

1 Using citizen science to measure recolonisation of birds after
2 the Australian 2019-20 mega-fires

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19 **Abstract**

20 Large and severe fires (“mega-fires”) are increasing in frequency across the globe, often
21 pushing into ecosystems that have previously had very long fire return intervals. The 2019-20
22 Australian bushfire season was one of the most catastrophic fire events on record. Almost 19
23 million hectares were burnt across the continent displacing and killing unprecedented numbers
24 of native fauna, including bird species. Some bird species are known to thrive in post-fire
25 environments, while others may be absent for an extended period from the firegrounds until
26 there is sufficient ecosystem recovery. To test for systematic patterns in species use of the post-
27 fire environment, we combined citizen science data from eBird with data on sedentism, body
28 size, and the specialisation of diet and habitat. Using generalised additive models, we modelled
29 the response of 76 bird species in SE Australia to the 2019-20 mega-fires. Twenty-two species
30 decreased in occurrence after the fire; thirty species increased; and no significant effect was
31 found for the remaining twenty-four species. Furthermore, diet specialism was associated with
32 reduced recolonisation after fire, with diet specialists less likely to be found in burned areas
33 after the fire event compared to before, a result which generates testable hypotheses for
34 recovery from other mega-fires across the globe. Being displaced from the firegrounds for an
35 event of this geographic magnitude may have severe consequences for population dynamics
36 and thus warrant considerable conservation attention in pre-fire planning and in the post-fire
37 aftermath.

38

39 **Keywords**

40 “bird traits”, “bushfire”, “citizen science”, “eBird”, “post-fire recovery”.

41

42 **Introduction**

43 The 2019-20 Australian bushfire season was one of the largest and longest on record (Nolan *et al.* 2020; Filkov *et al.* 2020). Almost 19 million hectares were directly affected by the fire
44 including the burning of 5.8 million hectares of temperate broadleaf forest (Boer *et al.* 2020;
45 Filkov *et al.* 2020). It is estimated that almost 3 billion native vertebrates will have perished or
46 been displaced because of the 2019-20 mega-fires (Eeden *et al.* 2020) potentially driving
47 threatened species closer to extinction (DPIE 2020a). In the wake of these immense disturbance
48 events it is important to understand the process of ecosystem recovery to implement effective
49 conservation actions. There is a large interest in bird conservation globally (Davies *et al.* 2019).
50 Conservation efforts by both government and non-government organisations have been shown
51 to favour bird species with higher social interest (Ainsworth *et al.* 2018), making birds an
52 important group for procuring recovery funding, which may benefit the entirety of the
53 ecosystems. Birds are also useful indicators of environmental health since bird populations and
54 diversity may reflect the composition of food and habitat resources in an environment
55 (Eglinton *et al.* 2012; Gregory and Strien 2010; Gregory *et al.* 2003). Furthermore, birds are
56 vital agents of recolonisation in a post-fire landscape due to their high mobility and
57 reintroduction of seed from nearby unburnt patches (Gill 1996; Pausas and Parr 2018;
58 Cavallero *et al.* 2013). Therefore, from a conservation and management perspective, predicting
59 which bird species recolonise more rapidly and which might be at greater risk from fire is an
60 important goal.
61

62

63 The massive geographic scale of this fire event and associated mosaic of different ecosystems
64 that were impacted means that a larger proportion of some species' ranges have been affected
65 compared to previous fire seasons (DPIE 2020a). However, the scale of these fires also creates

66 a challenge for gathering data on species recovery: data across this geographic scope is beyond
67 the capacity of university or government research groups to easily obtain. Moreover, data needs
68 to be collected relatively quickly because many important post-fire processes occur soon after
69 the event. One solution to this set of problems is mobilizing citizen scientists (Kirchhoff *et al.*
70 2020a). Citizen science is an increasingly popular tool for informing science and policy as more
71 online services improve at storing and collating data. The major advantage of using citizen
72 science data is that survey effort can be accomplished at a speed and magnitude that would
73 otherwise be impossible (McKinley *et al.* 2017).

74

75 Fire is a common and widespread phenomenon throughout the continent of Australia
76 (Bradstock *et al.* 2002). The life histories of many plants and animals in various ecosystems
77 have evolved to allow species to cope with fire (Purdie and Slatyer 1976; Cary *et al.* 2012).
78 The post-fire environment, especially after severe fire, is generally thought to be devoid of
79 many resources and habitat features (Loyn 1997a). However, the wasteland is not completely
80 barren: new resources are created in the wake of fire events, making post-fire environments
81 productive foraging grounds for some recolonising species (Pausas and Parr 2018; Albanesi *et al.*
82 2014; Loyn 1997b; Pons and Prodon 1996; Prowse *et al.* 2017). However, the heterogeneity
83 of the burn and the patchy and unpredictable nature of the resources in the post-fire
84 environment may favour some feeding generalist species and disadvantage other species with
85 very specific dietary requirements (Banks *et al.* 2011; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2011). Conversely,
86 species with more flexible behaviours and diets may benefit from the redistribution of resources
87 from a fire event (Pausas and Parr 2018). Another key feature of the post-fire environment is
88 the removal of vegetation that acts as cover for predation-sensitive species (LaManna *et al.*
89 2015). Furthermore, in large-scale fire events where bird mortality and displacement are
90 expected to be high, a species' dispersal ability may be important for recolonisation (Robinson

91 *et al.* 2014; Turner *et al.* 1998; Whelan *et al.* 2002). It is important to understand how bird traits
92 are associated with post-fire recovery in order to make predictions about the impacts of future
93 fires across the world.

94

95 We had three main objectives: (1) to quantify the response of species occurrence as either
96 increasing, decreasing, or no change in response to the fire; and (2) to model species' fire
97 responses against four potentially important bird traits (i.e., sedentism, body size, and the
98 specialisation of diet and habitat) for post-fire recolonisation; and (3) to investigate whether
99 increased fire severity is associated with decreased bird recolonisation. We hypothesised that
100 more effective post-fire recolonisation would be associated with larger body size, increased
101 mobility, and utilisation of a larger number of food and habitat types. We also expected that
102 birds would recolonise more quickly in less severely burnt fire areas. Species identified in this
103 study to have decreased in occurrence in the months following the 2019-2020 mega-fire event
104 may be worthy of increased conservation attention both in the coming months and in the
105 aftermath of future fires.

106

107 **Methods**

108 Bird occurrence data

109 We used the eBird citizen science database (Sullivan *et al.* 2009, 2014) to understand bird
110 occurrences before and after the fires. eBird is a global citizen science project that enlists
111 volunteer birdwatchers to submit bird observations to a database with close to 850 million bird
112 observations globally. Citizen scientists can submit data as isolated species records or through
113 complete checklists with survey effort information (e.g., time spent surveying, distance

114 travelled) and spatiotemporal coordinates. A semi-automated approach to data quality is used
115 where regional filters are set by local experts, and species or counts of species which exceed
116 those filters need to be substantiated before being approved in the database (Wood *et al.* 2011).

117

118 We downloaded data (eBird Basic Dataset version ebd_relApr-2020) for Australia between the
119 1st January 2010 and the 1st May 2020. In order to account for potential biases associated with
120 citizen science data (Bird *et al.* 2014), and applied the following additional filters to the dataset
121 by using (*sensu* Johnston *et al.* 2020): (1) only complete checklists; (2) checklists travelling
122 distance less than 10 kilometres; and (3) checklists with a survey duration between 10 and 300
123 minutes.

124

125 Matching bird occurrence to fire data

126 To determine if a checklist was fire affected, we used the national extent of the 2019/20
127 bushfires through the Department of Agriculture, Water and the Environment (DAWE 2020).
128 To estimate the date of arrival of the fire front and assign each checklist as either before or after
129 the fire, we used satellite data from Digital Earth Australia (DEA) Hotspots (Geoscience
130 Australia 2020, see also Rowley *et al.* 2020). This fire arrival date varied between the 27th
131 October 2019 and the 1st February 2020 for the sampling locations in this study. The DEA
132 hotspot detection effort seeks to discover new spatial-temporal hotspots as quickly as possible
133 and as such it provides a record of when the fire front was first detected to have arrived in
134 different locations. Gaps in the orbital paths of the satellites means that this may be off by 12-
135 24 hours, but given the paucity of citizen science data at these precise places and times (due to
136 the impeding or actively burning fire), the potential for mis-assigned checklists due to gaps in
137 the orbital paths of satellites is low.

138

139 We used the Fire Extent and Severity Mapping data (FESM) provided by the Department of
140 Planning, Industries and Environment (DPIE 2020b) to assign bird occurrence data with fire
141 severity information. The FESM raster included fine scale information about the severity of
142 each fire throughout the 2019-20 bushfire season and was used to assign each checklist a
143 severity value based on the pixel each checklist coordinate was located in. The median severity
144 for each species included in the study was then calculated using all post-fire checklists that the
145 species occurs on. We produced a linear model comparing each species' modelled fire response
146 with the median severity in post-fire observations.

147

148 Trait data

149 Trait data was obtained from Garnett et al. (2015). Average body mass was preserved to be
150 used as a measure for body size. We identified sedentary species by virtue of being exclusively
151 locally dispersing, as opposed to species that move or migrate seasonally or sporadically. We
152 quantified diet and habitat specialism by summing the total number of feeding guilds or habitat
153 types each species is associated with. Species with more generalist diets or habitat preferences
154 therefore received a higher value than species with a more restricted diet or habitat.

155

156 Statistical analysis

157 All analyses for this project was undertaken using the statistical computing software R (v4.0.2)
158 in the integrated development environment RStudio. We relied heavily on the tidyverse for
159 data manipulation and visualization (Wickham *et al.* 2019). We converted the cleaned checklist
160 data and fire extent shapefile to simple features for spatial analysis in R (Pebesma 2018). We

161 then joined these features with a variable added for locating datapoints within the shapefile
162 extent. We removed all checklists that did not fall within the extent of the 2019-20 mega-fires
163 and all checklists above 25° South from the study.

164

165 Only species with a minimum of 500 observations in the firegrounds (i.e., presences) were
166 considered for analyses. Nine species from five waterbird families (*Anatidae*, *Ardeidae*,
167 *Laridae*, *Pelecanidae*, *Phalacrocoracidae*) were excluded from analysis to remove species
168 which may not be using the terrestrial ecosystems. For our final set of species (N=76), we
169 estimated the effect of the fire (i.e., before versus after) on the probability of the species being
170 observed in a checklist, while also accounting for important covariates. We then compared the
171 proportion of checklists each species was present on before and after the fire event. Species
172 that preferentially use the post-fire environment should be on a greater proportion of checklists
173 post-fire compared to pre-fire. Species whose use of those areas declined, following the fire
174 event should be found on fewer. To do this, we used generalised additive models (GAMs) -
175 with a binomial error term - to model the change in detection probability before and after the
176 fires, for each species respectively. For each model, the response variable was
177 presence/absence of each species, and the predictor variable was before/after the fire. To
178 account for differences in observer effort, seasonal effects, and biases in location effort,
179 smoothers were included in the creation of the models in order to adjust for seasonality (month),
180 sampling effort (duration and distance), and location. We used thin plate regression splines for
181 the duration, distance and latitude/longitude smooth terms, and a cyclic cubic regression spline
182 with eleven knots for seasonality.

183

184 In order to assess whether the species' response to fire, generated from the GAMs, was
185 moderated by species' traits, we used four separate linear models with each of the four traits
186 (i.e., feeding specialism, habitat specialism, body size, and sedentism) as the predictor variable.
187 The uncertainty in the GAM coefficient estimate was used for inverse-variance weighting in
188 these models. Bird body size was log-transformed in order to satisfy assumptions of linear
189 regression.

190

191 **Results**

192 We included a total of 163,685 species observations originating from 8,910 eBird checklists in
193 our analysis (Figure 1). Across the 76 species included in our analysis the average number of
194 observations for each species was 1,636 +/- 126, ranging from Grey Fantail with 4,907
195 observations to Variegated Fairywren with 502 observations.

196

197 Of the 76 species included in the study, we found that 26 species showed a positive response,
198 23 showed a negative response, and 27 showed no significant response (Figure 2). Species with
199 the highest estimated increases after fire included Crested Pigeon (*Ocyphaps lophotes*) and
200 Sulphur-crested Cockatoo (*Cacatua galerita*), whereas the largest decrease in occurrence was
201 in Fan-tailed Cuckoo (*Cacomantis flabelliformis*) and Olive-backed Oriole (*Oriolus*
202 *sagittatus*).

203

204 We found a significant relationship between species' modelled fire responses and diet
205 specialism ($p=0.011$) explaining over 8% of variation ($R^2=0.085$) (Figure 3: A). This indicates
206 that a higher number of feeding guilds (i.e., generalist species) was associated with improved

207 post-fire recolonisation. Similarly, specialist species with a narrower diet were more likely to
208 have decreased after fire.

209

210 Conversely, the model run on habitat specialism did not indicate a significant relationship with
211 species fire responses ($p=0.134$; $R^2=0.030$; Figure 3: B). The correlation between fire response
212 and sedentism was also non-significant ($p=0.3$; $R^2=0.014$; Figure 3: C). The final linear
213 regression comparing fire response to body size also failed to detect a significant relationship
214 ($p=0.248$; $R^2=0.018$; Figure 3: D). The final linear model comparing species' median fire
215 severity and fire response did not detect a significant relationship ($P=0.141$; $R^2=0.029$).

216

217 **Discussion**

218 We identified 23 species that were observed significantly less after the 2019-20 summer mega-
219 fires compared to before. The extent to which this reduction persists will be very important for
220 the conservation status of these species, especially with a predicted increase in severity and
221 frequency of such mega-fires (Clarke and Evans 2019; van Oldenborgh *et al.* 2020; Pitman *et*
222 *al.* 2007). There are two alternate hypotheses that could help explain our results. First,
223 individuals of these species could have moved to unburned parts of the region and will return
224 to the firegrounds once the vegetation has regrown sufficiently. Second, the fires led, directly
225 or indirectly, to higher than typical mortality in these species. In contrast, 26 species were
226 observed significantly more after the fire event, highlighting that there are some 'winners' as
227 well as 'losers' in response to fires. This is likely due to new resources that are created in the
228 post-fire environment (Pausas and Parr 2018). Identifying general patterns in species responses
229 to fire will help differentiate which species are predicted to be able to adapt to future fire events
230 more readily.

231

232 Our results suggest that species with a more specialised diet may be less effective at post-fire
233 recolonisation. Highly specialised animals may be common under stable environmental
234 conditions, however become vulnerable to rapid decline when there is environmental change
235 (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2011). In the event of fire, drastic and lasting changes occur to food
236 resources which favour species that can take advantage of this change while disadvantaging
237 other species (Banks *et al.* 2011; Pausas and Parr 2018). This finding confirms our hypothesis
238 that bird species with a greater diet breadth would have improved post-fire recolonisation than
239 species with specialist diets. This result may have important implications future fire events and
240 disturbance ecology more generally. Our results failed to confirm our hypotheses that body
241 size, sedentism or habitat specialism was important for species recolonisation after fire. This
242 result may be due to a general adaptability of much of the Australian fauna to fire (Nimmo *et*
243 *al.* 2019; Woinarski 1990; Ward *et al.* 2020).

244

245 Identifying species' post-fire occurrences can be an indicator of successional processes and
246 resource redistribution of fire disturbances, and thus further contribute to an understanding of
247 how fire can benefit some species while disadvantaging others. The species with the highest
248 estimated increase in occurrence after the fire event was Crested Pigeons (*Ochyphaps*
249 *lophotes*). This species was most likely able to profit from the extensive fires due to increases
250 in their main food sources: Crested Pigeons eat seeds and herbaceous material from grasses
251 and forbs (Mulhall and Lill 2011). These resources have been shown to increase significantly
252 in fire disturbed environments since ephemeral herbs and grasses are rapid post-fire colonisers
253 (Romme *et al.* 2011; Bell *et al.* 1993) and seeds are dropped *en masse* by many woody plants
254 following fire events (Andersen 1988; Specht 1981). Crested Pigeons' efficacy in utilising

255 these resources also contributes to their success in highly disturbed urban areas (Mulhall and
256 Lill 2011). In contrast, many species with the lowest recolonisation rates were specialised on
257 terrestrial invertebrates including Fan-tailed Cuckoo (*Cacomantis flabelliformis*) and Black-
258 faced Monarch (*Monarcha melanopsis*). This may be due to the relative time taken for these
259 resources to become large enough to support fauna species that are reliant on them (Purdie and
260 Slatyer 1976). Increased seed availability from woody-fruited plants is believed to occur
261 rapidly after a fire event (Andersen 1988). In contrast, terrestrial invertebrates may experience
262 a greater lag in returning to pre-fire levels since insect grazing, which occurs at high rates in
263 *Eucalyptus* forests (Springett 1978), must wait for sufficient regrowth before increasing
264 biomass to pre-fire levels. Species with diets specialised on food that takes longer to recover
265 from a fire event may be more deserving of management attention.

266

267 The massive firegrounds of the 2019-20 fires dwarfed all possible attempts at data collection
268 by professional scientists in the immediate aftermaths. However, citizen scientists were able to
269 collect data at scale in the aftermath (Callaghan and Gawlik 2015; Kirchhoff *et al.* 2020). That
270 said, there are some limitations to consider when using such a data source. The fire itself was
271 very patchy, with both unburned patches inside the firegrounds and variation in fire severity
272 on the scale of meters. The nature of eBird data does not allow us to examine the nature of the
273 patches that different species were using or how they were using them, e.g., foraging for food
274 or resting (Sullivan *et al.* 2009, 2014; Callaghan and Gawlik 2015; Johnston *et al.* 2020).
275 Furthermore, the sampling effort for post-fire observations may have been greatly reduced due
276 to a reduction in travel because of Coronavirus restrictions. Therefore, while citizen science
277 data such as eBird are clearly valuable to inform macroecological patterns, on-the-ground data
278 should be integrated with these findings in the future to better inform our understanding of the
279 impacts of bushfires on bird diversity and usage in post-fire environments.

280

281 Immediate post-fire observations, available through citizen science, provided important
282 information into the long-term effects of the massive 2019-20 fires. The decline of 23 species
283 identified in this study and the extent to which this decline persists through time will be an
284 important concern for the conservation status of these species. The unprecedented scale of the
285 mega-fires produced an enormous amount of public attention on conservation problems and
286 objectives, as well as an unprecedented strain on the biota of Australia's forest ecosystems.
287 Fire events are expected to become more severe and frequent under the influence of
288 anthropogenic climate change, exacerbating the need for efficient and effective conservation
289 policies and management (Clarke and Evans 2019; van Oldenborgh *et al.* 2020). To effectively
290 address the conservation concerns raised by this unprecedented bushfire season and fire events
291 to come, it is important for efforts to be targeted at species with the greatest need, and citizen
292 science will likely play a key role in this effort.

293

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297

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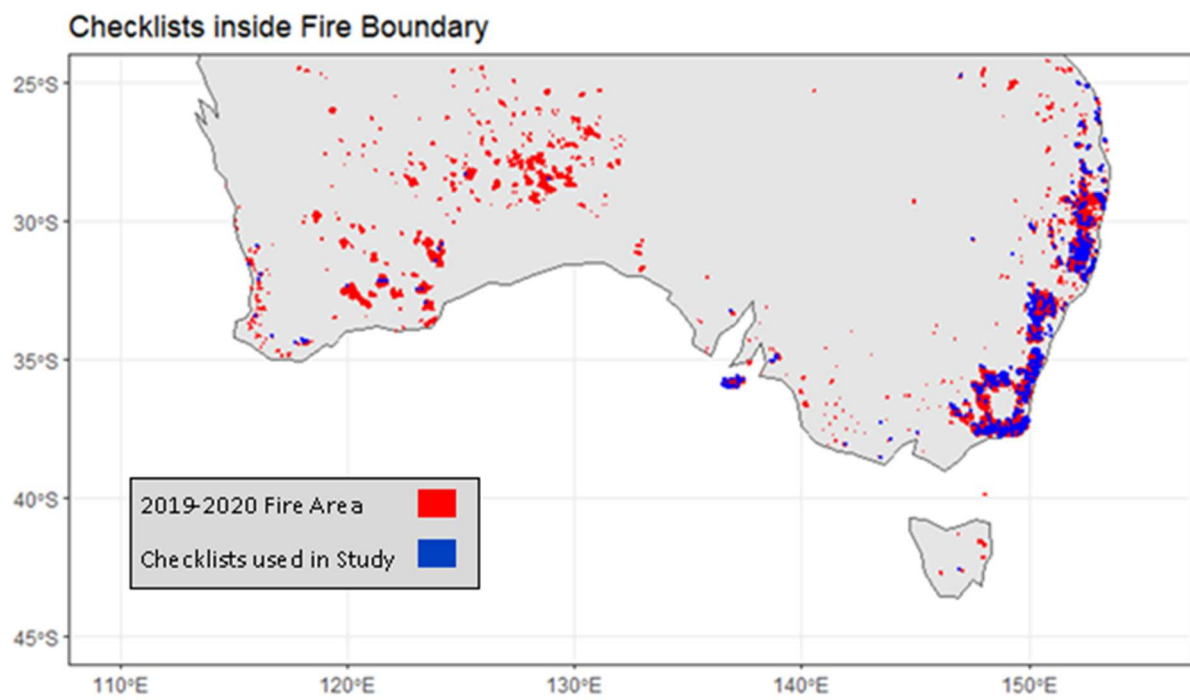
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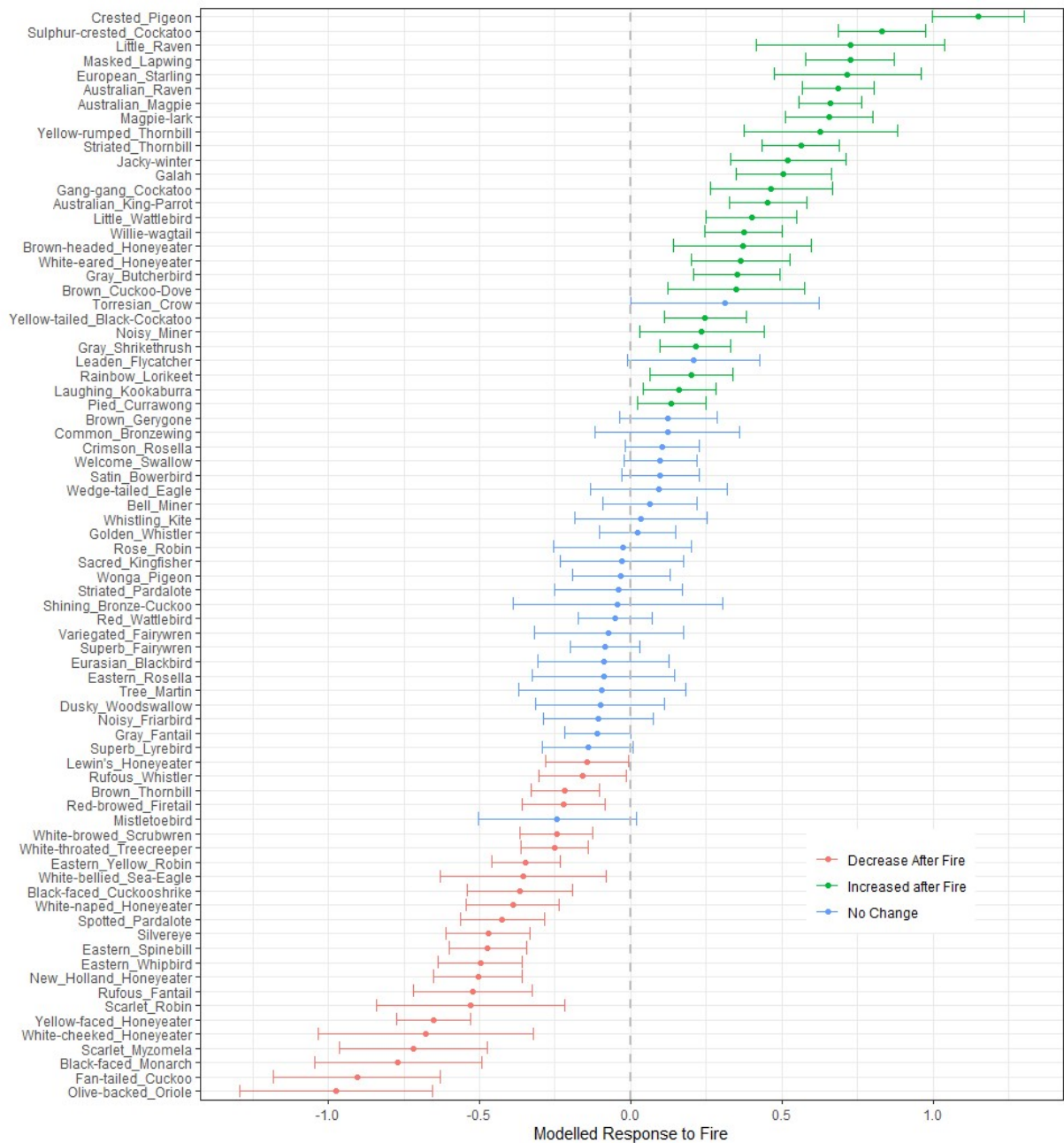
431 **Tables and Figures**



432

433 **Figure 1- Map of burned area over the Australian 2019-20 summer fire event (Red) and eBird**

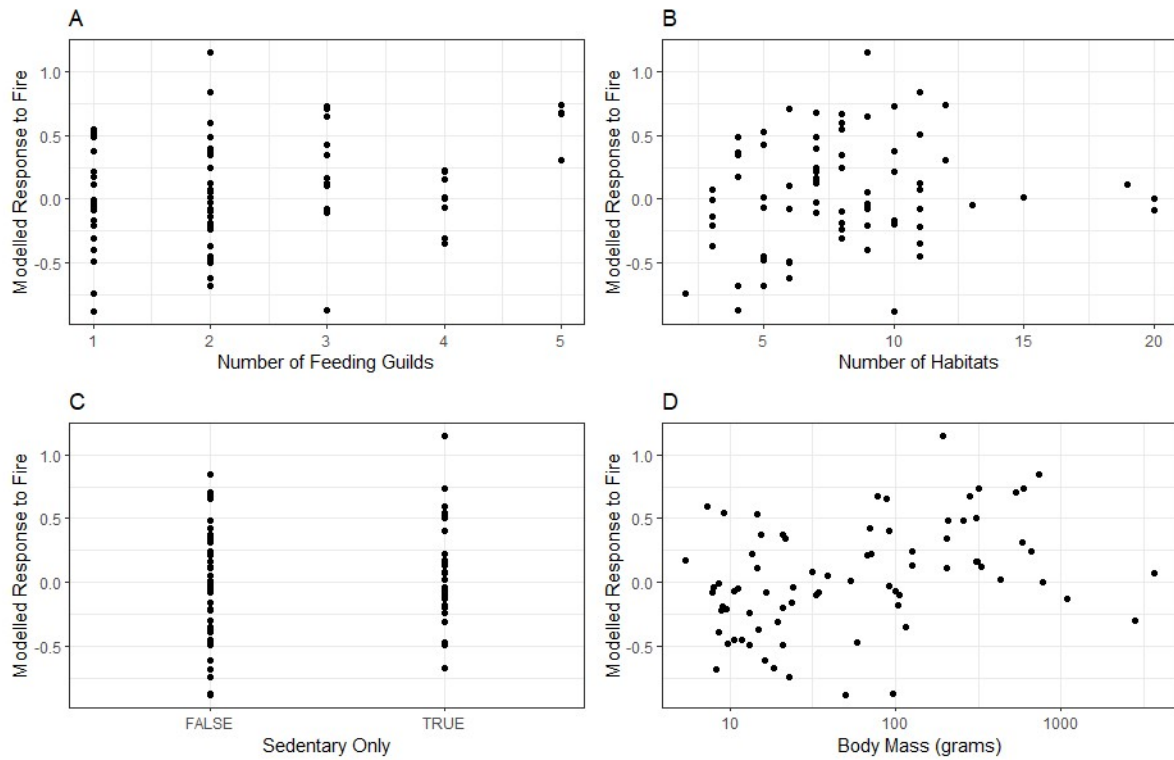
434 **checklists inside fire boundary below 25 degrees South (Blue).**



435

436 **Figure 2- Ranked responses to fire as calculated by GAM models for each species, error bars**

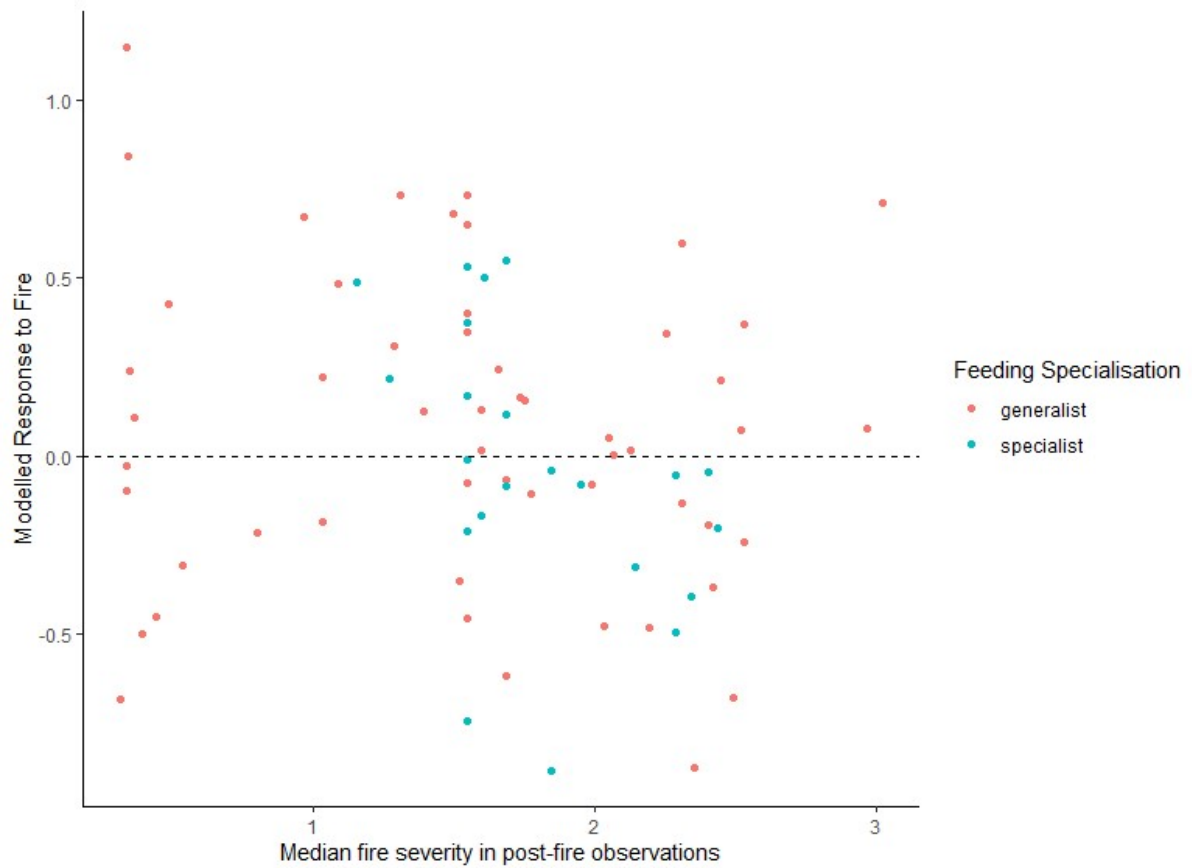
437 **represent standard error.**



438

439 **Figure 3- Plot of modelled fire response against degree of diet specialism (A), degree of habitat**

440 **specialism (B), sedentism (C) and average body mass (log-transformed) (D), for each bird species.**



441

442 **Figure 4- Scatterplot of modelled fire response against median fire severity grouped by feeding**

443 **habit, where generalists are species belonging to more than one feeding guild. Interactive version**

444 **at: https://josh-lee1.github.io/eBird-Fire-Index/interactive_figure.html**