

Long-term consequences of plant-soil feedback in fire-maintained grasslands and savannas

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1 **Abstract**

2 Woody encroachment into grasslands and savannas is widespread and has wide-ranging
3 consequences. Past work suggests that positive feedbacks are a common feature of woody
4 encroachment, and emerging evidence points to the importance of soil microbes in this process.
5 For example, many encroaching plants associate with N-fixing bacteria or ectomycorrhizal fungi,
6 while herbaceous plants often accumulate self-limiting microbes. However, projecting the long-
7 term consequences of plant-soil feedbacks in natural systems that are simultaneously shaped by
8 disturbances like fire remains a challenge. We developed a mathematical framework for predicting
9 microbial impacts on vegetation dynamics in fire-maintained grasslands and parameterized this
10 model with data from a meta-analysis. We find that plant-soil feedbacks necessitate especially
11 frequent fire to maintain grassy communities and restrict the recovery of grass after woody
12 encroachment. In all, our model points to the importance of belowground processes in driving
13 woody encroachment and the urgent need for empirical data testing this process.

1. Introduction

14 Expansion of woody vegetation into grasslands and savannas has been widespread and consistent
15 over the last several decades and now affects an estimated 500 million hectares globally (Archer
16 *et al.* 2017; Deng *et al.* 2021; Ding & Eldridge 2024; Sala & Maestre 2014; Venter *et al.* 2018).
17 Woody plant encroachment has been documented in grassy biomes on every continent besides
18 Antarctica, including desert grasslands, semiarid and mesic savannas, and alpine and Arctic
19 tundra (Aguirre *et al.* 2021; Van Auken 2000; Bond & Midgley 2012; Britz & Ward 2007; Peng *et al.*
20 2013; Robinson *et al.* 2008; Romero Ovalle *et al.* 2021; Silapaswan *et al.* 2001; Tormo *et al.* 2020),
21 and it has far-reaching consequences. Increases in woody plant abundance are not only associated
22 with reduced herbaceous plant diversity (Ratajczak *et al.* 2012; Wieczorkowski & Lehmann 2022),
23 but can also restructure mammalian and herpetofaunal diversity, especially in less productive
24 ecosystems (Stanton *et al.* 2017). Woody encroachment also impacts ecosystem function (Eldridge
25 *et al.* 2011; Sala & Maestre 2014). In Patagonian rangelands, for example, vegetation structure (e.g.,
26 grass vs. shrub cover) has as strong of an impact as climatic drivers on variation in ecosystem
27 functions like net primary productivity and precipitation-use efficiency (Gaitán *et al.* 2014).
28 Finally, woody plant encroachment can impact human wellbeing, particularly among pastoralist
29 communities who rely on rangelands for subsistence and income (Ding & Eldridge 2024; Skhosana
30 *et al.* 2025). In all, understanding and managing woody plant encroachment represents a central
31 challenge for 21st century ecologists.

32 Despite considerable interest in understanding the processes giving rise to woody plant
33 encroachment, its global extent has precluded the development of a comprehensive framework of
34 its drivers (Archer *et al.* 2017; Deng *et al.* 2021). Part of the challenge is that both global and local
35 processes – including increased atmospheric CO₂, altered precipitation regimes, and changing
36 land use patterns – likely contribute to this phenomenon (Archer *et al.* 2017; Van Auken 2009;
37 Sankaran *et al.* 2005; Staver & Bond 2014; Wang *et al.* 2011). Although multiple processes likely
38 play a role in woody plant encroachment, one commonality across systems is that transitions
39 from herbaceous to woody vegetation tend to be spatially and temporally abrupt (D’Odorico *et al.*
40 2011), and often, encroachment is not reversible by woody plant removal (Ding & Eldridge
41 2022). These features suggest that positive feedbacks likely contribute to the development and
42 persistence of woody plant encroachment (Nowacki & Abrams 2008; Ratajczak *et al.* 2011; Wilson
43 & Agnew 1992).

44 Positive feedbacks in communities experiencing woody plant encroachment could arise
45 through various processes. In mesic grasslands especially, frequent fires can favor grasses due to
46 higher susceptibilities of woody plants' seedlings and saplings to fire, while long periods of fire
47 suppression allow woody plants to establish and reach maturity, preventing the spread of future
48 fire ("vegetation–fire feedback") (Baudena *et al.* 2009; N'Dri *et al.* 2018; Werner & Prior 2013). As
49 such, prescribed fire is a common management strategy for the maintenance of grassy systems
50 (Archer *et al.* 2017; Govender & Van Wilgen 2006). However, burgeoning evidence suggests
51 that positive feedbacks could also arise because many encroaching woody plants associate with
52 distinct fungal and bacterial symbionts (Sha *et al.* 2025), which could in turn affect vegetation
53 dynamics. Indeed, over the past several decades, an emerging paradigm in plant ecology positions
54 soil microbes as an "unseen majority" that drives a variety of plant community outcomes (Bever
55 *et al.* 2010; Van Der Heijden *et al.* 2007; Reynolds *et al.* 2003), including by driving feedback loops
56 in plant population dynamics (Bever *et al.* 1997; Kandlikar 2024).

57 Several lines of evidence point to the potential importance of plant–soil feedback in driving
58 woody plant encroachment. First, many woody species known to drive grassland conversion,
59 such as *Acacia*, *Prosopis*, *Vachellia*, *Ceanothus*, or *Alnus* species, associate with nitrogen-fixing
60 bacteria. In African savannas, for example, >90% of sites experiencing woody encroachment
61 feature woody species with nitrogen-fixing capacity (Stevens *et al.* 2017). Second, unlike grasses,
62 some woody species associate with ectomycorrhizal fungi (Soudzilovskaia *et al.* 2020), which can
63 protect plants against soilborne pathogens (Strobel & Sinclair 1992), and which tend to promote
64 positive feedback (Bennett *et al.* 2017; Song *et al.* 2026; Teste *et al.* 2017). In fact, ectomycorrhizal
65 association is over four times more common among woody plants that are specifically known to
66 encroach grassy systems ($\chi^2 = 58.8$, $p = 1.04e-12$; Supplement S1), suggesting that these associa-
67 tions may contribute to their dominance. Third, global meta-analyses have revealed that, unlike
68 woody plants, grasses and forbs tend to cultivate soil communities that suppress conspecific
69 plant growth (Jiang *et al.* 2024; Kulmatiski *et al.* 2008). This process of differential conditioning
70 and response can alter plant community composition by providing woody plants a competitive
71 advantage and enabling their encroachment into grassland systems (Bever *et al.* 1997; Crawford
72 *et al.* 2019; Kandlikar 2024).

73 In fire-prone communities, the impacts of plant–soil feedback may be further mediated by
74 fire (Hewitt *et al.* 2022; Revillini *et al.* 2021). Fire can disrupt plant–microbe interactions directly by
75 causing plant and/or microbial mortality and indirectly through changes to abiotic soil properties.

76 Though more empirical studies are needed (Kardol *et al.* 2022), emerging evidence suggests that
77 fire can weaken plant–soil feedbacks (Senior *et al.* 2018; Warneke *et al.* 2023), including neutral-
78 izing microbial self-limitation in grasses (Hopkins & Bennet 2024). On the other hand, severe
79 wildfires can have long-lasting impacts on ectomycorrhizal fungal communities (Pulido-Chavez *et*
80 *al.* 2021), which could disrupt woody-favoring positive feedbacks. Further, recent theoretical and
81 empirical advances have shown that plant–soil feedbacks strengthen over a host plant’s lifetime
82 and that microbial legacies can persist for years after host death (Ke *et al.* 2025; Magee *et al.* 2025).
83 As a result, variation in the frequency and intensity of fires relative to the rates of conditioning
84 and decay of microbial feedbacks could impact the development and consequences of plant–soil
85 feedback in grasslands experiencing woody encroachment.

86 Here, we seek to systematically explore how soil microbes could impact woody plant
87 encroachment. To do so, we develop a mathematical model for microbially mediated vegeta-
88 tion dynamics in fire-prone systems and parameterize the model with realistic estimates of
89 intraspecific feedback for grasses and woody plants that we derive through a meta-analysis of
90 experimental data. With this framework, we answer the following questions: (1) Under what
91 scenarios of microbial effects can grasses and woody plants both persist? (2) What impact do
92 plant–soil microbial feedbacks have on the fire regimes that can maintain grassy systems? (3) How
93 do soil microbes alter the conditions under which woody plant encroachment can be reversed
94 with fire-based management?

2. Methods

2.1. Empirical patterns of woody plant encroachment

95 To establish an empirical basis for microbial contributions to woody plant encroachment, we built
96 on Ding & Eldridge (2022)’s global meta-analysis, for which the authors had identified the most
97 dominant encroaching woody plant species in 243 studies of woody encroachment. We began by
98 expanding this database to include additional woody and grass species identified in the original
99 studies. We then paired this expanded database of woody encroachment with another global
100 database of plant–soil feedback studies that included nearly 6,000 estimates of plant growth in
101 self-conditioned versus non-self-conditioned soil (Jiang *et al.* 2024). We then conducted a meta-
102 regression to quantify the degree to which soil microbes generate positive or negative feedback
103 among the identified woody species and grasses. This Bayesian mixed-effects model included
104 growth form as a fixed effect, and a random intercept for study with species nested within.
105 The model was fit with weakly informative priors in brms (see Supplement S2 for details and

106 model diagnostics). We then projected the long-term dynamical consequences of these empirical
 107 estimates of intraspecific feedback using a patch occupancy model, described below.

2.2. Modeling approach

108 Our approach builds on a patch occupancy model for plant-soil feedback (Ke & Levine 2021),
 109 which we modified to evaluate the role of soil microbes in shaping plant community dynamics
 110 in fire-prone grassland systems (Fig. 1A). This framework assumes that the landscape can be
 111 characterized as comprising an infinite number of patches, each of which can be occupied by
 112 one plant (here, either a grass or woody plant). Reflecting empirical evidence that woody species
 113 vary in their reproductive capacity and fire sensitivity across life stages (Hoffmann *et al.* 2019;
 114 Sankaran *et al.* 2005; Werner & Prior 2013), and consistent with past models of tree-grass dynamics
 115 in savannas (Baudena *et al.* 2009), we model the dynamics of woody species with a two-stage life
 116 history (nonreproductive seedlings, denoted σ , and reproductive adults, denoted s). Grasses are
 117 not assumed to have stage structure. Each patch also hosts a soil microbial community, which
 118 is either in a “background” state, or which represents the conditioning effect of a grass or a
 119 woody plant. We use the notation P_{ij} to refer to the proportion of patches that are occupied by
 120 plant i ($i = g, \sigma, s$, indicating grass, woody seedling, or woody adult) and harbor soil microbial
 121 community j ($j = g, s$, indicating grass-conditioned or woody-conditioned soils). i and j can also
 122 be 0, representing patches that are empty or that have a baseline (unconditioned) soil community,
 123 respectively. As the system of equations describes the dynamics of each patch type in terms of its
 124 proportion, the sum of all P_{ij} at each timestep is always 1.

125 Our framework assumes that plants can only establish into patches that are currently unoc-
 126 cupied, i.e., plants cannot displace established individuals from their patches. This assumption
 127 is consistent with empirical evidence that in savannas and grasslands, established grasses tend
 128 to limit the survival and growth of woody plant seedlings (Hoffmann *et al.* 2009; Riginos 2009),
 129 and conversely, that grass establishment is suppressed near woody plants (Köchy & Wilson 2000;
 130 Peters 2002). Rates of establishment into empty patches are determined by the frequency of
 131 grasses and woody adults, as well as by the soil microbial status of the patch. In other words, our
 132 model assumes that soil microbes primarily impact plants by altering the establishment process
 133 (which encompasses both germination and growth immediately after germination), rather than
 134 by affecting adult survival or reproduction. This assumption is consistent with the broader field of
 135 plant-soil feedback, which has traditionally focused on microbial effects on biomass accumulation
 136 rates of young plants (Ke *et al.* 2025). The model also assumes that there is no explicit spatial
 137 structuring within the landscape, and that each individual of a given species and stage is equally

138 likely to experience mortality or contribute to establishment in other patches (there is no genetic
139 variation).

2.2.1. Model dynamics in the absence of fire

140 Patches that are unoccupied and have a unconditioned (or baseline) soil community (i.e., P_{00} ,
141 Eqn. 1) can become occupied by either a grass or woody plant at a species-specific establishment
142 rate r_i , proportional to the prevalence of reproductive individuals and of unoccupied patches. In
143 patches that are currently unoccupied but whose soils have the microbial legacy of a previous
144 plant resident (i.e., P_{0g} and P_{0s} , Eqns. 2-3), establishment rates r_i are further modified by the soil
145 community j ($m_{ij} > 1$ indicating that microbial community j increases plant i 's establishment
146 rate relative to its establishment in unconditioned soils, and vice-versa for $m_{ij} < 1$). The preva-
147 lence of unoccupied patches increases with plant mortality (μ_i), and is also affected by the decay
148 rate of conditioned soils (d_j). These dynamics are formalized as follows:

$$\frac{dP_{00}}{dt} = \overbrace{-r_s P_{00}(P_{ss})}^{\text{woody establishment}} - \overbrace{r_g P_{00}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment}} + \overbrace{\mu_g P_{g0} + \mu_\sigma P_{\sigma 0}}^{\text{mortality in unconditioned patch}} + \overbrace{d_g P_{0g} + d_s P_{0s}}^{\text{microbial decay in unoccupied patch}} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{dP_{0g}}{dt} = \overbrace{-r_g m_{gg} P_{0g}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment}} - \overbrace{r_s m_{sg} P_{0g}(P_{ss})}^{\text{woody establishment}} + \overbrace{\mu_g P_{gg} + \mu_\sigma P_{\sigma g}}^{\text{mortality in grass-conditioned patch}} - \overbrace{d_g P_{0g}}^{\text{microbial decay}} \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP_{0s}}{dt} = & \overbrace{-r_s m_{ss} P_{0s}(P_{ss})}^{\text{woody establishment}} - \overbrace{r_g m_{gs} P_{0s}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment}} + \\ & \overbrace{\mu_s P_{ss} + \mu_\sigma P_{\sigma s} + \mu_g P_{gs}}^{\text{mortality in woody-conditioned patch}} - \overbrace{d_s P_{0s}}^{\text{microbial decay}} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

149 Patches with a grass or a woody plant present but that have an unconditioned soil community (i.e.,
150 P_{g0} , $P_{\sigma 0}$, Eqns. 4-5) arise when the corresponding plant species establishes into an unconditioned
151 patch. Mortality in these patches returns them to P_{00} , while plant conditioning (or in the case of
152 woody plants, conditioning and growth), which occurs at a rate c_i , alters the microbial status of
153 the patch.

$$\frac{dP_{g0}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_g P_{00}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment in unconditioned patch}} - \overbrace{\mu_g P_{g0}}^{\text{grass mortality}} - \overbrace{c_g P_{g0}}^{\text{grass conditioning}} \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{dP_{\sigma 0}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_s P_{00}(P_{ss})}^{\text{woody establishment in unconditioned patch}} - \overbrace{\mu_{\sigma} P_{\sigma 0}}^{\text{woody mortality}} - \overbrace{c_s P_{\sigma 0}}^{\text{woody conditioning}} \quad (5)$$

154 The prevalence of patches occupied by a grass or a woody plant and with a corresponding
 155 grass- or woody-conditioned soil microbial community (i.e., P_{gg} , $P_{\sigma s}$, and P_{ss} , Eqns. 6–8) grows
 156 due to plant establishment in to previously conditioned patches or due to plant conditioning of
 157 baseline soil, and declines due to plant mortality. The prevalence of woody seedlings on woody-
 158 conditioned soils ($P_{\sigma s}$) also decreases as these plants mature into reproductive adults, which we
 159 assume occurs at the same rate at which woody plants condition soils (c_s).

$$\frac{dP_{gg}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_g m_{gg} P_{0g}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment in grass-conditioned patch}} + \overbrace{c_g(P_{g0} + P_{gs})}^{\text{conditioning}} - \overbrace{\mu_g P_{gg}}^{\text{mortality}} \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{dP_{\sigma s}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_s m_{ss} P_{0s} P_{ss}}^{\text{woody establishment in woody-conditioned patch}} - \overbrace{c_s P_{\sigma s}}^{\text{growth into adult stage}} - \overbrace{\mu_{\sigma} P_{\sigma s}}^{\text{mortality}} \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{dP_{ss}}{dt} = \overbrace{c_s(P_{\sigma 0} + P_{\sigma g})}^{\text{conditioning by and growth of woody seedlings}} + \overbrace{c_s(P_{\sigma s})}^{\text{growth of woody seedlings}} - \overbrace{\mu_s P_{ss}}^{\text{mortality}} \quad (8)$$

160 Finally, the prevalence of patches occupied by a grass or a woody plant but that have the soil
 161 community of the other species (i.e., P_{gs} or $P_{\sigma g}$, Eqns. 9–10) grows due to plant establishment
 162 into conditioned patches and decreases due to plant conditioning and mortality.

$$\frac{dP_{gs}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_g m_{gs} P_{0s}(P_{g0} + P_{gg} + P_{gs})}^{\text{grass establishment in woody-conditioned patch}} - \overbrace{\mu_g P_{gs}}^{\text{mortality}} - \overbrace{c_g P_{gs}}^{\text{conditioning}} \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{dP_{\sigma g}}{dt} = \overbrace{r_s m_{sg} P_{0g}(P_{ss})}^{\text{woody establishment in grass-conditioned patch}} - \overbrace{\mu_{\sigma} P_{\sigma g}}^{\text{mortality}} - \overbrace{c_s P_{\sigma g}}^{\text{conditioning}} \quad (10)$$

163 Model parameters used in simulations are provided in Table 1.

2.2.2. Impacts of fire

164 We model fires as discrete events that alter the relative frequencies of patches. Broadly, plant and
 165 microbial mortality due to fire of intensity f follows a logistic distribution (Fig. 1B–D), reflecting
 166 that many plants in fire-maintained ecosystems may lose their aboveground biomass (“topkill”)
 167 but resprout after a low-intensity fire (Hoffmann *et al.* 2009; Pausas *et al.* 2015). Patches that
 168 experience plant mortality also lose any microbial conditioning, such that these patches return
 169 to P_{00} . Soils in unoccupied patches with a legacy-conditioned effect also decay to P_{00} , with both
 170 following a logistic distribution. In this spatially implicit implementation, a low intensity fire
 171 could represent a low temperature fire that causes little mortality or a heterogeneous fire that
 172 only burns some areas (Fill & Crandall 2023). We directly impose a fire frequency and intensity to
 173 isolate potential microbial impacts on vegetation structure in a fire-prone system. This approach
 174 has the additional benefit of emulating management with prescribed fire.

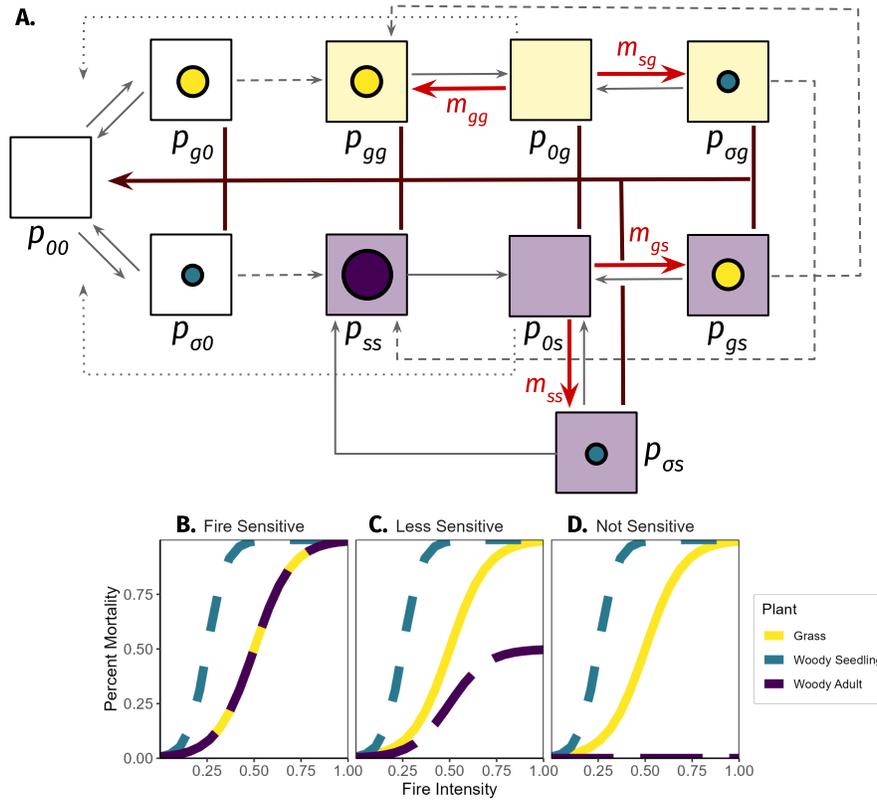
175 Within this framework, we evaluate the role of microbes in shaping plant community
 176 dynamics under three scenarios that capture variation in woody adults’ fire sensitivities. In all
 177 scenarios, the logistic function relating fire intensity to plant mortality is parameterized such that
 178 a fire of intensity 0.5 causes 50% mortality of the grass, and woody seedlings are more sensitive to
 179 fire than are grasses (50% mortality at a fire intensity of 0.25). The fire sensitivity of woody adults
 180 varies across the three scenarios, each reflecting empirical trends.

181 In the first scenario, woody adults experience mortality due to fire at the same rate that grasses
 182 do (Fig. 1B). This case corresponds to dwarf shrubs and semi-shrubs like *Vaccinium* spp. in the
 183 Arctic and *Sarcopoterium spinosum* in the Mediterranean steppe, which can be susceptible to fire
 184 even as adults (Henkin *et al.* 1999; Narita *et al.* 2015). In the second scenario, woody adults are
 185 half as sensitive to fire as grasses (Fig. 1C). This case corresponds to shrubs or small trees that
 186 may partially escape fire as adults, such as *Vachellia drepanolobium* in eastern African woodlands
 187 and savannas (LaMalfa *et al.* 2019). In the third scenario, woody adults are totally insensitive to
 188 fire, experiencing zero mortality (Fig. 1D). This corresponds to trees that escape the “fire trap”
 189 through vertical growth, self-pruning, and/or thick bark, especially in surface fire systems like
 190 the Brazilian cerrado and longleaf pine savanna (Hoffmann *et al.* 2019).

2.2.3. Numerical simulations

191 We ran simulations in Julia (Bezanson *et al.* 2017) version 1.11.5, using the packages
 192 ParameterizedFunctions, DifferentialEquations, and DataFrames (Bouchet-Valat & Kamiński
 193 2023; Rackauckas & Nie 2017). Numerical solutions were generated using Tsit5(), an efficient
 194 fifth-order Runge-Kutta method (Tsitouras 2011). Fires were implemented with a preset time

195 callback function, which allows for changes to state variables at specified instances. Fire years
 196 were randomly sampled over the given timespan based on the specified fire frequency. We used
 197 JuliaCall (Li 2019) in R version 4.4.2 to execute the Julia code, running each simulation with fire
 198 100 times for 2000 timesteps.



199
 200 **Figure 1: Overview of model dynamics.** Panel A illustrates transitions between patch types, which
 201 are defined by plant status (no circle, yellow circle, small blue circle, or large purple circle, representing
 202 empty, grass, woody seedling, or woody adult presence) and soil microbial status (white, yellow, or purple
 203 backgrounds, representing unconditioned, grass-conditioned, or woody-conditioned soils respectively).
 204 Soil microbial conditioning affects establishment rates of plants (transitions indicated with red arrows).
 205 Solid gray lines indicate transitions caused by plant establishment or death, dashed gray arrows indicate
 206 transitions caused by microbial conditioning, and dotted gray arrows indicate transitions caused by the
 207 decay of conditioned soil microbes. Solid brown arrows indicate transitions caused by fire. Panels B–D
 208 illustrate three scenarios of varying fire sensitivity of grasses (solid yellow line), woody seedlings (blue
 209 dashed line), or woody adults (purple dashed line). Grass and woody seedlings’ fire sensitivities are the
 210 same across all scenarios, but woody adults are either equally sensitive to fire as grasses (Panel B), half as
 211 fire-sensitive as grasses (C), or are fire insensitive (D).

Table 1: Model parameters and values used in simulations (unless otherwise indicated). We explore three sets of values for m_{gg} and m_{ss} ($m_{gg} = m_{ss} = 1$; $m_{gg} = 0.87, m_{ss} = 1$; or $m_{gg} = 0.87, m_{ss} = 1.12$), as explained in Section 3.1.

Parameter	Units	Value	Definition
r_g	year ⁻¹	1.00	Grass establishment rate
r_s	year ⁻¹	1.55	Woody establishment rate
μ_g	year ⁻¹	0.10	Grass mortality rate
μ_s	year ⁻¹	0.10	Woody adult mortality rate
μ_σ	year ⁻¹	0.10	Woody seedling mortality rate
d_g	year ⁻¹	0.25	Grass microbial decay rate
d_s	year ⁻¹	0.25	Woody microbial decay rate
c_g	year ⁻¹	0.20	Grass conditioning rate
c_s	year ⁻¹	1.55	Woody conditioning rate and growth rate of woody seedlings
m_{gs}	unitless	1.00	Impact of woody microbial community on grass establishment
m_{sg}	unitless	1.00	Impact of grass microbial community on woody establishment

3. Model Analysis and Results

3.1. Empirical estimates of model parameters

Our meta-analysis revealed that grass species that are being encroached tend to experience self-limiting microbial feedbacks (lnRR = -0.14, crI = -0.28 - 0.00, corresponding to $\widetilde{m}_{gg} = 0.87$). Encroaching woody plant species tend to experience self-facilitating feedbacks (lnRR = 0.11, crI = -0.15 - 0.37, corresponding to $\widetilde{m}_{ss} = 1.12$; Table 2), but there was more uncertainty in this estimate. Thus, after exploring how variation in m_{gg} and m_{ss} terms impact model dynamics in our first analysis (Fig. 2A), we explore the consequences of varying fire regime assuming soil-mediated self-limitation among grasses ($m_{gg} = 0.87$). Reflecting broader uncertainty in the strength of conspecific feedback among woody plants, we explore both neutral and self-facilitating microbial effects on their establishment ($m_{ss} = 1$ or $m_{ss} = 1.12$). Given limited empirical estimates for microbially mediated grass-woody interaction coefficients (Supplement S2), we assume neutral inter-specific feedback, i.e., $m_{sg} = m_{gs} = 1$.

We assume that patches become host-conditioned after 5 years and that microbial legacies in unoccupied patches decay over 4 years, estimates that fall within the range of empirically

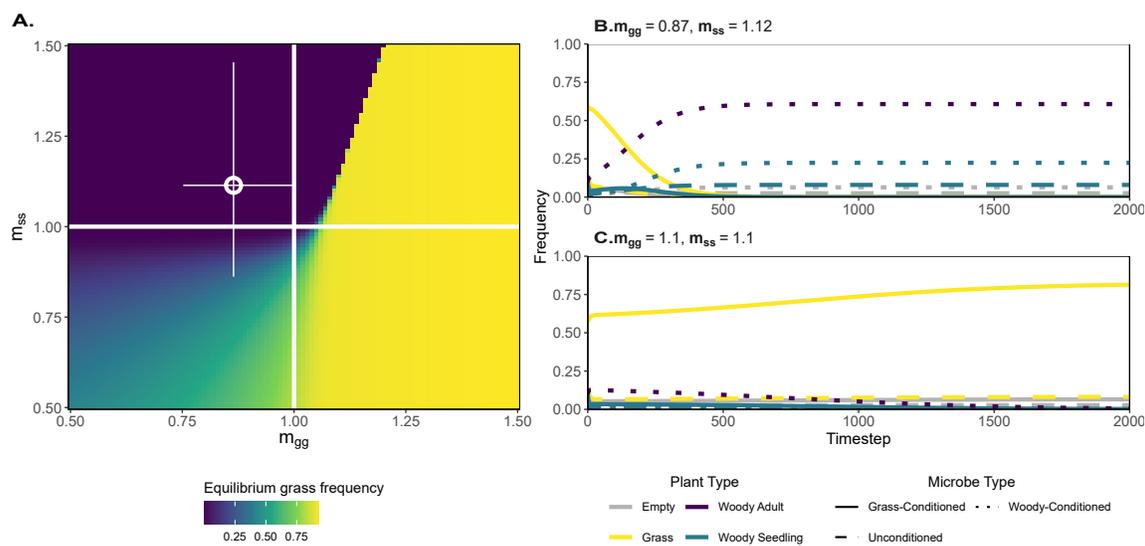
242 measurements of these processes (Ke & Levine 2021; Magee *et al.* 2025). Finally, the historic fire
 243 frequency in grasslands and savannas can range from every 1–5 years to decadal intervals (Frost
 244 1993; Govender & Van Wilgen 2006), so we consider high frequency fire to be every 2 timesteps
 245 and low frequency fire to be every 50 timesteps. All parameter values used in our analyses are
 246 presented in Table 1.

247 **Table 2:** Model estimates for intraspecific feedback of grasses and woody plants. For each, the model
 248 estimate and credible interval is provided, first as the original log response ratio and then in the exponen-
 249 tiated forms corresponding to m_{gg} and m_{ss} . The number of unique studies and species in the meta-analysis
 250 for each plant type is also shown.

251	Growth form	Effect size	Exponentiated	Studies	Species
252		(LRR)	effect size		
253	Grass	-0.14	0.87	318	26
254		(-0.285 – 0.002)	(0.75 – 1)		
255	Woody	0.11	1.12	47	12
256		(-0.149 – 0.374)	(0.86 – 1.45)		

3.2. Plant community dynamics in the absence of fire

257 Variation in microbial impacts on host plant growth (m_{ii}) leads to qualitatively different outcomes
 258 in terms of grass and woody plant persistence. Grass generally dominates when $m_{gg} > 1$ (yellow
 259 region in Fig. 2A), and microbial effects stabilize coexistence when both m_{gg} and m_{ss} are less than
 260 1. However, the average empirically observed impact of the conspecifically conditioned microbial
 261 community is self-facilitating for woody plants and self-limiting for grasses (white point in Fig.
 262 1A), which generates a woody-dominated system. The time series in Fig. 1B–C show the dynamics
 263 of each of the ten patch types; these are aggregated by plant species to generate grass and woody
 264 plant frequencies throughout the results.



265

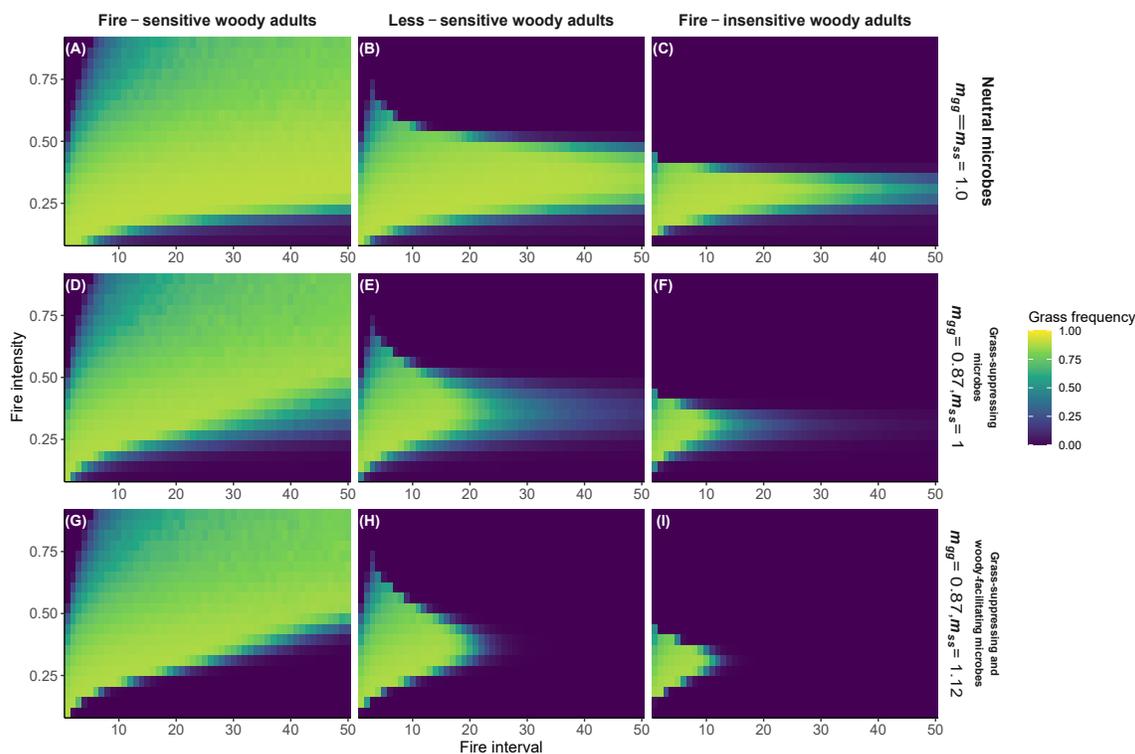
266 **Figure 2: Impacts of microbially mediated patch establishment on grass-woody plant dynamics**
 267 **in the absence of fire.** Panel A shows the equilibrium grass frequency across combinations of m_{gg} and
 268 m_{ss} . The white point and standard errors show the results of a meta-analysis of m_{ii} values from resident
 269 grass and encroaching woody plant species that have been identified in studies of woody plant encroachment
 270 (see Supplement S2). Panels B and C show patch dynamics over time for two combinations of m_{gg}
 271 and m_{ss} . To generate frequencies in panel A, the sum of the frequencies of each grass patch type (p_{g0} , p_{gg} ,
 272 and p_{gs}) were averaged over the last 50 timesteps. These simulations show model dynamics for baseline
 273 grass establishment rate (i.e., in unconditioned soil) of $r_g = 1$ and baseline woody plant establishment rate
 274 of $r_s = 1.55$; values used for other parameters are provided in Table 1. See Fig. S1 for an exploration of
 275 r impacts on model behavior. Bistability emerges when both grasses and shrubs condition self-facilitating
 276 soils; see Figs. S2 and S3 for details.

3.3. Microbial mediation of fire impacts on plant communities

277 For our chosen parameter values (Table 1) and fire sensitivities (Fig. 1B–D), frequent and low-
 278 intensity fires are necessary to maintain grassy communities even in the absence of microbial
 279 feedbacks (Fig. 3A–C). As woody adults become less sensitive to fire, the set of fire regimes that
 280 maintain grassy plant communities become increasingly constrained. Irrespective of their fire
 281 sensitivity, woody plants dominate in systems with infrequent, low-intensity fires (narrow purple
 282 strip at the bottom of Fig. 3A–C; see also Fig. S4). When woody adults are less fire-sensitive than
 283 grasses, they also dominate under infrequent, high-intensity fires (Fig. 3B–C). Neither grasses nor
 284 woody plants persist under frequent and high intensity fires (top-left corner of each panel in Figs.
 285 3 and S4) except when woody adults are totally insensitive to fire (Fig. S4C).

286 Accounting for grass microbial feedbacks further reduces the fire regimes under which
 287 grass is maintained (Fig. 3D–F). Specifically, when woody adults are fire-sensitive, microbial
 288 feedbacks increase the minimum fire intensities required to maintain grassy plant communities

289 for a given fire interval. Additionally, when woody adults are less fire-sensitive than grasses (Fig.
 290 3E–F), the fire intervals must be far more frequent under microbial mediation of grass dynamics
 291 to maintain grassiness. Further accounting for self-facilitating woody microbial feedbacks (Fig.
 292 3G–I) additionally constrains which fire regimes maintain grassy communities, requiring even
 293 higher-intensity fires for a given interval when woody plants are fire-sensitive and even more
 294 frequent fires when they are less sensitive than grasses.

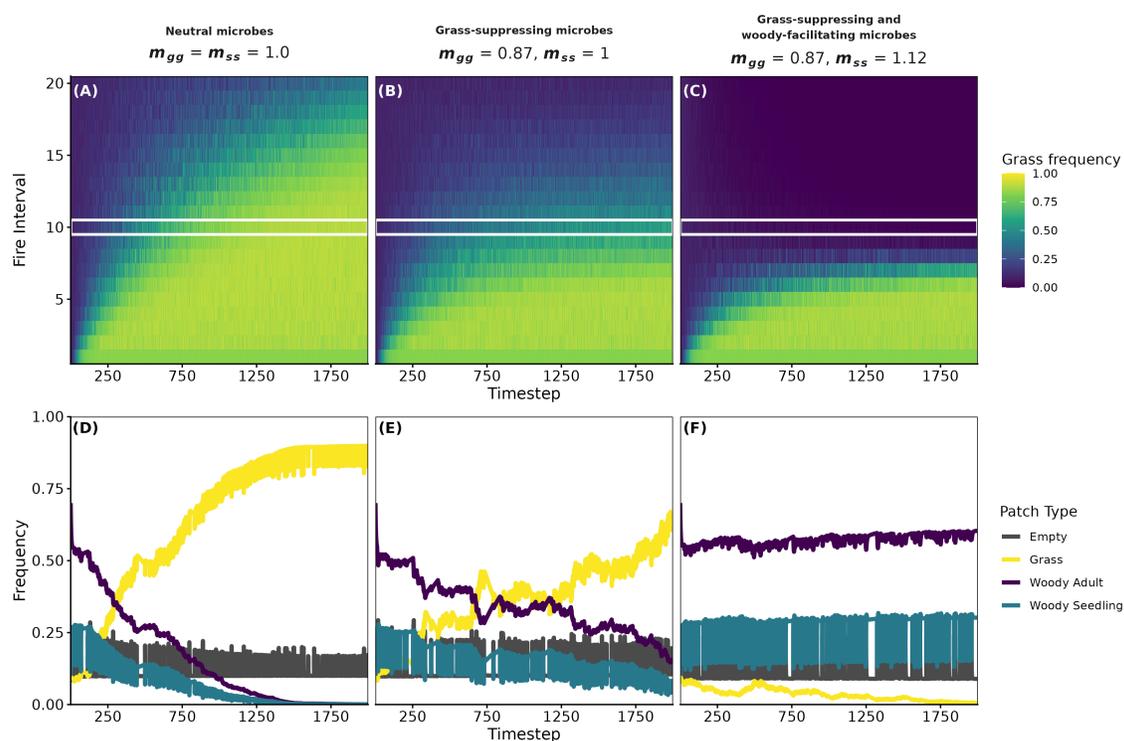


295
 296 **Figure 3: Woody plant-facilitating microbial feedbacks restrict the fire regimes that permit grass**
 297 **persistence.** Each panel shows grass frequencies at 2000 timesteps under variable fire regimes (varying fire
 298 frequency and fire intensity within each panel) and under varying effects of fire on woody adult mortality
 299 (across different columns). Plots in the the top row shows grass frequencies assuming no microbial feed-
 300 backs (i.e., all m terms equal to 1); plots in the middle row show grass frequencies assuming that microbes
 301 generate negative intraspecific feedbacks for grasses and have neutral impacts on woody plants; plots in
 302 the bottom row show grass frequencies assuming microbes generate both negative intraspecific feedbacks
 303 for grasses and have positive intraspecific feedbacks for woody plants, as indicated by our meta-analysis
 304 (Supplement S2, $m_{gg} = 0.87$; $m_{ss} = 1.12$; $m_{gs} = m_{sg} = 1$). In Panels **A, D, and G**, mature woody plants
 305 are as fire-sensitive as grasses (as in Fig. 1B). In panels **B, E, and H**, woody adults are half as fire-sensitive
 306 as grasses (as in Fig. 1C). In panels **C, F, and I** woody adults are insensitive to fire (as in Fig. 1D).

3.4. Impacts of microbes on grassland restoration

307 We next evaluated how microbial feedbacks modify the fire frequencies necessary to recover
 308 grass-dominated communities after woody plant encroachment has occurred. To do so, we

309 conducted simulations in which the initial conditions of the community represented a woody-
 310 dominated system ($p_{ss} = 0.7$), and evaluated the temporal dynamics of grass recovery under
 311 different fire frequencies (intensity = 0.25). Generally, we find that more frequent application
 312 of low-intensity fires leads to more rapid grass recovery (more rapid transitions from purple to
 313 yellow in Fig. 4A–C). Moreover, we find that self-limiting grass microbial effects substantially
 314 constrain the set of fire frequencies under which grassy restoration is possible, regardless of
 315 whether microbial feedbacks are neutral ($m_{gg} = 0.87; m_{ss} = 1.0$; Fig. 4B) or positive ($m_{gg} =$
 316 $0.87; m_{ss} = 1.12$, as indicated by our meta-analysis; Fig. 4C) for woody plants. In Fig. 4, we assume
 317 that adult woody plants are fire-insensitive, but we verified that microbes consistently constrain
 318 the conditions for grass restoration regardless of woody adult fire sensitivities (Fig. S5).



319

320 **Figure 4: Dynamics of grass recovery after woody encroachment under variable fire regimes**
 321 **and varying plant-microbe interactions.** Panels A–C show overall grass frequency over time (x-axis)
 322 under variable fire intervals (y-axis), assuming microbes give rise neutral or woody-favoring feedbacks. In
 323 Panel A, $m_{gg} = m_{ss} = 1$; in Panel B, $m_{gg} = 0.87$ and $m_{ss} = 1$; in Panel C, $m_{gg} = 0.87$ and $m_{ss} = 1.11$,
 324 as indicated in our meta-analysis. Panels D–F illustrate time series of grass and woody plant dynamics at
 325 a fire interval of 10 timesteps under three corresponding scenarios of microbial impacts (white horizontal
 326 rectangles in Panels A–C). In all scenarios shown here, woody adults are insensitive to fire; see Fig. S5 for
 327 dynamics under other scenarios of woody adult sensitivity to fire.

4. Discussion

328 Woody plant encroachment is widespread in grassy biomes worldwide, with important implica-
329 tions for biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. Here we evaluate the interactive roles of
330 plant–soil feedback and managed fire regimes in shaping the dynamics and reversibility of woody
331 encroachment. By combining theory and data, we find that soil microbial feedbacks commonly
332 limit grass growth and favor woody plants (Fig. 2), and can sharply constrain which fire regimes
333 maintain grassy communities (Fig. 3). This pattern was consistent across a range of potential
334 woody adult fire responses, each chosen for their ecological relevance. This consistency suggests
335 that microbe-mediated feedbacks could have important implications for many fire-prone systems,
336 including both savannas with fire-escaping trees and grasslands with smaller-statured shrubs.
337 Further, we find that strong microbial feedbacks can impede restoration of already encroached
338 systems, requiring more frequent fire to recover grassy states. Even when grass recovery is
339 possible, stronger woody-favoring microbial feedbacks require more successive fires for conver-
340 sion back to a grassy state, meaning recovery is slowed (Fig. 4). In all, our work points to the
341 potentially transformative role of soil microbial feedbacks in shaping vegetation dynamics in fire-
342 prone biomes experiencing woody plant encroachment.

343 Previous models of savanna-forest transitions have emphasized the role of periodic fire in
344 maintaining a grassland state, particularly in less arid climates. These have mostly focused on
345 vegetation–fire feedback, in which vegetation structure both depends on and alters fire properties
346 like frequency, intensity, or percolation (Baudena *et al.* 2009; D’Odorico *et al.* 2006; Magnani *et al.*
347 2023). Our results suggest that qualitatively similar outcomes regarding the importance of fire for
348 the maintenance of grassy vegetation can also arise due to plants’ conditioning and responding to
349 the soil environment. The distinct soil microbial associations of grasses vs. woody plants suggest
350 a key role for the soil microbiome in this process, but plant impacts on abiotic soil properties,
351 including those that are commonly evaluated under the “fertile island” framework (Schlesinger *et al.*
352 1996), could in principle give rise to similar dynamics, provided that grasses and woody plants
353 respond differently to these soil changes. Regardless of the mechanism driving the feedback, fires
354 appear to increase the range of conditions in which both grasses and woody plants coexist. Our
355 model also corroborates frequent empirical observations of higher frequency fire regimes than
356 the historic norm being necessary for grassland restoration (Case & Staver 2016).

357 Although we parameterized our model with estimates grounded in empirical data, this work
358 underscores the need for further experimentation on plant–soil feedbacks in fire-prone systems,

359 particularly between grasses and woody plants. While most studies of plant–soil feedbacks have
360 taken place in grasslands (Kulmatiski *et al.* 2008), including in fire-maintained systems like the
361 North American prairie, they have focused on interactions within the same plant functional type.
362 We know comparably little about microbially mediated grass–woody plant interactions (m_{gs} and
363 m_{sg} in our model). For example, out of 1036 pairwise interactions in a recent meta-analysis of
364 pairwise plant–soil feedback, only 49 directly evaluated feedbacks between an herbaceous and
365 a woody plant species (Yan *et al.* 2022) (Supplement S2). In the absence of strong empirical
366 data, we assumed neutral microbially mediated grass–woody interactions in our analyses, but
367 other theoretical work on plant–soil feedback has shown that interspecific interactions play an
368 important role in determining microbially mediated species coexistence dynamics (Kandlikar
369 2024). This suggests that empirically quantifying microbial mediation of both intra- and inter-
370 specific interactions in communities of concern will provide vital insights into microbial impacts
371 on woody encroachment and the success of fire-based restoration.

372 Our results suggest several further avenues for future theoretical research that are likely to
373 yield important insights. First, our analysis assumes that the frequency and intensity of fire are
374 independent of the vegetation structure – an assumption that more closely reflects fire dynamics
375 in systems actively managed with fire (e.g., periodic lower-intensity prescribed burns) than in
376 plant communities where fires arise and are allowed to proceed naturally (Boer *et al.* 2009; Fill
377 & Crandall 2023; Govender & Van Wilgen 2006). In such ecosystems, higher flammability of
378 grasses could result in more frequent and contiguous fires in grass-dominated communities that
379 eliminate self-suppressing microbial communities of grasses more efficiently than in our model.
380 Conversely, lower shrub or tree flammability could result in woody-favoring microbes persisting
381 more through fire than in our model (Magnani *et al.* 2023; Pausas *et al.* 2016), thus compounding
382 woody dominance in systems that have already undergone encroachment. Developing a unified
383 model of vegetation–soil–fire feedbacks that integrates both sets of processes might reveal im-
384 portant dynamical properties that address outstanding uncertainties about where, why, and how
385 fast woody plant encroachment is predicted to occur. A second promising advancement would
386 be to model fire-mediated plant–microbe interactions among multispecies plant communities
387 comprising grasses, forbs, shrubs, and trees that vary in their sensitivity to fire and strength of
388 microbial feedback. This would enable predictions not only regarding the relative frequencies
389 of grasses and woody plants in the system but also other important system properties such as
390 abundance distributions and functional diversity, which are important regulators of ecosystem
391 function (Van Der Plas 2019). Finally, there is growing evidence that fungal species can vary in

392 their sensitivities to fire and in their dynamics post-fire (Fox *et al.* 2022), suggesting that future
393 modeling work that incorporates the possibility of varying microbial fire sensitivities could yield
394 more robust predictions of microbe-mediated plant dynamics in fire-prone systems.

395 In addition to their relevance for understanding woody plant encroachment, our results also
396 point to important directions for future research to understand how plant–soil feedback shapes
397 vegetation dynamics in the “real world” (De Long *et al.* 2018). A growing number of studies
398 find mismatches between predictions of microbe-mediated plant community dynamics based on
399 interaction strengths measured in controlled conditions and observed dynamics in field settings
400 (e.g., (Forero *et al.* 2019)). Our model suggests that exogenous events like fires could help explain
401 such discrepancies – for example, even when microbes favor woody plants, sufficiently frequent
402 fires can drive grassy dominance (Fig. 4B–C). Our framework can be readily extended to project
403 the consequences of other exogenous, pulsed disturbances like tornadoes (Nagendra & Peterson
404 2015). In such systems, understanding rates of microbial conditioning and decay relative to the
405 disturbance regime will provide crucial insight into the potential impact of soil-mediated plant
406 interactions. Further modifications to our theoretical framework could also shed light onto the
407 impacts of press disturbances like rising CO₂ on plant community shifts (Archer *et al.* 2017).

408 Overall, our findings have important implications for the study and management of woody
409 plant encroachment. We show that plant–soil feedback can narrow the fire intervals under which
410 grassland recovery is possible and, in those scenarios of possible recovery, increase the duration
411 of fire-based management necessary to recover. This is crucial information because woody plant
412 encroachment is a consistent and global phenomenon that is of increasing concern for manage-
413 ment goals related to grassland-associated biodiversity and maintenance of rangeland economies.
414 Uncertainties persist in identifying the most critical aspects of fire-maintained ecosystems, with
415 efforts largely focused on climate, plant flammability, and plant fire response (Magnani *et al.* 2023;
416 Williams & Abatzoglou 2016). Our model points to the overlooked yet potentially transformative
417 role of the host plant-conditioned soil microbiome in driving changing vegetation patterns in
418 these systems and the urgent need for empirical data testing this process.

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