

1 **Seedling recruitment after fire: Disentangling the roles of microsite conditions and seed**
2 **availability**

3

4

5

6 Jared J. Beck^{1,2} and Stuart Wagenius¹

7

8 ¹Negaunee Institute for Plant Conservation Science and Action, Chicago Botanic Garden, 1000 Lake
9 Cook Rd, Glencoe, IL (USA) 60022

10 ²Corresponding author – email: jared.j.beck@gmail.com

11

12

13

14 ABSTRACT

15 Periodic fire enhances seedling recruitment for many plant species in historically fire-dependent
16 ecosystems. Fire is expected to promote recruitment by generating environmental conditions that promote
17 seedling emergence and survival. However, fire may also increase flowering and seed production. This
18 makes it difficult to distinguish the effects of microsite conditions from seed availability in observational
19 studies of seedling recruitment. Experiments that manipulate seed inputs across a representative range of
20 conditions are needed to elucidate how seed availability versus microsite conditions influence post-fire
21 seedling recruitment and plant demography. We experimentally manipulated time since fire across 36
22 patches of remnant tallgrass prairie distributed across 6400 ha in western Minnesota (USA). Over two
23 years, we sowed 11,057 *Echinacea angustifolia* (Asteraceae) seeds across 84 randomly placed transects
24 and tracked 974 experimentally sown seedlings to evaluate how time since fire influenced seedling
25 emergence and survival after experimentally controlling for variation in seed inputs. We also quantified
26 six environmental variables and evaluated whether these covariates were associated with seedling
27 emergence and survival. Fire influenced both seedling emergence and seedling survival. Seedlings
28 emerged from approximately 1 percent of all seeds sown prior to experimental burns. Seeds sown one
29 year after experimental burns emerged at 15 times the rate of seeds sown in the fall before burns, but
30 emergence then declined as time since fire increased. Sowing seeds at high densities reduced rates of
31 seedling emergence but increased overall recruitment. Increases in litter depth were associated with
32 reduced emergence. Meanwhile, the probability that seedlings survived to late summer was greatest when
33 they emerged 0-1 years after fire. The probability of seedling survival decreased with litter depth and
34 increased with the local density of conspecific seedlings. Our findings experimentally support widespread
35 predictions that fire enhances seedling recruitment by generating microsite conditions favorable for
36 seedling emergence and survival – especially by increasing the light available to newly emerged
37 seedlings. Nevertheless, recruitment also increased with seed inputs indicating that both seed availability
38 and microsite conditions influence post-fire recruitment. Explicitly discriminating between seed-

39 limitation and microsite-limitation is critical for understanding the demographic processes that influence
40 plant population dynamics in historically fire-dependent ecosystems.

41

42 KEYWORDS: prescribed fire, tallgrass prairie, *Echinacea angustifolia*, seedling recruitment,

43

44

45 INTRODUCTION

46 Fire influences many aspects of the life history and demography of plants across historically fire-
47 dependent ecosystems worldwide (Bond & Keeley, 2005; L. T. Kelly et al., 2020; Pausas & Keeley,
48 2014). For many plant species in these systems, periodic fire is expected to promote seedling recruitment
49 by generating conditions favorable to the growth and survival of seedlings (Lamont & Downes, 2011;
50 Leach & Givnish, 1996a; Menges & Dolan, 1998; Menges & Kimmich, 1996; Pausas & Keeley, 2014;
51 Satterthwaite et al., 2002; Tyler, 1995). Enhanced seedling recruitment after fire can promote the growth
52 and persistence of plant populations (e.g., Leach & Givnish, 1996; Menges & Dolan, 1998; Nordstrom et
53 al., 2021) and may reflect various traits and life history characteristics that have evolved in the context of
54 frequent fire (e.g., Beck et al., 2024; Lamont & Downes, 2011; Pausas & Keeley, 2014). While the
55 beneficial effects of fire on seedling recruitment are often attributed to post-fire environmental conditions
56 that promote seedling growth and survival (i.e., favorable microsite), fire may influence three distinct
57 processes that contribute to variation in seedling recruitment: seed production, seedling emergence, and
58 seedling survival. Directly quantifying the extent to which enhanced seedling recruitment after fire
59 reflects greater seed production and more seeds entering the seed bank compared to improved microsite
60 conditions that foster seedling emergence and survival seedling emergence and survival (i.e., seed-
61 limitation versus microsite-limitation sensu Crawley, 1990; Eriksson & Ehrlen, 1992; Turnbull et al.,
62 2000) is essential for elucidating the mechanisms by which fire influences seedling recruitment. Studies
63 capable of generalizing these mechanistic inferences about seed- versus microsite-limitation across a
64 representative sample of populations can offer new insights about plant population and community
65 responses to fire as well as the evolutionary ecology of plants within historically fire-dependent systems.

66 Observed rates of seedling recruitment in natural populations reflect the cumulative effects of
67 variation in the number of seeds that enter the seed pool and survive through dormancy, the germination
68 and growth of seeds (i.e., seedling emergence), and seedling survival after emergence (Crawley, 1990;
69 Eriksson & Ehrlen, 1992; Turnbull et al., 2000). Fire has the potential to influence each of these distinct
70 processes in historically fire-dependent ecosystems (e.g., Lamont & Downes, 2011; Tyler, 1995). For

71 instance, fire exposes mineral soil, which improves seed-soil contact (e.g., McConnell & Menges, 2002)
72 and increases the short-term availability of several important macronutrients (e.g., Ojima et al., 1994).
73 Fire can also suppress woody plants and other dominant species that may competitively exclude seedlings
74 (e.g., Peterson & Reich, 2007). Perhaps most importantly, fire generally increases the light available to
75 newly emerged seedlings by consuming accumulated leaf litter and other plant material (e.g., Bond &
76 Keeley, 2005). Increased light availability could enhance seedling growth and survival (Alstad et al.,
77 2016; L. Zirondi et al., 2021; Leach & Givnish, 1996; McConnell & Menges, 2002). For these reasons,
78 fire is widely expected to influence environmental conditions in ways that promote seedling emergence
79 and seedling survival. In other words, fire is hypothesized to promote seedling recruitment by
80 ameliorating microsite limitation. However, fire also stimulates flowering in many plant species across
81 historically fire-dependent ecosystems (Beck et al., 2024; Fidelis & Zirondi, 2021; Lamont & Downes,
82 2011). This synchronized post-fire flowering is often associated with enhanced seed production (Beck et
83 al., 2023; Richardson & Wagenius, 2022; Vickery, 2002; Wagenius et al., 2020). Thus, increased seedling
84 recruitment after fire could reflect the greater seed inputs resulting from mass flowering, post-fire
85 environmental conditions that favor greater seedling emergence, or factors that promote seedling survival
86 after emergence.

87 Differentiating between the influences of seed availability compared to microsite conditions on
88 post-fire seedling recruitment is critical for elucidating demographic processes that promote population
89 growth and persistence in historically fire-dependent ecosystems such as North American tallgrass prairie.
90 Fire played an important historical role in shaping the habitat structure and biological diversity of these
91 once expansive grasslands (Anderson, 2006; Axelrod, 1985; Curtis, 1959; Gleason, 1913). Fires occurred
92 at an estimated frequency of 1- to 5-year intervals reflecting a combination of lightning-caused
93 conflagrations and the active use of fire by indigenous groups (Abrams, 1985; Allen & Palmer, 2011;
94 Anderson, 1990; Stewart, 2009). The destruction and fragmentation of habitat coupled with intentional
95 fire suppression over the past 100-200 years has substantially reduced the frequency of fire in most
96 tallgrass prairie remnants (Curtis, 1959; Leach & Givnish, 1996; McClain et al., 2021; Umbanhowar,

97 1996). With fire now infrequent, native plant diversity within prairies has declined rapidly (Alstad et al.,
98 2016; Bowles & Jones, 2013; Leach & Givnish, 1996). While beneficial effects of periodic fire on plant
99 diversity in prairies are often attributed to enhanced seedling recruitment (Alstad et al., 2016; Leach &
100 Givnish, 1996), two distinct demographic mechanisms could contribute to greater seedling recruitment
101 and population persistence: improved seedling emergence and survival due to altered microsite conditions
102 (Leach & Givnish, 1996) and greater seed inputs to the seed bank due to enhanced flowering and seed
103 production (Wagenius et al., 2020).

104 Observational studies of seedling recruitment in prairies commonly report greater seedling
105 recruitment after fire (Benson & Hartnett, 2006; Glenn-Lewin et al., 1990; Menges & Dolan, 1998;
106 Nordstrom et al., 2021), but such studies cannot discriminate the roles of availability of seeds and of
107 microsites (Crawley, 1990; Eriksson & Ehrlén, 1992). Seed addition experiments overcome many of the
108 limitations inherent to observational studies of seedling recruitment. By manipulating the number of seeds
109 entering the seed bank and quantifying establishment of experimentally sown seed, seed addition
110 experiments can effectively distinguish effects of seed and microsite availability on recruitment (Crawley
111 1990; Eriksson & Ehrlén, 1992; Setterfield, 2002). These experiments provide evidence of seed-limitation
112 when increases in seed availability result in greater seedling recruitment. Meanwhile, these experiments
113 provide evidence of microsite-limitation when recruitment depends on environmental conditions after
114 controlling for variation in seed inputs. Note that seed availability and microsite conditions can co-limit
115 recruitment (e.g., Eriksson & Ehrlén, 1992). Furthermore, the resulting variation in conspecific seedling
116 density offers the opportunity to gain additional insights into density-dependent seedling survival, to the
117 extent the variation is independent of underlying environmental conditions.

118 Previous seed addition experiments in tallgrass prairie suggest that post-fire microsite
119 characteristics exert a strong influence on seedling emergence and seedling survival independent of seed
120 input (Alstad et al., 2018; Wagenius et al., 2012). However, it remains unclear whether findings from
121 previous experimental studies can be generalized across the broad range of conditions encountered by
122 seedlings in natural populations. Previous seed addition experiments related to fire have been conducted

123 at few sites (e.g., Alstad et al., 2018), within homogeneous restorations, or, in locations not representative
124 of conditions in natural populations (e.g., Wagenius et al., 2012). All of these issues complicate
125 extrapolation to natural plant populations because natural populations span considerable variation in
126 biotic and abiotic environmental conditions (Quintana-Ascencio, 2023). Furthermore, previous work in
127 prairies and other fire-dependent habitats has shown that fire can exert context-dependent effects on
128 seedling recruitment (Iacona et al., 2010; Menges & Hawkes, 1998; Myers & Harms, 2011; Wagenius et
129 al., 2012). Spatial and temporal replication is needed to assess how the magnitude of fire effects compares
130 to underlying variation in seedling vital rates in natural populations. The relative magnitude of sources of
131 variation is critical for assessing fire effects on seedling recruitment and subsequent effects on plant
132 demography (Nordstrom et al., 2021).

133 We therefore conducted a seed addition experiment across 36 remnant patches of tallgrass prairie
134 to experimentally assess how time since fire influences seedling emergence and seedling survival in
135 natural populations. Furthermore, we sought to evaluate how seedling emergence and survival were
136 related to seed availability, conspecific seedling density, and several abiotic aspects of the environment.
137 Our experiment focused on *Echinacea angustifolia* (Asteraceae) – a long-lived herbaceous species
138 widespread across central North American grasslands. Previous studies investigating the demography of
139 *E. angustifolia* seedlings have yielded insights into seedling dynamics and their implications for plant
140 demography. Long-term observational studies of seedling recruitment in natural populations showed
141 considerable variation within and among populations as well as among years (Richardson et al., 2024;
142 Waananen et al., 2024). Using observational recruitment data encompassing a limited set of prescribed
143 burns, Nordstrom et al. (2021) found seedling recruitment (combined effects of seed availability, seedling
144 emergence, and seedling survival in the first year) tended to increase after fire which strongly influenced
145 demographic rates. In a seed addition experiment, Wagenius et al. (2012) found evidence that fire benefits
146 seedling emergence and survival in old fields and prairie restorations (i.e., not remnant prairie).

147 Our experiment here builds on this previous work in several important ways. First, we conducted
148 our experiment within natural populations and use random placement of transects within sites to ensure

149 valid inferences across natural populations. Second, experimental seed addition enables us to control and
150 manipulate variation in the number of seeds entering the seed bank. This experimental manipulation of
151 seed availability and our explicit focus on experimental seedlings (i.e., we do not assess natural
152 recruitment) enable us to discriminate between seed-limitation and microsite-limitation. Third, we
153 experimentally manipulated time-since-fire across 36 prairie remnants over five years resulting in true
154 spatial and temporal replication of burn treatments across representative conditions. Finally, we quantified
155 the relationship between emergence and survival with six microsite characteristics that may mediate or
156 influence seedling responses to fire: local conspecific seedling density, light availability, litter depth, soil
157 compaction, slope, and aspect. Building directly on these methodological advances, we address four
158 questions in this study: (1) How does time since fire influence seedling emergence in natural populations?
159 (2) To what extent does variation in seedling emergence reflect environmental conditions versus the
160 density of experimentally sown seeds? (3) How does time since fire influence seedling survival? And (4)
161 does variation in seedling survival reflect environmental factors?

162

163 MATERIALS AND METHODS

164 *Study species*

165 Our experimental investigation of fire effects on seedling recruitment focused on *Echinacea*
166 *angustifolia* (Asteraceae). This herbaceous perennial is native to central North America and widespread
167 across grasslands west of the Mississippi River. The species inhabits dry prairie hills and locations with
168 well-drained soils. Individual plants produce a deep taproot and can live for decades. From seed, plants do
169 not flower for the first time before 5 years of age and many individuals take more than a decade
170 (Richardson et al., 2024). Plants do not spread vegetatively and reproduce only via seed. Sexually mature
171 plants do not flower every year. In a year when an *E. angustifolia* individual flowers, it typically produces
172 one composite head encompassing ca. 150 florets, though a flowering plant can produce as many as 29
173 heads. Each uniovulate floret yields a dry fruit (an achene) that may or may not contain an embryo (i.e. a
174 seed). A floret must receive compatible pollen to produce an embryo. Achenes are produced regardless of

175 success of pollination. Achenes, which ripen and fall to the ground in fall (September – November), have
176 no specialized dispersal mechanism. Seeds germinate in spring after overwintering and do not persist in a
177 seedbank. In greenhouse conditions, light enhances germination rates (Feghahati & Reese, 1994).
178 Seedlings emerge late spring (May) to early summer (June) and produce a single true leaf, rarely two.

179

180 *Study area*

181 Our experiment encompassed 36 patches of tallgrass prairie distributed across a 6400 ha study
182 area in western Minnesota (USA) centered near 45°49' N, 95°43' W (Fig. S1). All focal sites support
183 extant populations of *E. angustifolia*. Long-term studies of plant demography have been conducted at
184 most (28 of 36) sites continuously since 1996. The study area comprises a primarily agricultural
185 landscape with scattered patches of remnant tallgrass prairie. Sites range from ca. 0.1 hectares (ha) to 10
186 ha. These focal sites span the breadth of habitat occupied by *E. angustifolia* – ranging from gravelly
187 roadsides and railroad rights-of-way to dry prairie hills – and encompass variation from high-quality
188 prairie preserves with high native plant diversity to degraded remnants with low native plant diversity.

189

190 *Experimental design*

191 We established 84 transects across the 36 focal sites (Fig. 1). The location of each 4 m long
192 transect was selected using a stratified random sample of *E. angustifolia* patches within focal sites. In
193 most sites, transect locations were selected at random after defining the spatial extent occupied by *E.*
194 *angustifolia*. In several sites that encompassed distinct clusters of *E. angustifolia*, we first defined the
195 spatial extent of each cluster before randomly selecting transect locations within each cluster to obtain a
196 stratified random sample. These procedures for selecting transect locations are critical for obtaining an
197 unbiased sample of locations as a basis for generalizable inferences about seedling recruitment dynamics
198 within populations. The number of transects assigned to each site was proportional to site area. Each 4 m
199 long transect was partitioned into four 1 m segments with nails permanently marking the end points of
200 each transect (Fig. S1). We manually removed any *E. angustifolia* seed heads near (i.e., within 0.5 m)

201 experimental transects during the summer prior to sowing to avoid including natural seedling recruits in
202 our surveys. In previous observational studies of seedling recruitment in *E. angustifolia*, natural recruits
203 were very rarely found more than 0.5 m from the maternal plant (Richardson et al., 2024). Moreover, the
204 density of newly emerged natural recruits from a random sample of locations in our study area was
205 estimated to be 0.02 seedlings per m². The manual removal of nearby heads, the limited dispersal of *E.*
206 *angustifolia* seeds, and the low density of natural recruits in these remnants make us confident that natural
207 recruitment had little if any influence on our experiment.

208 We conducted 27 prescribed burns over five springs (2020 - 2024) to experimentally generate a
209 gradient of time since fire with five levels: 0, 1, 2, 3, and >=4 years since fire. These treatment levels
210 represent the range of possible biological scenarios for natural seed dispersal and emergence with
211 dormant-season spring fires. For example, the 0-years-since-fire treatment reflects seeds that are dispersed
212 the fall prior to a spring burn (i.e., fire occurs 5-6 months after seed dispersal but 1-2 months prior to
213 seedling emergence). And the 1-year-since-fire treatment reflects seeds dispersed the fall after a spring
214 (i.e., fire occurs 5-6 months before seed dispersal and 12-14 months before seedling emergence). Sowing
215 seed in two fall seasons (2022 and 2003), yielded a design with spatial and temporal replication of burn
216 treatments (Table S1). We note a wildfire occurred in one study site during spring 2020. We treated this
217 wildfire the same as our experimental prescribed fires because it occurred at the same time and in similar
218 conditions to experimental prescribed burns. Two sites were burned in spring 2020 (one the
219 aforementioned wildfire), seven sites in spring 2021, seven sites in spring 2022, six sites in spring 2023,
220 and six sites in spring 2024 (Table S1; Fig. S1).

221

222 *Seed addition procedures*

223 In fall 2022, we harvested 155 *E. angustifolia* seed heads from a recently burned site within the
224 study area, “nice” (Table S1). This site was selected because we expected synchronized post-fire
225 reproduction would yield many seed heads and high pollination rates (Wagenius et al. 2020). Moreover,
226 seed harvest here would not interfere with ongoing, long-term demographic research in other sites. We

227 separated achenes from chaff and pooled all ca. 20,000 *E. angustifolia* achenes. We then used a seed
228 blower to exclude light achenes, which are unlikely to contain an embryo, thus obtaining a batch of fruits
229 with high proportion of seeds. We separated fruits into batches of 50, placed them in labeled coin
230 envelopes, then randomly assigned a unique code to each envelope. We X-rayed all envelopes using a low
231 dose that does not affect seed viability (KUBTEC XPERT 80 digital radiography system). Using
232 radiographs, we counted the number of achenes containing embryos, i.e. seeds, in each envelope. In lab
233 trials of randomly sampled envelopes, more than 80 percent of seeds (i.e., achenes containing embryos)
234 germinated.

235 Coin envelopes were assigned at random to planting locations and sowing years. Most 1 m long
236 segments within experimental transects were assigned a single coin envelope – our low density sowing
237 treatment. However, we assigned two coin envelopes to one randomly selected segment per site in each
238 year – our high density sowing treatment. This allows us to test how the density of sown seeds influences
239 emergence rates and allows us to manipulate variation in seedling density independently of local
240 environmental conditions (Fig. S2). We sowed seeds on 9 November 2022 and 15 November 2023. We
241 sowed a total of 11,435 achenes of which 96.7 percent contained intact embryos (i.e., 11,057 seeds sown).

242

243 *Field survey*

244 Each spring (June 6-16 in 2023 and June 8-13 in 2024), we searched experimental transects for
245 newly emerged *E. angustifolia* seedlings. The presence of cotyledons during these early searches allowed
246 us to distinguish newly emerged experimental seedlings from juvenile *E. angustifolia* plants. To track
247 individual seedlings, we placed a colored toothpick 2 cm North of each individual and mapped its
248 location to the nearest 0.5 cm. High-resolution mapping was accomplished by using distance along the 1
249 m segment as well as perpendicular distance and direction from transect. The combination of colored
250 toothpicks and high-precision spatial maps allowed us to accurately and efficiently track individual
251 seedlings and quantify local conspecific seedling density.

252 We revisited each transect during August 7-16 in 2023 and August 7-12 in 2024 to score survival
253 from emergence through the first growing season. Individual seedlings were tracked using the unique
254 combination of toothpicks and mapped location. In total, we marked and monitored $N = 278$ seedlings
255 that emerged in 2023 and $N = 696$ seedlings that emerged in 2024 (Table 1). All $N = 974$ seedlings were
256 included in analyses of seedling emergence. Our analyses of seedling survival included only 965
257 seedlings because four transects were mowed during mid-summer 2024; we retained them in analyses of
258 seedling emergence but excluded them from analyses of seedling survival. One transect was destroyed by
259 heavy machinery during spring 2024. Our analyses of seedling emergence and seedling survival only
260 included 2023 data from this transect.

261

262 *Environmental covariates*

263 To assess the potential for biotic and abiotic factors to influence seedling emergence and survival,
264 we quantified six environmental covariates in our transects. In contrast to our experimentally manipulated
265 years since fire treatments, which enable us to infer causal relationships, we can only assess correlations
266 between covariates and seedling fitness. We chose to quantify a suite of environmental covariates that
267 have been hypothesized to influence seedling fitness including light availability, litter depth, soil
268 compaction, slope, aspect, and the local density of conspecific seedlings.

269 Light availability is a key factor expected to influence seedling performance in grasslands (Leach
270 and Givnish, 1996; Hautier et al., 2009; Alstad et al., 2016;). We measured both litter depth and light
271 availability directly both years (June 6-12, 2023 and June 4-13, 2024). We measured litter depth to the
272 nearest cm at the midpoint of each 1 m segment. The buildup of dead plant material, especially slowly
273 decomposing grass litter, can form a thick layer that intercepts light and may stifle the growth of newly
274 emerged seedlings. We also measured photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) directly using Apogee
275 MX-300 light meters (Apogee Instruments Inc., Logan, Utah, USA). Due to the many sampling locations
276 across many sites, we chose to employ a metric that quantifies the relative amount of PAR reaching
277 ground level by collecting paired PAR measurements: 1) a ground level measure gauging light available

278 to seedlings, and 2 a reading one meter above ground of the light available above canopy at the same
279 time. These paired measurements avoid complications associated with fluctuations in absolute PAR
280 among and within days. We divided observed PAR at 2.5 cm by PAR observed at 1 m above the soil
281 surface. In a pilot study designed to inform our light measurement protocol, we found this proportion was
282 more robust to variation in cloud cover, time of day, and other factors that influence the absolute amount
283 of light reaching ground level. However, the proportional and raw PAR measurements were both sensitive
284 to the time of day and the angle of the sun. Thus, all light measurements were taken within 3 hours of
285 solar noon (10:00 AM - 04:00 PM local time) when PAR measurements were most consistent.

286 Various soil properties may influence seedling performance. In the study area, one of the most
287 conspicuous edaphic characteristics is the variation from compacted, gravelly soils to rich, uncompacted
288 loams. Compacted soils may impede the growth of seedling roots and prevent seedling establishment
289 (Wernerehl & Givnish, 2015). Within each transect, we measured soil mechanical impedance between 0-
290 10 cm depth using a SpotOn Digital Soil Penetrometer (Innoquest Inc., Woodstock, Illinois, USA) for
291 each of the four 1 m long segments. Measurements were taken at the midpoint of each 1 m segment. All
292 soil compaction measurements were collected over three days (May 24-26, 2023), during which and for
293 the prior one week there was no precipitation.

294 Physiographic variation such as slope and aspect may be associated with many factors
295 influencing seedling fitness. Steep slopes may contribute to water runoff, leaching, and erosion. In the
296 northern hemisphere, southwest facing aspects receive the greatest sun exposure corresponding to the
297 hottest and driest conditions with relatively high rates of evapotranspiration. Northeast facing aspects
298 receive the least solar radiation. These factors often lead to conspicuous differences in vegetation and
299 environmental conditions. We quantified the slope and aspect at the midpoint of each segment using a 1
300 m resolution digital elevation model. We calculated slope using an 8-neighbor approach (a 3 x 3 m area).
301 We converted raw estimates of aspect (i.e., compass bearing) to an aspect index (hereafter referred to as
302 aspect) quantifying the absolute value of the difference between compass bearing (in degrees) and

303 southwest aspect (compass bearing of 270 degrees): aspect index = $|\text{bearing} - 270|$. This angular distance
304 metric ranges from 0 when the observed aspect is southwest to 360 when the observed aspect is northeast.

305 Finally, we calculated the local density of conspecifics for each seedling based on the individuals
306 present during June seedling surveys. Negative density-dependent seedling survival (i.e., declines in per
307 capita seedling survival as the local density of conspecific seedlings increase) has the potential to offset
308 increased seedling emergence. *Echinacea angustifolia* seedlings produce a single leaf and a deep taproot
309 with laterally branching roots. As a result, seedlings can be expected to interact more strongly with nearby
310 neighbors than more distant neighbors. Thus, we calculated a distance-weighted conspecific density
311 metric (cd_f) following Richardson et al. (2024).

312

$$cd_f = \sum_{i=1}^k e^{-\lambda d_{if}}$$

313 Where k is the number of conspecific seedlings within 15 cm of the focal seedling (f), d_{if} is the pairwise
314 distance between seedling i and the focal seedling (f), and λ quantifies the rate at which the influence of
315 seedlings on one another declines with distance. To evaluate potential values of λ , we compared the
316 performance of models predicting the probability of seedling mortality as a function of conspecific
317 density using values of λ between 0 and 1. Based on this analysis (see Fig. S3), we conducted analyses
318 using distance-weighted measures of conspecific density using $\lambda = 0$. At $\lambda = 0$, the cd_f metric simply
319 represents the count of conspecific seedlings within 15 cm of each focal seedling.

320

321 *Data analysis*

322 We analyzed seedling emergence using generalized linear mixed effects models (GLMMs). We
323 first modeled the proportion of sown seeds (full achenes) that emerged as a function of years since fire
324 and year sown (2023 or 2024). We treated years since fire as a categorical predictor with five levels: 0
325 (burned spring after seeds sown), 1 (burned spring before seeds sown), 2 (burned two springs before seeds
326 were sown), 3 (burned three springs before seeds were sown), and 4+ (no burns conducted for at least 4
327 years). In addition to these fixed covariates, we also included random effects accounting for residual

328 variation among transects and sites (transect nested within site). These random effects account for non-
329 independence among transects within sites that experience the same burn treatment and avoid issues
330 associated with pseudoreplication (Hurlbert, 1984). We modeled seedling emergence using a binomial
331 distribution. We tested the statistical significance of fixed predictors (i.e., year and time since fire) using
332 likelihood ratio tests comparing the full model to reduced models excluding the predictor of interest.

333 To assess the relationship between seedling emergence and environmental covariates, we also
334 modeled seedling emergence as a function of light availability, soil compaction, slope, aspect, and the
335 density of seeds sown. In this analysis, we excluded data from the treatment 0 years since fire, in which
336 there was consistently low emergence presumably reflecting direct mortality caused by fire (Wagenius et
337 al., 2012). We first examined correlations among these covariates. Two measures of light availability,
338 litter depth and the proportion of PAR reaching ground level, were strongly correlated (Pearson's
339 correlation: $r = -0.53$, $N = 656$, $P < 0.001$; Fig. S4). To avoid issues associated with collinearity, we chose
340 to include only litter depth in our environmental covariates model. Litter depth measurements were
341 available for every segment and time period (three transects lacked PAR measurements in 2024) and litter
342 depth was more strongly associated with emergence. We applied a log transformation after adding 1 to all
343 litter depth values to improve the distribution of residuals in this and subsequent analyses utilizing litter
344 depth. We fit a full model that included sowing density (high vs. low), year, litter depth, soil compaction,
345 slope, and aspect as fixed predictors and random effects for transect nested within site. We then
346 performed model selection using backwards elimination based on AIC scores (removing terms for which
347 $\Delta\text{AIC} < 2$).

348 To assess fire effects on the seedling survival to late summer (>2 months after emergence), we
349 used GLMM to fit the probability of individual seedling survival to late summer using a Bernoulli
350 distribution. This model included fixed predictors for experimental treatments years since fire and year, as
351 well as random effects for transect nested within site. Due to the paucity of seedlings present in 0 years
352 since fire treatment ($N = 14$ total seedlings over 2-yr experiment) and lack of variation (all 14 seedlings
353 survived to late summer), we chose to combine the 0 and 1 years since fire treatments for this specific

354 model. Tests were conducted as above to assess the relationship between seedling survival and
355 environmental covariates, including litter depth, soil compaction, slope, aspect, and conspecific density as
356 fixed predictors as well as random effects for transect nested within site. We applied a log-transformation
357 to litter depth and conspecific density after adding 1 to all values. We performed model selection using
358 backwards elimination.

359 To evaluate how experimental treatments influenced light availability, we analyzed years since
360 fire effects on both the proportion of PAR reaching ground level and litter depth. We fit a GLMM using a
361 beta distribution because the response variable is a proportion constrained between 0 and 1. This model
362 included fixed predictors for experimental treatment and year as well as random effects for transect nested
363 within site. We fit a linear mixed effects model (LMM) to analyze fire effects on litter depth. Our litter
364 depth model also included fixed predictors for experimental treatment and year as well as random effects
365 for transect nested within site. Statistical tests were conducted as above

366 All analyses were conducted using R (R Core Team, 2024). Statistical models were fit using the
367 glmmTMB package (Brooks et al., 2017) and figures were made using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016). All
368 data and code necessary to replicate figures and analyses have been archived in a publicly accessible
369 digital repository (Beck and Wagenius, 2024).

370

371 RESULTS

372

373 *Seedling emergence*

374 Seedling emergence in our experimentally sown segments varied from 0 to 52 percent (Fig. 2).
375 The experimental years since fire treatments influenced seedling emergence (Table S2; Likelihood ratio
376 test: $\Delta AIC = 165.9$, $\chi^2 = 173.86$, $df = 4$, $P < 0.001$). Seedling emergence also differed between years
377 ($\Delta AIC = 108.2$, $\chi^2 = 110.20$, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$). Less than one percent of seeds sown prior to burning
378 emerged the following June (estimated percent emerged [95% confidence interval]: 0.4% [0.2 – 0.8] in

379 2023 and 1.1% [0.6 – 2.1] in 2024), whereas considerably higher proportions of seeds sown in the fall
380 after fire the previous spring emerged (2023: 7.3% (4.8 – 10.8); 2024: 16.5% (11.0 – 24.2)). Seedling
381 emergence was lower 2 years after fire (3.2% [2.1 – 4.8] in 2023 and 7.7% [5.2 – 11.4] in 2024), 3 years
382 after fire (2.6% [1.7 – 4.0] in 2023 and 6.4% [4.3 – 9.3] in 2024), and 4 years after fire (3.9% [2.7 – 5.7]
383 in 2023 and 9.4% [6.8 – 12.9] in 2024). Notably emergence more than four years after fire was highly
384 variable, ranging from 0 to 44% emergence.

385 In addition to these experimental fire effects, several environmental covariates were associated
386 with variation in seedling emergence (Fig. 3). Across experimental treatments (excluding 0 years since
387 fire), segments sown at high seed densities exhibited lower emergence than low density seeding
388 treatments ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 6.4$, $\chi^2 = 8.39$, $\text{df} = 1$, $P = 0.004$). Seedling emergence was also negatively associated
389 with litter depth ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 9.4$, $\chi^2 = 11.38$, $\text{df} = 1$, $P < 0.001$). We found no evidence that soil compaction
390 ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 0.3$, $\chi^2 = 2.28$, $\text{df} = 1$, $P = 0.131$), slope ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 0.4$, $\chi^2 = 2.36$, $\text{df} = 1$, $P = 0.124$), or aspect
391 ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 1.9$, $\chi^2 = 0.07$, $\text{df} = 1$, $P = 0.788$) were associated with seedling emergence (Table S3).

392

393 *Seedling survival to late summer*

394 Eighty-eight percent (845 of 965) of newly emerged *E. angustifolia* seedlings survived to late
395 summer including 92 percent (257 of 278) in 2023 and 86 percent (588 of 687) of seedlings in 2024 (Fig.
396 4). Seedling survival varied from 100 percent survival (14 of 14 seedlings) in 0 years treatment to 79
397 percent (110 of 140) in 3 years since fire treatment. Survival from emergence to late summer differed
398 between years (Table S4; $\Delta\text{AIC} = 5.9$, $\chi^2 = 7.874$, $P = 0.005$) and among experimental treatments (ΔAIC
399 = 3.5, $\chi^2 = 9.483$, $P = 0.024$). Survival was highest in the combined 0 and 1 years since fire treatments
400 (predicted probability of survival [95% confidence interval]: 0.97 [0.93 – 0.99] in 2023, 0.93 [0.85 –
401 0.97] in 2024). Survival declined in the 2 years after fire treatment (0.95 [0.87 – 0.98] in 2023, 0.89 [0.75
402 – 0.96]) and 3 years since fire treatment (0.86 [0.70 – 0.94] in 2023, 0.72 [0.53 – 0.85] in 2024). Survival
403 was greater in the 4+ years since fire treatment (0.94 [0.87 – 0.97] in 2023, 0.86 [0.78 – 0.92] in 2024),
404 though survival varied greatly among sites and transects within sites in this treatment (Fig. 4).

405 Several covariates were associated with survival in our analysis encompassing all treatments (Fig.
406 5; Table S5). The probability of seedling survival was negatively associated with litter depth ($\Delta\text{AIC} =$
407 4.86, $\chi^2 = 6.886$, $P = 0.009$) and positively associated with the local density of conspecific seedlings
408 ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 4.63$, $\chi^2 = 6.658$, $P = 0.010$). We found no evidence that seedling survival was associated with
409 soil compaction ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 1.81$, $\chi^2 = 0.19$, $P = 0.662$), slope ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 1.98$, $\chi^2 = 0.02$, $P = 0.875$), or aspect
410 ($\Delta\text{AIC} = 1.56$, $\chi^2 = 0.44$, $P = 0.509$).

411

412 *Fire effects on light availability*

413 Experimental years since fire treatments influenced both measures of light availability (Fig. 6;
414 Table S6). The proportion of PAR reaching ground level depended on years since fire (Fig. 6a; χ^2
415 = 140.76, $df = 4$, $P < 0.001$) as well as year ($\chi^2 = 20.32$, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$). PAR reaching ground level was
416 greater in 2023 across experimental treatments and peaked in the 0 years since fire treatment (0.77 [0.71 –
417 0.82] in 2023 and 0.70 [0.64 – 0.76] in 2024). PAR levels then attenuated and remained fairly consistent
418 across the remaining experimental treatments: 1 year since fire (0.43 [0.35 – 0.51] in 2023 and 0.35 [0.28
419 – 0.43] in 2024), 2 years since fire (0.40 [0.33 – 0.48] in 2023 and 0.33 [0.26 – 0.40] in 2024), 3 years
420 since fire (0.42 [0.33 – 0.52] in 2023 and 0.35 [0.27 – 0.44] in 2024), and 4+ years since fire (0.45 [0.39 –
421 0.52] in 2023 and 0.37 [0.31 – 0.44] in 2024). Likewise, litter depth depended on years since fire (Fig. 6b;
422 $\chi^2 = 184.58$, $df = 4$, $P < 0.001$) and differed between years ($\chi^2 = 50.10$, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$). Litter depth
423 was greatest in the 4+ years since fire treatment (3.0 [2.5 – 3.7] cm in 2023 and 4.6 [3.8 – 5.5] cm in
424 2024) and lowest in the 0 years since fire treatment (0.3 [0.1 – 0.6] cm in 2023 and 0.8 [0.5 – 1.2] cm in
425 2024). The remaining treatments had intermediate litter depth: 1 year since fire (2.7 [2.0 – 3.4] cm in
426 2023 and 4.1 [3.2 – 5.1] cm in 2024), 2 years since fire (2.5 [1.9 – 3.1] cm in 2023 and 3.8 [3.0 – 4.7] cm
427 in 2024), and 3 years since fire (2.1 [1.5 – 3.0] cm in 2023 and 3.3 [2.5 – 4.4] cm in 2024).

428

429 DISCUSSION

430 By generating conditions favorable for seedling recruitment, periodic fire is expected to promote
431 the persistence of local plant populations and maintain plant diversity in many historically fire-dependent
432 ecosystems. The positive effects of fire on seedling recruitment could plausibly reflect greater seed
433 production, improved seedling emergence, or increased survival of seedlings after fire necessitating
434 experiments capable of discriminating among these processes. In this study, we experimentally
435 manipulated seed inputs to evaluate how years since fire influenced seedling emergence and seedling
436 survival of *E. angustifolia* across 36 patches of remnant tallgrass prairie. Seedling emergence and survival
437 peaked shortly after fire and generally declined with years since fire. This offers empirical support for
438 predictions about fire's influence on seedling emergence and survival. Moreover, our results are
439 consistent with hypotheses that light plays an important role in mediating the effects of fire on seedling
440 emergence and seedling survival. Although seedling emergence declined when seeds were sown at high
441 densities, overall recruitment increased with seed inputs suggesting both seed availability and microsite
442 conditions may influence seedling recruitment after fire. Our experimental design overcomes limitations
443 associated with earlier observational and experimental studies. It thus enables broader inferences and
444 mechanistic insights that may apply across natural plant populations to clarify demographic processes by
445 which fire influences population dynamics in historically fire-dependent ecosystems.

446 Consistent with predictions about the role of periodic fire in seedling recruitment within
447 historically fire-dependent ecosystems (Lamont & Downes, 2011; Leach & Givnish, 1996; Menges &
448 Dolan, 1998; Nordstrom et al., 2021; Satterthwaite et al., 2002), our experimental treatments varying
449 years since fire influenced both seedling emergence and seedling survival. Emergence was lowest among
450 seeds sown the fall prior to spring experimental burns. These findings mirror a previous experiment
451 demonstrating low emergence among seeds sown prior to burning presumably due to fire-induced
452 mortality among seeds or newly emergent seedlings that lack energetic reserves to resprout after being
453 damaged (Wagenius et al., 2012). Given that our experimental burns were conducted before seedlings
454 emerged, we suspect direct fire damage to seeds accounts for the low emergence we observed here. The
455 peak in emergence one year since fire treatment corresponds with observations of natural recruitment

456 (Wagenius et al., 2012; Nordstrom et al., 2021). Meanwhile, seedling survival was greatest shortly after
457 fire. Of the very few seedlings that emerged after a fire from seed sown before experimental burns (0
458 years since fire treatment), all seedlings (14 of 14) survived. Seedlings established from seed sown in the
459 fall after fire also exhibited high survival (199 of 214 survived in the 1 year since fire treatment). Taken
460 together, our findings about germination and early survival parallel findings from observational studies in
461 other species and study systems (e.g., Menges & Dolan, 1998). Conditions favorable for seedling
462 recruitment are often expected to persist for several years after fire or gradually deteriorate leading to
463 continuous declines in seedling recruitment each successive year since fire (Glenn-Lewin et al., 1990).
464 Emergence and survival tended to decline as years since fire increased, but seedling establishment was
465 similar among the 2, 3, and 4+ years since fire treatments, suggesting the conditions favorable for
466 seedling recruitment in prairies and other grasslands may not last as long as commonly expected.

467 Light availability is widely assumed to mediate the effects of fire on seedling recruitment in
468 prairies and other historically fire-dependent ecosystems (Lamont & Downes, 2011; Leach & Givnish,
469 1996; Menges & Dolan, 1998; Satterthwaite et al., 2002). Our findings here are largely consistent with
470 this hypothesis. Litter depth was associated with both rates of seedling emergence and the probability of
471 seedling survival, and was correlated with direct measurements of the photosynthetically active radiation
472 available to newly emergent seedlings. In a factorial experiment manipulating seeding density, water
473 availability, competitors, and fire, Zimmermann et al. (2009) similarly found competitors inhibited
474 emergence, and fire effects appeared to be largely mediated by their effects on competition. Nevertheless,
475 we caution that causal relationships between light and seedling fitness cannot be definitely established
476 without experimental manipulation. The most direct evidence for the importance of light for grassland
477 biodiversity comes from experiments in which supplemental light promotes plant survival and by
478 extension species diversity (e.g., Hautier et al., 2009).

479 The same cautionary note about causal relationships applies to other associations we observed
480 between covariates and seedling emergence and survival. For example, we observed greater seedling
481 emergence, lower rates of early survival, and reduced light availability (lower PAR at ground level and

482 greater litter depth) in 2024 compared to 2023. It is possible these year effects are related to interannual
483 differences in precipitation. Spring and summer 2024 were substantially wetter than 2023 (April – June
484 precipitation of 326 mm in 2024 compared to 154 mm in 2023, PRISM Climate Group 2024). Greater
485 precipitation may have promoted seedling emergence but also stimulated the growth of cool season
486 grasses – especially the exotic *Bromus inermis* – which consequently reduced light availability and
487 contributed to greater seedling mortality. However, without experimental manipulation of precipitation it
488 is impossible to rule out various factors that differed between years (e.g., winter snowfall, spring
489 temperatures and evapotranspiration, etc.). These fundamental issues of correlation and causation are also
490 exemplified by the positive association between local conspecific density and the probability of seedling
491 survival we observed. This positive association contradicts our *a priori* expectation that conspecific
492 density could be negatively associated with seedling survival due to competition for similar resources or
493 greater exposure to pathogens and predators (e.g., Comita et al., 2014). Even though we experimentally
494 manipulated sowing density, realized differences in conspecific seedling density were confounded with
495 environmental factors that promote seedling emergence. Previous studies of natural recruitment in *E.*
496 *angustifolia* found no evidence of density-dependent mortality (Richardson et al., 2024). Experimental
497 manipulation of seedling density independent of environmental conditions would provide more robust
498 insights into density-dependent seedling fitness though doing so is difficult due to inherent fitness-
499 environment associations.

500 Our findings here have implications for both the life history and the demography of long-lived
501 plants in historically fire-dependent ecosystems. Many of the long-lived, iteroparous plant species that
502 dominate historically fire-dependent ecosystems conspicuously increase their reproductive effort after fire
503 (Beck et al., 2024; Fidelis & Zirondi, 2021; Lamont & Downes, 2011), including *E. angustifolia* (Beck et
504 al., 2023; Wagenius et al., 2020). Enhanced seedling recruitment after fire is often cited as a potential
505 fitness advantage associated with fire-stimulated flowering (Araújo et al., 2013; L. Zirondi et al., 2021;
506 Lamont & Downes, 2011). This view directly parallels the environmental prediction hypothesis for
507 masting species which posits that concentration of reproduction in years with favorable conditions for

508 seedling recruitment confers a fitness benefit (Beck et al., 2024; D. Kelly & Sork, 2002; Vacchiano et al.,
509 2021). Our results here illustrate the fitness advantages associated with concentrating seed dispersal after
510 fire and suggest enhanced post-fire seedling recruitment is a plausible adaptive explanation for the
511 prevalence of fire-stimulated flowering. However, we note two factors that may diminish potential fitness
512 benefits. First, we found evidence that seeds sown at high densities emerged at lower rates. Thus, the
513 potential fitness benefits associated with concentrating reproduction after fire may saturate with increases
514 in conspecific density. Second, we observed substantial underlying spatial and temporal variation in
515 seedling emergence and survival. The magnitude of this residual variation compared to the effect sizes
516 associated with fire, especially when considered with work demonstrating that fire effects on seedling
517 recruitment vary with environmental context (e.g., Menges & Hawkes, 1998), suggests selection may not
518 be as strong or consistent as commonly assumed (L. Zirondi et al., 2021; Lamont & Downes, 2011).
519 These factors merit consideration in the context of evolutionary explanations for fire-stimulated flowering
520 (Beck et al., 2024).

521 Variation in recruitment is expected to strongly influence the demography of the long-lived,
522 iteroparous plant species that dominate in many historically fire-dependent ecosystems (Grubb, 1977).
523 These species typically exhibit low survivorship early in life and relatively high survivorship as plants
524 grow and age. Consequently, population dynamics in long-lived plant species are often sensitive to factors
525 that influence seedling recruitment (Bruna, 2003; Grubb, 1977; Menges & Dolan, 1998; Nordstrom et al.,
526 2021). Demographic studies employing population projection models frequently find that population
527 growth rates are sensitive to variation in seedling recruitment rates and that greater post-fire recruitment
528 often promotes population growth (Menges & Dolan, 1998; Nordstrom et al., 2021; Satterthwaite et al.,
529 2002). Our experiment contributes several important insights relevant to fire effects on plant demography.
530 Most generally, our findings suggest both seed availability and microsite favorability may contribute to
531 improved seedling recruitment after fire in historically fire-dependent systems like tallgrass prairie.
532 Further demographic work is needed to quantify the contributions of seed availability and microsite
533 favorability to plant demographic rates and assess the extent to which the positive effects of periodic fire

534 on population growth and persistence are attributable to improved survival (as hypothesized by Leach &
535 Givnish, 1996) or enhanced seed production (as proposed by Wagenius et al., 2020; Beck et al., 2023).
536 Robust demographic inferences about fire effects will depend on incorporating realistic variation in these
537 different vital rates. For example, Nordstrom et al. (2021) found inferences about the effects of fire on
538 population dynamics were sensitive to variation in seedling recruitment. In scenarios with relatively high
539 recruitment, the beneficial effects of fire on seedling recruitment and juvenile survival led to higher rates
540 of population growth after fire. However, in scenarios with low recruitment, seedling recruitment was less
541 influential than other life stages in determining population growth rates. Our experiment, which
542 encompassed representative locations across a heterogeneous landscape, revealed substantial spatial and
543 temporal variation in emergence and survival independent of experimental fire treatments which may
544 have important demographic implications (Quintana-Ascencio, 2023).

545 The consistently low rates of seedling emergence in sites burned the spring after sowing (i.e., our
546 0 years since fire treatment) merit special mention in the context of fire frequency and prairie plant
547 diversity. Previous studies investigating the effects of burn frequency have noted that annual burning
548 tends to erode plant diversity over time (Collins & Calabrese, 2012; Johnson & Knapp, 1995). Several
549 previous studies postulate that annual burning increases the dominance of warm season grasses to the
550 point that they competitively exclude herbaceous species (Benson & Hartnett, 2006; Collins & Calabrese,
551 2012). Our findings suggest an alternative demographic explanation could account for the negative effects
552 of annual spring burning on plant diversity. Annual spring burning may consistently inhibit seedling
553 emergence and greatly reduce seedling recruitment leading to the long-term erosion of plant diversity as
554 sexually mature plants eventually die without replacement. Future demographic work directly
555 investigating this hypothesis would be of great value and contribute mechanistic insights into how fire
556 frequency influences plant population dynamics and plant diversity in tallgrass prairie and other
557 historically fire-dependent ecosystems.

558

559 CONCLUSION

560 Our experimental investigation of fire effects in a heterogeneous tallgrass prairie landscape revealed
561 that time since fire influences both seedling emergence and seedling survival. We found evidence
562 supporting the hypothesis that the microsite characteristics, specifically light availability and litter
563 density, mediate fire effects on seedling growth and survival. Further, overall recruitment increased with
564 seed supply. Thus, our experiment reveals that both seed availability and microsite conditions can
565 influence seedling recruitment after fire in natural populations.

566

567

568 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

569 We thank R. Shaw for advice and helpful discussions during the design of the experiment. We
570 thank members of the Echinacea Project – especially M. Stevens, A. Carroll, L. Paulson, W. Mosiman,
571 and A. Widdell – for assistance in the field and in the lab. R. Shaw, A. Iler, and P. CaraDonna generously
572 provided feedback that improved the manuscript. This research was supported by awards from the
573 National Science Foundation (2032282, 2050455, 2051562, 2115309) and the Minnesota Environment
574 and Natural Resources Trust Fund as recommended by the Legislative-Citizen Commission on Minnesota
575 Resources (award 2022-091).

576

577 REFERENCES

578 Abrams, M. D. (1985). Fire history of oak gallery forests in a northeast Kansas tallgrass prairie. *American
579 Midland Naturalist*, 114(1), 188. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2425255>

580 Allen, M. S., & Palmer, M. W. (2011). Fire history of a prairie/forest boundary: More than 250 years of
581 frequent fire in a North American tallgrass prairie: Fire history of a prairie/forest boundary.
582 *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 22(3), 436–444. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2011.01278.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-
583 1103.2011.01278.x)

584 Alstad, A. O., Damschen, E. I., Givnish, T. J., Harrington, J. A., Leach, M. K., Rogers, D. A., & Waller, D. M.
585 (2016). The pace of plant community change is accelerating in remnant prairies. *Science
586 Advances*, 2(2), e1500975. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1500975>

587 Alstad, A. O., Damschen, E. I., & Ladwig, L. M. (2018). Fire as a Site Preparation Tool in Grassland
588 Restoration: Seed size effects on recruitment success. *Ecological Restoration*, 36(3), 219–225.
589 <https://doi.org/10.3368/er.36.3.219>

590 Anderson, R. C. (1990). The historic role of fire in the North American grassland. In *Fire in North
591 American tallgrass prairies* (pp. 8–18). University of Oklahoma Press.

592 Anderson, R. C. (2006). Evolution and origin of the central grassland of North America: Climate, fire, and
593 mammalian grazers. *The Journal of the Torrey Botanical Society*, 133(4), 626–647.
594 [https://doi.org/10.3159/1095-5674\(2006\)133\[626:EAOOTC\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.3159/1095-5674(2006)133[626:EAOOTC]2.0.CO;2)

595 Araújo, G. M., Amaral, A. F., Bruna, E. M., & Vasconcelos, H. L. (2013). Fire drives the reproductive
596 responses of herbaceous plants in a Neotropical swamp. *Plant Ecology*, 214(12), 1479–1484.
597 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-013-0268-9>

598 Axelrod, D. I. (1985). Rise of the grassland biome, central North America. *The Botanical Review*, 51(2),
599 163–201. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02861083>

600 Beck, J. J., McKone, M. J., & Wagenius, S. (2024). Masting, fire-stimulated flowering, and the
601 evolutionary ecology of synchronized reproduction. *Ecology*, 105(4), e4261.
602 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.4261>

603 Beck, J., Waananen, A., & Wagenius, S. (2023). Habitat fragmentation decouples fire-stimulated
604 flowering from plant reproductive fitness. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,
605 120(39), e2306967120. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2306967120>

606 Beck, J., & Wagenius, S. (2024). Data and code: Seedling recruitment after fire: Disentangling the roles of
607 microsite conditions and seed availability. figshare.
608 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.27320373>

609 Benson, E. J., & Hartnett, D. C. (2006). The role of seed and vegetative reproduction in plant recruitment
610 and demography in tallgrass prairie. *Plant Ecology*, 187(2), 163–178.
611 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-005-0975-y>

612 Bond, W., & Keeley, J. (2005). Fire as a global ‘herbivore’: The ecology and evolution of flammable
613 ecosystems. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 20(7), 387–394.
614 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2005.04.025>

615 Bowles, M. L., & Jones, M. D. (2013). Repeated burning of eastern tallgrass prairie increases richness and
616 diversity, stabilizing late successional vegetation. *Ecological Applications*, 23(2), 464–478.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1890/12-0808.1>

618 Brooks, M. E., Kristensen, K., van Benthem, K. J., Magnusson, A., Berg, C. W., Nielsen, A., Skaug, H. J.,
619 Maechler, M., Bolker, B. M. (2017). glmmTMB balances speed and flexibility among packages for
620 zero-inflated generalized linear mixed modeling. *The R Journal*, 9(2), 378–400. doi:10.32614/RJ-
621 2017-066.

622 Bruna, E. M. (2003). Are plant population in fragmented habitats recruitment limited? Tests with an
623 Amazonian herb. *Ecology*, 84(4), 932–947. [https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658\(2003\)084\[0932:APPIFH\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(2003)084[0932:APPIFH]2.0.CO;2)

624

625 Collins, S. L., & Calabrese, L. B. (2012). Effects of fire, grazing and topographic variation on vegetation
626 structure in tallgrass prairie. *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 23(3), 563–575.
627 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2011.01369.x>

628 Comita, L. S., Queenborough, S. A., Murphy, S. J., Eck, J. L., Xu, K., Krishnadas, M., Beckman, N., & Zhu, Y.
629 (2014). Testing predictions of the Janzen– Connell hypothesis: A meta-analysis of experimental
630 evidence for distance- and density-dependent seed and seedling survival. *Journal of Ecology*,
631 102(4), 845–856. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2745.12232>

632 Crawley, M. J. (1990). The population dynamics of plants [and discussion]. *Philosophical Transactions of
633 the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 330, 125–140. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.1990.0187>

634 Curtis, J. T. (1959). *The Vegetation of Wisconsin: An Ordination of Plant Communities*. University of
635 Wisconsin Press.

636 Eriksson, O., & Ehrlén, J. (1992). Seed and microsite limitation of recruitment in plant populations.
637 *Oecologia*, 91(3), 360–364. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00317624>

638 Feghahati, S. M. J., & Reese, R. N. (1994). Ethylene-, Light-, and Prechill-enhanced Germination of
639 *Echinacea angustifolia* Seeds. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, 119(4),
640 853–858. <https://doi.org/10.21273/JASHS.119.4.853>

641 Fidelis, A., & Zirondi, H. L. (2021). And after fire, the Cerrado flowers: A review of post-fire flowering in a
642 tropical savanna. *Flora*, 280, 151849. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.flora.2021.151849>

643 Gleason, H. A. (1913). The relation of forest distribution and prairie fires in the middle west. *Journal of
644 the Torrey Botanical Society*, 13(8), 173–181.

645 Glenn-Lewin, D. C., Johnson, L. A., Akey, A., Leoschke, M., & Rosburg, T. (1990). Fire in central North
646 American grasslands: Vegetative reproduction, seed germination, and seedling establishment. In
647 *Fire in North American Tallgrass Prairies* (pp. 28–45). University of Oklahoma Press.

648 Grubb, P. J. (1977). The maintenance of species-richness in plant communities: The importance of the
649 regeneration niche. *Biological Reviews*, 52(1), 107–145. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-185x.1977.tb01347.x>

650 Hautier, Y., Niklaus, P. A., & Hector, A. (2009). Competition for light causes plant biodiversity loss after
651 eutrophication. *Science*, 324(5927), 636–638. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1169640>

652 Hurlbert, S. (1984). Pseudoreplication and the design of ecological field experiments. *Ecology*, 54, 187–
653 211.

654 Iacona, G. D., Kirkman, L. K., & Bruna, E. M. (2010). Effects of resource availability on seedling
655 recruitment in a fire-maintained savanna. *Oecologia*, 163(1), 171–180.
656 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-009-1502-y>

657 Johnson, S. R., & Knapp, A. K. (1995). The influence of fire on *Spartina pectinata* wetland communities in
658 a northeastern Kansas tallgrass prairie. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, 73(1), 84–90.
659 <https://doi.org/10.1139/b95-011>

660 Kelly, D., & Sork, V. L. (2002). Mast seeding in perennial plants: Why, how, where? *Annual Review of
661 Ecology and Systematics*, 33(1), 427–447.
662 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.33.020602.095433>

663 Kelly, L. T., Giljohann, K. M., Duane, A., Aquilué, N., Archibald, S., Batllori, E., Bennett, A. F., Buckland, S.
664 T., Canelles, Q., Clarke, M. F., Fortin, M.-J., Hermoso, V., Herrando, S., Keane, R. E., Lake, F. K.,
665 McCarthy, M. A., Morán-Ordóñez, A., Parr, C. L., Pausas, J. G., ... Brotons, L. (2020). Fire and
666 biodiversity in the Anthropocene. *Science*, 370(6519), eabb0355.
667 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abb0355>

668

669 L. Zirondi, H., Ooi, M. K. J., & Fidelis, A. (2021). Fire-triggered flowering is the dominant post-fire strategy
670 in a tropical savanna. *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 32(2), e12995.
671 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12995>

672 Lamont, B. B., & Downes, K. S. (2011). Fire-stimulated flowering among resprouters and geophytes in
673 Australia and South Africa. *Plant Ecology*, 212(12), 2111–2125. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-011-9987-y>

675 Leach, M. K., & Givnish, T. J. (1996a). Ecological determinants of species loss in remnant prairies.
676 *Science*, 273(5281), 1555–1558. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.273.5281.1555>

677 Leach, M. K., & Givnish, T. J. (1996b). Ecological determinants of species loss in remnant prairies.
678 *Science*, 273(5281), 1555–1558.

679 McClain, W. E., Ruffner, C. M., Ebinger, J. E., & Spyreas, G. (2021). Patterns of anthropogenic fire within
680 the midwestern tallgrass prairie 1673–1905: Evidence from written accounts. *Natural Areas
681 Journal*, 41(4). <https://doi.org/10.3375/20-5>

682 McConnell, K., & Menges, E. S. (2002). Effects of fire and treatments that mimic fire on the Florida
683 endemic scrub buckwheat (*Eriogonum longifolium* Nutt. Var. *Gnaphalifolium* Gand.) (2002): 194–
684 201. *Natural Areas Journal*, 22.

685 Menges, E. S., & Dolan, R. W. (1998). Demographic viability of populations of *Silene regia* in midwestern
686 prairies: Relationships with fire management, genetic variation, geographic location, population
687 size and isolation. *Journal of Ecology*, 86, 52–67.

688 Menges, E. S., & Hawkes, C. V. (1998). Interactive effects of fire and microhabitat on plants of Florida
689 scrub. *Ecological Applications*, 8(4), 935–946. [https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761\(1998\)008\[0935:IEOFAM\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761(1998)008[0935:IEOFAM]2.0.CO;2)

691 Menges, E. S., & Kimmich, J. (1996). Microhabitat and time-since-fire: Effects on demography of
692 *Eryngium cuneifolium* (Apiaceae), a Florida scrub endemic plant. *American Journal of Botany*,
693 83(2), 185. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2445937>

694 Myers, J. A., & Harms, K. E. (2011). Seed arrival and ecological filters interact to assemble high-diversity
695 plant communities. *Ecology*, 92(3), 676–686. <https://doi.org/10.1890/10-1001.1>

696 Nordstrom, S. W., Dykstra, A. B., & Wagenius, S. (2021). Fires slow population declines of a long-lived
697 prairie plant through multiple vital rates. *Oecologia*, 196(3), 679–691.
698 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-021-04955-2>

699 Ojima, D. S., Schimel, D. S., Parton, W. J., & Owensby, C. E. (1994). Long- and short-term effects of fire on
700 nitrogen cycling in tallgrass prairie. *Biogeochemistry*, 24(2), 67–84.
701 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02390180>

702 Pausas, J. G., & Keeley, J. E. (2014). Evolutionary ecology of resprouting and seeding in fire-prone
703 ecosystems. *New Phytologist*, 204(1), 55–65. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.12921>

704 Peterson, D. W., & Reich, P. B. (2007). Fire frequency and tree canopy structure influence plant species
705 diversity in a forest-grassland ecotone. *Plant Ecology*, 194(1), 5–16.
706 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-007-9270-4>

707 PRISM Climate Group, Oregon State University, <https://prism.oregonstate.edu>, accessed 19 September
708 2024.

709 Quintana-Ascencio, P. F. (2023). The importance of habitat heterogeneity. *Proceedings of the National
710 Academy of Sciences*, 120(42), e2314786120. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2314786120>

711 R Core Team. (2024). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for
712 Statistical Computing. <https://www.R-project.org>

713 Richardson, L. K., Nordstrom, S. W., Waananen, A., Thoen, R. D., Dykstra, A. B., Kiefer, G., Mullett, D. E.,
714 Eichenberger, E. G., Shaw, R. G., & Wagenius, S. (2024). Juvenile survival increases with dispersal

715 distance and varies across years: 15 years of evidence in a prairie perennial. *Ecology*, 105(7).

716 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.4331>

717 Richardson, L. K., & Wagenius, S. (2022). Fire influences reproductive outcomes by modifying flowering

718 phenology and mate-availability. *New Phytologist*, 233(5), 2083–2093.

719 <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.17923>

720 Satterthwaite, W. H., Menges, I. E. S., & Quintana-Ascencio, P. F. (2002). Assessing Scrub Buckwheat

721 population viability in relation to fire using multiple modeling techniques. *Ecological*

722 *Applications*, 12, 1672–1687.

723 Setterfield, S. A. (2002). Seedling establishment in an Australian tropical savanna: Effects of seed supply,

724 soil disturbance and fire. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 39(6), 949–959.

725 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2664.2002.00772.x>

726 Stewart, O. (2009). *Forgotten fires: Native Americans and the transient wilderness*. University of

727 Oklahoma Press.

728 Turnbull, L. A., Crawley, M. J., & Rees, M. (2000). Are plant populations seed-limited? A review of seed

729 sowing experiments. *Oikos*, 88(2), 225–238. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0706.2000.880201.x>

730 Tyler, C. M. (1995). Factors contributing to postfire seedling establishment in Chaparral: Direct and

731 indirect effects of fire. *The Journal of Ecology*, 83(6), 1009. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2261182>

732 Umbanhowar, C. E. (1996). Recent fire history of the Northern Great Plains. *American Midland*

733 *Naturalist*, 135(1), 115. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2426877>

734 Vacchiano, G., Pesendorfer, M. B., Conedera, M., Gratzer, G., Rossi, L., & Ascoli, D. (2021). Natural

735 disturbances and masting: From mechanisms to fitness consequences. *Philosophical*

736 *Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 376(1839), 20200384.

737 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2020.0384>

738 Vickery, P. (2002). Effects of prescribed fire on the reproductive ecology of Northern Blazing Star *Liatris*
739 *scariosa* var. *Novae-angliae*. *The American Midland Naturalist*, 148(1), 20–27.
740 [https://doi.org/10.1674/0003-0031\(2002\)148\[0020:EOPFOT\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1674/0003-0031(2002)148[0020:EOPFOT]2.0.CO;2)

741 Waananen, A., Richardson, L. K., Thoen, R. D., Nordstrom, S. W., Eichenberger, E. G., Kiefer, G., Dykstra,
742 A. B., Shaw, R. G., & Wagenius, S. (2024). High juvenile mortality overwhelms benefits of mating
743 potential for reproductive fitness. *The American Naturalist*, 203(6), E188–E199.
744 <https://doi.org/10.1086/730112>

745 Wagenius, S., Beck, J., & Kiefer, G. (2020). Fire synchronizes flowering and boosts reproduction in a
746 widespread but declining prairie species. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*,
747 117(6), 3000–3005. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1907320117>

748 Wagenius, S., Dykstra, A. B., Ridley, C. E., & Shaw, R. G. (2012). Seedling recruitment in the long-lived
749 perennial, *Echinacea angustifolia*: A 10-year experiment. *Restoration Ecology*, 20(3), 352–359.
750 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-100X.2011.00775.x>

751 Wernerehl, R. W., & Givnish, T. J. (2015). Relative roles of soil moisture, nutrient supply, depth, and
752 mechanical impedance in determining composition and structure of Wisconsin prairies. *PLOS
753 ONE*, 10(9), e0137963. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0137963>

754 Wickham, H. (2016). *ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. Springer-Verlag New York. ISBN 978-3-
755 319-24277-4, <https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org>.

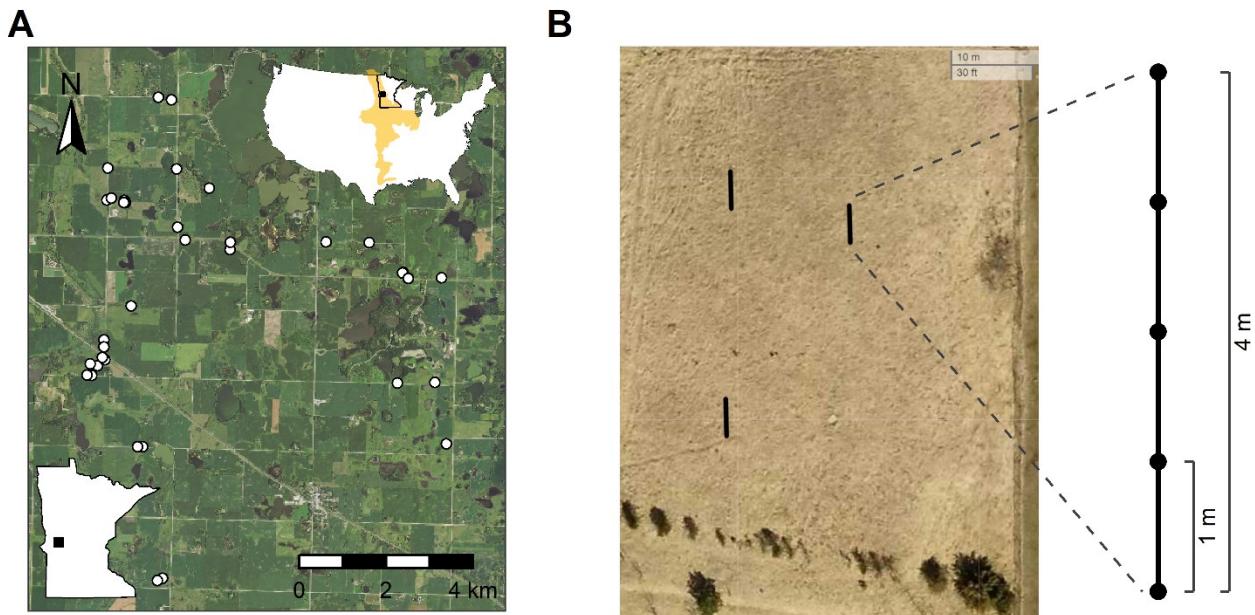
756

757

758 Table 1. Summary of sample sizes for each year and time-since-fire treatment in our seed addition
759 experiment. See Table S1 for detailed site information. All fires occurred in the spring and sowing in
760 November (fall). Note that 0 indicates that fires were conducted the spring after fall sowing (5 months)
761 and 1 indicates fires were conducted one spring before (9 months)

762

Years since fire	Sites	Transects	Seeds sown	Seedlings emerged
2023				
0	6	11	774	12 (1.6%)
1	5	13	619	60 (9.7%)
2	7	16	1108	60 (5.4%)
3	2	4	277	21 (7.6%)
4+	17	40	2686	125 (4.7%)
2024				
0	6	12	716	2 (0.3%)
1	6	10	630	155 (24.6%)
2	4	10	676	60 (8.9%)
3	6	14	917	120 (13.1%)
4+	16	37	2559	359 (14.0%)

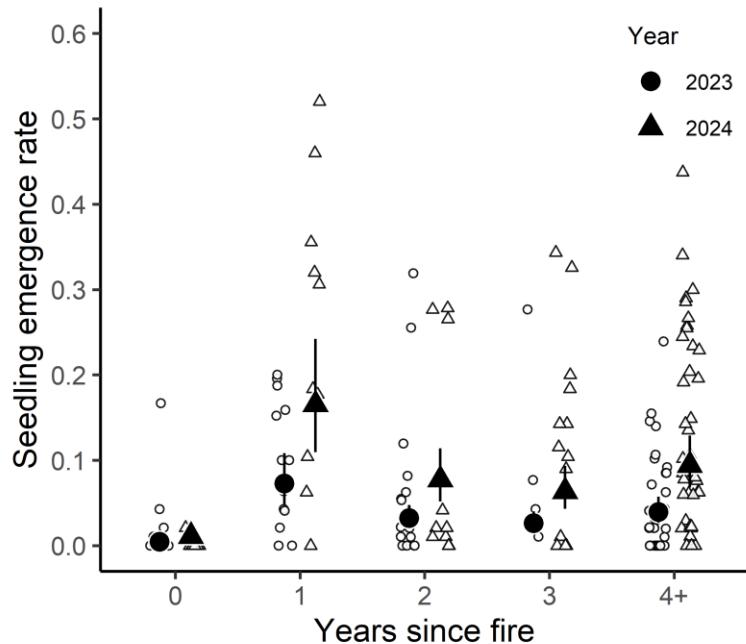


765

766 Fig. 1. Map depicting the location of study sites in western Minnesota, USA (A) and diagram illustrating
 767 placement of experimental transects within a site (B). In (A), white circles illustrate the $N = 36$ extant *E.*
 768 *angustifolia* populations included in our seed addition experiment. The upper right inset depicts the study
 769 location (black square) in relation to the historic extent of tallgrass prairie (shown in yellow). The lower
 770 left inset depicts location of study site within the state of Minnesota. In (B), aerial photo imagery
 771 illustrates the random placement of experimental transects within one of our study sites. The right inset
 772 depicts transect layout. Each transect includes four 1 m segments terminating with nails. We randomly
 773 selected one segment to be sown in fall 2022 and one segment to be sown with seeds in fall 2023. The
 774 randomly placed transects comprise an unbiased sample of locations that represents conditions
 775 experienced during seed dispersal and establishment in natural populations (Table 1). See Table S1 for
 776 information of study sites and Fig. S1 for summary of experimental burn treatments.

777

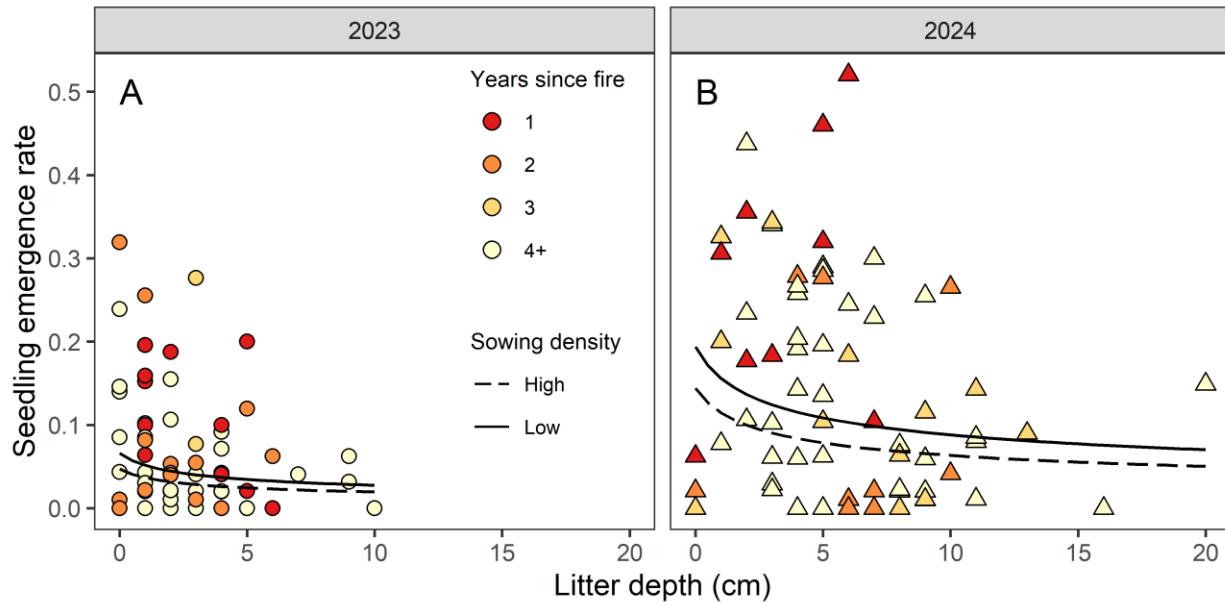
778



779

780 Fig. 2. Time since fire influences rates of *E. angustifolia* seedling emergence. Solid black points illustrate
 781 predicted mean emergence rates for each experimental treatment and year (see Table S2 for model
 782 selection). Small open points illustrate observed emergence per segment within transects (N = 84
 783 transects and N = 167 segments).

784



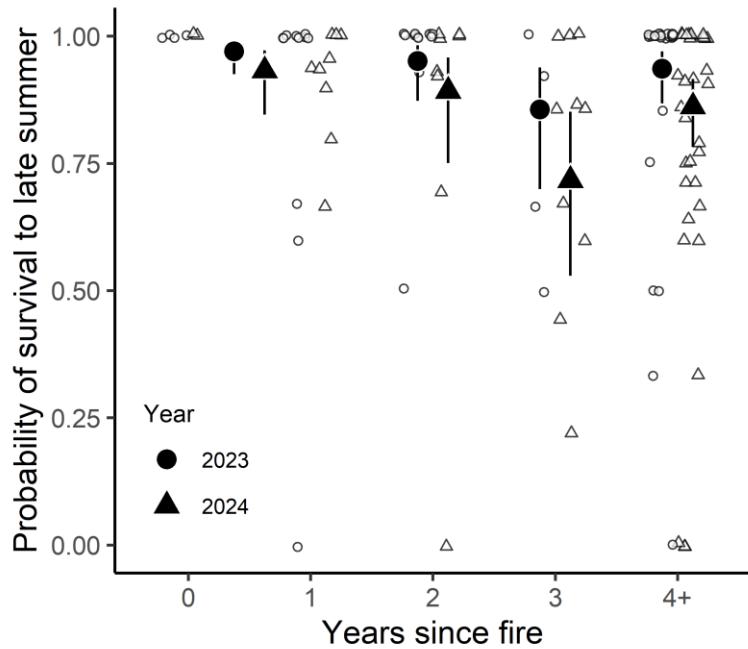
785

786

787 Fig. 3. Seedling emergence rates decline with increases in leaf litter, declined in the experimental high-
 788 density sowing treatment, and were lower in 2023 (A) compared to 2024 (B). Solid and dashed lines show
 789 predicted emergence for the low- and high-density sowing treatment, respectively. Small points depict
 790 observed emergence within transects (i.e., number of newly emerged seedlings found divided by number
 791 of seeds sown, $N= 84$ and 83 transects in 2023 and 2024 respectively) and are colored by experimental
 792 burn treatment. Note that litter depth, year, and sowing density were retained in the best performing
 793 statistical model while slope, aspect, and soil compaction were excluded (see Table S3 for model
 794 selection details). Also note that the 0 years since fire treatment was excluded due to direct mortality
 795 caused by fire.

796

797



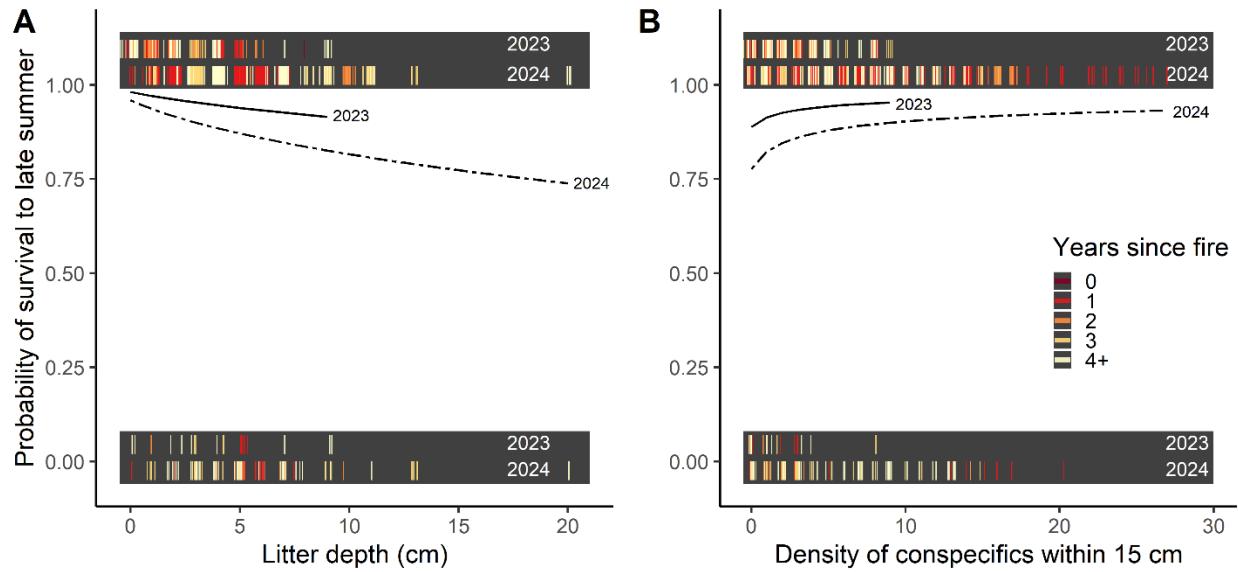
798

799

800 Fig. 4. Time since fire influences survival of *E. angustifolia* seedlings. Solid black points illustrate model-
 801 predicted survival rates for each treatment and year combination (based on N = 965 *E. angustifolia*
 802 seedlings). Small open points illustrate observed survival within transects (N = 84 transects). Note that we
 803 combined the 0- and 1-year treatments in our analysis due to the small sample size and lack of variation in
 804 the 0 years since fire treatment. See Table S4 for statistical summary.

805

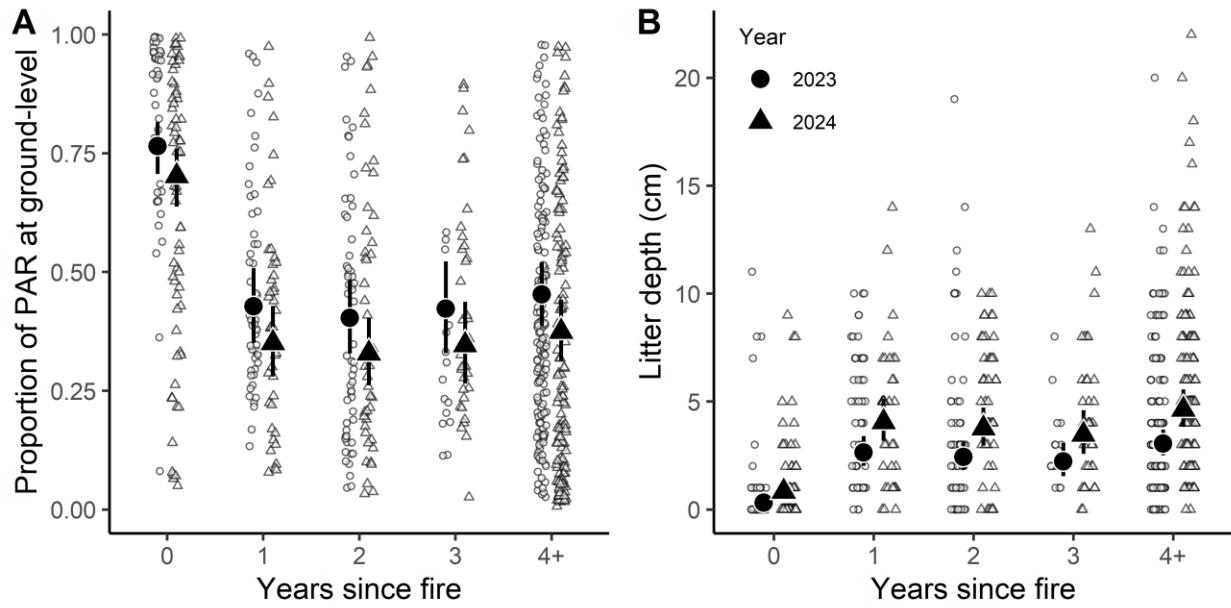
806



807

808

809 Fig. 5. Seedling survival to late summer declines with litter depth (A), increases with density of
 810 conspecific seedlings (B), and was greater in summer 2023 than summer 2024. Lines depict predictions
 811 from the best supported survival model (Table S3), the solid line depicts predicted survival rates from
 812 2023, and the dashed line depicts predicted survival rates from 2024. Colored tick marks at probability 1
 813 and 0 depict observed survival and mortality events, respectively. The upper and lower rows of ticks in
 814 each shaded box corresponds to observed survival and mortality events from summer 2023 and 2024
 815 respectively (N = 965 total *E. angustifolia* seedlings). Boxes were shaded and ticks were jittered to
 816 increase visibility. Note that litter depth, year, and conspecific seedling density were retained in the best
 817 performing model while slope, aspect, and soil compaction were excluded, see Table S5 for model
 818 selection details.



819

820 Fig. 6. Time since fire influences (A) the proportion of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR)
 821 available at ground level and (B) litter depth. Solid black points and lines depict estimated marginal
 822 predicted mean values with 95% confidence intervals for all combinations of year and experimental
 823 treatment levels (see Table S6 for statistical summary). Small open points represent observed
 824 measurements ($N = 656$ PAR measurements and $N = 664$ litter depth measurements from 84 transects and
 825 36 study sites). Observed points segregated by year and then jittered horizontally to increase visibility.

826