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1 *Concepts paper*

2

3 Salvage logging in the world's forests: interactions between natural
4 disturbance and logging need recognition

5

6 Running head: Salvage logging and disturbance interactions

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22

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28

29 **Biosketch**

30 AL is a postdoctoral fellow whose research focuses on post-fire regeneration and the effects
31 of salvage logging in the Sierra Nevada National Park, Spain. LG has a long career in
32 reconciling forestry practices with biodiversity conservation in Sweden. ST is a postdoc at
33 the University of Würzburg and his work has focused on the effects of salvage logging on
34 biodiversity in the Bavarian Forest National Park, Germany. DBL is a conservation
35 biologist who was among the first scientists to bring attention to and produce research
36 syntheses on the ecological effects of salvage logging; his empirical research focuses on the
37 Mountain Ash forests of Victoria, Australia. The authors are collaborating to synthesise the
38 ecological consequences of salvage logging at a global scale, involving qualitative and
39 quantitative methods.

40

41

42 **Abstract**

43

44 **Aim.** Large disturbances increasingly shape the world's forests. Concomitantly, increasing
45 amounts of forest are subject to salvage logging. Understanding and managing the world's
46 forests thus increasingly hinges upon understanding the combined effects of natural
47 disturbance and logging disturbance, including interactions so far unnoticed. Here, we use
48 recent advances in disturbance-interaction theory to disentangle and describe the
49 mechanisms through which natural disturbance (e.g. wildfire, insect outbreak or
50 windstorm) can interact with anthropogenic disturbance (logging) to produce unanticipated
51 effects. We also explore to what extent such interactions have been addressed in empirical
52 research globally.

53

54 **Insights.** First, many ecological responses to salvage logging likely result from interaction
55 modifications—i.e., from non-additive effects between natural disturbance and logging.
56 However, based on a systematic review encompassing 209 relevant papers, we found that
57 interaction modifications have been largely neglected. Second, salvage logging constitutes
58 an interaction chain because natural disturbances increase the likelihood, intensity and
59 extent of subsequent logging disturbance due to complex socio-ecological interactions.
60 Both interaction modifications and interaction chains can be driven by nonlinear responses
61 to the severity of each disturbance. We show that, whereas many of the effects of salvage

62 logging likely arise from the multiple kinds of disturbance interactions between natural
63 disturbance and logging, they have mostly been overlooked in research to date.

64

65 **Conclusions.** Interactions between natural disturbance and logging imply that increasing
66 disturbances will produce even more disturbance, and with unknown characteristics and
67 consequences. Disentangling the pathways producing disturbance interactions is thus
68 crucial to guide management and policy regarding naturally disturbed forests.

69

70

71 **Keywords:** multiple disturbances, linked disturbances, compounded disturbances, salvage
72 harvesting, post-disturbance management, clearcutting, synergism, antagonism, cascading
73 effect, disturbance driver

74

75

76 **Introduction**

77 Natural disturbances are affecting increasing amounts of forest globally (Pausas *et al.*,
78 2008; Seidl *et al.*, 2017). Although forests generally have the capacity to regenerate under
79 historical disturbance regimes (Turner, 2010; Fernandez-Vega *et al.*, 2017), there is
80 concern that novel disturbance conditions –such as altered disturbance frequencies or
81 multiple disturbances close in time– can affect ecosystem function and biodiversity and
82 ultimately trigger regime shifts (Peters *et al.*, 2011; Johnstone *et al.*, 2016; Sato &
83 Lindenmayer, 2017; Stevens-Rumann *et al.*, 2017). Recent theoretical and empirical
84 advances have shown that multiple natural disturbances, such as wildfires, insect outbreaks,
85 windstorms, and grazing, can interact by affecting the likelihood of occurrence and
86 modulating the effects of one another, so that disturbance effects can often be understood
87 only through the explicit consideration of their interaction (Didham *et al.*, 2007; Buma,
88 2015; Foster *et al.*, 2016; Gill *et al.*, 2017). Similarly, the outcomes of anthropogenic
89 disturbances can be expected to result from interactions with other related, natural
90 disturbances. Concomitant to increases in natural disturbance, salvage logging –the felling
91 and removal of disturbance-affected trees– is a widespread and increasing human response
92 to natural disturbance worldwide (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2004, 2008, 2017). The effects of
93 harvesting disturbed forests are generally considered to differ from those of harvesting
94 undisturbed forests (Karr *et al.*, 2004; Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2004; DellaSala *et al.*, 2006;
95 Lindenmayer & Noss, 2006; Thorn *et al.*, 2015), indicating that interactions between the
96 natural disturbance and logging disturbance can be expected.

97 Disturbance interactions can arise from two fundamentally-different mechanistic
98 pathways (Didham *et al.*, 2007; Buma, 2015; Foster *et al.*, 2016), and there is increasing
99 recognition that a good understanding of these mechanisms is crucial for defining effective
100 management strategies (Foster *et al.*, 2016). Disturbances interact when the legacies left
101 behind by one disturbance are functionally connected to another disturbance –i.e. when
102 they change the resistance and/or the resilience of the ecosystem to another disturbance
103 (James *et al.*, 2007; Buma, 2015). On one hand, ecological responses to two consecutive
104 disturbances may differ from the addition of the response to each kind of disturbance in
105 isolation, which is termed an *interaction modification* (Table 1; Didham *et al.*, 2007; Foster
106 *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, one form of disturbance can change the likelihood and
107 magnitude of subsequent disturbance events via an *interaction chain* (Didham *et al.*, 2007;

108 Foster *et al.*, 2016). Both types of interaction can show *nonlinear behaviour* relative to the
109 intensity or severity of any of the disturbances (Peters *et al.*, 2004). We argue that all these
110 mechanisms likely operate when natural disturbance leaves behind dead trees that are
111 subsequently harvested, as salvage logging generally occurs within the first two years after
112 natural disturbance to avoid the deterioration of the wood (Leverkus *et al.*, 2018). However,
113 despite intense and ongoing public, academic, and political controversy surrounding
114 salvage logging (Beschta *et al.*, 1995; Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2004, 2017; DellaSala *et al.*,
115 2006; Donato *et al.*, 2006a; Schiermeier, 2016; Leverkus *et al.*, 2017a,b; Müller *et al.*,
116 2018; Thorn *et al.*, 2018) and numerous studies aiming to assess its ecological
117 consequences (reviewed in Leverkus *et al.*, 2018 and Thorn *et al.*, 2018), explicit
118 consideration of interactions between salvage logging and the preceding natural disturbance
119 has mostly been neglected in empirical studies. As a result, to be able to understand the
120 outcomes of salvage logging and mitigate its negative effects, there is a need to place its
121 ecological effects within the framework of disturbance theory (e.g., Didham *et al.*, 2007;
122 Buma, 2015; Foster *et al.*, 2016), with special focus on disturbance interactions and on the
123 mechanisms through which such interactions may occur.

124 Here, we discuss interactions between natural and anthropogenic disturbances, using
125 recent development of ecological theory (under the framework provided by Foster *et al.*,
126 2016) to characterise salvage logging and its ecological effects. By applying the concepts of
127 interaction modifications, interaction chains, and nonlinear effects (Foster *et al.*, 2016), we
128 aim to disaggregate the mechanisms driving ecological interactions related to salvage
129 logging. We use data from a systematic literature review on salvage logging (Leverkus *et al.*
130 *et al.*, 2018) to explore the extent to which interactions have been addressed to date. Our
131 paper is organised in four sections, comprising (1) Interaction modifications, (2) Interaction
132 chains, (3) Nonlinear behaviour, and (4) Recommendations for policy and practice. Here
133 we do not address the potential for cross-scale interactions (Peters *et al.*, 2007). Throughout
134 the paper, we provide reasoned arguments on the applicability of disturbance interaction
135 theory to salvage logging, evidence for interactions from the peer-reviewed literature,
136 examples of the mechanisms producing such interactions, ways to distinguish the
137 contribution of each interaction type, and some key implications for conservation and
138 management. We emphasize that empirical research on salvage logging has only
139 superficially addressed disturbance interactions to date, whereas they are fundamental to

140 understand the ecological consequences of this increasingly prevalent practice and should
141 be carefully considered when designing new studies.

142

143 **Salvage logging and interaction modifications**

144

145 The biological legacies left behind by one disturbance can affect the resilience of the
146 ecosystem to another disturbance (Buma, 2015). As a result, the effect of both disturbances
147 combined may not be additive, so that outcomes cannot be predicted from understanding
148 the response to each disturbance in isolation. This is called an interaction modification
149 (Didham *et al.*, 2007; Foster *et al.*, 2016).

150

151 *Do salvage logging effects result from interaction modifications?*

152 If natural disturbance and logging effects were additive, it would be unnecessary to study
153 salvage logging effects, as these could be predicted by the addition of the known individual
154 effects of the natural disturbance and the logging disturbance ($E_{SL} = E_D + E_L$). However,
155 many ecosystem responses to salvage logging are likely to differ from those of green-tree
156 harvesting due to the different conditions under which each kind of logging occurs (Van
157 Nieuwstadt *et al.*, 2001; Karr *et al.*, 2004; Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2004; DellaSala *et al.*, 2006;
158 Lindenmayer & Noss, 2006). As a result, the ecological effects of salvage logging would
159 result from interaction modifications; i.e., the sum of the effects of the individual
160 disturbances plus the interaction modification effect ($E_{SL} = E_D + E_L + E_{DxL}$). In particular,
161 disturbed forests are characterised by the types, abundances, and spatial distribution of
162 biological legacies (Franklin *et al.*, 2000). Elements such as downed and standing
163 deadwood that play key ecological roles (Lindenmayer & Possingham, 1996; Hutto, 2006;
164 Marañón-Jiménez & Castro, 2013; Wagenbrenner *et al.*, 2015; Thorn *et al.*, 2017), soft
165 disturbance edges that constitute appropriate habitat for many species (Hanson & Stuart,
166 2005), and the temporal dynamics that affect these elements, define such ecosystems and
167 set the scene for post-disturbance regeneration. Salvage logging changes the amount,
168 characteristics and spatial arrangement of most biological legacies (Lindenmayer & Ough,
169 2006), and it eliminates much of the spatial heterogeneity produced by a given natural
170 disturbance (Noss *et al.*, 2006). It is thus possible that salvage logging produces interaction
171 modifications through the elimination and alteration of the biological legacies left behind

172 by the natural disturbance. Theoretically, this could generate mismatches between the
173 legacies that remain after the second disturbance and the evolutionary adaptations of
174 organisms to cope with disturbance (Johnstone *et al.*, 2016). Further, as salvage logging
175 targets the extraction of dead wood, it mostly affects saproxylic organisms (Thorn *et al.*,
176 2018), whereas green-tree operations generally impact other sets of taxa that are associated
177 with living trees (Berg *et al.*, 1994).

178

179 *Evidence for interaction modifications –systematic literature review*

180 Empirically detecting interaction modifications requires measuring a given response
181 variable in factorial combinations of two factors –natural disturbance and logging– as well
182 as explicit consideration of the interaction term in statistical analyses (Foster *et al.*, 2016).
183 Such a design encompasses four kinds of forest states (or treatments): undisturbed, logged,
184 naturally disturbed, and disturbed + logged (salvage logged) forest. To assess the extent to
185 which these interaction modifications have been tested, we made use of a systematic review
186 of the global scientific literature on salvage logging effects (Leverkus *et al.*, 2018).
187 Following the review protocol for that study (Leverkus *et al.*, 2015), we searched in the
188 Web of Science, Scopus, and several other websites and search engines to retrieve all the
189 empirical studies published anytime until 31/12/2016 that fulfilled the conditions of a)
190 being field based, b) including one treatment where forest was disturbed (by wind, fire, or
191 insect outbreaks) but not logged, and c) including a treatment where the forest was affected
192 by the same disturbance and subsequently salvage logged. In contrast with the systematic
193 review, for this paper we did not impose limits regarding the response variables being
194 studied or the quality of the study. For each of the retrieved studies, we noted whether each
195 of the four forest states outlined above were included. We found that, out of 209 retrieved
196 papers (Figure 1), nearly two thirds compared the salvage logging treatment only with
197 disturbed forest, with nearly the remaining third additionally including undisturbed forest
198 as a reference (Table 2). Only eight papers (4% of all papers; Cobb *et al.*, 2007, 2010,
199 2011; Smith *et al.*, 2008; Whicker *et al.*, 2008; Kishchuk *et al.*, 2015, 2016; Blair *et al.*,
200 2016), belonging to four studies –in Alberta and Ontario, Canada; New Mexico, USA; and
201 Victoria, Australia– included a factorial disturbance by logging design (Table 2), although
202 only one paper explicitly considered the interaction between natural disturbance and
203 logging (thinning) in statistical analyses (Whicker *et al.*, 2008). In Figure 2, we provide

204 some examples of the results of these studies, highlighting some of the kinds of ecological
205 responses that can occur.

206

207 *Implications of interaction modifications*

208 The four studies we identified revealed that the responses to natural disturbance and
209 logging can range from antagonistic to synergistic depending on the variable being
210 considered, passing through all kinds of ecological interaction categories, including
211 additive effects (Piggott *et al.*, 2015). Interaction modifications from salvage logging would
212 imply that the anthropogenic disturbance occurs under conditions of altered resilience
213 generated by the previous, natural disturbance (Buma, 2015). Ultimately, interaction
214 modifications could create conditions beyond the capacity of ecosystems to recover (Buma,
215 2015; Johnstone *et al.*, 2016). Understanding what kinds of variables show each kind of
216 response, and over what time frames, could help direct future research efforts to the most
217 appropriate and efficient kind of study design and conservation efforts to the most relevant
218 targets.

219

220 **Salvage logging and interaction chains**

221 The biological legacies left behind by a disturbance can affect the factors governing
222 ecosystem resistance to subsequent disturbance (Buma, 2015). As a result, one disturbance
223 can modify the probability of occurrence, spatial extent, intensity or severity of another
224 disturbance – this is called an interaction chain (Didham *et al.*, 2007; Foster *et al.*, 2016).
225 For example, blowdown events can modify fuel structure and consequently the extent and
226 severity of wildfires (Cannon *et al.*, 2017).

227

228 *Does salvage logging constitute an interaction chain?*

229 Assessing disturbance interaction chains requires exploring whether the mechanisms that
230 produce forest resistance to disturbance change following a prior disturbance (Buma,
231 2015). In the context of salvage logging, assessing changes in resistance involves
232 evaluating the human motivations, perceptions and values behind the decision to harvest a
233 given area of forest, as well as how these may change following natural disturbance –i.e. it
234 requires addressing complex social-ecological interactions. Therefore, are forests more

235 prone to being logged after natural disturbance than in the absence of disturbance, or
236 logged at greater intensity or spatial extent?

237 In production forests, where management practices are driven primarily by
238 economic considerations, what limits logging in the absence of disturbance is chiefly the
239 expectation that the increase in value from not logging at a particular time –i.e. from
240 waiting to complete rotational cycles– is greater than if the wood is harvested (Wagner,
241 2012). Natural disturbance represents a tipping point in this regard: the economic value of a
242 stand stops increasing and starts decreasing due to factors like the decomposition of wood
243 and the expansion of insect galleries. There are additional considerations for salvage
244 logging, such as the market for salvaged timber, the available infrastructure (e.g., roads),
245 the need and cost of subsequent reforestation, and the policy and regulation framework.
246 Therefore, natural disturbance generates a shift in the main motivation that drives (or
247 limits) logging in production forests, which often triggers the impulse to harvest “now or
248 never” to secure some of the remaining economic value of the wood (Lindenmayer *et al.*,
249 2008).

250 In protected forests, logging is primarily limited to meet nature conservation and
251 human recreation objectives. Following disturbance, protection may weaken, partly because
252 disturbed forests are often perceived as of lower ecological value than undisturbed forests
253 (Noss & Lindenmayer, 2006) and partly because salvage logging is sometimes perceived to
254 constitute the best-available method for ecological restoration (Müller *et al.*, 2018). In
255 addition, following disturbance, conservation objectives are often overtaken by other
256 arguments. Initially, the rapid collapse of dead trees (e.g., Molinas-González *et al.*, 2017)
257 constitutes a public safety hazard that demands logging of affected trees near roads and
258 other infrastructure. Salvage logging also aims to reduce some negative consequences of
259 disturbance, such as limited access across the disturbed area (Leverkus *et al.*, 2012). From
260 aesthetical and emotional points of view, disturbed forests are frequently regarded as “ugly
261 tree cemeteries” or disorganised stands needing to be “cleaned-up” (Noss & Lindenmayer,
262 2006). Such triggers and motivations are generally absent in undisturbed forests, and they
263 imply that the aims and values that limited logging in the absence of disturbance are
264 substituted by others more favourable to logging once disturbance occurs –thus inducing
265 the interaction chain.

266 Another mechanism triggering the interaction chain lies within the context of
267 interaction chains itself. The accumulation of dead wood after windthrow and/or insect
268 outbreaks can increase the extent and intensity of subsequent wildfires (Kulakowski &
269 Veblen, 2007; Collins *et al.*, 2012; Johnson *et al.*, 2013). Windthrow events leave a
270 landscape characterised by weakened trees that may constitute the breeding ground for pest
271 insects that can also invade neighbouring forest (Schroeder, 2007; Stadelmann *et al.*, 2013).
272 Such interaction chains between natural disturbances are widely recognised and feared, and
273 their avoidance constitutes a major motivation for salvage logging (Fraver *et al.*, 2011;
274 Thorn *et al.*, 2017; Müller *et al.*, 2018). For example, Swedish legislation obliges salvage
275 logging after storms to leave a maximum of 5m³ ha⁻¹ of deadwood to prevent bark beetle
276 outbreaks (Swedish Forest Agency, 2011). Salvage logging may succeed in preventing such
277 interaction chains (Schroeder & Lindelöw, 2002; Buma & Wessman, 2012; Stadelmann *et*
278 *al.*, 2013) or it may not (Donato *et al.*, 2006b; Kulakowski & Veblen, 2007; Fraver *et al.*,
279 2011; Pasztor *et al.*, 2014). However, from an ecosystem perspective, the aim of preventing
280 one interaction chain paradoxically represents a major driving mechanism of yet another
281 interaction chain: that of disturbance followed by logging. Subsequently, other interaction
282 chains can be initiated, as post-disturbance logging can reduce ecosystem resistance to
283 disturbances such as browsing by large ungulates (Leverkus *et al.*, 2013; Kramer *et al.*,
284 2014) or invasion by alien plant species (Moreira *et al.*, 2013).

285 Another feature of interaction chains is that salvage operations are often more
286 intense than during green-tree harvesting, particularly as a result of a lack, or at least
287 relaxation, of environmental prescriptions to logging after natural disturbance
288 (Lindenmayer & Noss, 2006; Lewis *et al.*, 2008). This also results from salvage logging
289 operations being more difficult and time-consuming in cases where the trees are broken and
290 bent (e.g., after storms), thus producing a larger impact on the soil and vegetation
291 (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008).

292

293 *Evidence for the interaction chain*

294 A good example of disturbance-induced increases in the likelihood of logging is in
295 protected areas where conventional logging is prohibited (Müller *et al.*, 2018). Cases
296 include the Sierra Nevada National Park in Spain after a wildfire in 2005 (Leverkus *et al.*,
297 2016), bark-beetle affected areas in the Białowieża National Park in Poland (Schiermeier,

298 2016), and windthrows in the Monarch Butterfly Reserve in Mexico, where logging aims to
299 reduce fire risk (Leverkus *et al.*, 2017b). However, disturbance also increases the likelihood
300 of logging in production forests. For instance, after a jack pine budworm outbreak in
301 Wisconsin, Radeloff *et al.* (2000) found that forests were 3 to 6 times more likely to be
302 logged than before the outbreak. In fact, immediate, large-scale salvage logging after major
303 disturbances is so common that reductions in the price of wood due to the flooding of the
304 market are a well-known sequel of disturbance (Peter & Bogdanski, 2010). Salvage
305 clearcuts are also often much larger than traditional, green-tree clearcuts (Radeloff *et al.*,
306 2000; Hebblewhite *et al.*, 2009; Sullivan *et al.*, 2010). For example, mean clearcut size
307 increased fourfold after a mountain pine beetle outbreak in the southern Rocky Mountains
308 of Colorado (Collins *et al.*, 2010). Referring to an extremely widespread beetle outbreak in
309 British Columbia, Sullivan *et al.* (2010, p.750) describe that “salvage logging is essentially
310 very large-scale clearcutting and may result in openings covering 1000s of ha”. Another
311 illustration of salvage logging as an interaction chain comes from the 2014 fire near
312 Uppsala, Sweden, which burnt ca. 14,000 ha of production forest. After the fire, forest
313 owners sought to sell the affected timber and improve regeneration conditions, which
314 resulted 1) in trees being cut at ages that would otherwise be considered unsuitably young
315 for harvesting (Figure 3-a), 2) logging at higher intensity than usual (Figure 3-b), and 3) the
316 creation of a continuous clearcut much larger than usual (Figure 3-c; however, some of the
317 burnt forest was acquired by the Swedish Government to create a nature reserve).

318

319 *Implications of the interaction chain*

320 Interaction chains constitute a major mechanism driving the ecological effects of salvage
321 logging. The first is that, once a natural disturbance occurs, logging can occur in places
322 where it would otherwise not, including protected areas and old-growth or very young
323 forests (Müller *et al.*, 2018). In such a way, land-use policies that do not anticipate the risk
324 of disturbances may fail in defining where logging should or should not occur (Müller *et*
325 *al.*, 2018). Furthermore, natural disturbance can be used as a justification to harvest forests,
326 stands or individual trees that were not affected by the natural disturbance under the
327 umbrella of salvage logging operations (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2006; Peter & Bogdanski, 2010),
328 a process termed “by-catch” (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008). By-catch can be hard to avoid in
329 salvage operations where healthy and disturbance-affected trees are intermingled within

330 single stands (Peter & Bogdanski, 2010), and it is sometimes thought to be necessary to
331 partially compensate for the higher cost of salvage operations and the reduced value of the
332 wood. A major risk in this regard is that logging is conducted beyond the boundaries of the
333 disturbance (Wang *et al.*, 2006; Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008). In addition, logging being more
334 intense and occurring at larger scales after disturbance than in its absence undermines the
335 essential role of biological legacies in post-disturbance ecosystem regeneration (Franklin *et al.*,
336 2000; Johnstone *et al.*, 2016). For example, the large size of salvage clearcuts can affect
337 plant natural regeneration via seed dispersal due to increasing distances from seed sources
338 (Ritchie & Knapp, 2014; Leverkus *et al.*, 2016).

339 Due to interaction chains, the climatic drivers of a given disturbance can indirectly
340 increase the magnitude of subsequent, connected disturbances (Seidl *et al.*, 2017). As a
341 result, the consequences of the initial disturbance driver are carried over to another
342 disturbance type –these are called cascading effects (Buma, 2015). Salvage logging can
343 bring about cascading effects, as the impacts of harvesting can be amplified due to the
344 climatic conditions associated with major natural disturbances (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008).
345 For example, drought typically precedes wildfire and beetle infestations, and windthrow
346 events are often associated with high rainfall, producing wet ground. Logging after such
347 disturbances thus occurs at a time of reduced ecosystem resilience due to drought (Harvey
348 *et al.*, 2016), or it can amplify soil disturbance by ground-based machinery if the soil is wet
349 (Lindenmayer & Noss, 2006). Within an average of less than two years (Leverkus *et al.*,
350 2018), the ecosystem passes from an undisturbed state to being subject to the combined
351 impacts of climatic stress, natural disturbance, and logging (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008).
352 Because the climatic drivers of disturbances are increasing as a result of climate change
353 (Seidl *et al.*, 2017), the frequency and magnitude of cascading effects related to salvage
354 logging also should be expected to increase.

355 Another implication of interaction chains is that they can become the driving
356 mechanism producing interaction modifications (Buma, 2015). As a result, an effect of fire
357 and subsequent logging on tree regeneration may arise from several non-mutually exclusive
358 mechanisms related to: a) interaction modifications, such as the triggering of seedling
359 emergence by the initial disturbance and their subsequent destruction by machinery, or high
360 mortality due to the lack of suitable conditions for growth caused by changes in the abiotic
361 environment; b) consequences of the interaction chain, such as the lack of an appropriate

362 seed bank due to the salvage logged stand being too young or the large distance from seed
363 sources resulting from huge salvage clearcuts; c) interaction chains initiated by salvage
364 logging, such as stronger herbivory by ungulates or intense competition by invasive species
365 after logging; or d) cascading effects, such as when disturbance and salvage logging follow
366 severe drought and resprouting plant species are too weak to resprout twice (after fire and
367 again after logging). Effective management to tackle the interaction and avoid regeneration
368 failure requires knowledge of the mechanism driving each response –management
369 decisions made under wrong assumptions of the mechanism underlying the interaction can
370 fail to produce the desired outcomes and even produce the opposite effects (Foster *et al.*,
371 2016).

372

373 *Distinguishing the contribution of interaction modification and chain effects*

374 An experimental test for disturbance interaction modifications requires explicit
375 consideration of the interaction chain. If salvage logging affects forest stands of a broader
376 age range than green-tree harvesting, a design controlling for stand age would fail to
377 address the full array of effects of the interacting disturbances (Figure 4). Conversely, if the
378 interaction chain is not controlled –for example if salvage study plots are located on larger
379 clearcuts than green-tree logging plots–, the effects of the interaction modification would
380 be confounded with those of the interaction chain (Figure 4). Although some of the aspects
381 of interaction chains (such as cascading effects) are extremely difficult to isolate in
382 individual studies, other aspects can be addressed through careful study design. First, to
383 address interaction modifications, these are best tested under the factorial combination of
384 disturbance and logging treatments, with logging applied with the same machinery,
385 intensity, extent, and in similar forest as green-tree harvesting. Second, individual aspects
386 of the interaction chain could be assessed by comparing salvage logged stands of different
387 dimensions (to test the effects of salvage clearcuts being larger), salvaged stands with
388 different degrees of dead-tree retention (effects of salvage operations being more intense),
389 salvaged stands of a range of pre-disturbance ages (effects of salvage clearcuts being less
390 selective), etc. And third, it may be of interest to establish herbivore exclosures and, where
391 applicable, careful removal of invasive species, to assess the extent to which salvage
392 logging effects are modulated by interaction chains with subsequent disturbances. Although
393 such designs are very hard to implement due to the unpredictability of natural disturbances

394 and political, legal, and economic constraints (e.g., Slesak *et al.*, 2015), even partial designs
395 should clearly address the specific mechanisms driving interactions. Finally, given issues
396 such as climate change, cascading effects, and shifting disturbance regimes (Seidl *et al.*,
397 2017), it is essential that individual studies thoroughly report on stand conditions and the
398 characteristics of disturbance events to allow future quantitative reviews on the topic.

399

400 **Nonlinear behaviour in natural disturbance x logging interactions**

401 The response of ecosystems to disturbance, and the magnitude of disturbance interaction
402 chains and interaction modifications, can show nonlinear behaviour relative to the intensity
403 or severity of the individual disturbances (Peterson, 2002; Peters *et al.*, 2004; Foster *et al.*,
404 2016). Nonlinearities mean that small differences in the severity of one of the disturbances
405 can generate disproportionately large differences in effects. For example, a study in
406 Colorado found that high-severity windthrow increased the severity of subsequent fire due
407 to the accumulation of large amounts of coarse woody debris and hence reduced tree
408 regeneration, whereas patches of low-severity windthrow –particularly below the threshold
409 of 64 downed trees ha⁻¹– mitigated the impact of subsequent wildfire on seedling
410 regeneration (Buma & Wessman, 2011). Identifying such thresholds can be critical for
411 defining appropriate management strategies (Peters *et al.*, 2004), for example by providing
412 better assessments of post-disturbance tree regeneration capacity. The potential for
413 nonlinear responses precludes the extrapolation of disturbance effects beyond and between
414 the particular disturbance intensities assessed in a study (Foster *et al.*, 2016). Further, due
415 to nonlinear effects, the kinds of responses detected in a given study (antagonism,
416 synergism, additive effects) can be a function of the intensity levels selected in the study
417 and do not necessarily reflect a finding that is generalizable to other disturbance intensity
418 levels (see Foster *et al.*, 2016 for examples).

419

420 *Nonlinear behaviour in interaction modifications*

421 To assess nonlinearities in interactive responses to two consecutive disturbances, at least
422 one of them must be sampled over a range of intensities, preferably as a continuous variable
423 (Foster *et al.*, 2016). Of the 209 articles retrieved in our systematic literature search
424 described above, we found that 14% (n = 30) sampled over different levels of severity of
425 the natural disturbance or at least used some proxy of disturbance severity as a covariate

426 (although not many studies specifically addressed nonlinear effects). An example of a
427 nonlinear interaction comes from (Royo *et al.*, 2016), who found that salvage logging after
428 a tornado in Pennsylvania, USA, reduced tree sapling basal area and density, but only at
429 high windthrow severity and only 1-2 years after logging. In that study, the interactive
430 effects of a tornado and logging caused a change in successional trajectory, yet only at high
431 wind-disturbance severity.

432 Some studies also tested the effects of variable salvage logging intensities. Of the
433 209 papers, 24% (n = 50) included some measure of salvage logging intensity or
434 encompassed different salvage logging treatments that differed in the intensity of the
435 intervention. A study with five experimental salvage logging intensities (with 0, 25, 50, 75,
436 and 100% retention) was established after the 2002 Cone Fire in California. Although
437 nonlinear behaviour was not specifically addressed, the results of that study suggest that
438 some response variables –such as shrub cover– may show nonlinear effects of salvage
439 logging intensity, and that some others –fine woody debris in this case– can show nonlinear
440 interactions between salvage intensity and time (Knapp & Ritchie, 2016). Conversely, the
441 sampling of 255 stands across Oregon and Washington showed that the response of woody
442 fuels to post-fire salvage logging was a nonlinear function of time (Peterson *et al.*, 2015).

443 Very few studies (3.3%; 7 articles) considered the effects of disturbance severity
444 and logging intensity simultaneously. McIver and McNeil (2006) used measurements of the
445 number of stems removed during harvest after the Summit Fire in Oregon, as well as
446 proxies of fire severity, as covariates in their analyses, and they found that logging intensity
447 explained more variation in post-fire soil losses than fire severity. These results are
448 important for understanding the mechanisms driving salvage logging impacts.

449

450 *Nonlinear behaviour in the interaction chain*

451 The severity of natural disturbance can affect the extent of the interaction chain in nonlinear
452 ways. For example, as trees surviving wildfire are susceptible to hosting pest beetles
453 (Amman & Ryan, 1991), low-severity wildfire can promote high-intensity logging to
454 remove such trees, whereas high-severity wildfire –above the threshold of producing
455 widespread tree mortality– can reduce the perceived need for tree removal and thus lead to
456 low-intensity logging or no logging at all. Another threshold may exist at a degree of
457 damage severity beyond the capacity to recover sufficient economic value from the timber,

458 especially in cases where salvaging timber, and not subsequent stand development, is the
459 main priority. As a third example, a stand affected by low-severity wind damage may still
460 be more valuable if the surviving trees are allowed to continue growing, yet above a certain
461 damage severity, a decision to salvage the stand would be made. Understanding the
462 nonlinear character of natural disturbance severity in defining the decision to salvage log
463 should also be regarded as a relevant issue in defining regional-scale policy on the
464 management of disturbed forests and logging set-asides (Müller *et al.*, 2018).

465

466 *Implications of nonlinear behaviour*

467 A major implication of possible nonlinearities is that the effects of salvage logging could be
468 modulated by where and how it is conducted. Can the negative consequences of salvage
469 logging be mitigated if operations target stands below a certain severity level of the
470 preceding natural disturbance? Do threshold values in snag retention govern the response of
471 organisms to salvage logging? Are such thresholds similar to those seen for green-tree
472 harvesting? Such questions remain largely unanswered. It is noteworthy that, in contrast to
473 salvage logging, research on green-tree harvesting has already produced valuable
474 information on the benefits of single- and group-tree retention (Fedrowitz *et al.*, 2014; Mori
475 & Kitagawa, 2014). As a result, the concept of retention forestry was created, targeting the
476 long-term retention of key structural elements and organisms to promote the “continuity in
477 forest structure, composition, and complexity that promotes maintenance of biodiversity
478 and ecological functions at different spatial scales” (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2012). Such an
479 approach currently lacks a counterpart in disturbed forests (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2018),
480 while it is precisely in such forests that biological legacies are crucial for regeneration
481 (Franklin *et al.*, 2000). Paradoxically, whereas green-tree retention aims to emulate natural
482 disturbance dynamics (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2012), once a natural disturbance occurs, the
483 most common response is salvage logging. Important unresolved questions to guide the
484 applicability of the retention approach to disturbed forests include: To what extent does
485 dead tree retention in salvage logged areas have similar effects to snag retention in areas
486 subject to green-tree retention harvesting? And, do potential differences result from
487 nonlinear effects of disturbance or logging intensity?

488

489 **Using knowledge on interactions to improve policy and practice**

490 Some of the interactions between natural disturbance and logging are driven by the
491 generalised lack, or weakening, of logging prescriptions once natural disturbance has taken
492 place (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008). This often includes rapid, crisis-style decision-making
493 due to the lack of planning and fear of the quick loss of economic value of the wood
494 (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2008). As many of the interactions described above occur within the
495 context of specific policy and regulatory contexts, they can also be modulated through
496 changes in policy, law, and education. Logging is an anthropogenic disturbance and hence
497 there are opportunities to control where, how, and how much salvage logging should occur
498 after disturbance (Müller *et al.*, 2018). Enhanced policies and practices should be based on
499 our understanding of interaction effects, such as the existence of synergistic effects of
500 disturbance and logging (interaction modifications), the effect that salvage logging
501 produces on the risk of subsequent disturbance (interaction chains), the thresholds of
502 salvage intensity at which important habitat features are lost (nonlinear behaviour) and the
503 capacity for natural regeneration when logging follows fire preceded by severe drought
504 (cascading effects). For example, cascading effects can be reduced by controlling the
505 timing of salvage logging. On the other hand, great challenges remain in the face of
506 uncertainty, as salvage logging can have unforeseeable effects related to interactions with
507 subsequent disturbances. For instance, whereas post-storm salvage logging can negatively
508 impact tree regeneration (Rumbaitis del Rio, 2006), this effect can turn out positive if it
509 mitigates the severity of subsequent fire (Buma & Wessman, 2011).

510

511 **Conclusions**

512 Paine and colleagues (1998) argued that understanding the ecological interactions arising
513 from multiple disturbances would be essential for environmental management in the 21st
514 century. As revealed by our systematic review, two decades later we are still some way
515 from understanding the interactive nature of a key sequence of natural and anthropogenic
516 disturbances. In fact, the majority of studies on salvage logging lack the necessary design to
517 test for interactions between natural disturbance and logging, despite many mentioning
518 interactions as likely explanations of their results. To avoid unexpected responses of
519 ecosystem functions and services, as well as losses in forest resilience and biodiversity
520 worldwide, policies regarding disturbed forests need to account for the problems arising
521 from interacting disturbances, recognising that salvage logging, by definition, constitutes a

522 sequence of disturbances. To guide such policies, the design of studies on salvage logging
523 requires explicit assessment of the multiple pathways through which natural disturbance
524 and logging interact, including interaction modifications, interaction chains, nonlinear
525 behaviour in the interactions, cascading effects, and potential subsequent disturbances. This
526 requires not only addressing the ecological effects of disturbance at the scale of stands, but
527 also disentangling the socio-ecological interactions leading to the concatenation of natural
528 and anthropogenic disturbances and assessing the effects of such interactions at broader
529 spatial and temporal scales. In a world of shifting disturbance regimes, where forests are
530 increasingly susceptible to the effects of individual and multiple natural disturbances, and
531 where salvage logging typically follows, we require better understanding of the role that
532 our response to natural disturbances is playing in defining the future of the world's forests.

533

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825 **Data accessibility**

826 The data used for this manuscript are freely available as a tab-delimited text file at the
827 University of Alcalá institutional data repository at
828 <https://edatos.consorcioadrono.es/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.21950/MF3TH1>.

829

830

831 **Table 1**

Term	Definition
Salvage logging	The harvesting of trees after natural disturbances (Lindenmayer & Noss, 2006)
Green-tree harvesting	The harvesting of trees in the absence of recent natural disturbance
Clearcutting	Harvesting all the trees in one area at one time (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency)
Retention forestry	Management approach alternative to clearcutting where a portion of the original stand is left unlogged to maintain the continuity of structural and compositional diversity (Gustafsson <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Natural disturbance	Any relatively discrete event in time that disrupts ecosystem, community, or population structure and changes resources, substrate availability, or the physical environment (White & Pickett, 1985)
Anthropogenic disturbance	Disturbance of human origin and characteristics that are distinctive from those of natural disturbances
Undisturbed forest	Forest that has not been affected by disturbance
Disturbance intensity	Physical magnitude of the disturbance event per area and time (White & Pickett, 1985)
Disturbance severity	Impact of disturbance on organisms, communities, or ecosystems (White & Pickett, 1985)
Ecosystem resistance	Capacity of an ecosystem to remain essentially unchanged despite the occurrence of disturbances (Grimm & Wissel, 1997)
Ecosystem resilience	Capacity to return to the reference state (or dynamic) after a temporary disturbance (Grimm & Wissel, 1997)
Biological legacies	The organisms, organic materials, and organically-generated environmental patterns that persist through a disturbance and are incorporated into the recovering ecosystem (Franklin <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
Driver	A variable that is causally linked, through direct or indirect pathways, to a measured change in a response variable (Didham <i>et al.</i> , 2007)

Interaction chain	One disturbance modifies the probability of occurrence, intensity, or extent of another driver and both affect the response variable directly (Foster <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Also termed linked disturbances (Buma, 2015)
Cascading effect	Emergent phenomena where a disturbance interaction can extend the impacts of a driver of one disturbance into another disturbance type (Buma, 2015)
Interaction modification	Phenomenon where the per capita effect of one disturbance depends on the effect of a second disturbance (Foster <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Also termed compounded disturbances (Buma, 2015)
Non-additive effect	Emergent property of the addition of two factors, whose combined effect differs from the addition of the two individual effects (Piggott <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
Synergistic	The effect of two factors applied in combination is greater than the sum of the effects of both factors applied in isolation
Antagonistic	The effect of two factors applied in combination is smaller than the sum of the effects of both factors applied in isolation
Non-linear effect	The change produced in a response variable per unit of an independent variable depends on the magnitude of the independent variable

832

833

834 **Table 2**






Treatment combinations	Papers* % (N)	Sample Questions and Implications (for any given response variable)				
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">U</td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">L</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">D</td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">SL</td> </tr> </table>	U	L	D	SL	3.8 (8)	<p>Q: Can the effect of salvage logging be predicted by adding the individual effects of logging and disturbance? Is the effect of salvage logging different from that of green-tree harvesting?</p> <p>I: Allows testing each component of the equation:</p> $E_{SL} = E_D + E_L + E_{D \times L}$ <p>where E refers to the effect of SL= salvage logging, D= natural disturbance, L= logging, and D×L= disturbance by logging interaction.</p> <p>In cases where $E_{D \times L} = 0$, one could predict salvage logging effects from the addition of the known effects of disturbance and logging</p>
U	L					
D	SL					
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">U</td> <td style="width: 50%; background-color: black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">D</td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">SL</td> </tr> </table>	U		D	SL	32.1 (67)	<p>Q: What is the effect of natural disturbance and of subsequent salvage logging? Does salvage logging mitigate or amplify the consequences of natural disturbance?</p> <p>I: Allows measuring E_D and comparing its magnitude with that of the subsequent intervention, but E_L and $E_{D \times L}$ cannot be distinguished. Excludes testing the predictability of salvage logging effects from the individual effects of natural disturbance and logging or whether the effects of salvage logging and those of green-tree harvesting differ.</p>
U						
D	SL					
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; background-color: black;"></td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">L</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">D</td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">SL</td> </tr> </table>		L	D	SL	2.4 (5)	<p>Q: What is the effect of the salvage logging intervention on a disturbed forest? How similar is a salvaged forest to a forest logged without previous disturbance?</p> <p>I: Allows measuring the effect of the salvage logging intervention, but there is no clear baseline condition for testing the elements in the above equation. Neither E_D or E_L can be distinguished from $E_{D \times L}$; the selection of treatments rather suggests a 3-level categorical factor.</p>
	L					
D	SL					
<table border="1" style="width: 100%; height: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; background-color: black;"></td> <td style="width: 50%; background-color: black;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">D</td> <td style="width: 50%; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;">SL</td> </tr> </table>			D	SL	61.7 (129)	<p>Q: What is the effect of the salvage logging intervention on a disturbed forest?</p> <p>I: Allows measuring the effect of the salvage logging intervention, but not distinguishing whether the measured effect is due to logging <i>per se</i> or to logging forest that is disturbed –i.e., E_L confounded with $E_{D \times L}$.</p>
D	SL					

835 Combinations of forest states (treatments) that were employed in empirical studies on
836 salvage logging and implications of treatment selection for testing interaction effects
837 between the natural disturbance and the logging disturbance. Each treatment combination
838 enables a certain set of questions to be answered, but for a comprehensive understanding of
839 disturbance interaction modifications, factorial treatment combinations are needed.

840 * Numbers indicate the percentage (and total number) of publications with each kind of
841 study design that were retrieved in a systematic review on the effects of salvage logging on
842 ecosystem services (Leverkus *et al.*, 2018); total number of publications assessed = 209.

843

844 Q= example of question that can be asked. I= implications of the design.

845  = Undisturbed;  = Naturally disturbed;  = Logged;  = Salvage logged;  =

846 Not included in the design.

847

848

849 **Figure captions**

850

851 **Figure 1.** Locations of the studies that produced the 209 publications. One point is shown
852 per study site (see associated data).

853

854 **Figure 2.** Examples of ecological responses to factorial combinations of natural disturbance
855 and logging. A) Additive increases in wind erosion (Whicker *et al.*, 2008), B) additive
856 decreases in bird species richness 7 years after wildfire (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2018), C)
857 Synergistic decline in tree-fern survival (Blair *et al.*, 2016), D) antagonistic effect on
858 microbial soil carbon (Kishchuk *et al.*, 2015), E) white-spotted sawyer beetles
859 (*Monochamus scutellatus*) only present under individual disturbances (Cobb *et al.*, 2010),
860 F) Combined effect of wildfire and salvage logging on forest floor carbon showing up as a
861 reduction in the speed of recovery (Kishchuk *et al.*, 2015). Panels C to F show cases of
862 interaction modifications. UD= undisturbed; B= burnt; L= logged; SL= burnt and salvage
863 logged.

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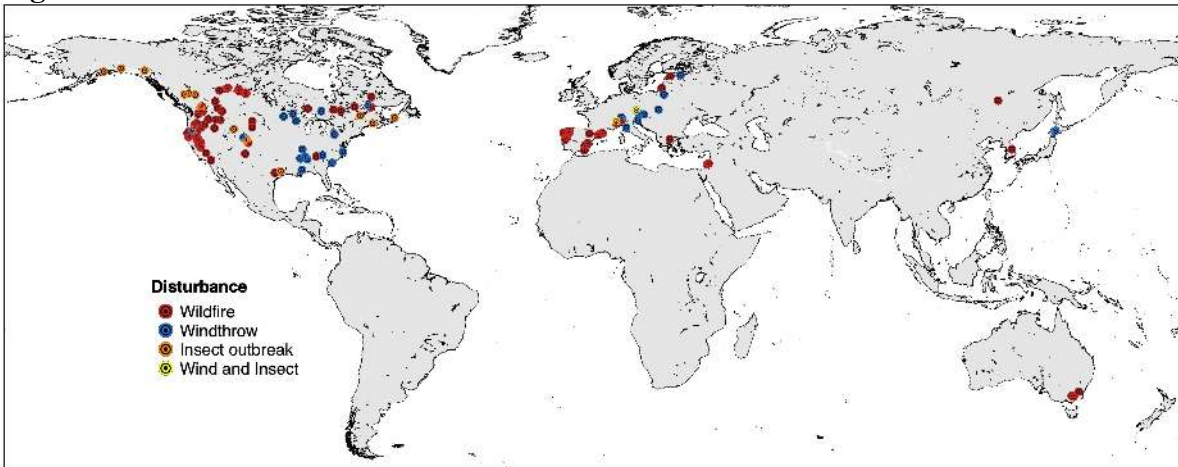
865 **Figure 3.** Interaction chain between natural disturbance and logging. Three of the most
866 pervasive differences between green-tree and salvage harvesting are: (a) that the latter
867 affects stands that would otherwise be deemed unsuitable for logging, for example due to
868 their young age; (b) that salvage logging operations tend to be more intense; and (c) that
869 salvage clearcuts are generally much larger than green-tree clearcuts. These are
870 characteristics of the interaction chain involving fire and subsequent logging. In (c), the
871 huge post-fire clearcut (out of the 14000 ha burned, about 5500 ha were salvage logged)
872 contrasts with the smaller green-tree clearcuts around the burnt area, signalled with white
873 arrows. Photos from the 2014 fire near Uppsala, Sweden.

874

875 **Figure 4.** Potential confounding between interaction modification and interaction chain
876 effects. The figure shows factorial combinations of natural disturbance x logging leading to
877 four forest states: a) undisturbed, b) logged, c) disturbed, and d) salvage logged. Trees (or
878 stands) of various ages are depicted, distributed within a site (or landscape). To empirically
879 test for interaction modification effects from salvage logging (i.e., whether the effects of
880 natural disturbance and logging are additive when the latter follows the first), treatment
881 combinations a-d are required. The trees (or stands) in circles represent a mature pre-
882 disturbance condition that would generally be the target of research across the four
883 treatments. Note, however, that the interaction chain between disturbance and logging
884 implies that salvage logging also targets stands that would be deemed too young for harvest
885 in the absence of disturbance, and that salvage clearcuts are often larger (Figure 3). The
886 design here shown would thus a) fail in showing the range of effects of salvage logging, as
887 younger salvaged stands are not considered, and b) confound the interaction modification
888 effect with potential effects of the interaction chain, as the study plots in d are located on a
889 larger clearcut than in b. Also, potential nonlinear behaviour in the response to one or both
890 disturbances would reduce the capacity to predict outcomes at levels of disturbance severity
891 that differ from those tested in the experiment.

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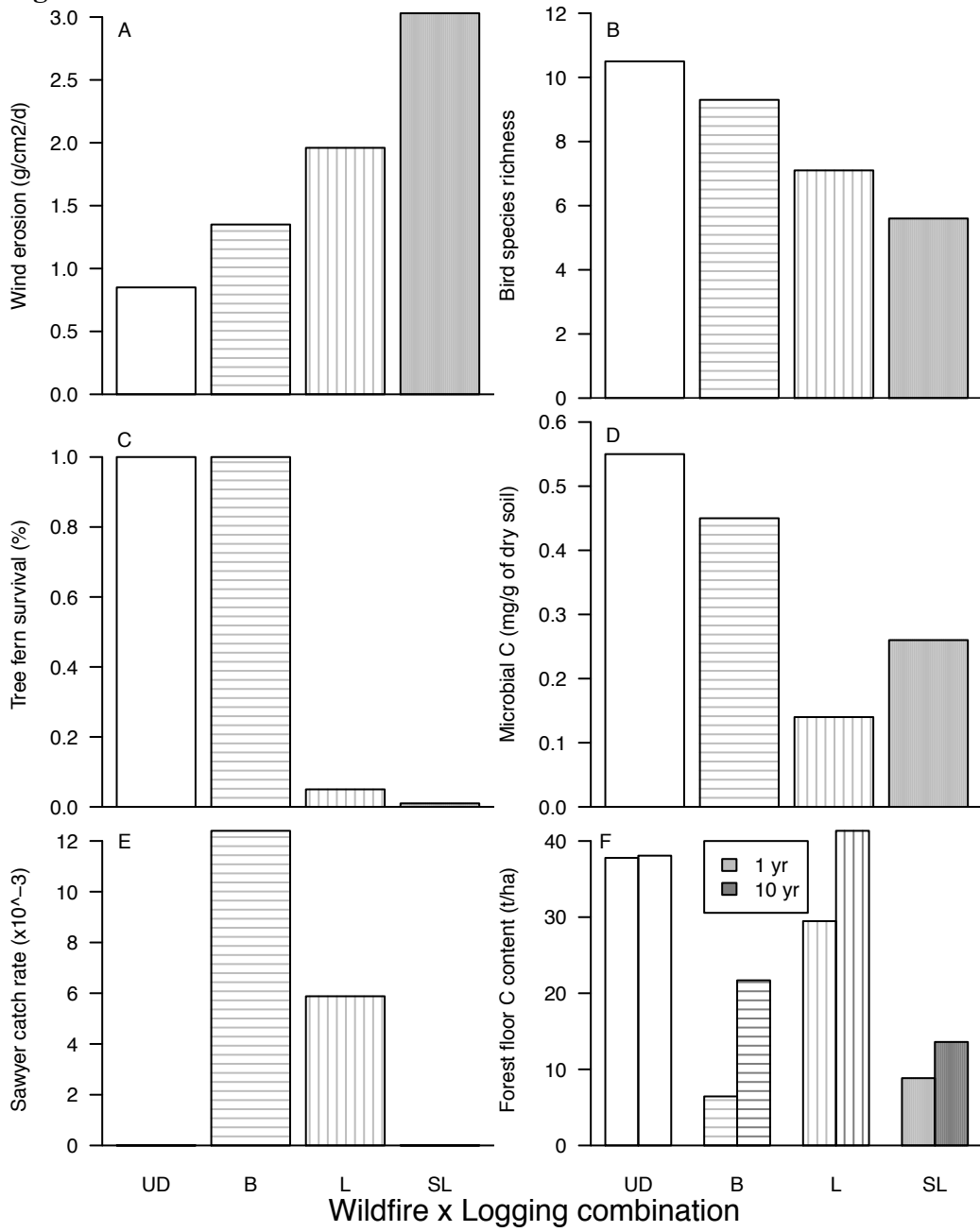
893 **Figure 1**



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Figure 2



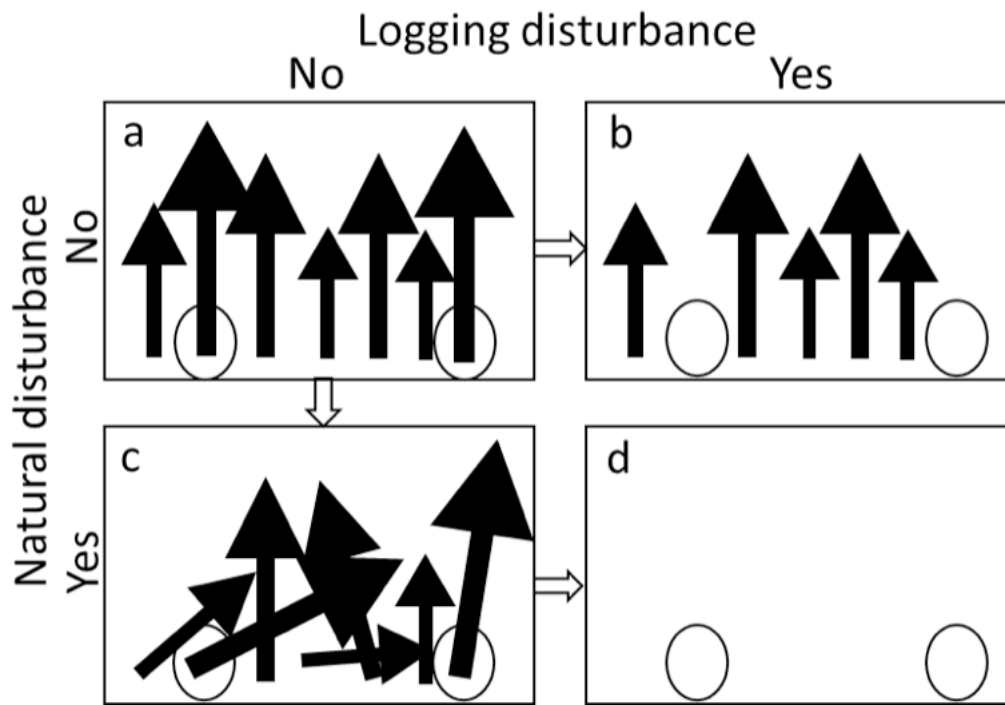
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898 **Figure 3**



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901 **Figure 4**



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