Cockatiel *Nymphicus*

hollandicus in 2014, Rainbow Lorikeet *Trichoglossus moluccanus* in 2013, Red-backed

Fairy-wren *Malurus melanocephalus* in 2016, Rufous-throated Honeyeater *Conopophila*

rufogularis in 2014, Yellow-throated Miner *Manorina flavigula* in 2006, White-browed

Woodswallow *Artamus superciliosus* in 2016 and Mistletoebird *Dicaeum hirundinaceum*

in 2013 (Supplementary Material 1).

Discussion

The clearing of native vegetation in many parts of the world, including central and south-

eastern Australia, have caused a substantial past and continuing disarray of bird

communities and species (Berryman *et al.* 2024; Thomson *et al.* 2015). The primary cause

of bird community decline in Australia is land clearing associated with agriculture

(Lindenmayer 2022). In this study I examined the pattern of bird species in a series of sites

(sampled over multiple years), reflecting the preliminary stages of more extensive land

clearing that has already occurred elsewhere in Australia. In general, there were clear

differences in species composition, abundance and species richness across the cleared

and intact tropical savanna woodlands, and a more muted differences with the thinned

vegetation. The concept of land clearing thresholds for the prevention of species decline

and local extirpation have been well articulated (McAlpine *et al.* 2002), yet the attrition of

native vegetation continues in a dispiritingly substantial manner on many land tenures

with little effective legislative oversight (Ward *et al.* 2019).

This data spanned a 12-year period, though I only sampled the birds at each site on seven

occasions. The differences in bird abundance and species richness in each year of

sampling was variable, and seemingly demonstrated very little association with overall

rainfall. The variation in composition was largely driven by the degree of habitat

modification, more so than annual sampling variation, reflected also by the correlation of

different bird communities with fraction cover green and non-green. A group of sites

(largely the thinned treatment) demonstrated some relationship with higher rainfall, a

function of the subtle rainfall gradient in the property locations (north to south). The

pattern in bird variation across the sites was similar to the initial sampling (Kutt *et al.*

2012b; Tassicker *et al.* 2006), and this immutability reflects the lack of on-going clearing,

or stark changes in management which can deplete bird communities (Dorrough *et al.*

2012). However many patterns of change do not manifest without multi-decadal

monitoring (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2022).

There were clear differences in composition between the intact and thinned vegetation in

comparison to the cleared sites (including a higher green and non-green fractional cover),

and woodland bird species susceptible to habitat fragmentation (i.e., Striped Honeyeater,

Crested Bellbird, Brown Treecreeper, Rufous Whistler, Grey-crowned Babbler) were more

abundant (Maron *et al.* 2011). A large proportion of the variation in composition remained

unexplained (63.7% in the DistLM analysis), which suggest more localised site based

mechanisms were not captured by the four environmental variables examined; these

could be subtle aspect of productivity, and plant and habitat resources unable to be

recorded by remotely sensed metrics (Montague-Drake *et al.* 2009). Despite this, the

mechanisms for these species decline in eastern Australia, caused by more substantial

habitat loss and fragmentation, include reduced dispersal and higher nest predation and

then reduced breeding leading to local extirpation (Ford *et al.* 2009) In addition there is

strong evidence now that simplification of the vegetation structure and Noisy Miner

Manorina melanocephala despotism is a significant threat (Thomson *et al.* 2015). One

aspect of the thinned vegetation sites is the presence of Yellow-throated Miners in higher

abundances. This species, like the Noisy Miner, can become more abundant and

hyperaggressive when vegetation is cleared or thinned, which enhances behavioural traits

that facilitate small bird persecution or exclusion (Kutt *et al.* 2012c).

The number of species recorded in all the three habitat modification categories was high

(59% of all species recorded) and those recorded over the 7 years of survey, in only a

single category were mainly in either the intact vegetation (12 species) or cleared

vegetation (9 species). This suggests that despite some habitat modification across the

four properties sampled, the small extent of clearing allows for the persistence of a

considerable proportion of the woodland bird species in this landscape. This contrasts

with sites sampled in an identical manner (i.e., bird census method) in tropical savanna

woodlands, at the southern end of the Desert Uplands bioregion, and with a greater extent

of landscape modification and fragmentation (Hannah *et al.* 2007); bird species richness

in cleared sites were substantially reduced (8.1 species per site compared to this study

14.4) whereas species richness in intact sites was remarkably coincident (19.9 species

versus 19.8 in this study). The contrast in species in each habitat modification category

was typical of those occurring in different abundances in treed or largely treeless habitats,

such as woodland dependent birds (i.e., species in Meliphagidae, Pachycephalidae,

Acanthizidae) and species associated with grasslands and bare ground (i.e., Crested

Pigeon, Ground Cuckoo Shrike, Crimson Chat, Horsfield Bushlark, Zebra Finch) (Barrett *et*

al. 1994).

In this study there was no clear pattern in the change in species over years of survey,

though I did not measure fine scale site-based resources that would interact with annual

weather patterns to influence changing species abundance over time. There were clear

low points (i.e., 2008) and peaks (i.e., 2015, 2014) in total bird species and abundance,

and as such I could not pinpoint any correlative cause. Woodland bird assemblages in

Australia can be highly variable from year to year (Maron *et al.* 2005), and these patterns

can be driven by extreme climatic events (Bennett *et al.* 2014), associated resource

pulses or declines (Collett *et al.* 2022) as well as seasonal regional or continental

migration patterns (Chan 2001). Of the 116 species recorded, 70 were recorded in all

years and 23 in just a single year, suggesting a degree of stability in the bird assemblage

present across all sites. However the species that influenced the peak and trough years

included resource tracking honeyeaters (i.e., Brown, Black, Rufous-throated, White-

plumed and White-throated Honeyeaters, and the Crimson Chat), small granivores with

distinct pulses of abundance (i.e., Little Button-quail, Galah, Budgerigar, Zebra and

Double-barred Finch in 2005) and seasonal migrants such as the Rainbow Bee-eater,

Sacred Kingfisher, Red-capped Robin, woodswallow species). These patterns of annual

change are typical of tropical savanna woodlands (Kutt *et al.* 2012a; Woinarski *et al.* 2000;

Woinarski and Tidemann 1991).

Changes in the vertebrate fauna of tropical savannas in northern Australia are evident,

and especially so in the mammal fauna (Fisher *et al.* 2014). The data for bird assemblages

seem to suggest more resilience to environmental change (Woinarski *et al.* 2012), though

there is likely a geographical effect; in some areas of north-eastern Australia where

overgrazing has significantly altered intact vegetation (i.e., permanently altered the

ground cover, and removed the shrub layer), the avifauna can also be depleted (Kutt and

Fisher 2011). In this study I have demonstrated that, where changes in land cover have

recently commenced there are significant site-based changes in the bird community, but

not necessarily changes in the avifauna across the wider landscape. Given the increase in

extreme weather events driven by climate change, which can effect species occurrence

and abundance (Connell *et al.* 2022) and cause confounding or interacting patterns in

concert with land use change (Oliver and Morecroft 2014), monitoring bird pattern and

causes for any observed change over time is important. The sites described in this study

were last sampled in 2016, and surveys have been discontinued. Long term monitoring is

a critical action for improved landscape management and conservation (Lindenmayer *et*

al. 2022); extension, enhancement or even recasting of long term research, such as those

presented here, should be ongoing, and include more specific focus on biological

mechanisms for species variation, and the effects of climate change.

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602   **Figure 1.** The location of the properties where the bird surveys were undertaken in this
603   study. The grey shaded are indicates intact vegetation and the white areas, cleared. Areas
604   that are thinned are included within the grey shaded areas, as they still represent intact
605   vegetation in the mapping product used for this figure.

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608 **Figure 2.** The mean (and standard error) for bird abundance and species richness per
609 survey for each habitat modification class across all years of survey.

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613   **Figure 3.** The mean (and standard error) for bird abundance and species richness for each

614   year of survey across all sites combined. The average rainfall for each year across all sites

615   is also presented.

Figure 4. Spearman rank correlations of bird species (R>0.6) and four environmental vectors (inclusive of one despotic bird species) overlain on the constrained canonical analysis of principle ordination of the bird composition for each habitat modification treatment (all years combined).

622 **Table 1.** The mean (and standard error) of bird abundance and species richness, and each species, recorded across all surveys, for each of the

623 habitat modification classes. The P indicates where there is a significant difference in the surveys, tested via the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric

624 analysis of variance. **H** is the test statistic and where the P value is <0.01 the highest mean is in **bold** and grey-shaded, and the second highest mean

625 is just grey-shaded. The **Freq** column indicates if a species was recorded in a single habitat modification type (S) or all types (A).

Common name	Scientific Name	Intact	Thinned	Cleared	H	P	Freq
Bird abundance		**59.446 ± 2.106**	58.618 ± 5.542	48.918 ± 6.459	35.7	<0.001	
Bird species richness		**19.75 ± 0.376**	17.709 ± 0.745	14.436 ± 0.552	54.1	<0.001	
Emu	*Dromaius novaehollandiae*	0.017 ± 0.010	0.272 ± 0.171	0.045 ± 0.023			A
Brown Quail	*Synoicus ypsilophorus*	0.058 ± 0.041		0.027 ± 0.027			
Squatter Pigeon	*Geophaps scripta*	0.214 ± 0.119	0.163 ± 0.129	0.009 ± 0.009			A
Common Bronzewing	*Phaps chalcoptera*	0.383 ± 0.066	0.163 ± 0.081	0.254 ± 0.083			A
Crested Pigeon	*Ocyphaps lophotes*	0.147 ± 0.033	0.236 ± 0.089	**0.336 ± 0.064**	11.6	<0.01	A
Diamond Dove	*Geopelia cuneata*	0.142 ± 0.075	**0.290 ± 0.128**	0.027 ± 0.020	12.6	<0.01	A
Peaceful Dove	*Geopelia placida*	**0.517 ± 0.055**	0.181 ± 0.073	0.136 ± 0.035	33.1	<0.001	A
Bar-shouldered Dove	*Geopelia humeralis*	**0.209 ± 0.032**		0.027 ± 0.015	26.0	<0.001	
Australian Owlet-nightjar	*Aegotheles cristatus*	**0.160 ± 0.026**	0.018 ± 0.018	0.009 ± 0.009	21.2	<0.001	
Pheasant Coucal	*Centropus phasianinus*	0.008 ± 0.006					S
Channel-billed Cuckoo	*Scythrops novaehollandiae*	0.004 ± 0.004	0.018 ± 0.018				
Horsfield's Bronze-Cuckoo	*Chalcites basalis*	0.031 ± 0.011	0.018 ± 0.018	0.136 ± 0.047			
Black-eared Cuckoo	*Chalcites osculans*	0.008 ± 0.008					S
Shining Bronze-Cuckoo	*Chalcites lucidus*	0.008 ± 0.006		0.009 ± 0.009			
Brush Cuckoo	*Cacomantis variolosus*	0.013 ± 0.007					S
Pallid Cuckoo	*Heteroscenes pallidus*	0.049 ± 0.015	**0.181 ± 0.058**	0.018 ± 0.012	16.1	<0.001	A
Australian Bustard	*Ardeotis australis*	0.013 ± 0.007	0.018 ± 0.018	**0.136 ± 0.041**	18.0	<0.001	A
White-necked Heron	*Ardea pacifica*			0.009 ± 0.009			S
Painted Button-quail	*Turnix varius*	0.049 ± 0.027					S
Red-chested Button-quail	*Turnix pyrrhothorax*		0.018 ± 0.018				S
Little Button-quail	*Turnix velox*	0.174 ± 0.041	0.400 ± 0.167	0.581 ± 0.160			A
Black-breasted Buzzard	*Hamirostra melanosternon*	0.017 ± 0.010	0.018 ± 0.018	0.018 ± 0.012			A
Square-tailed Kite	*Lophoictinia isura*	0.004 ± 0.004					S
Wedge-tailed Eagle	*Aquila audax*	0.022 ± 0.009	**0.218 ± 0.076**	0.109 ± 0.032	18.1	<0.001	A
Little Eagle	*Hieraaetus morphnoides*			0.009 ± 0.009			S
Spotted Harrier	*Circus assimilis*		0.018 ± 0.018	0.036 ± 0.022			
Brown Goshawk	*Accipiter fasciatus*	0.017 ± 0.008	0.036 ± 0.025	0.018 ± 0.012			A

Common name	Scientific Name	Intact	Thinned	Cleared	H	P	Freq
Collared Sparrowhawk	*Accipiter cirrocephalus*	0.013 ± 0.007	0.018 ± 0.018	0.009 ± 0.009			A
Whistling Kite	*Haliastur sphenurus*	0.013 ± 0.007	0.018 ± 0.018	0.027 ± 0.015			A
Black Kite	*Milvus migrans*	0.026 ± 0.010	0.072 ± 0.043	0.063 ± 0.026			A
Rainbow Bee-eater	*Merops ornatus*	0.357 ± 0.086	0.163 ± 0.096	0.181 ± 0.086			A
Oriental Dollarbird	*Eurystomus orientalis*	0.004 ± 0.004					S
Forest Kingfisher	*Todiramphus macleayii*	0.004 ± 0.004	0.018 ± 0.018				
Sacred Kingfisher	*Todiramphus sanctus*	0.022 ± 0.011	0.018 ± 0.018				
Red-backed Kingfisher	*Todiramphus pyrrhopygius*	0.071 ± 0.019	0.072 ± 0.050	0.145 ± 0.051			A
Laughing Kookaburra	*Dacelo novaeguineae*	0.013 ± 0.007					S
Blue-winged Kookaburra	*Dacelo leachii*	0.075 ± 0.017	**0.163 ± 0.050**	0.018 ± 0.012	11.7	<0.01	A
Nankeen Kestrel	*Falco cenchroides*	0.008 ± 0.006	0.036 ± 0.036	**0.127 ± 0.036**	20.5	<0.001	A
Australian Hobby	*Falco longipennis*			**0.036 ± 0.017**	10.2	<0.01	S
Brown Falcon	*Falco berigora*	0.209 ± 0.031	0.127 ± 0.045	**0.354 ± 0.054**	10.0	<0.01	A
Peregrine Falcon	*Falco peregrinus*	0.004 ± 0.004					S
Cockatiel	*Nymphicus hollandicus*	0.205 ± 0.065	0.763 ± 0.220	**1.372 ± 0.521**	29.9	<0.001	A
Red-tailed Black-Cockatoo	*Calyptorhynchus banksii*	0.035 ± 0.022		0.027 ± 0.015			
Galah	*Eolophus roseicapilla*	0.133 ± 0.037	0.272 ± 0.105	**3.663 ± 2.042**	68.4	<0.001	A
Sulphur-crested Cockatoo	*Cacatua galerita*	0.026 ± 0.012	0.036 ± 0.025	0.036 ± 0.017			A
Pale-headed Rosella	*Platycercus adscitus*	**0.660 ± 0.082**	0.600 ± 0.133	0.327 ± 0.086	12.0	<0.01	A
Rainbow Lorikeet	*Trichoglossus moluccanus*	**0.638 ± 0.156**	0.163 ± 0.050	0.136 ± 0.055	22.6	<0.001	A
Scaly-breasted Lorikeet	*Trichoglossus chlorolepidotus*	0.031 ± 0.019					S
Budgerigar	*Melopsittacus undulatus*	1.549 ± 0.688	4.236 ± 2.734	**7.454 ± 2.826**	65.9	<0.001	A
Red-winged Parrot	*Aprosmictus erythropterus*	0.406 ± 0.055	0.618 ± 0.188	0.363 ± 0.132			A
Spotted Bowerbird	*Chlamydera maculata*	0.208 ± 0.042	**0.254 ± 0.140**	0.036 ± 0.029	12.9	<0.01	A
Brown Treecreeper	*Climacteris picumnus*	**1.062 ± 0.155**	0.890 ± 0.181	0.027 ± 0.015	62.9	<0.001	A
Variegated Fairy-wren	*Malurus lamberti*	3.312 ± 0.334	3.636 ± 0.803	1.990 ± 0.304			A
Red-backed Fairy-wren	*Malurus melanocephalus*	0.401 ± 0.125	1.109 ± 0.552	**1.145 ± 0.305**	11.3	<0.01	A
White-winged Fairy-wren	*Malurus leucopterus*			0.045 ± 0.029			S
Brown Honeyeater	*Lichmera indistincta*	0.089 ± 0.056	0.018 ± 0.018				
Blue-faced Honeyeater	*Entomyzon cyanotis*	0.035 ± 0.012	0.054 ± 0.03	0.018 ± 0.012			A
White-throated Honeyeater	*Melithreptus albogularis*	0.008 ± 0.008	0.018 ± 0.018				
Striped Honeyeater	*Plectorhyncha lanceolata*	**0.531 ± 0.056**	0.272 ± 0.083	0.072 ± 0.028	40.6	<0.001	A
Little Friarbird	*Philemon citreogularis*	**0.968 ± 0.105**	0.818 ± 0.192	0.281 ± 0.087	30.2	<0.001	A
Noisy Friarbird	*Philemon corniculatus*	**0.553 ± 0.205**	0.018 ± 0.018	0.036 ± 0.017	26.1	<0.001	A
Black Honeyeater	*Sugomel nigrum*		0.018 ± 0.018				S

Common name	Scientific Name	Intact	Thinned	Cleared	H	P	Freq
Rufous-throated Honeyeater	*Conopophila rufogularis*	0.133 ± 0.062	0.127 ± 0.082	0.009 ± 0.009			A
Crimson Chat	*Epthianura tricolor*	0.022 ± 0.014	0.018 ± 0.018	**0.672 ± 0.242**	18.4	<0.001	A
Spiny-cheeked Honeyeater	*Acanthagenys rufogularis*	**1.294 ± 0.157**	0.327 ± 0.082	0.145 ± 0.042	56.1	<0.001	A
Singing Honeyeater	*Gavicalis virescens*	1.848 ± 0.124	1.945 ± 0.289	1.590 ± 0.160			A
White-plumed Honeyeater	*Ptilotula penicillata*	0.044 ± 0.025	0.145 ± 0.128				
Grey-fronted Honeyeater	*Ptilotula plumula*	**2.500 ± 0.447**	0.436 ± 0.157	0.072 ± 0.035	43.7	<0.001	A
Yellow-throated Miner	*Manorina flavigula*	2.151 ± 0.270	**4.745 ± 0.808**	1.172 ± 0.149	33.8	<0.001	A
Red-browed Pardalote	*Pardalotus rubricatus*	0.044 ± 0.015	0.09 ± 0.046	0.054 ± 0.021			A
Striated Pardalote	*Pardalotus striatus*	2.674 ± 0.174	**2.818 ± 0.488**	0.836 ± 0.144	72.2	<0.001	A
White-throated Gerygone	*Gerygone olivacea*	0.058 ± 0.016	0.018 ± 0.018	0.009 ± 0.009			A
Western Gerygone	*Gerygone fusca*	**0.205 ± 0.034**		0.045 ± 0.019	18.1	<0.001	
Weebill	*Smicrornis brevirostris*	9.607 ± 0.527	**12.236 ± 1.258**	3.981 ± 0.513	68.3	<0.001	A
Yellow-rumped Thornbill	*Acanthiza chrysorrhoa*	**2.370 ± 0.234**	2.309 ± 0.924	0.790 ± 0.215	32.1	<0.001	A
Inland Thornbill	*Acanthiza apicalis*	**0.763 ± 0.121**		0.190 ± 0.075	29.2	<0.001	
Buff-rumped Thornbill	*Acanthiza reguloides*	0.062 ± 0.035		0.018 ± 0.012			
Grey-crowned Babbler	*Pomatostomus temporalis*	**1.437 ± 0.156**	0.909 ± 0.279	0.681 ± 0.174	29.5	<0.001	A
Varied Sittella	*Daphoenositta chrysoptera*	0.955 ± 0.139	0.563 ± 0.197	0.381 ± 0.118			A
Olive-backed Oriole	*Oriolus sagittatus*	0.080 ± 0.019	0.145 ± 0.047	0.045 ± 0.019			A
Crested Bellbird	*Oreoica gutturalis*	**1.053 ± 0.067**	0.527 ± 0.072	0.600 ± 0.067	29.2	<0.001	A
Rufous Whistler	*Pachycephala rufiventris*	**2.642 ± 0.165**	1.618 ± 0.274	0.745 ± 0.144	89.7	<0.001	A
Grey Shrike-thrush	*Colluricincla harmonica*	**0.825 ± 0.077**	0.236 ± 0.085	0.136 ± 0.041	66.4	<0.001	A
Ground Cuckoo-shrike	*Coracina maxima*	0.031 ± 0.013	0.036 ± 0.025	**0.227 ± 0.069**	16.7	<0.001	A
Black-faced Cuckoo-shrike	*Coracina novaehollandiae*	0.651 ± 0.098	0.454 ± 0.089	0.654 ± 0.134			A
White-bellied Cuckoo-shrike	*Coracina papuensis*	0.062 ± 0.020		0.009 ± 0.009			
White-winged Triller	*Lalage tricolor*	0.241 ± 0.058	0.272 ± 0.117	0.427 ± 0.140			A
Australian Magpie	*Gymnorhina tibicen*	0.633 ± 0.054	0.527 ± 0.077	0.790 ± 0.078			A
Pied Butcherbird	*Cracticus nigrogularis*	0.647 ± 0.047	0.818 ± 0.183	0.763 ± 0.084			A
Grey Butcherbird	*Cracticus torquatus*	**0.982 ± 0.066**	0.781 ± 0.120	0.245 ± 0.043	72.5	<0.001	A
Masked Woodswallow	*Artamus personatus*	0.424 ± 0.250		0.118 ± 0.038			
White-browed Woodswallow	*Artamus superciliosus*	0.044 ± 0.017		0.036 ± 0.022			
Dusky Woodswallow	*Artamus cyanopterus*	0.004 ± 0.004					S
Black-faced Woodswallow	*Artamus cinereus*	1.120 ± 0.226	**1.600 ± 0.771**	1.554 ± 0.247	10.5	<0.01	A
Little Woodswallow	*Artamus minor*	0.348 ± 0.092	0.436 ± 0.255	0.136 ± 0.047			A
White-breasted Woodswallow	*Artamus leucorynchus*	0.598 ± 0.277		0.036 ± 0.025			
Willie Wagtail	*Rhipidura leucophrys*	0.549 ± 0.067	0.800 ± 0.174	0.718 ± 0.102			A

Common name	Scientific Name	Intact	Thinned	Cleared	H	P	Freq
Grey Fantail	*Rhipidura albiscapa*	**0.750 ± 0.080**	0.163 ± 0.085	0.227 ± 0.070	43.4	<0.001	A
Leaden Flycatcher	*Myiagra rubecula*	0.022 ± 0.011					S
Restless Flycatcher	*Myiagra inquieta*	0.031 ± 0.014		0.009 ± 0.009			
Magpie-lark	*Grallina cyanoleuca*	0.165 ± 0.046	**0.509 ± 0.106**	0.472 ± 0.164	26.5	<0.001	A
Torresian Crow	*Corvus orru*	0.228 ± 0.051	0.309 ± 0.130	0.682 ± 0.260			A
Apostlebird	*Struthidea cinerea*	1.504 ± 0.394	1.200 ± 0.631	0.154 ± 0.101			A
Red-capped Robin	*Petroica goodenovii*	0.017 ± 0.008		0.063 ± 0.047			
Jacky Winter	*Microeca fascinans*	0.897 ± 0.097	**1.072 ± 0.244**	0.118 ± 0.051	53.4	<0.001	A
Hooded Robin	*Melanodryas cucullata*	**0.308 ± 0.084**		0.009 ± 0.009	16.2	<0.001	
Horsfield's Bushlark	*Mirafra javanica*			**0.063 ± 0.029**	12.8	<0.01	S
Brown Songlark	*Cincloramphus cruralis*	0.004 ± 0.004		0.009 ± 0.009			
Rufous Songlark	*Cincloramphus mathewsi*	0.151 ± 0.038	0.200 ± 0.098	0.254 ± 0.091			A
Tawny Grassbird	*Cincloramphus timoriensis*			0.009 ± 0.009			S
Fairy Martin	*Petrochelidon ariel*			0.009 ± 0.009			S
Silvereye	*Zosterops lateralis*	0.008 ± 0.008					S
Mistletoebird	*Dicaeum hirundinaceum*	0.419 ± 0.090	**0.763 ± 0.204**	0.072 ± 0.024	19.5	<0.001	A
Plum-headed Finch	*Neochmia modesta*			0.345 ± 0.345			S
Zebra Finch	*Taeniopygia castanotis*	0.718 ± 0.283	1.254 ± 0.685	**7.818 ± 2.741**	38.4	<0.001	A
Double-barred Finch	*Taeniopygia bichenovii*	**3.053 ± 0.375**	1.363 ± 0.465	0.600 ± 0.256	50.3	<0.001	A
Australasian Pipit	*Anthus novaeseelandiae*			**0.063 ± 0.034**	10.2	<0.01	S