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Herbivory strains resilience in drought-prone aspen landscapes of the western United States

Paul C. Rogers
Utah State University

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9 Ordinary Paper:

10 **Herbivory strains resilience in drought-prone aspen landscapes of the western United States**
11

12 *Paul C. Rogers

13 Director, Western Aspen Alliance

14 Ecology Center

15 Utah State University

16 Ph: 1(435)797-0194

17 FAX: 1(435)797-3796

18 p.rogers@usu.edu
19

20 Cody M. Mittanck

21 CNL Environmental Consultants LLC

22 Ph: 1(801)367-2230

23 cody.mittanck@gmail.com
24

25 *Corresponding author mailing address: Department of Wildland Resources, 5230 Old Main Hill, Logan,

26 Utah, USA 84322

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 **Aims:** Aspen forests around the northern hemisphere provide rich biodiversity compared to surrounding
31 vegetation types. In both North America and Europe, however, aspen are threatened by a variety of
32 human impacts: clear-felling, land development, water diversions, fire suppression, and both wild and
33 domestic ungulate herbivory. We conducted a landscape assessment of quaking aspen (*Populus*
34 *tremuloides*) for the purpose of identifying key components of resilience. Specifically, we strove to test
35 novel measures linking plant-animal interactions, compare crucial functional differences in aspen types,
36 and make appropriate restorative recommendations based on the outcome of these assessments.

37 **Location:** The Book Cliffs region of eastern Utah and western Colorado, USA.

38 **Methods:** Seventy-seven one hectare plots were sampled for forest structure, composition, regeneration
39 and recruitment, landscape elements, browse level, and herbivore use. Use was determined by counting
40 the number of pellet groups by ungulate species at each sample location. We tested the efficacy of a
41 visual stand condition rating system when compared to objective metrics. A series of non-parametric
42 analyses were used to compare functional aspen types and stand condition groups by key variables.
43 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS) allowed us to explore all our data to find the most critical
44 measures of aspen stand conditions for the purpose of better informing future aspen monitoring.

45 **Results:** Results indicate that plots differed significantly by seral or stable aspen functional types, stand
46 condition rating, and browse species use. Ordination analysis revealed that regeneration level and
47 herbivore use were the strongest objective indicators of aspen stand conditions, while the stand condition
48 rating proved a valuable subjective index of forest status. While ungulate herbivory of aspen is
49 problematic internationally, our results show acute impacts where moderate slopes, relatively low water
50 availability, and intense browsing predominate.

51 **Conclusions:** Appropriate measures of aspen communities, informed by crucial functional divisions, have
52 allowed us to gain a clear understanding of conditions across this large landscape. Overall, aspen in our
53 study landscape is highly vulnerable to collapse due to narrow physiographic and climate limitations and

54 browse levels. Without herbivory reduction, future conservation in such areas will be strained and
55 widespread system failure may occur.

56

57 **Keywords:** *Populus tremuloides*; ungulates; elk; deer; livestock; forest ecology; conservation;
58 biodiversity; climate; ordination

59 **Nomenclature:** Plant species follow Welsh et al., (1987). Mammal taxonomy is derived from (Zaveloff
60 & Collett, 1988).

61 **Abbreviations:** NMS = Nonmetric multidimensional scaling; NAIP = National Agriculture Imagery
62 Program; SNOTEL = "snow telemetry" - a network of remote stations to gather and record snow water
63 content, precipitation, and air temperature data.

64 **Running Head:** Aspen, ungulates, and forest resilience

65 **Introduction**

66 Aspen forests of the northern hemisphere provide unique resources where they are often the lone
67 deciduous component of vast coniferous expanses. In both North America and Europe aspen are valued
68 for their rich flora and fauna (Edenius & Ericsson 2007; Kuhn et al. 2011). These biodiverse
69 communities, however, are regionally threatened by management practices, such as logging and fire
70 suppression which favor conifers, and by overabundance of either domestic or wild herbivores (Kota &
71 Bartos 2010; Edenius et al. 2011). While many of the underlying issues facing quaking aspen (*Populus*
72 *tremuloides*) and European aspen (*P. tremula*) are similar, there are two notable differences: quaking
73 aspen tend to form large contiguous stands and, particularly in western locales, they occur in relatively
74 drier climates. Climate thus becomes a key component of future quaking aspen management where it is
75 thought that these forests are at or near their moisture resource margins (Rehfeldt et al. 2009; Martin &
76 Maron 2012). Stressors on aspen landscapes that augment climate impacts, therefore, are of high concern
77 to those addressing forest system resilience.

78 In western North American there are numerous recent studies documenting both declines (Di
79 Orio et al. 2005; Worrall et al. 2008) and expansions (Manier & Laven 2002; Kulakowski et al. 2004) of
80 aspen forests. These works document cover change at a variety of spatial and temporal scales, therefore it
81 is difficult to make direct comparisons between results. Moreover, recent authors have pointed out
82 distinct aspen functional types (Shepperd et al. 2006; Rogers et al. 2013) which would be expected to
83 respond differently to short- and long-term perturbations. Aspen cover change has been attributed to fire
84 suppression and conifer encroachment, past logging, climate variability, settlement period burning, and
85 browsing by wild and domestic ungulates (Kulakowski et al. 2004; Shepperd et al. 2006; Rogers et al.
86 2011). Some results have indicated positive and negative cover change within the same landscape
87 (Kulakowski et al. 2004; Sankey 2009), lending further support to the concept of varying aspen functional
88 types (Rogers et al. 2013). Given that aspen forests have undergone modest-to-large change over the past
89 150 years—often where human actions combine with stochastic disturbances—practitioners have become
90 concerned about the future of these forests under current management regimes. Contemporary thinking

91 holds that “managing for resilience” will afford the best hopes for sustainable quaking aspen (as in most
92 systems). Forest managers are therefore interested in sustaining or creating resilient aspen communities
93 with a foundation of state-of-the-science knowledge and adaptive practices. Where plant-animal
94 interactions are paramount, a barrier to such goals has been a lack of effective communication between
95 federal forest and state wildlife practitioners in both scientific and applied realms.

96 While aspen is highly valued for its’ biodiversity, in some locales herbivores are having undue
97 impact on the ability of these systems to maintain ecosystem functions. Aspen shoots and leaves provide
98 valuable nutrition to several species, especially early and late in the growing season when diversity of
99 browse is limited (Jones et al. 2005; Beck et al. 2006). In Scandinavia, moose (*Alces alces*) are the
100 primary herbivore affecting aspen recruitment (Edenius & Ericsson 2007; Edenius et al. 2011). In the
101 western United States browsing cattle (*Bos spp.*), sheep (*Ovis spp.*), North American elk (*Cervus*
102 *elaphus*), and mule deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*) in many areas are severely inhibiting stand renewal via
103 repeated aspen sprout consumption (DeByle 1985; Zeigenfuss et al. 2008; DeRose & Long 2010; Rogers
104 et al. 2010). This phenomenon seems particularly acute where wild elk populations are thought to be
105 beyond “historical range of variation” levels due to aggressive reintroduction programs (e.g., Bailey et al.
106 2007; Stritar et al. 2010) and relatively low levels of predation (Beschta & Ripple 2009). Though reduced
107 elk numbers from wolf predation may lead to successful aspen recruitment (Fortin et al. 2005), there is
108 some dispute over whether commensurate alterations of browsing patterns wrought by fear of predation
109 are further influencing regeneration success (Kauffman et al. 2010). In most of the western U.S.,
110 however, significant predation of wild and domestic ungulates is absent as recent reintroductions of a
111 critical carnivore, the gray wolf (*Canis lupus*), are limited to specific geographic zones. Cougar (*Felis*
112 *concolor*) apparently do prey on younger or smaller elk, though their primary ungulate prey appear to be
113 adult mule deer (Matson et al. 2007). Overall, the impact of large herbivores on aspen communities may
114 be reduced to three key factors: nutrition, population, and frequency of movement. Browsers who require
115 specific nutrient content of aspen leaves or bark (continuously or seasonally) and who are present in large

116 numbers for extended periods may reduce long-term system resilience (Beck et al. 2006; Martin & Maron
117 2012). Presence of multiple aspen-browsing species will only amplify this phenomenon.

118 We undertook a landscape-level survey of aspen condition and resilience in a remote portion of
119 the American West known as the Book Cliffs. As a relatively short-lived clonal species aspen is highly
120 dependent on both continuous and episodic recruitment (Kurzel, et al. 2007). Accordingly, a large part of
121 our monitoring effort would rely on cataloguing the status of this “next generation” component of these
122 forests. With this in mind, the current study has three prime objectives: 1) to conduct a defensible
123 landscape assessment of aspen status across the Book Cliffs, while testing new measures for linking
124 animal impact to stand conditions; 2) to understand distinct aspen types and determine environmental
125 conditions which differ among these groups; 3) to make appropriate restorative recommendations for
126 aspen systems based on outcomes of the first two objectives. Findings from this work will have
127 ramifications for large portions of western North America, and more broadly in northern Europe, where
128 issues of large ungulate-aspen browsing are rife within conservation circles.

129

130 **Methods**

131

132 *Study Area*

133 The Book Cliffs is part of a larger 230-km long feature known as the Tavaputs Plateau, which is
134 bisected by the Utah-Colorado border in the western United States (Figure 1). This arid plateau slopes
135 gently northward to the Uintah Basin and drops abruptly to the south into Utah's Canyonlands region of
136 the Colorado Plateau (Sexton et al. 2006). The area consists of plateau tops dissected by steep valleys.
137 Soils are derived predominantly from sandstone and shale substrates, resulting in rocky-to-sandy loams in
138 much of the range. The elevation zone where aspen occurs, between 2,075 to 2,611 m, is fairly narrow
139 compared to other landscape-level assessments regionally (Kurzel et al. 2007; Rogers and Ryel 2008),
140 suggesting that environmental conditions, particularly precipitation, are limiting to aspen occupancy
141 (Mittanck 2012). A weather monitoring station located in the aspen zone of our study area (SNOTEL site

142 #461) recorded an average annual precipitation of 542 mm (SD \pm 127) between 1987-2012. Aspen and
143 conifer stands are bounded by sagebrush (*Artemisia spp.*) on adjacent dry sites and, as elevation
144 decreases, pinyon (*Pinus edulis*) and juniper (*Juniperus osteosperma*, *J. scopulorum*) woodlands.

145 Our study area consists of 268 distinct aspen polygons scattered across ~18 000 ha of the Book
146 Cliffs in Utah and Colorado. Polygons were identified using three bands, including near-infrared, of
147 National Agriculture Imagery Program (NAIP) imagery. Images were enhanced to allow a linear stretch
148 across three standard deviations of the spectral data. This process increases contrast between vegetation
149 types allowing easier interpretation. An earlier aspen stand assessment in this same area yielded a photo
150 interpretation accuracy level of 88% (Mittanck 2012). The primary criterion used to delineate aspen
151 polygons was if the area was contiguously forested with an aspen component. Polygons greater than 50%
152 aspen cover and more than 0.5 ha were randomly selected for sampling. The completed procedure
153 resulted in an initial selection of 100 sample polygons, of which 77 were field sampled (Figure 1).
154 (Sixteen polygons were inaccurately identified as meeting our species/cover criteria and seven were
155 eliminated due to access and time constraints.) Average sampled polygon size equaled 3.5 ha (range 0.5-
156 31 ha). In sum, we sampled 29% of the total polygon population (representing 34% of aspen area) within
157 the study area, enabling us to make strong inferences about the overall Book Cliffs aspen landscape.

158

159 *Field Methods*

160 The prime sample unit for this study consists of a ha⁻¹ area, henceforth called the "plot," at the
161 centroid of each polygon. Plots were sampled only if they were at least 50% aspen cover and entirely
162 within a forested area. Certainly variation was encountered in aspen polygon conditions. However, with
163 the above requirements—along with the random polygon selection and systematic centroid location—plot
164 data are assumed to represent mean conditions for each polygon. At each plot, visual estimates of aspen
165 and conifer cover were made for the entire polygon with the aid of aerial photos. A walk through the ha⁻¹
166 sample area was made to gain an overall rating of stand conditions using criteria defined in Table 1, an
167 estimate of discrete vertical "layers" of aspen, and the dominant understory cover by plant group (i.e.,

168 shrub, trees, grasses, forbs). Each plot was assigned an aspen stand type, either seral or stable (Harniss &
169 Harper 1982). We define seral aspen as containing more than 10% conifer cover or, if stand-replacing
170 disturbance such as fire or logging occurred within the past three decades, the potential to exceed this
171 cover. Stable aspen implies < 10% conifer cover and long-term "stability" in a single species state (i.e., \geq
172 100 years). In most instances the distinction between seral and stable plots is immediately evident as
173 there are either no conifers or many conifers within an aspen forest. Geographic coordinates were
174 obtained and four plot photos were taken to document understorey composition and structure.

175 At each plot center, two perpendicular 30 x 2 m transects were established and the following
176 field measures were taken: percent aspen, conifer, and sagebrush cover; regeneration (< 2 m height),
177 recruitment (\geq 2 m height, < 8 cm diameter breast height [dbh]), and mature tree (\geq 8 cm dbh) counts by
178 species; mature tree counts by three diameter classes (8-15 cm; 16-25 cm; >25 cm dbh); and fecal pellet
179 counts by groups (deer and elk) and individual feces (cattle). Pellet groups were defined as any
180 assemblage of feces consisting of three or more pellets from the same defecation (Bunnefeld et al, 2006).
181 Pellet groups give relative frequency of species' visits (use) of aspen stands; they are not direct measures
182 of browse intensity. Two mature representative, healthy, aspen and two conifer (if present) were aged at
183 breast height to determine overall stand age. Finally, field personnel recorded recent disturbances, if
184 applicable, across the sample ha^{-1} . All transect data were expanded to represent conditions on a ha^{-1} basis
185 for analytical purposes.

186

187 *Analytical Methods*

188 Analytical efforts for this work were exploratory in nature, meaning our intent was to determine
189 the most important measures among a suite of environmental variables. First, we wished to combine
190 proven aspen landscape survey methods (Rogers et al. 2010) with experimental techniques designed to
191 simplify monitoring methods for future work. Thus, we were in search of key metrics, or "indicators," of
192 aspen conditions. Two non-parametric tests were used to address indicators individually. The two-sided
193 Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney U test was used to evaluate field variables for differences between seral and

194 stable aspen stands to establish whether such a delineation was ecologically meaningful. The Kruskal-
195 Wallace test, a non-parametric equivalent to analysis of variance, was the primary means of assessing the
196 usefulness of the stand condition ranking. Direct measures of aspen mortality, condition and amount of
197 regeneration and recruitment, and level of browsing (Table 1) were not considered independent of stand
198 condition, therefore they were removed from these tests of group differences. We evaluated the
199 remaining field variables for group effects based on their overall rating of good, moderate, or poor stand
200 condition. The Kruskal-Wallace test does not provide a between-groups test of significance, thus further
201 evaluation of stand condition, as well as other field measures, would be addressed with a broader
202 statistical approach using the entire data set in distance matrix analyses.

203 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS) is an ordination technique that provides a robust
204 method of understanding salient structure within ecological data sets which are expected to be nonnormal
205 and discontinuous in their nature (McCune et al. 2002). Our goal in using NMS was to seek out critical
206 measures of aspen stand conditions within our data set to provide a basis for evaluating the entire Book
207 Cliffs landscape. The wide variation in data types (e.g., counts, ratings, digitally generated location data,
208 measures, cover estimates) required a flexible and defensible analytical approach such as NMS (Peck
209 2010). Twenty-three plot-level variables (Table 2) found on the 77 sample plots within our study area
210 formed the primary matrix in our NMS analysis. An initial outlier analysis was performed to check of
211 data anomalies based on two standard deviations of the Sørensen distance measure (Peck 2010). No data
212 transformations were required for this analysis. We used the PC-ORD software to conduct NMS and
213 produce related graphic outputs (McCune & Mefford 2006). The ordination was initiated with a random
214 start number upon 250 runs of the actual data set using Sørensen distance measure. We assessed final
215 NMS solution dimensionality by plotting stress as a function of number of dimensions or axes. Where
216 two consecutive dimensions were ≤ 5 points of stress apart the lower dimension was selected as our
217 optimum solution (McCune et al. 2002). A Monte Carlo test was then run on the lowest stress solution
218 using 250 randomized runs to evaluate the probability of our result being greater than chance occurrence.

219 For all analyses in this study results were considered significant when reaching the 95% confidence
220 interval (i.e., p -value ≤ 0.05).

221

222 **Results**

223

224 Two-thirds (66%) of our survey locations were considered stable aspen and the remaining one-
225 third were seral to conifer species. No plots in our survey sampled stand-replacing disturbance, though
226 significant “browsing” or “grazing” were noted on 16 % of stands. We found several significant
227 differences in environmental variables by these two primary aspen stand types (Fig. 2). Overall, stable
228 plots were at higher elevations ($Z = -2.69$; $p = 0.007$), with lower slope angles ($Z = 3.78$; $p < 0.001$), had
229 greater regeneration ($Z = -2.95$; $p = 0.003$), and more trees ha^{-1} ($Z = -2.21$; $p = 0.027$). We found no
230 statistical difference in recruitment levels between stand types. Seral aspen in the Book Cliffs were
231 significantly older than stable aspen forests ($Z = 2.09$; $p = 0.039$). Stable stands are experiencing heavier
232 levels of browse ($Z = -2.21$; $p = 0.038$; box plot not shown) which likely relates to higher scat counts
233 among cattle ($Z = -3.85$; $p < 0.001$), elk ($Z = -3.59$; $p < 0.001$), and the total scat ($Z = -4.41$; $p < 0.001$).
234 Deer pellet counts were not significantly different between stand types ($Z = -1.13$; $p = 0.257$). Elk feces
235 accounted for 67% of the total scat count, with cattle and deer at 22% and 11%, respectively.

236 Recruitment levels were equally low in seral and stable aspen communities across our study area.
237 Only three of 77 sampled plots contained greater than 500 recruitment stems ha^{-1} , a suggested minimum
238 threshold for stand replacement (O'Brien et al. 2010). Given that many sample plots had fewer than 500
239 mature trees ha^{-1} we took a closer look at aspen recruitment based on local conditions. Using a more site-
240 driven approach, we calculated live recruitment as a percentage of total mature aspen trees ha^{-1} with the
241 logic that 100% would support complete immediate aspen stand replacement and 50% ample recruitment
242 for gradual (i.e., gap-phase) replacement. Even this conservative consideration yielded very poor
243 recruitment across the Book Cliffs landscape (Fig. 3). Ninety-four percent of sample plots had a fewer

244 than 50% recruitment based on total mature aspen trees ha^{-1} . Fifty-five of the total 77 aspen stands had
245 zero recruitment.

246 In addition to a number of objective field-based metrics of aspen forest conditions, we tested the
247 efficacy of a subjective stand condition rating system. We found several significant group trends along
248 our stand condition continuum (Fig. 4). Aspen polygons in both poor and good condition were at higher
249 elevations than those with moderate visual impacts; stands in the worst condition were found at the
250 highest elevations ($\chi^2 = 7.62$; $p = 0.019$). As expected, as stands age their condition deteriorates ($\chi^2 =$
251 9.60 ; $p = 0.007$). Basal area ($\chi^2 = 10.58$; $p = 0.004$) and trees ha^{-1} ($\chi^2 = 20.15$; $p < 0.001$) decreased as
252 stands condition declines. As an indirect measure of browsing impact, there were significant increases in
253 elk scat ($\chi^2 = 20.09$; $p < 0.001$) and total scat ($\chi^2 = 17.68$; $p < 0.001$) as stand condition deteriorates.
254 Both cattle ($\chi^2 = 3.95$; $p = 0.138$) and deer ($\chi^2 = 4.59$; $p = 0.106$) failed to show significant relationships to
255 stand condition. Overall, these data provide significant and visually compelling trends, but do not specify
256 differences between each group. To pursue this further, we explored overall dataset structure using more
257 powerful analytical tools.

258 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS) provided a parsimonious method for exploring
259 distance relationships by ordination of all variables in "sample plot space." No data or plots were
260 eliminated in outlier analysis. NMS ordination produced a 2-dimensional (i.e., axes) solution with a final
261 stress of 12.03 (instability < 0.000). We assessed stability by plotting a graph of stress versus number of
262 iterations. Stability was reached at 54 iterations from a maximum of 500 runs of our "real" dataset. Monte
263 Carlo test results indicate that the two-axis solution using real data was significant ($p = 0.004$). Two axes
264 explain nearly all of variability in the Book Cliffs aspen dataset (Axis 1: $r^2 = 0.61$; Axis 2: $r^2 = 0.31$; total
265 $r^2 = 0.92$, orthogonality = 97.3%). Cumulatively, the degree of stability, randomization results, and
266 variability explained by the two-axis solution indicate a highly significant final NMS result (McCune et
267 al. 2002). An ordination joint plot and the categorical variable "stand condition class" were overlaid on
268 the results of the NMS (Fig. 5). Axis 1 strongly represents aspen regeneration ha^{-1} and to a lesser degree

269 aspen recruitment. Axis 2 displays a robust alignment with overall scat ha⁻¹, as well as to individual
270 browsing species; dominantly elk. All environmental variables are presented here in terms of Pearson's
271 coefficient (*r*) values as they relate to the primary axes identified in NMS (Table 2).

272

273 **Discussion**

274

275 *Key aspen indicators inform resilience*

276 We set out to conduct a landscape assessment of aspen communities in the Book Cliffs of eastern
277 Utah. Our random sample of nearly one-third of all stands in the area showed an overall aspen population
278 under moderate to high threat. Stable aspen make up two-thirds of the Book Cliffs aspen landscape, thus
279 continuous recruitment is crucial to long-term forest vigor. Only 23% aspen polygons were rated as being
280 in good condition based on visual assessments of stand mortality, regeneration and recruitment, and
281 browse levels (Table 1). While 27% of sample sites contained minimum required regeneration levels, just
282 three of 77 stands contained adequate levels of recruitment (O'Brien et al. 2010). Whether aspen
283 produces many or few suckers over time is less important than survivorship above browse level. Once
284 above this height, understory stems can eventually fill canopy gaps as the relatively short-lived canopy
285 trees die. Resilience to insects and disease, particularly in stable aspen, depends on a diverse height and
286 age profile (Worrall et al. 2010) and young stands (both seral and stable) dominated by aspen are less
287 prone to fire (Shinneman et al. 2013) thereby providing a buffer against stand collapse. In an effort to
288 gain appropriate measures of recruitment based on site-specific data, which include relatively low water
289 resource availability (Mittanck 2012), we looked at recruitment as a proportion of actual live mature
290 stems (Fig. 3). Even with this more conservative adjustment, landscape-level recruitment was very low
291 indicating a great majority of aspen stands with little resilience to future drought or disturbance.
292 Ordination of all physical, mensuration, browse, and scat data gives us a strong indication of what factors
293 are responsible for this poor level of aspen recruitment.

294 Teasing apart causality among multiple domestic and wild herbivores continues to be a vexing
295 problem for forest, range, and wildlife ecologists. Standard measures of animal and tree populations
296 occur at widely varying scales and browsers may not exhibit predictable movement and feeding patterns
297 from year to year. Moreover, in areas of limited predation and accessible aspen terrain the combined
298 effects of herbivory are severely limiting to aspen recruitment (Beschta & Ripple 2010; Rogers et al.
299 2010). In the current work, we sampled scat on the same scale (i.e., transects) as forest structure data. To
300 our knowledge, this spatial symmetry has not been attempted elsewhere and may help overcome previous
301 barriers in understanding effects of widely roaming herbivores at stand-levels. Browse levels to
302 regeneration were moderate-to-high across most of the study area as reflected by a 51% average browse
303 level combined with very low levels of recruitment. Olmstead (1979) suggests that more than 30% aspen
304 sucker utilization by elk lead to declines in stand density. Others suggest a more conservative guideline
305 where > 20% annual browse of aspen leaders will result in decreases in stand density (Jones et al. 2005).
306 Further connections between elk use, browse level, and recruitment success are presented for the Book
307 Cliffs landscape through ordination (Fig. 5; Table 2). In NMS analysis, Axis 1 positively represents
308 aspen regeneration, as well as moderate correspondence to recruitment and trees ha⁻¹. Axis 2 relates most
309 strongly to elk scat counts, but also to deer and cattle scat. Additionally, axis 2 corresponds with percent
310 aspen canopy cover (negative to conifer cover) and heightened browse levels (Table 2). This indicates
311 greater impacts and use of stable aspen stands by all herbivores likely due to their generally moderate
312 terrain (Fig. 2). We should emphasize that while overall strong correspondence to regeneration and scat
313 counts in the ordination were exhibited, most physiographic indicators showed weak relationships to both
314 objective and subjective indices (Table 2). This poor showing of environmental variables may be further
315 indication that our landscape-level results from the NMS are not tied to specific locations, but rather to
316 other causal factors.

317 Our study used scat counts to represent herbivore use of aspen habitat and indirectly level of
318 aspen browse. Use of scat counts as surrogates for habitat use have been criticized by some (Smart et al.
319 2004), but favored by others when compared to animal radio-telemetry data (Borkowski 2004; Bunnefeld

320 et al. 2006). The central advantage of the scat count method was a direct correspondence of site and scale
321 of sampling. Studies using radio-telemetry cannot be easily calibrated to our stand-level sample units and
322 thus would be very difficult to understand as we attempted to measure landscape conditions and habitat
323 use based on these ha^{-1} measures. A disadvantage when comparing between species is that each feces
324 occurrence cannot *a priori* be assumed to mean the same level of use. We feel, however, that nominal
325 differences between elk—two-thirds of all scat; > 3x cattle and > 5x deer—and other herbivore scat
326 counts provide proximate evidence for elk's primary role in limiting aspen recruitment on this landscape.
327 Ordination results (Fig. 5; Table 2) confirm a dominant role of elk among all herbivores and only elk and
328 total scat counts related significantly to our stand condition rating system (Fig. 4).

329 Our chief motivation for developing an aspen stand rating system was efficiency. Degraded
330 aspen communities in our region are commonplace (Binkley 2008; Worrall et al. 2008; Rogers et al.,
331 2010), therefore a quick and credible means for managers to assess conditions across very large
332 landscapes is desirable. We pitted several objective measures of aspen systems against our subjective
333 stand condition and confirmed the utility of this measure as a surrogate for overall condition, as well as
334 aspen mortality, stand structure, regeneration/recruitment, browse, and (independently) animal use. We
335 consider the high correspondence to scat ha^{-1} (Fig. 5) an independent estimate of herbivore use, as there
336 are no direct elements of scat or animal visitation in our stand condition classes (Table 1). Where
337 resources are low and there is need for widespread aspen monitoring we suggest use of stand condition
338 ratings alongside key site measures, such as regeneration, recruitment, and browse counts, to glean
339 meaningful information with minimum expenditure.

340

341 *The role of functional aspen types in the Book Cliffs*

342 Before we can assess impacts on a particular system it is important to understand broad-scale
343 ecological divisions. Our initial findings showed two distinct aspen types occupying different realms of
344 key environmental variables (Fig. 2). This overall picture generally fits that of the Colorado Plateau
345 stable and montane seral functional types described by Rogers et al. (2013), although the Book Cliffs

346 appear to be within the lowest elevation and precipitation niche for western aspen (Sexton et al. 2006;
347 Mittanck 2012). Within our study area, a novel finding is that seral aspen occupy relatively lower
348 elevations, unlike other locations where stable aspen is common on the Colorado Plateau (Rogers et al.
349 2010). We do find, however, that pure aspen types often occur on lower slope angles which make them
350 more vulnerable to herbivores (Harniss & Harper 1982; Binkley 2008; Zegler et al. 2012). Our results
351 confirm use on lower angle slopes as heavier levels of elk and cattle occupancy occurred in stable aspen
352 forests (Fig. 2). An alternative explanation for greater herbivory in stable aspen may simply be greater
353 availability of young stems, as shown by the strong positive correlation of regeneration to stable aspen
354 (Fig. 2). It appears that deer use both seral and stable habitat equally, though at lower overall levels.

355 In terms of stand structure measures, we also found evidence of distinct functional groupings
356 between seral and stable aspen. Where aspen are seral to conifers, stands are generally older than pure
357 sites (Fig. 2; Rogers et al. 2010), although clear indication of stand age is sometimes difficult in healthy
358 uneven-aged stable aspen. Seral stands in the Book Cliffs contained less mature aspen trees ha⁻¹ than the
359 upland stable type. Greater aspen regeneration on upland stable sites corresponds to overall tree counts.
360 Although there is more regeneration in stable forests, it appears an insignificant number of stems in either
361 functional category are surviving to a recruitment stage (Fig. 3). Thus, where healthy stable aspen
362 (particularly) should exhibit multiple stand layers (Harniss & Harper 1982; Rogers et al., 2010; 2013), we
363 found only about one-third (35%) of such vertically diverse locations in the Book Cliffs. The low overall
364 tally of recruitment (Fig. 3) amplifies the lack of vertical diversity and high level of concern at the
365 landscape-scale. Anecdotally, ungulate exclosures observed with the Book Cliffs demonstrate adequate
366 recruitment, even where deer are allowed access (supplemental photos online).

367

368 *Resilience, restoration, and monitoring of herbivore impacted aspen*

369 Consumption beyond replacement level of understory plants, and in particular juvenile trees, by
370 large herbivores is common globally (White et al. 1998; Gill 2006; Edenius & Ericsson 2007; Takatsuki
371 2009; Tanentzap et al. 2009). In areas dominated by conifers (e.g., northern Europe, northern and western

372 North America), aspen provide unique habitat and high levels of biodiversity (Kouki et al. 2004; Kuhn et
373 al. 2011). As a keystone species (Campbell & Bartos 2001; Edenius et al. 2011), loss or reduction of
374 aspen communities has cascading effects on dependent biota (Bailey et al. 2007; Rogers & Ryel 2008;
375 Kuhn et al. 2011) including target herbivores (Beck et al. 2006). In our study area in the arid western
376 United States we consider aspen forests, particularly stable stands, to be of relatively low resilience to
377 environmental changes due to low water availability and high accessibility provided by generally
378 moderate- to low-angle slopes (Fig. 2; Zegler et al. 2012). Mittanck (2012) found that the Book Cliffs
379 was the most arid of regions supporting an "aspen niche" among his four study sites spread across Utah.
380 A basic definition of *ecological carrying capacity* (Beck et al. 2006, p.283) simply states "an equilibrium
381 between populations of plants and herbivores in the absence of harvest." Evidence presented here
382 suggests that browsers, particularly elk, are beyond carrying capacity for the Book Cliffs aspen landscape
383 and are having long-term effects on this landscape. Potential for significant aspen cover loss is high with
384 consequent effects on dependent species. With continued heavy browsing, we should expect to see stand
385 decline and loss of entire age cohorts that coincide with noted increases in large herbivore populations
386 (Binkley 2008; Beschta & Ripple 2010). Furthermore, sites at lower elevations in accessible terrain may
387 be most vulnerable to predicted warming climates via reduced snow cover which carries the dual negative
388 impacts of decreased water resources and increased winter access by browsers (Martin & Maron 2012).

389 We recommend restoration of aspen forests based on appropriate aspen functional type (Rogers et
390 al. 2013). In the current work we have highlighted key environmental differences between seral and
391 stable aspen. With a view toward restoration, we favor emulating ecological processes that have shaped
392 these aspen systems for centuries. While seral aspen depends on irregular fire and other stand-replacing
393 disturbance, stable communities are driven by small group- and tree-level mortality and continuous or
394 episodic recruitment (Harniss & Harper 1982; Kurz et al. 2007). Thus, commonly prescribed burning or
395 clear-felling are in many cases appropriate for seral aspen and inappropriate for stable types. Once
396 browse pressure is removed, or reduced to a sustainable level, stable aspen often need little or no stimulus
397 to rejuvenate their stand structure. If herbivory cannot be curtailed stable stands will eventually die-off

398 and seral stands may be overtopped by conifers. In fact, Edenius et al. (2007), working in European
399 aspen (*P. tremula*), found that heavy browsing in the absence of disturbance—either human-caused or
400 natural—will accelerate succession toward conifer dominance to the detriment of remaining mature
401 aspen. In smaller stands, or specific environmental situations (e.g., riparian or recreational locations),
402 aspen may be protected by temporary fencing from browsers. However, this protection strategy is not
403 feasible for large landscapes where fencing is cost prohibitive. Finally, we encourage allowance for
404 natural or prescribed burns to increase chances of genetic diversity through aspen seedling establishment
405 (Long & Mock 2012). This strategy is more appropriate for seral types that burn more readily, than for
406 stable aspen that are generally not susceptible to fire (Shinneman et al. 2013). While it is now accepted
407 that aspen establishment by seed is more common than previously thought (Long & Mock 2012), we have
408 little understanding of mechanisms of occurrence in stable types where evidence suggests high genetic
409 diversity, too (Mock et al. 2008).

410 Both seral and stable aspen will require significantly reduced browsing, thus elk population
411 reduction should be considered a core strategy where heavy browsing, such as in the Book Cliffs, can be
412 credibly documented (Seager et al. 2013). Current elk and livestock management in this area encourages
413 sustained or increased animal populations. We concur with Seager et al. (2013) that increased hunting
414 can and should be implemented where reintroduction of apex predators, such as wolves (*Canis lupus*), are
415 politically unfeasible. Secondly, seral types may require complementary conifer disturbance to create
416 forest openings and facilitate both seedling and sucker regeneration (Long & Mock 2012; Rogers et al.
417 2013).

418 Pre- and post-treatment monitoring using a scheme similar to the one tested here is required to
419 further understand if actions are having desired restorative effects. For example, use of fenced exclosures,
420 while appropriate for demonstrative purposes, raise concerns when prescribed as a landscape-level
421 management option. Past exclosure studies have shown that aspen will respond heartily to complete
422 protection (Kay & Bartos 2000; Kay 2001). Monitoring within and outside exclosures will give reliable
423 measures of sprouting ability and no-browsing protection, respectively, but provide little useful

424 information regarding reduced herbivory in the context of stand- or landscape-level aspen restoration.
425 For this reason, the current study area as well as locales with similar browse issues, will require
426 documentation of active (stimulus) and passive (reduction or removal of browsers) management effects.
427 While we fully expect confounding factors (i.e., climate, disturbance, human impacts), our overall
428 objective with monitoring and adaptive management is to facilitate future aspen community resilience. In
429 a setting such as the Book Cliffs that is predisposed to low resilience, restoration ecologists would do well
430 to focus resources toward increasing the systems' capacity to rebound under expected stresses.

431

432 **Conclusions**

433

434 Findings from the present study have conservation applications in drought-prone, drought
435 expectant, and chronically browsed forest systems. The Book Cliffs aspen landscape constitutes a
436 relatively low elevation dry setting as compared to other locations around the region (Mueggler 1988;
437 Mittanck 2012) and therefore may be viewed as a harbinger of future climate conditions in other settings.
438 The narrow elevation and moisture band in which aspen exist here is thought to be vulnerable even in the
439 absence of heavy browse (Rehfeldt et al. 2009). Though there is an abundance of seral aspen at generally
440 lower elevations and on steeper slopes, the area is notable for its high presence of the single-species stable
441 type. We recommend future conservation that emulates the dynamics within these distinct functional
442 types. For example, while clear-felling or prescribed burning may fit seral types, they are inappropriate in
443 stable aspen (Shinneman et al, 2013; Rogers et al. 2013). Given that mature aspen are short-lived
444 compared to their conifer cohorts, aspen assessments must rely heavily on measures of regeneration and
445 recruitment. Recruitment is a key measure of system resilience where stand-replacing disturbance,
446 browsing pressure, and warming climates are expected to stress these systems. We suggest using 'natural
447 range of variation' to guide adaptive actions (Landres et al. 1999). Based on results presented here, there
448 is strong evidence of elk browsing being beyond sustainable levels for the aspen landscape in our study

449 area. Similar conditions may be found in a broader swath of the Colorado Plateau region where stable
450 aspen prevails (Rogers et al. 2010; Rogers et al. 2013).

451 Where aspen forests are threatened by intense ungulate browsing, what conservation actions can
452 be taken to increase community resilience? Aspen monitoring and management must include explicit
453 documentation of all browsing pressures. Where domestic herbivores play an important role, actions to
454 rest pastures and curtail stock numbers may be needed. Without significant predation on wild ungulates,
455 greater human regulation of populations will be required to reduce herbivory and restore the structural
456 diversity and functional capacity of these communities. Vegetation and wildlife managers, often favoring
457 divergent priorities, will need to coordinate closely to restore aspen recruitment and overall landscape
458 resilience. Failure to do so will result in declining aspen and loss of habitat for a wide range of species,
459 including preferred game animals, which are dependent on these regionally biodiverse ecosystems.

460

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462

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470

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605

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Supplementary Materials

607

Appendix S1: Photos depicting an enclosure limiting ungulate browsing in the study area.

608

S1a: Ungulate enclosure depicts regular recruitment within fenced area, Book Cliffs, Utah, USA.

609

S1b: Alternate view of S1a showing opposite side of ungulate enclosure, Book Cliffs, Utah, USA.

610

S1c: Close-up of corner posts of ungulate enclosure depicting 0.5 m gap at base that allows mule deer

611

(*Odocoileus hemionus*) access, but not elk (*Cervus elaphus*) or cattle (*Bos* spp.), Book Cliffs, Utah, USA.

612

Table 1: Ranking of stand condition based on visual estimates of overstorey, regeneration/recruitment, and browse of young aspen suckers. A stand must meet all the criteria for either "Good" or "Poor" condition, otherwise it is rated as moderate. "Mortality" is defined as standing dead mature trees. Browse includes branch tips, buds, and leaves missing, as well as presence of multi-stemmed ("bushy") aspen regeneration.

Code	Descriptor	Overstorey Mortality/disease	Vertical Stand Layers	Visible Browse Impacts
1	Good	Minimal overstorey mortality and stem disease present (< 5%)	Several aspen layers (≥ 3)	Browsing impacts on regeneration uncommon (< 25%)
2	Moderate	Does not fit 1 or 3	Does not fit 1 or 3	Does not fit 1 or 3
3	Poor	Overstorey mortality and/or stem cankers common (> 25%)	layering absent or minimal (≤ 2)	Browsing impacts clearly evident (> 50%) on regeneration.

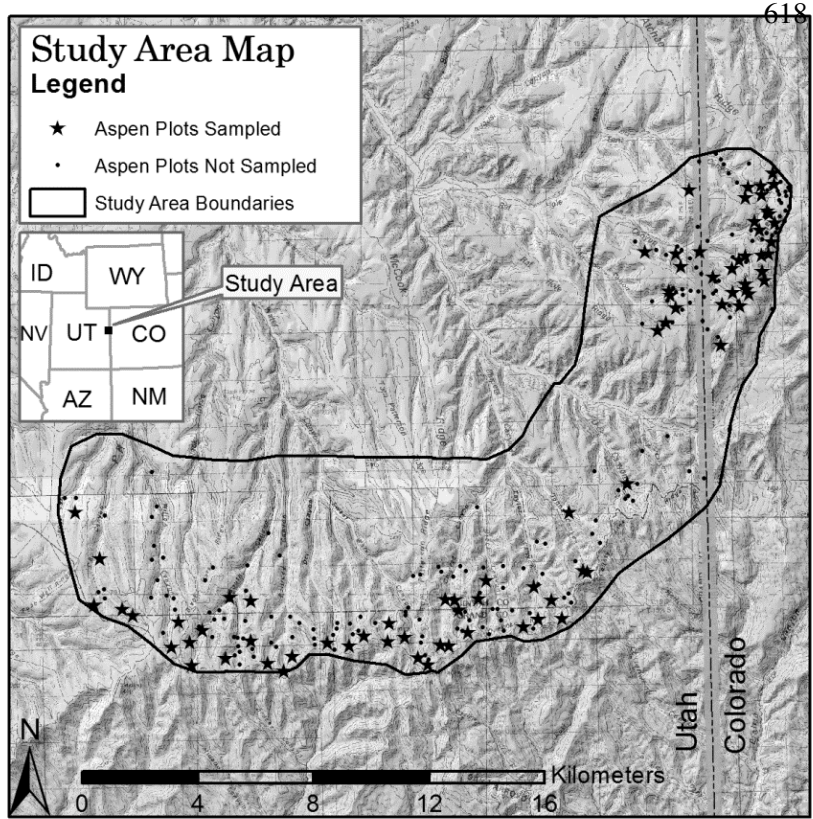
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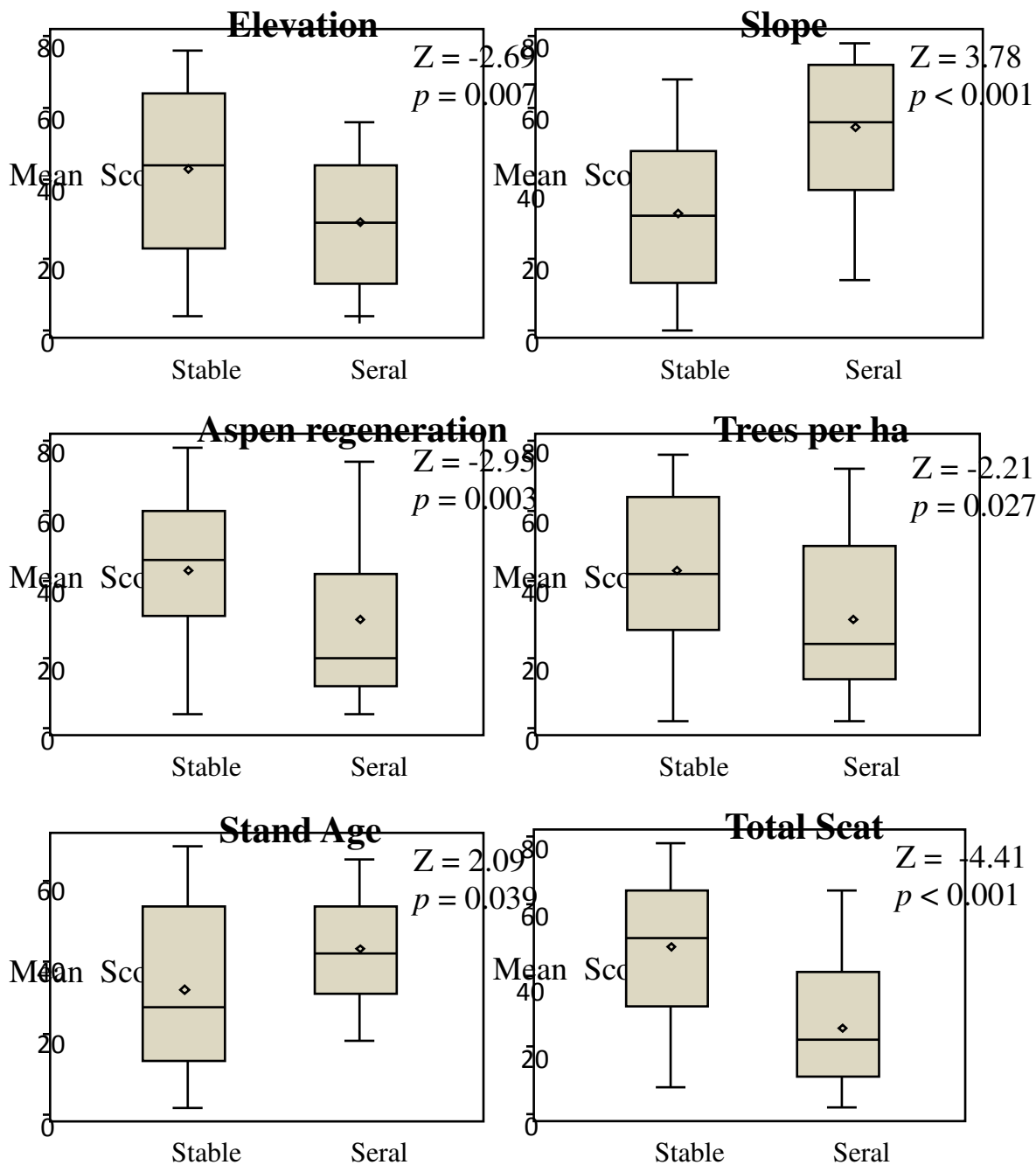
Table 2: Pearson's coefficients (r) between environmental variables and primary ordination axes. The strongest response variables are in bold type where $r > 0.5$ or < -0.5 .

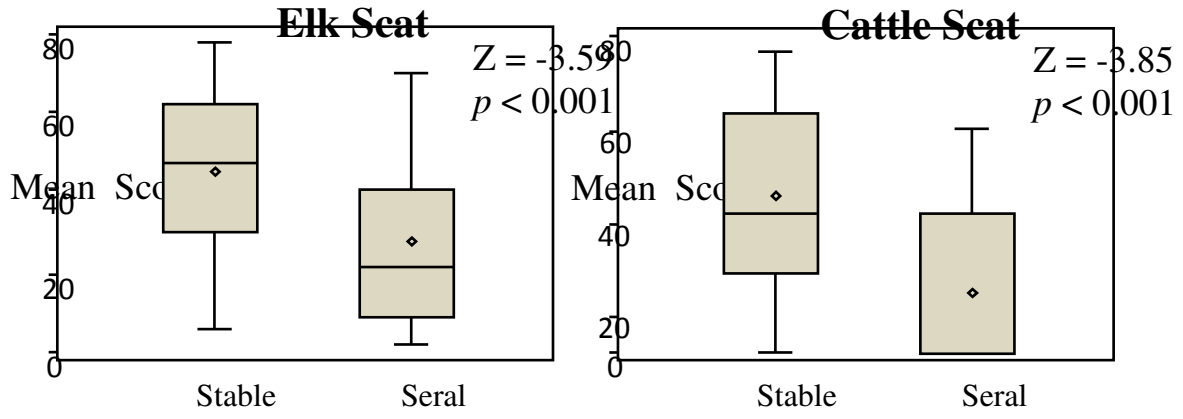
Variable name	r - value	
	Axis 1	Axis 2
Elevation	0.361	0.225
Aspect	0.137	0.083
Slope	-0.169	-0.271
% Polygon aspen	0.334	0.515
% Polygon conifer	-0.244	-0.488
Aspen stand age	0.051	-0.112
Total scat per ha	0.206	0.943
Cattle scat per ha	0.011	0.551
Elk scat per ha	0.264	0.839
Deer scat per ha	0.043	0.570
Aspen cover ha	0.255	0.042
Conifer cover ha	-0.101	-0.282
Sagebrush cover ha	0.005	0.261
Total tree cover ha	0.165	-0.145
Aspen regeneration	0.900	0.046
% regeneration browsed	0.315	0.388
Live aspen recruitment	0.343	-0.233
Small tree BA	0.236	-0.147
Medium tree BA	0.213	0.033
Large tree BA	0.019	0.080
Total aspen BA	0.296	-0.023
Aspen trees per ha (TPH)	0.339	-0.091
Recruitment as % of TPH	0.328	-0.226

616 **Figure 1:** Map of the study area shows all aspen locations as identified with aerial imagery and aspen
617 sample plot locations. Inset depicts the Book Cliffs study area within the Rocky Mountain region, USA.



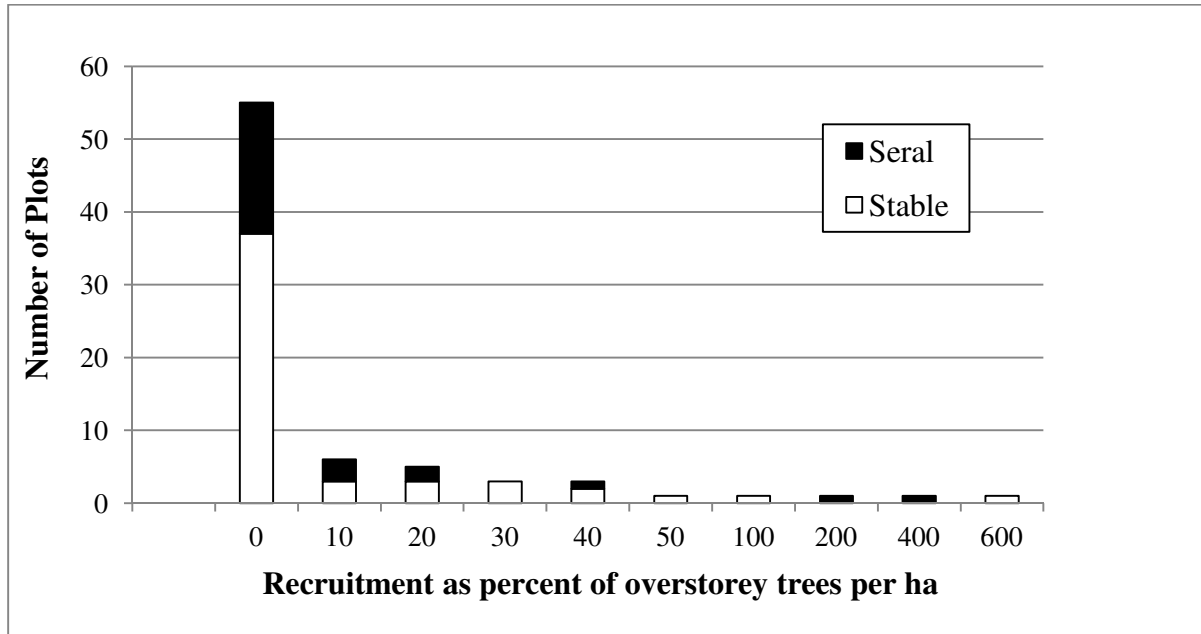
619 **Figure 2:** Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney U test results displayed in box plots showing significant differences
 620 between seral and stable aspen types by plot-level indicators across the study landscape. Wilcoxon mean
 621 scores are shown on the Y-axis. Whiskers show minimum and maximum values, boxes represent 25-75%
 622 data ranges, horizontal lines within boxes are medians, and diamond symbols are means. Only results
 623 with > 95% confidence intervals are shown.
 624





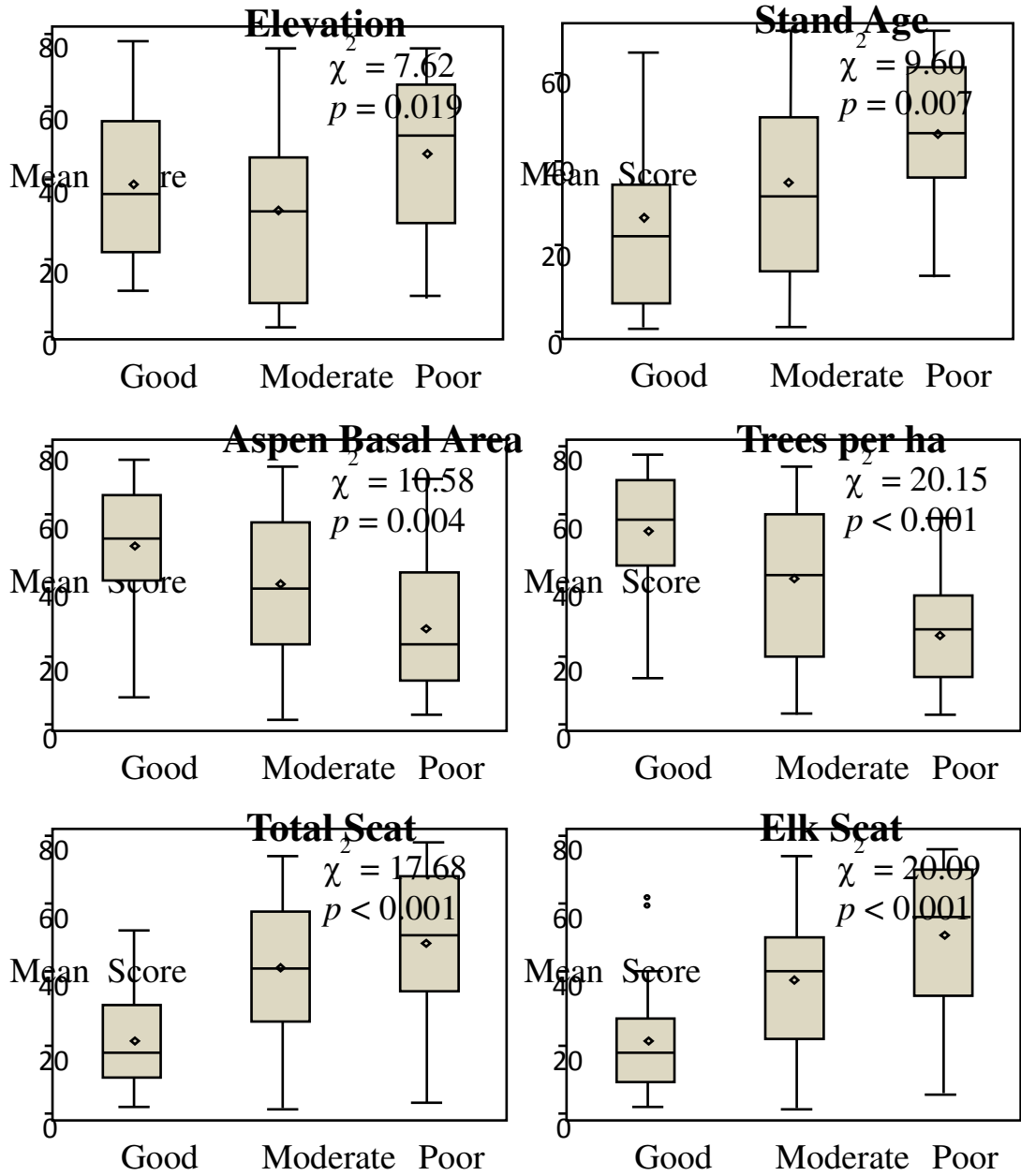
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629 **Figure 3:** Histogram depicting the number of stable and seral aspen sample plots (n = 77) by the ratio of
630 recruitment stems (> 2 m height) to overstorey aspen trees ha⁻¹. Ninety-four percent of sample plots in
631 the study area had less than 50% of the overstorey stem count. The majority of aspen stands had zero
632 recruitment.
633



634

635 **Figure 4:** Kruskal-Wallis test results are displayed in box plots showing significant differences between
 636 aspen condition classes across the study landscape. We intentionally did not test variables directly related
 637 to condition class elements (Table 2) in an effort to independently assess the value of the rating system.
 638 Wilcoxon mean scores are shown on the Y-axis. Whiskers show minimum and maximum values, boxes
 639 represent 25-75% data ranges, horizontal lines within boxes are medians, and diamond symbols are
 640 means. Box plots display general trends between three classes; test results apply only to an overall group
 641 difference. Only results with > 95% confidence intervals are shown.
 642

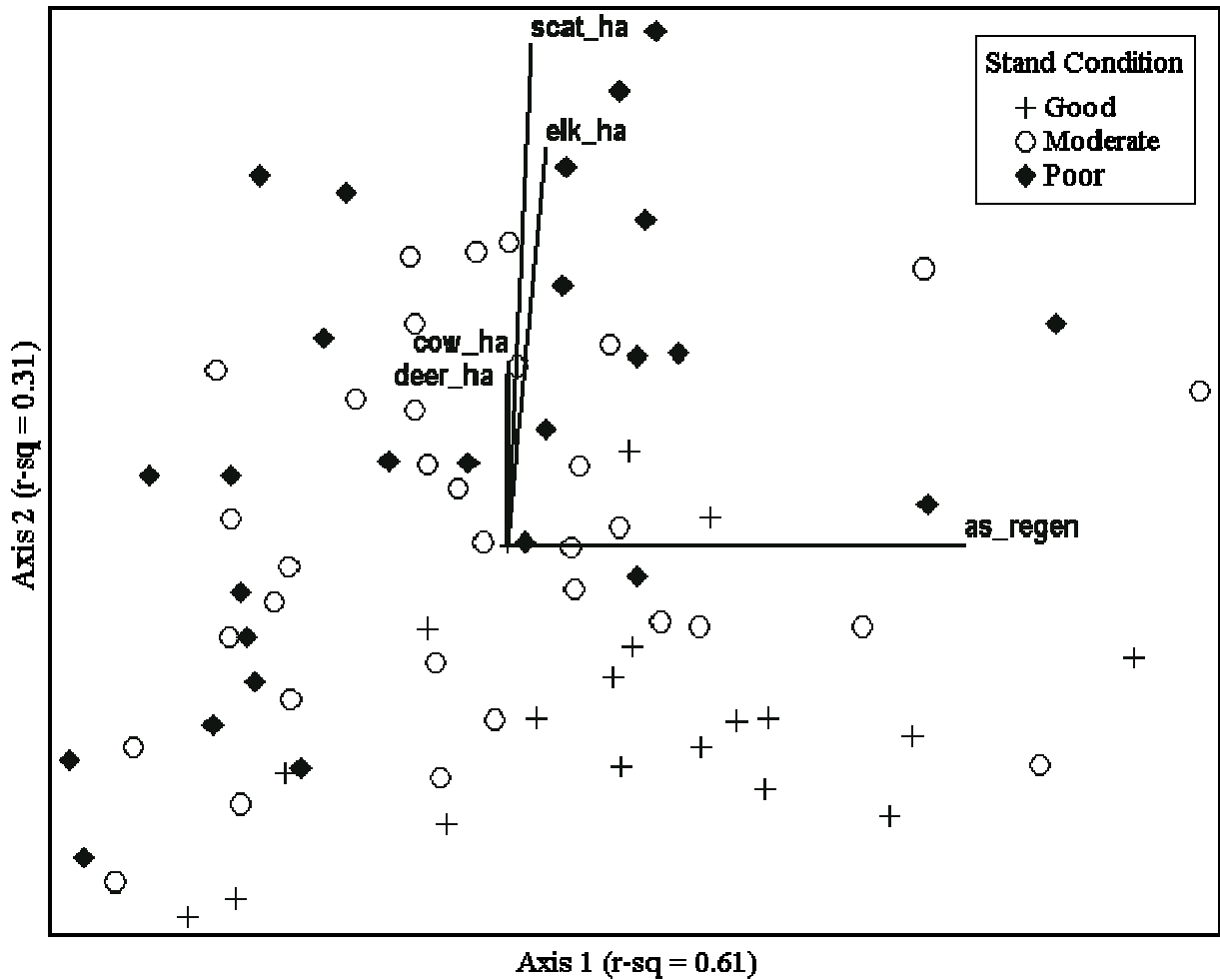


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647 **Figure 5:** Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMS) results are shown in a joint plot which highlights
 648 prominent indicators within the total Book Cliffs data set. Vectors with $> \pm 0.5$ Pearson's coefficient (r)
 649 value (Table 2) are displayed in relation to "plot space". The length of vectors corresponds to their r -
 650 value ("as_regen" = aspen regeneration; scat_ha = total scat; elk_ha, cow_ha, deer_ha = animal scat
 651 counts). Aspen stand condition ratings are superimposed within plot space to depict general relationships
 652 to the primary axes. Axis 1 displays general trends in regeneration, recruitment, aspen basal area, and
 653 aspen trees ha^{-1} . Axis 2 corresponds to animal presence, prominently elk, polygon-level aspen cover (+)
 654 and conifer cover (-), and percent of regeneration browsed.
 655



656

657