1	Multiple	Disturbances,	<b>Multiple L</b>	_egacies:	Fire,	Canopy	Gaps,
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# 2 and Deer Jointly Change the Forest Seed Bank

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- 23 **Competing Interest Statement:** There are no competing interests.
- 24 Classification: Biological Sciences Ecology
- 25 Keywords: Seed bank, disturbance legacy, fire, deer, canopy gap

### 26 Abstract

27 The manipulation of pre-colonial disturbances in U.S. forests can play a critical role in determining ecological composition, structure, and function. However, our 28 29 understanding of how concurrent disturbances influence non-tree species is extremely 30 limited in forests. To this end, we used a long-term, multi-disturbance experiment in an oak dominated forest in West Virginia, U.S.A. that factorially manipulated understory fire, 31 deer fencing, and canopy gaps. Thirteen years after disturbance initiation, we sampled 32 33 and germinated the seed bank from each disturbance treatment. We found long-term 34 seed banks differed only in plots with understory fire, with effects contingent on canopy 35 gaps and deer fencing. Fire combined with canopy gaps caused a 205% increase in 36 seed abundance. Combined fire, deer fencing, and canopy gaps led to the lowest 37 diversity of all treatments and the dominance of the shrub *Rubus* in the seed bank. 38 reflecting the continued legacy of extant plants that grew immediately after disturbance. 39 Lastly, in plots with multiple reintroduced disturbances, seed communities were distinct 40 from extant understory species at all time points, highlighting how the seed bank is an important reservoir of biodiversity. Each reintroduced disturbance combination left a 41 42 unique legacy in the seed bank that will likely influence future forest reorganization 43 following disturbance, adding to our understanding of how disturbances influence forest 44 succession and organization. Our study highlights the many unexpected ways that 45 multiple disturbances can change an understudied, but influential, component of the forest for well over a decade. 46

# 47 Significance Statement

In forests throughout the United States, pre-colonial disturbances, such as
understory fire, canopy gaps, and deer populations, are being manipulated in hopes of

50 restoring historic biodiversity. Each disturbance (or lack thereof) can lead to unique plant communities, but we do not understand how these combined disturbances change plant 51 52 diversity and the resulting soil seed bank. Changes in the soil seed bank, which depends 53 on the plants that survive post-disturbance, can strongly influence biodiversity and forest 54 development. By using an experiment that manipulates combined understory fire, canopy gaps, and deer exclusion, we found that multiple seed bank communities arise 55 depending on the disturbance combination. These altered seed banks will likely have 56 57 long-term effects on future biodiversity and development.

58

# 59 Main Text

# 60 Introduction

61 Early and mid-twentieth century management practices in eastern U.S. forests 62 have led to radical deviations from historic disturbance regimes and subsequent forest 63 ecosystems (1–3). This scenario is particularly acute in Appalachian hardwood forests, 64 which have lost oak (Quercus spp.) tree regeneration and are transitioning to wetter, 65 maple-dominated (Acer spp.) systems (4). This transition from oak to maple forests was initiated by the forced removal of Indigenous peoples and their use of cultural burning as 66 a management tool (5). This was followed by mass forest liquidation and slash wildfires 67 in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> century (6). Negative perceptions of these wildfires led to a 68 69 century of state-sanctioned fire exclusion and suppression that favored maple growth and wetter understories (7, 8). As a result, Appalachian forests became dominated by 70 even-aged stands with few large (20 to 25-m + diameter) canopy gaps and infrequent 71 72 understory fires (4, 9, 10). In some areas the fire return interval is now over 10,000 73 years, as opposed to the historic 1-to-2-decade fire return interval common under Indigenous stewardship (6). Meanwhile, white-tailed deer (Odocoileus virginianus) 74

populations have increased dramatically above historical baselines (above 4 and 8
deer/km<sup>2</sup>) in most of the eastern United States, driving ecological change depending on
their population density (11, 12). To reverse the long-tailed negative effects of historic
management and sustain oak-dominated plant communities, forest managers are
reintroducing disturbances like prescribed burns, canopy gap creation through tree
harvesting, and lowering deer densities through hunting or fencing off vulnerable areas
(10, 13).

82 Reintroducing multiple disturbances can be a powerful tool in efforts to restore 83 and change ecological communities (14–17). For instance, combined understory fire and 84 canopy gap creation can lead to greater oak regeneration and reduced maple 85 dominance, while these individual disturbances alone are less effective (18-20). In this 86 example, the surviving oak trees represent a post-disturbance legacy, which is broadly characterized as the adaptations, individuals, and biomass that remain on the landscape 87 88 following a disturbance (21). Disturbance legacies can be material (e.g., wood and nutrient pools) and informational (e.g., species' adaptive responses and genetic 89 material), although the categories are not mutually exclusive (22). Each disturbance that 90 91 occurs in a given area modifies the legacy community of the previous disturbance, and 92 in certain cases, the disturbance combination and timing may lead to unique 93 communities depending on how the disturbances in guestion interact (23). Thus, in eastern U.S. forests, the disturbance legacies of combined understory fire, canopy gap 94 95 creation, and deer browsing may have a particularly influential role in determining how 96 forests reorganize and develop into the future when compared to the legacies of these disturbances individually (24-26). 97

98 To this end, the soil seed bank represents an important, but understudied, entity that may be strongly influenced by the reintroduced disturbances in the eastern U.S. and 99 100 may influence future disturbance regimes (27). Seed banking is a reproductive 101 adaptation that allows plants to persist belowground as dormant seeds, wherein the soil serves as a buffer from aboveground disturbances (28). When a disturbance creates 102 103 suitable conditions for certain seed species, they can germinate. The forest seed bank is 104 a reservoir of biodiversity, holding many herbaceous and woody species like Viola spp., 105 Carex spp., Rubus spp., Acer spp., Prunus spp., and Betula spp. (29–31). The seed 106 bank is also a latent source of genetic diversity, making the seed bank both a material 107 and information legacy. Germinated plants that survive the disturbance eventually 108 mature and release seeds, reestablishing the seed banking process that allows for plant 109 communities to reorganize with future disturbance, thereby setting another legacy 110 depending on the seeds that are returned to the soil (32, 33). Hypothetically, more 111 disturbance will lead to a seed bank that is more similar to above ground vegetation, as 112 the herbaceous layer is homogenized and a few ruderal species survive and reproduce 113 (27). These changes in the seed bank with disturbance can have long-lasting ecological 114 ramifications. For example, rampant timber harvesting and slash wildfires in the United States during the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries likely allowed the shrub *Rubus* to 115 116 spread and saturate forest seed banks with its long-lived seeds, creating a century-old legacy of heavy Rubus regeneration following overstory disturbance throughout the 117 118 eastern U.S. (34, 35). Rubus can then survive as a recalcitrant understory for decades (36–38). 119

Prescribed burns, canopy gap creation, and deer browsing each provide a
unique and important opportunity for new vegetation to grow from the seed bank and for

122 the seed bank to change (27, 39). Prescribed fires clear plant material, catalyzing seed germination with increased light, heat, smoke, and nutrients (40). In fire-prone 123 124 ecosystems, Pausas and Lamont (2022) found that ≈42% of seed banking species are 125 adapted to germinate with heat or smoke (41). Canopy gaps increase understory resources like light, soil temperature, and soil moisture, which are critical for seeds to 126 germinate (42, 43). Both fire and canopy gaps result in a temporary depletion of seeds in 127 the seed bank as plants germinate, but over time, newly established vegetation will 128 129 grow, reproduce, and replenish the seed bank (44, 45). This replenishment process may 130 be disrupted by white-tailed deer, as chronic over-browsing can constrain seed set, 131 reduce plant abundance, and lower long-term understory plant diversity by shifting 132 composition to browse tolerant species (46-48). These direct consumptive effects may, 133 thus, indirectly reduce the abundance and diversity of seed banking species (49, 50) 134 However, in regions where deer populations are low and similar to historic estimates, 135 deer browsing has been shown to increase understory diversity by reducing competitive 136 ruderal species, which could then lead to a more diverse seed bank (51).

137 Despite the increasing prevalence and co-occurrence of these reintroduced disturbances in the eastern U.S., our understanding of how individual and combined 138 139 understory fires, canopy gaps, and white-tailed deer change long-term forest seed banks is minimal. This highlights a significant gap in our understanding of post-disturbance 140 legacies, as seed banks are critical for maintaining forest biodiversity in light of 141 disturbance. Therefore, the primary question guiding our research is: Do multiple 142 143 reintroduced disturbances cause more substantial long-term changes in the seed 144 bank than each respective individual disturbance? To test this question we used a 145 unique, multi-disturbance forest experiment that factorially manipulated understory fire

via controlled burn, canopy gap creation via girdling and herbicide injection, and deer
density via fenced exclosures (Fig. 1). Thirteen years after the experiment's initiation, we
sampled the seed bank in each disturbance combination treatment and tested how seed
composition varied by disturbance treatment and in comparison to extant vegetation at
multiple time points.

151 We expected low-intensity fire to be the predominant driver of increased seed 152 abundance and diversity, as the Appalachian Mountains are a historically burned ecosystem and many plant species are likely favored by fire (H1). Similarly, we expected 153 154 canopy gaps to lead to a modest increase in seed bank diversity and density, mirroring 155 the increased aboveground plant diversity with gaps by Royo et al. (2010) (51) (H2). We 156 hypothesized that fire combined with canopy gaps would cause the greatest increases in seed bank abundance and diversity, leading to concomitant changes in seed community 157 composition (H3). Based on studies showing negative impacts of deer herbivory on 158 159 aboveground plant growth and reproduction, we expected deer to have a negative effect on seed bank abundance and diversity, particularly when combined with fire (H4). Lastly, 160 161 when comparing the seed bank to extant vegetation, we expected the seed bank community to be most similar to extant vegetation in highly disturbed plots, as many 162 163 seed banking species are favored by disturbance and may have been able to saturate the seed bank (H5). 164

165 Results

A total of 3,642 seeds germinated in our trials (across all trays there was an average of 309 germinants / m<sup>2</sup> and 12,331 germinants / m<sup>3</sup>), representing at least 59 different taxa, with 38 forb species, 8 shrub species, 7 graminoid species, 5 tree species, and 1 vine species (Table 1). *Rubus* spp. accounted for 28% of total seeds, followed by

170 Betula spp. (9%), Ageratina altissima (6%), Aralia spinosa (5%), and Robinia pseudoacacia (5%). Among all germinating taxa, 9 species were non-native, accounting 171 172 for 16% of all taxa (Table 1). However, non-native species' proportional abundance 173 among all seeds was low, with non-native species representing 1% of total seeds germinated. The most common non-native species was Stellaria media, while one 174 individual of Rosa multiflora, a non-native invasive species of concern in West Virginia 175 176 (WV DNR), was found in the entire seed bank survey in an unburned plot with fencing 177 and no canopy gap overhead.

178 Seed Abundance:

The effects of fire on total and life form-specific seed abundance varied 179 180 depending on whether there was a canopy gap overhead or deer fencing. Fire under a 181 closed canopy led to a 63% increase in mean seed abundance in comparison to unburned plots under a closed canopy (z = 2.5, p = 0.07), but when fire and canopy 182 gaps were combined, there was a 205% increase in seed abundance in comparison to 183 184 unburned plots with a closed canopy (z = 6.8, p < 0.001; Fig. 2; Table 2). This increase in seed abundance was driven by a 478% increase in forb seed abundance with fire and 185 canopy gaps in comparison to unburned plots with a closed canopy (z = 6.7, p < 0.001; 186 187 Fig. 2; Table 3). In addition, canopy gaps in burned areas decreased vine seed abundance by 93% in comparison to unburned plots with a canopy gap overhead (z = -188 189 4.6, p < 0.001), whereas canopy gaps in unburned plots had no influence on vine seed 190 abundance. Lastly, fire alone decreased tree seed abundance by 33% in comparison to unburned plots ( $\chi^2 = 5.3$ , df = 1, p = 0.02). 191

The combination of fire and deer fencing had a strong influence on life-form
 specific seed abundance as well. Burned and fenced plots lead to 750% greater shrub

seed abundance in comparison to unburned plots that are unfenced (z = 6.1, p < 0.001; 194 Fig. 2). Fire and fencing had an interactive effect on graminoid abundance ( $\chi^2 = 3.2$ , p = 195 196 0.07), wherein fencing in burned plots decreased graminoid seed abundance by 62% in 197 comparison to burned plots that were unfenced (z = -2.2, p = 0.03). There was a threeway interaction among fire, canopy gaps, and deer fencing on Rubus abundance, the 198 199 most common germinant in our trials ( $\chi^2$  = 3.0, df =1, p = 0.08). Burning only increased 200 Rubus seed abundance with a canopy gap or fencing present. Fire, fencing, and canopy 201 gaps together caused a 1432% increase in Rubus seed abundance in comparison to 202 unburned plots with no fencing and a closed canopy (z = 6.1, p < 0.0001).

203 Seed Diversity:

We found that fire increased average seed species density from an average of 204 57.2 ± 2.7 species/m<sup>2</sup> to 68.8 ± 3.3 species/m<sup>2</sup> in comparison to unburned plots ( $\chi^2$  = 205 206 6.4, df =1, p = 0.01; Table 2). Fencing decreased average seed bank Shannon diversity by 8% in comparison to unfenced plots ( $F_{1.58,1}$  = 9.1, p = 0.004). Fire and no fencing (or 207 presence of deer) increased forb seed species density to 39.2 ± 4.1 species / m<sup>2</sup> in 208 comparison to 18.7  $\pm$  3.1 forb species / m<sup>2</sup> in unburned plots with fencing (z = -4.2, p < 209 0.001). Fire increased average forb seed Shannon diversity by 45% in comparison to 210 211 unburned plots ( $F_{1,56,1}$  = 7.9, p = 0.003). In contrast, fire led to a 40% decrease in average shrub seed Shannon diversity in comparison to unburned plots ( $F_{1,58,1} = 9.5$ , p = 212 213 0.007).

However, the results from our linear models differed from rarefied and extrapolated Hill richness and diversity. When extrapolating seed species richness across all treatments in the iNEXT package, Hill richness was highly variable and there were no substantial differences between treatments (Fig. 3; Table S1). In contrast, Hill

218 Shannon diversity varied substantially depending on whether the plot had been burned. We found that fire with deer fencing and a canopy gap led to the lowest Hill Shannon 219 220 diversity of all the treatments (6.7 species; 95% CI [6.0 - 7.5]; Fig. 3; Table S1). Fire with 221 fencing and no canopy gap led to the second lowest Hill Shannon diversity of all 222 treatments (9.1 species; 95% CI [7.9 - 10.3]; Fig. 2). In contrast, burned areas with a 223 canopy gap and without fencing had the highest Hill Shannon diversity (18.1 species; 224 95% CI [16.4-19.7]; Fig. 3). Unburned plots with no fencing or gap overhead had roughly 225 the same Hill Shannon diversity as the most disturbed plots (17.9 species; 95% CI [15.3 226 - 20.4]; Fig. 3), although there were no major differences in Hill Shannon diversity 227 between any of the unburned treatments.

# 228 Seed Community Composition:

Despite having similar Hill Shannon diversities, burned plots with a canopy gap overhead and no fencing had very different seed species compositions in comparison to unburned plots with no fencing and no canopy gap (F = 3.4, p = 0.004; Fig. 4; Table S2). Further, burning led to seed communities that were significantly different from nearly all unburned plot seed communities (F = 2.5, p < 0.001; Fig. 4; Table S2). Burned plots with no gap overhead and no fencing had the most similar seed bank communities to most of the unburned treatments (Table S2).

Within burned treatments, plots with a canopy gap and no fencing had significantly different communities than all other burned treatments (Fig. 4; Table S2). Burned plots with no canopy gap and no fencing had different seed communities than burned plots with fencing and a canopy gap overhead (F = 4.8, p = 0.006). In contrast, burned plots with fencing and no canopy gap overhead had the most variable seed community, which overlapped with two other treatment's seed communities (burned plots with fencing and a canopy gap; burned plots with no fencing and no canopy gap (Fig. 4; Table S2). The presence or absence of canopy gaps and fencing in unburned plots had no effect on seed bank communities and there were no differences in seed community amongst any of the unburned plots (F = 0.99, p = 0.5; Fig. 3; Table S2).

246 In addition, burned areas with canopy gaps and fencing had several indicator 247 species, including Rubus (p = 0.003), Phytolacca americana (p = 0.02), Sambucus (p =(0.02), and Aralia spinosa (p = 0.05). In contrast, burned areas with canopy gaps and no 248 249 deer fencing had Ageratina altissma (p = 0.001), Carex spp. (p=0.005), Verbena urticifolia (p = 0.03), Viola pubescens (p = 0.02), and Solanum carolinense (p = 0.1) as 250 251 primary indicator species. Viola rotundifolia (p = 0.06) was the primary indicator for 252 burned and fenced plots with no gaps. There were no indicator species for burned plots 253 with no canopy gap and no fencing, whereas the indicator for unburned plots with a gap overhead and no fencing was Sassafrass albidum (p = 0.07). 254

When comparing 2013 seed communities to extant plant communities sampled in disturbance treatments over time (2000 [pre-treatment], 2001, 2002, 2006, 2013), burned plots with a canopy gap overhead and no fencing had extant plant and seed bank communities that differed at every measured time point (F = 19, p < 0.001; Fig. 5; Table S3). By 2013, burned plots with a canopy gap and no fencing maintained a unique seed bank in comparison to the extant understory, with 75% of the seed species not being found in the extant understory.

# 262 Discussion

Using a unique, long-term experiment that manipulated several historically important disturbances, we provide evidence of how disturbance interactions cause lasting imprints on the seed bank community. Specifically, interactions among

266 understory fire, canopy gap creation, and continuous deer browsing left distinct disturbance legacies in the seed bank community over 13 years (Fig. 6). Despite the 267 268 frequency and importance of these disturbances in forests broadly, this study is the first, 269 to our knowledge, to test how these interacting disturbances can change the seed bank. 270 This work on seed bank legacies provides new applied and theoretical insight towards 271 how biodiversity and forest communities are maintained and develop in light of multiple 272 disturbances. Further, these altered seed banks represent a critical reservoir of 273 biodiversity that will influence community structure and reorganization following 274 subsequent disturbances (32, 52).

### 275 Disturbance Effects on Seed Banks

#### 276 Individual Disturbances

277 In partial agreement with our first hypothesis, only burning increased average 278 seed bank species density, likely driven by a post-fire increase in the proportion of forb 279 species. These increases in species density in the seed bank after a single fire were 280 relatively small and similar to the changes in aboveground forb species density following prescribed fire found by Hutchinson et al. (2005) and Keyser et al. (2012) (53, 54). 281 282 However, these results contrast Huebner et al. (2023) which found that fire prone 283 regions in the Monongahela National Forest didn't increase seed bank richness, but 284 rather, frequent historic burns increased seed bank Shannon diversity (55). These 285 results also contrast with Shi et al.'s (2022) global meta-analysis of relationships between fire and seed bank diversity, which found either null or negative influences of 286 fire on seed species richness (56). These differences in results are likely due to different 287 288 sampling intensities and our sites only having a single fire that occurred in recent 289 memory.

# 290 Canopy Gaps & Fencing

291 In contrast to our second hypothesis, we found no strong effects of combined 292 canopy gaps and fencing in unburned areas on seed abundance, species density, 293 richness, or diversity. This contrasts with the strong interaction these disturbances had 294 on seed bank species occurrence probability found by Shinoda and Aksaka (2020) (45). 295 That canopy gaps and deer exclusion, or lack thereof, had no influence on seed banks 296 except in the presence of fire indicates the importance of burning in shaping fire-297 dependent plant communities. However, if deer densities were higher in our study site, it 298 is possible that there would have been an interaction between fencing and canopy gaps 299 in unburned plots, as several studies have found that intense browsing under an open 300 canopy can create a growth bottleneck and altered plant communities (57-59).

# 301 Fire & Canopy Gaps

302 In agreement with our third hypothesis, we found that the combination of a 303 prescribed fire and canopy gaps strongly increased seed abundance in comparison to 304 plots that were only burned or only had a canopy gap overhead. In this scenario, fires cleared existing biomass, created microsite heterogeneity, and stimulated seed 305 306 germination through heat and smoke, which allowed for a pulse of plant growth from the 307 seed bank. These plants then grew into an environment with light levels that were 308 approximately 260% higher than that of control plots (51). The abundant resources and 309 associated heterogeneity within burned plots with a canopy gap then allowed for plants 310 to invest in seed production within the growing season, thereby replenishing the seed 311 bank (60–62).

312 Burning and canopy gaps also led to an increase in forb seed abundance and species density, similar to Hyatt (1999), who found forbs increased substantially with 313 314 open canopies (63). Increased forb seed abundance parallels the increase in forb cover 315 with fire and canopy gaps found by Royo et al. (2010) in this same experiment, which suggests that the forbs that initially germinated following these disturbances reached 316 sexual maturity and established a long-term presence in the seed bank (51). It is also 317 possible that combined fire and canopy gaps may be a way to increase forb growth and 318 319 seed bank persistence, which is often desired within fire dependent systems (17, 64).

320 Fire & Fencing

321 In contrast to our fourth hypothesis, we found that fire and fencing decreased 322 seed bank average Shannon diversity and Hill Shannon diversity due to a parallel 323 increase in shrub seed abundance, while other seed life forms remained at low relative abundances. These shrubs were likely able to grow prolifically from the seed bank or as 324 325 advanced regeneration after fire and could invest in reproduction without stress or death 326 from deer herbivory (62). As a result, long-lived shrub seeds accumulated in the seed bank and made the relative proportions of seed life forms highly uneven, thereby 327 decreasing average Shannon diversity and Hill Shannon diversity. These results provide 328 329 nuance to the finding that high deer densities reduce seed abundance (49, 50, 65, 66), as we found that low and moderate deer browse in burned areas seemingly maintains 330 331 higher seed biodiversity by creating a more heterogeneous environment that allows for 332 more even relative abundances of seed banking species.

333 Fire, Canopy Gaps, & Fencing

334 We found that the combination of fire, canopy gaps, and low deer browsing pressure led to the most unique seed communities and the highest seed bank Hill 335 336 Shannon diversity, similar to results found by Royo et al. (2010) within this same 337 experiment (51). In contrast, fire, canopy gaps, and deer fencing led to the lowest Hill Shannon diversity, likely due to these treatment's particularly strong combined influence 338 on Rubus seed abundance. We saw the highest Rubus seed abundance in areas that 339 340 were burned and had both fencing and a canopy gap. Burning likely cleared most 341 aboveground vegetation other than pole and mature trees, while canopy gaps provided 342 abundant sunlight, leading to *Rubus* dominance in the understory. This *Rubus* 343 dominated understory was then unmoderated by deer browsing and its highly palatable 344 fruits dropped into the seed bank, thereby saturating the soil with Rubus seeds (37, 67, 345 68). Rubus seeds can survive belowground for decades and readily germinate with 346 disturbance, making it very likely that this seed legacy will become apparent in the 347 understory following the next fire or canopy gap creating event.

348 Shrubs are known to heavily compete with herbaceous species such as forbs 349 and graminoids (69). The increase in Rubus seeds inside of fencing may explain why we 350 see a concurrent decrease in graminoid and forb seed abundance, as dense and fast-351 growing Rubus would shade out shade intolerant herbaceous species before they could 352 reproduce and drop seed. That we might expect entirely different seed legacies depending on the presence or absence of herbivores in a burned environment with a 353 354 canopy gap provides critical insight for land managers battling woody encroachment and 355 trying to maintain biodiversity in formerly fire prone ecosystems. The influence of herbivory on encroaching shrubs in the presence of burning and tree harvesting has 356 been demonstrated in savanna ecosystems (70), but few have tested how these 357

combined disturbance influence the subsequent seed bank. Our results suggest that the
 reintroduction of herbivores in open and burned ecosystems would reduce shrubs both
 aboveground and belowground.

361 *Fire-Driven Plant Communities* 

Fire combined with canopy gaps and fencing treatments led to unique seed bank 362 communities in comparison to unburned areas with fencing or a canopy gap treatment 363 364 (Fig. 3). These results support Grubb (1988) who found that fire and seed communities 365 are coupled and that different disturbance events lead to different long-term seed banks (71). In our study, fire was the strongest driver of community change, with added 366 community differentiation when deer and canopy gap treatments were applied (Fig. 6). 367 368 This result highlights the importance of fire in shaping plant diversity in formerly fire-369 prone systems, while added canopy gaps or deer exclusion can lead to substantial variation in seed bank community trajectories. 370

371 Several studies theorize that aboveground and belowground plant communities 372 should homogenize and converge with increasing disturbance due to there being greater 373 ruderal species survival (72, 73). In our study, seed communities in burned plots with a 374 canopy gap and no fencing were substantially different from all extant communities at 375 each time point (Table S3). This result does not support our fifth hypothesis and 376 suggests that the seed bank consistently maintains a unique species assemblage and 377 likely changes over time due to many seeds having relatively short longevity in situ (30, 378 74). Nevertheless, even in the plots with the most reintroduced disturbances, 75% of all 379 species in the seed bank in burned plots with a canopy gap and no fencing were not 380 found in the extant understory in 2013, highlighting how the seed bank maintains an 381 important reservoir of biodiversity over time and in light of multiple disturbance.

Additionally, extant plant communities were compositionally variable in comparison to the seed bank, indicating that we likely under-sampled the seed bank and there is greater diversity to be found within seed banks than our sampling intensity indicates (73). Thus, we believe the forest seed bank represents an important reservoir of native plant biodiversity, especially considering that only 16% of taxa were non-native to North America and these taxa represented only 1% of total germinants.

# 388 Ruderal Species, Ecological Memory, and Future Considerations

389 The novelty of this seed bank study highlights our limited understanding of how 390 multiple disturbances influence forest succession, reorganization, and future legacies. 391 Research on how forests respond to multiple disturbances is often limited to studying 392 how trees respond to the combined influences of high intensity disturbances, such as 393 wildfires and stand-leveling windstorms (22). Often, many other layers of a forest are forgotten in relation to multiple disturbances, such as the understory or the seed bank 394 (75–77). Further, studies on multiple disturbances tend to be theoretical or observational 395 396 rather than experimental or do not adequately interpret results within the theoretical assumptions of disturbance ecology (2, 78). It is critical that we consider disturbances in 397 tandem, especially since disturbances like understory fire and mid-sized canopy gaps 398 399 were the most common pre-colonial forest disturbances throughout the eastern U.S. and are being broadly reintroduced (5, 79), while white-tailed deer are far above historic 400 401 densities and are now a dominant contemporary disturbance with many indirect effects 402 (16, 80).

In our experiment, reintroducing disturbances favored many ruderal species in
the seed bank. Although many of these seed banking species would be considered
"weeds" by land managers, ruderal species can play an important role in ecosystems

406 (81, 82). For instance, *Rubus*, the most important indicator species in our germination experiment and the only species to have a significant response to combined fire, fencing 407 408 and canopy gaps, has been shown to reduce forest floor temperatures, hide tree 409 seedlings from deer, and fix nutrients as biomass, which prevents nitrogen from leaching post-disturbance (37, 68). These ruderal species are eventually shaded-out by growing 410 trees, so their survival strategy is to create dense seed banks that buffer them from year-411 to-year variability and can germinate after the next vegetation-clearing disturbance (83, 412 413 84).

There could also be generalizable patterns in how seed banks respond to certain 414 415 combinations of disturbance. For instance, based on our results, we expect fire, canopy 416 gaps, and herbivore exclusion to create a long-lasting Rubus seed legacy, especially 417 considering that shrub seeds are often more persistent than extant understory plants (72). A shrub seed bank would then continually recur following infrequent understory fire 418 419 and canopy gap creation in the absence of herbivores, thereby cementing a feedback 420 loop of disturbance and the ecological memory of a shrub-dominated system in the seed bank (22). This ecological memory likely cannot be broken except through burning more 421 422 frequently or low intensity deer browsing (4, 85). These disturbance legacies and 423 ecological memories in the seed bank make sampling the forest seed bank a valuable exercise to determine which combination of disturbances to apply in a restoration or 424 management setting, particularly as the climate changes and many seed banking 425 species are favored by warmer conditions (86, 87). 426

The high numbers of disturbance-dependent species in the seed bank may also shed light on why many studies find a 'seed bank bias,' wherein forest seed bank communities have low compositional similarity to those of aboveground plants (88, 89).

430 Our study appears to represents what Larson and Suding (2022) define as a "parallel tracking" seed bank bias, wherein diversity increases in both the extant understory and 431 432 seed bank across a gradient of increasing disturbance frequency despite there being 433 compositional dissimilarity between both communities (89). The seed communities in our 434 study are likely different from the extant understory because seeds of formerly living plants have slowly accumulated in the soil over 13 years and the ecosystem has not 435 been burned or harvested recently. Compounding this seed bank bias, many studies 436 437 under-sample the seed bank (73). These factors may then contribute to the assumption 438 that seed banks are not a particularly important source of biodiversity or component of forest development (88, 89); however, our study provides evidence to the contrary. 439

440 Future studies that evaluate the influence of multiple disturbances on forest seed 441 banks should make several considerations. First and foremost, our study highlights why researchers should think beyond how trees respond to multiple disturbances (77, 90). 442 443 These fast-growing seed bank species can heavily influence forest succession and it can 444 take decades for the effects of multiple reintroduced disturbances to become fully 445 apparent amongst tree communities, making the understory and seed bank an excellent study system in a multi-disturbance scenario. Further, seed bank studies should 446 447 measure several germinant functional traits rather than just species richness or diversity. This is one of the primary gaps in our understanding of seed communities and the traits 448 of species may be important in determining seed bank legacies following multiple 449 450 disturbances (89). Future work should also evaluate how seed banks vary with specific 451 disturbance intensities, frequencies, and severities rather than just evaluating how seeds respond to disturbance binaries (78). From this, we may be able to better detect 452 nonlinear responses and improve research integration into meta-analyses (91). For 453

instance, ongoing restoration of the fire regime in our study may lead to even more
substantial changes in the seed bank (55). Nevertheless, by taking an experimental and
long-term approach to measuring how multiple disturbance influence the seed bank, we
take a considerable step in our limited understanding how multiple drivers of change
influence the forest seed bank, succession, and biodiversity.

### 459 Materials and Methods

460 Study Site

461 To test how the forest seed bank responds to multiple reintroduced disturbances, 462 we experimentally manipulated prescribed fire, deer presence, and canopy gap creation in four replicate Appalachian hardwood stands in central West Virginia, USA (Fig. 1). We 463 established this experiment in 2000 in the Western Allegheny Mountain ecological 464 465 subsection using two stands in the Monongahela National Forest (39°06' N, 79°43' W) and two stands in the Fernow Experimental Forest (39°01' N, 79°42' W). Each stand was 466 60 to 90 years old and between 670 to 800 m in elevation. All stands were dominated by 467 oak (Quercus rubra L., Q. alba L., & Q. montana L.) with associated maple (Acer 468 saccharum Marsh., A. rubrum L.), cherry (Prunus serotina Ehrh.), beech (Fagus 469 grandifolia Ehrh.) and birch (Betula spp.) (51) The herbaceous layer in this forest is 470 highly diverse, with up to 461 plant species recorded (92). Mean annual max 471 temperature is 15.1 °C, mean annual min temperature is 3 °C, with an average of 122 472 473 cm of precipitation (93). For further details about the pre-existing manipulative experiment and aboveground plant sampling, please see Royo et al. (2010) (51). 474

475 Disturbance Treatments

Our experimental design was a split-plot factorial (Fig. 1), with each stand split in half and randomly assigned a burn treatment (burned or unburned). In each burned and unburned half stand, we established eight treatment plots (20 x 20 m, 400 m<sup>2</sup>) for a total of 64 plots with either fencing (no deer), canopy gap, fencing + canopy gap, or no gap and no fence. Treatment plots were 20 m from one another, stand edges, and burn lines to avoid nonindependence and edge effects.

In May and June of 2000, we established 2-m high fencing around treatment 482 plots to prevent deer entry. Deer densities in this location are between 4 and 7 deer/km<sup>2</sup>. 483 which are slightly higher than historical estimates, but low relative to most eastern 484 forests (Horsley et al. 2003). We created all canopy gaps in June 2000 by girdling 485 multiple canopy-dominant trees. By summer 2001, all trees in canopy gaps were 486 standing dead, fallen, or near-dead. Canopy gaps were mid-sized (284 m<sup>2</sup> ± 16 SE) (94). 487 We lit each understory fires between April 27 and May 1, 2001. Fire temperatures on the 488 mineral soil surface were 245 ± 15.4 °C, while temperatures at 1 m from the ground 489 were  $91.9 \pm 1.7$  °C (51). Fires took place during the historic peak spring fire season (6, 490 13), during understory bud-break but prior to canopy bud-break. Historically, fire return 491 492 intervals in this region are between 25 and 30 years (6, 95). Considering that there was 493 a minimum of 20 m of space between burned and unburned regions, we assume that 494 drifting smoke did not lead to a substantial germination event within unburned plots. Fire was only used once at each site. 495

496 Seed Sampling & Germination

497 We placed five permanent  $1-m^2$  sampling quadrats within each treatment plot.

498 Within these quadrats, we measured forb, graminoid, shrub, and vine species

abundances in 2000 (pre-treatment), 2001 (post-treatment), 2002, 2006, and 2013. One

500 fire and canopy gap treatment plot could not be found in 2013, thus n = 63. We sampled 501 soil in early June 2013 and germinated seeds using a standard seedling emergence 502 methodology described below (96). Following the recommendations of Plue and Hermy 503 (2012) (97), we sampled ca. 3% of the quadrat surface area to represent seed bank 504 abundance and diversity. We collected seed bank samples at each corner of the five 505 guadrats using a 5-cm long section of a 10-cm PVC pipe (78.5 cm<sup>2</sup> x 4 = 314 cm<sup>2</sup> soil 506 sampled per quadrat). All 20 soil cores per treatment plot were then pooled, mixed, and subsampled for use in emergence trials. Three subsamples were taken from each of the 507 63 treatment plot's pooled soils and placed in separate 625 cm<sup>2</sup> square trays in a 508 509 greenhouse (625 cm<sup>2</sup> x 3 = 1875 cm<sup>2</sup> soil per plot), with 2.5 cm of subsampled soil placed on top of 2 cm of sterile sand in each tray. We watered all 189 trays (63 510 511 treatment plots x 3 subsamples) daily and occasionally rotated the trays to minimize any 512 greenhouse positional effects (e.g., light, temperature). All germinants were identified to 513 species or genera depending on life form, counted, and removed from the tray. After 5 514 months, we subjected trays to a 90-day, 5° C cold stratification period, after which they 515 were returned to the greenhouse for another germination phase.

# 516 Statistical Analysis

517 For operational purposes we define seed species density as the total number of 518 species found across the three trays representing a single treatment plot. Seed species 519 density is different from seed richness because it is not rarefied and does not represent 520 an asymptotic estimate (98). Similarly, seed abundance is defined as the total number of 521 germinants found across the three trays per plot.

522 We conducted analyses using R software (R v4.3.1). We tested differences in 523 average species density and abundance using a generalized linear mixed effects model

524 (GLMM) with either Poisson or quasi-Poisson distributions in the 'glmmTMB' package 525 (99). We calculated average seed Shannon diversity within the 'vegan' package based 526 on species abundances per plot (100) and modeled responses using a linear mixed 527 effects model in the 'Ime4' package (101). The use of average Shannon diversity and species density in our linear models allowed us to more easily explore two-way 528 529 interactions between treatments. We also calculated Hill richness and Hill Shannon 530 diversity based on total seed abundance using the 'iNEXT' package, which rarefies and 531 extrapolates diversity metrics (102). Hill diversity metrics provide a host of benefits, such 532 as an asymptotic estimate for diversity comparisons and providing additional clarity 533 regarding our diversity inferences. To explore life form-specific seed diversity metrics, 534 we subset the data according to life form (forb, graminoid, shrub, tree, vine) and 535 modeled life form abundance, species density, and Shannon diversity response to 536 treatments. Graminoid Shannon diversity was modeled using a GLMM with a Tweedie 537 distribution due to the data being zero-inflated. Since Rubus is a critical species 538 occupying the seed bank, particularly in light of disturbances, we tested how total Rubus 539 seed abundance varied with disturbance treatments using a GLMM due to this species being extremely common in the seed bank and highly influential in successional 540 dynamics. We constructed different models with individual disturbances and their 541 542 interactions as fixed effects to determine best fit (Fire, Fence, Gap, Fire x Fence, Fire x 543 Gap, Gap x Fence, Fire x Gap x Fence). We compared models using AICc (103). We 544 report the results from models with the lowest AICc. For our random effects, treatment 545 plot was nested within experimental site. If models failed to converge, we only used 546 experimental site as a random effect. All model assumptions were tested using the 547 'DHARMa' package (104), while post-hoc tests were done with the 'emmeans' package 548 using a Bonferroni correction (105).

549 We tested differences in community composition between treatments using seed species abundance data and the 'adonis2' PERMANOVA function, while checking 550 551 community dispersion with the 'betadisper' function in order to meet the assumptions of 552 PERMANOVA (100). Data was not transformed. We visualized differences among communities using 3-dimensional NMDS to keep stress below 0.20. We identified 553 indicator species using vegan's 'multipatt' function. When comparing extant plants and 554 555 the seed bank at various time points, certain species were concatenated by genera as 556 they could not be identified to species immediately after germination in 2013 (Carex. 557 Galium, Rubus, Solidago, & Viola). We removed species that did not occur in at least 3 558 plots for multivariate analysis. When comparing the seed bank and annual plant cover, 559 all data were converted to presence-absence format prior to analysis. Similar to Plue et 560 al. (2021) (106) we used Raup-Crick similarity within PERMANOVA to test for 561 community differences between 2013 seeds and extant plants at each time point.

#### 562 Acknowledgments

We thank A. M. Yang, A. M. Yantes, A. Waananen, C. R. Miller, and the 563 564 University of Minnesota Montgomery Lab for review. We also thank A. Johnson II, J. B. Young, and Z. F. Fogel for help developing R code. We also thank the National Science 565 566 Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship (Award No. 1839286), the Natural Resources Science and Management Program, the University of Minnesota Doctoral 567 Dissertation Fellowship, and the United States Forest Service Northern Research 568 Station for their monetary support. This work was supported by the USDA National 569 570 Research Initiative Competitive Grant to W. Carson.

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Figure 1. Diagram showing the organization of our replicated, factorial multi-disturbance study. Four stands were split into burned and unburned halves. Within each half, various fencing and canopy gap treatments were applied in 20x20 m plots. With each of these plots, soil was collected and aggregated. This soil was then split into 3 seed beds and placed in a greenhouse for germination trials. Figure adapted from Thomas Van Gundy et al. 2014



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- **Figure 2.** Bar charts that represent the relative proportion of seeds for each plant life form
- 870 in disturbance treatments.





872 Figure 3. Seed bank Hill richness and Hill Shannon diversity by treatment. Shaded

regions represent 95% confidence intervals. Rarefaction and extrapolation were

calculated following Chao et al. (2014) (107).





**Figure 4.** NMDS showing seed community differences amongst burned and unburned

877 disturbance treatments.





Figure 5. NMDS showing differences within burned plots with a canopy gap and no fencing amongst seed communities in 2013 (yellow) and extant plant communities sampled in each treatment in 2000 (pre-treatment), 2001, 2002, 2006, and 2013.



Figure 6. Schematic representing disturbance pathways to different seed bank
communities found in our results. Burning with a closed canopy and no fencing led to a
slight increase in forb seed abundance, burning with no fencing and a canopy gap led to
a substantial increase in forb and graminoid abundance. In contrast, burning and fencing
led to a substantial increase in shrub seed abundance, particularly with a canopy gap
overhead.

890 Table 1. All seed bank survey species, their corresponding germination totals, and

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891 whether the species is native to North America.

Species	Total Germinants	Native to North America?
Forbs		
Ageratina altissima	216	Yes
Phytolacca americana	133	Yes
Erechtites hieraciifolius	111	Yes
Viola blanda	111	Yes
Dalibarda repens	68	Yes
Saxifraga spp.	51	Yes
Pilea pumila	50	Yes
Viola macloskeyi	44	Yes
Viola spp.	42	Yes
Viola canadensis	39	Yes
Potentilla canadensis	26	Yes
Stellaria media	25	No
Verbena urticifolia	24	Yes
Viola rotundifolia	23	Yes
Galium spp.	23	Yes
Packera aurea	20	Yes
Viola sororia	18	Yes
Veronica officinalis	17	No
Verbascum thapsus	17	No
Eurybia divaricata	16	Yes
Viola pubescens	11	Yes
Eupatorium serotinum	10	Yes
Hypericum	6	Yes
pseudomaculatum	Ŭ	100
Mitchella repens	6	Yes
Prenanthes trifoliata	3	Yes
Apocynum spp.	2	Yes
Boehmeria cylindrica	2	Yes
Gaultheria procumbens	2	Yes
Juncus effusus	2	Yes
Plantago lanceolata	2	No

Polygonum persicaria	2	No
Solanum carolinense	2	Yes
Trillium spp.	2	Yes
Lobelia spicata	1	Yes
Medeola virginiana	1	Yes
Solanum nigrum	1	No
Uvularia sessilifolia	1	No
Graminoids		
Carex spp.	178	Yes
Dichanthelium clandestinum	45	Yes
Luzula multiflora	25	Yes
Sisyrinchium spp.	9	Yes
Agrostis perennans	2	Yes
Andropogon spp.	1	Yes
Shrubs		
Rubus spp.	1035	Yes
Aralia spinosa	199	Yes
Sassafras albidum	17	Yes
Sambucus spp.	16	Yes
Berberis thunbergii	6	No
Rhus typhina	6	Yes
Rosa multiflora	1	No
Trees		
Betula spp.	337	Yes
Robinia pseudoacacia	199	Yes
Liriodendron tulipifera	26	Yes
Acer rubrum	15	Yes
Acer pensylvanicum	2	Yes
Vines		
Vitis aestivalis	157	Yes

Table 2. Seed species density, average Shannon diversity (H'), and abundance response
to individual disturbance and their combinations. Each variable corresponds to a single
model.

	Se	ed Spe	ecies De	nsity		Seed	d H'	Seed Abundance				
Treatments	χ²	df	р	AICc	F	df	р	AICc	χ²	df	р	AICc
Fire	6.4	1	0.01	329		1, 58		-10		1		603
Fence		1		334	9.1	1, 58	0.004	-18		1		621
Gap		1		334		1, 58		-10		1		615
Fire x Fence		1		332		1, 56		-9		1		605
Fire x Gap		1		332		1, 56		1	4.9	1	0.03	591
Fence x Gap		1		337		1, 56		-8		1		618
Fire x Fence x Gap		1		339		1, 52		10.6		1		597

**Table 3.** Forb, graminoid, shrub, tree, and vine seed abundance response to individual

	Forb	Seed	Abund	lance	Gramin	Graminoid Seed Abundance			Shru	Shrub Seed Abundance			Tree Seed Abundance			Vine Seed Abundance				
Treatments	χ²	df	р	AICc	χ²	df	р	AICc	χ²	df	р	AICc	χ²	df	р	AICc	χ²	df	р	AICc
Fire		1		472	3.3	1	0.07	323		1		485	5.3	1	0.02	403		1		247
Fence		1		497		1		325		1		491		1		408		1		264
Gap		1		494		1		326		1		498		1		408		1		263
Fire x Fence		1		473	3.2	1	0.07	323	3.5	1	0.06	474		1		406		1		250
Fire x Gap	7.7	1	0.01	463		1		327		1		485		1		408	8.1	1	0.004	243
Fence x Gap		1		499		1		327		1		492		1		412		1		267
ire x Fence x Gap		1		470		1		330		1		477		1		414		1		250

and combined disturbance treatments. Each variable corresponds to a single model.

# **Supporting Information for**

Multiple Disturbances, Multiple Legacies: Fire, Canopy Gaps, and Deer Jointly Change the Forest Seed Bank

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This PDF file includes:

Tables S1 to S3

Treatment	Diversity	Observed	Estimated	s.e.	LCL	UCL
Burn_Fence_Gap	Species richness	32	38.0	10.4	32.0	58.4
Burn_Fence_NoGap	Species richness	32	40.1	12.4	32.0	64.4
Burn_NoFence_Gap	Species richness	37	43.2	8.6	37.0	60.2
Burn_NoFence_NoGap	Species richness	35	45.1	11.1	35.0	66.8
NoBurn_Fence_Gap	Species richness	33	41.6	8.1	33.0	57.4
NoBurn_Fence_NoGap	Species richness	35	49.0	21.5	35.0	91.0
NoBurn_NoFence_Gap	Species richness	26	32.1	10.4	26.0	52.5
NoBurn_NoFence_NoGap	Species richness	30	33.0	8.8	30.0	50.2
Burn_Fence_Gap	Shannon diversity	6.6	6.7	0.4	6.0	7.5
Burn_Fence_NoGap	Shannon diversity	8.7	9.1	0.6	7.9	10.3
Burn_NoFence_Gap	Shannon diversity	17.5	18.1	0.8	16.4	19.7
Burn_NoFence_NoGap	Shannon diversity	15.2	16.2	1.0	14.2	18.2
NoBurn_Fence_Gap	Shannon diversity	14.0	15.1	1.0	13.2	17.1
NoBurn_Fence_NoGap	Shannon diversity	12.5	13.7	1.0	11.8	15.5
NoBurn_NoFence_Gap	Shannon diversity	12.8	13.8	1.1	11.6	16.0
NoBurn_NoFence_NoGap	Shannon diversity	16.4	17.9	1.2	15.5	20.3

**Table S1.** Seed bank Hill richness and diversity in response to each treatment combination.

**Table S2**: Seed bank community differences by treatment tested using pairwise PERMANOVA.

Burned	Unburned	df	SumsOfSquares	F.model	R2	p.value	adj.p.value
Fire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_Gap_Fence	1	1.11	4.85	0.26	0.00	0.006
Fire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_Gap_NoFence	1	1.46	7.48	0.35	0.00	0.004
Fire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	1.25	6.33	0.31	0.00	0.004
Fire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	1.26	5.51	0.28	0.00	0.004
Fire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_Gap_Fence	1	0.95	3.56	0.22	0.00	0.006
Fire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_Gap_NoFence	1	1.09	4.70	0.27	0.00	0.004
Fire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.98	4.19	0.24	0.00	0.004
Fire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.92	3.44	0.21	0.00	0.004
Fire_NoGap_Fence	NoFire_Gap_Fence	1	0.48	1.65	0.11	0.04	0.078
Fire_NoGap_Fence	NoFire_Gap_NoFence	1	0.61	2.39	0.15	0.00	0.008
Fire_NoGap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.58	2.23	0.14	0.02	0.035
Fire_NoGap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.49	1.69	0.11	0.07	0.112
Fire_NoGap_NoFence	NoFire_Gap_Fence	1	0.38	1.53	0.10	0.05	0.095
Fire_NoGap_NoFence	NoFire_Gap_NoFence	1	0.31	1.45	0.09	0.14	0.202
Fire_NoGap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.31	1.44	0.09	0.16	0.210
Fire_NoGap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.36	1.46	0.09	0.10	0.159
Burned	Burned						
Fire_Gap_NoFence	Fire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.53	2.21	0.15	0.03	0.056
Fire_Gap_NoFence	Fire_Gap_Fence	1	0.70	3.23	0.20	0.01	0.015
Fire_Gap_NoFence	Fire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.52	1.84	0.12	0.06	0.102
Fire_Gap_Fence	Fire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.97	4.76	0.25	0.00	0.004
Fire_NoGap_Fence	Fire_Gap_Fence	1	0.37	1.54	0.10	0.12	0.171
Fire_NoGap_Fence	Fire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.33	1.26	0.08	0.26	0.318
Unburned	Unburned						
NoFire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.27	1.12	0.07	0.32	0.363
NoFire_Gap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.36	1.32	0.09	0.17	0.210
NoFire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_Gap_Fence	1	0.21	0.88	0.06	0.59	0.639
NoFire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_Fence	1	0.15	0.72	0.05	0.73	0.757
NoFire_Gap_NoFence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.16	0.66	0.05	0.85	0.845
NoFire_NoGap_Fence	NoFire_NoGap_NoFence	1	0.28	1.14	0.08	0.30	0.345

**Table S3**: Seed and extant herb pairwise comparison within burned plots with a canopy gap and no fencing.

	Extant						
Seed	Community	Df	SumsOfSqs	F.Model	R2	p.value	p.adjusted
seed_2013 vs	herb_2013	1	0.36	31.06	0.72	0.001	0.008
seed_2013 vs	herb_2000	1	0.99	28.76	0.72	0.001	0.008
seed_2013 vs	herb_2001	1	0.40	14.98	0.56	0.063	0.079
seed_2013 vs	herb_2002	1	0.67	1448.19	0.99	0.002	0.008
seed_2013 vs	herb_2006	1	0.38	12.68	0.51	0.005	0.009