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2 DR. RORY CHARLES O'CONNOR (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-6473-0032)

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8 Browsing and fire decreases dominance of a resprouting shrub in woody encroached grassland

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10 Running Head: Browsing and fire reduce shrub dominance

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12 List of Authors: Rory C. O'Connor^{1,2}, Jeffrey H. Taylor¹, and Jesse B. Nippert¹

13

14 ¹Division of Biology, Kansas State University, Manhattan KS 66506

15 ²Corresponding author. Current address: O'Connor Rangeland Science, 970 S Lusk St, Boise ID

16 83706. Email: ro.c.oconnor@gmail.com

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19 **Abstract**

20 North American grasslands have experienced increased relative abundance of shrubs and trees over
21 the last 150 years. Alterations in herbivore composition, abundance and grazing pressure along with
22 changes in fire frequency are drivers that can regulate the transition from grassland to shrubland or
23 woodland (a process known as woody encroachment). Historically, North American grasslands had a
24 suite of large herbivores that grazed and/or browsed (i.e. bison, elk, pronghorn, deer), as well as
25 frequent and intense fires. In the tallgrass prairie, many large native ungulates were extirpated by the
26 1860's corresponding with increased homesteading (which led to decreased fire frequencies and
27 intensities). Changes in the frequency and intensity of these two drivers (browsing and fire) has
28 coincided with woody encroachment in tallgrass prairie. Within tallgrass prairie, woody
29 encroachment can be categorized in to two groups: non-resprouting species that can be killed with
30 fire, and resprouting species that cannot be killed with fire. Resprouting species require additional
31 active management strategies to decrease abundance and eventually be removed from the ecosystem.
32 In this study we investigated plant cover, ramet density and physiological effects of continuous
33 simulated browsing and prescribed fire on *Cornus drummondii* C.A. Mey, a resprouting clonal native
34 shrub species. Browsing reduced *C. drummondii* canopy cover and increased grass cover. We also
35 observed decreased ramet density that allowed for more infilling of grasses. Photosynthetic rates
36 between browsed and unbrowsed control shrubs did not increase in 2015 or 2016. In 2017,
37 photosynthetic rates for browsed shrubs were higher in the unburned site than the unbrowsed control
38 shrubs at the end of the growing season. Additionally, after the prescribed fire, browsed shrubs had
39 ~90% decreased cover, ~50% reduced ramet density, and grass cover increased by ~80%. In the roots
40 of browsed shrubs after the prescribed fire, non-structural carbohydrates (NSC) experienced a 2-fold
41 reduction in glucose and a 3-fold reduction in both sucrose and starch. The combined effects of
42 browsing and fire show strong potential as a successful management tool to decrease the abundance
43 of clonal-resprouting woody plants in mesic grasslands and illustrate the potential significance of
44 browsers as a key driver in this ecosystem.

46 **Keywords:** browsing; *Cornus drummondii*; fire; Konza Prairie; mesic grasslands; nonstructural
47 carbohydrates; resprouting/clonal; shrub encroachment; tallgrass prairie

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Accepted Article

49 **Introduction**

50 Woody encroachment, the expansion of shrubs and trees into grasslands, is a global phenomenon
51 occurring in many grasslands, savannas and steppes (Knapp et al. 2008, Saintilan and Rogers 2015,
52 Archer et al. 2017, Stevens et al. 2017). Causes of woody encroachment are often broken down into
53 three hierarchical scales of drivers: 1) global drivers such as elevated [CO₂]; 2) regional climate
54 drivers (e.g. precipitation timing and amount, temporal temperature changes); and 3) local drivers
55 such as land management history, changes in fire frequencies, land fragmentation and removal of
56 native herbivores (Archer et al. 1995, Van Auken 2009, Wigley et al. 2010, Stevens et al. 2017,
57 Venter et al. 2018). Each biome undergoing woody encroachment has a suite of these interacting
58 drivers that influence the rate of woody encroachment. While global and regional drivers are
59 important for forecasting future ecosystem patterns, identifying local drivers is paramount in the
60 development of potential management strategies.

61 North American grasslands evolved with fire and a suite of herbivores (i.e. grazers, browsers
62 and mixed feeders) that would have been comparable to modern day African grasslands (Sherow
63 2007, Allen and Palmer 2011, Ripple et al. 2015, Bakker et al. 2016, Flores 2016). After the mass
64 extinction of the Pleistocene megafauna, remnant ungulate species remained in North American
65 grasslands such as the bison (*Bos bison*, grazer), pronghorn (*Antilocapra americana*, browser), elk
66 (*Cervus elaphus*, mixed), mule deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*, browser) and white tail deer (*Odocoileus*
67 *virginianus*, browser) (Rickel 2005, Flores 2016). However, these species were nearly extirpated
68 throughout their historic grassland ranges by the end of the 19th century through westward expansion
69 of European settlers (Shaw and Lee 1997, Conard et al. 2006, Sherow 2007, Flores 2016). These
70 mammalian herbivores were replaced with cattle, a grazer, which left a void in the browsing and
71 mixed feeder niches. The loss of browsers may be a key facilitator of woody plant colonization and
72 establishment in these grasslands. In African grasslands, it has been shown that woody plants
73 successfully establish without browsers or mixed feeders present (Roques et al. 2001, Holdo et al.
74 2009, Ward 2015, Goheen et al. 2018). When cattle are present, but browser or mixed-feeder species
75 are not, woody plant establishment may increase because of decreased herbaceous cover and
76 increased light availability (Augustine and McNaughton 2004, Hempson et al. 2017). The top-down

77 effect of browsing inhibits woody seedling establishment and decreases growth of already established
78 woody plants.

79 Similar to herbivory, fire removes plant material and is a major driver of grassland structure
80 and function. Fire is crucial for maintaining and facilitating grass dominated herbaceous communities
81 by removing plant litter, increasing light availability, stimulating grass regeneration via belowground
82 buds, warming soils and eliminating woody plant seedlings (Hulbert 1988, Van Auken 2000,
83 Archibald et al. 2005, Benson and Hartnett 2006, Bond 2008, Archer et al. 2017). However, the
84 cessation of frequent fire allows woody plant species to establish and expand, infilling grasslands and
85 sometimes resulting in a transition to a new ecological state (Allen and Palmer 2011, Ratajczak et al.
86 2016, Miller et al. 2017). Many woody plants that have encroached in grasslands are capable of
87 resprouting after disturbances, including periodic fires (Bell 2001, Bond and Midgley 2003, Lett and
88 Knapp 2003, Hajny et al. 2011, Robertson and Hmielowski 2014). Resprouting woody plants store
89 carbon belowground in root tissues as starch, and maintain a reserve pool of belowground buds that
90 can then be used for regrowth after a disturbance such as herbivory or fire (Janicke and Fick 1998,
91 Bell 2001, Schutz et al. 2011, Moreira et al. 2012, Pausas et al. 2016). This regrowth often occurs in
92 the same growing season and corresponds with increasing stem or ramet densities (Hajny et al. 2011).
93 Increases in woody plant cover often create positive feedbacks that further decouple the grassland
94 from historic drivers and lead to an alternative stable state (i.e., shrubland, woodland) (Ratajczak et al.
95 2014a).

96 In the tallgrass prairie, the role of fire as a key driver of system dynamics has long been
97 recognized (Gleason 1913, Weaver and Aldous 1935, Henderson 1982, Gibson and Hulbert 1987,
98 Briggs et al. 2005, Allen and Palmer 2011). In this ecosystem fire frequencies >3 years (historic mean
99 fire frequency 3.76 years (Allen and Palmer 2011)) are no longer sufficient to mitigate woody
100 establishment because of low intensity fires, and fire is typically ineffective at removing resprouting
101 woody plants once established (Briggs et al. 2005, Ratajczak et al. 2014b, 2017, Twidwell et al. 2016,
102 Miller et al. 2017). If fire alone is ineffective at eliminating resprouting woody plants, then finding
103 another ecological driver that acts in conjunction with fire may be necessary for managing woody
104 plants in mesic temperate grasslands. We proposed to test that browsing in conjunction with fire may
105 be a suitable prescription for the removal of resprouting woody plants from an encroached grassland.

106 We specifically wanted to address three questions: 1) Does browsing a resprouting woody plant allow
107 for increases in herbaceous understory beneath the woody plant canopy to create a buildup of fine fuel
108 for prescribed fires? 2) Does browsing decrease carbon storage in the form of non-structural
109 carbohydrates in resprouting woody plant roots by the end of a growing season? 3) Does the
110 combination of browsing and fire decrease or eliminate resprouting woody plants in woody
111 encroached grasslands? To answer these three questions, we experimentally investigated the
112 combined importance of browsing and fire on the plant community in a woody encroached grassland
113 as well as their effects on the demography and physiology of *Cornus drummondii* C.A. Mey.
114 (roughleaf dogwood), a C₃ clonal resprouting shrub. *C. drummondii* and other resprouting woody
115 plants have expanded and continue to expand into the tallgrass prairie despite a reintroduction of fire
116 frequencies similar to presumed historic frequencies (Briggs et al. 2002, Ratajczak et al. 2014a). *C.*
117 *drummondii* shrubs were selected in two locations at the Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS),
118 one landscape with a 4-year fire frequency and the other with a 20-year fire frequency. We imposed a
119 monthly simulated browsing treatment where we randomly removed 50% of new meristematic growth
120 throughout the growing season on half of the selected *C. drummondii* shrubs for 2 years prior to a
121 prescribed fire in the 4-year fire frequency location. The simulated browsing treatment continued for
122 an additional year after the prescribed fire for both locations studied.

123 **Methods**

124 *Site description*

125 Research was conducted during the 2015 to 2017 growing seasons at the Konza Prairie Biological
126 Station (KPBS), a 3,487-ha native C₄ dominated grassland in northeastern Kansas, USA (39°05' N,
127 96°35' W). KPBS is located within the Flint Hills region, one of the largest continuous expanses of
128 unplowed tallgrass prairies left in North America. It remained unplowed due to the shallow rocky
129 soils and steep-sided hills. The climate in the tallgrass prairie at KPBS is characteristic of mid-
130 continental climates with high inter-annual variability in precipitation. Long-term mean annual
131 precipitation for KPBS is 806.9 mm (1982-2017) with 79% occurring during the growing season
132 (April-September). For research and management purposes, KPBS is divided into watershed units

133 with varying fire frequencies (1, 2, 4, or 20 years). The majority of prescribed fire treatments occur
134 during the spring (Mar-Apr).

135 *Study design*

136 To assess the effects of browsing and fire on resprouting woody plants we focused on *C. drummondii*,
137 a C₃ resprouting clonal shrub that expands laterally to create shrub islands. The shrub grows through
138 lateral rhizomes before a bud sends up a ramet. These ramets can grow upwards to be 1-2.5 m in
139 height depending on soil profile. Due to the height of the ramets, these shrub islands reduce light to
140 the understory which depresses herbaceous vegetation growth (Ratajczak et al. 2011). Within these
141 shrub islands there can also be multiple woody species present (e.g., *Symphoricarpos orbiculatus*
142 Moench, *Gleditsia triacanthos* L., and *Prunus americana* Marshall).

143 In 2015, 40 randomly stratified locations were chosen with half in a 4-yr burn treatment ($n =$
144 20) and half in a 20-yr burn treatment ($n = 20$, last burned in spring of 2012). Hereafter this 20-yr
145 burn treatment is referred to as 'unburned'. Each of the locations had a *C. drummondii* shrub island
146 present that was randomly assigned to a browse treatment (browsed $n = 20$, unbrowsed control $n =$
147 20). The simulated browse treatment consisted of removing 50% of new meristematic growth
148 randomly in the shrub islands through pinching or pulling off the plant tissue. All plant tissue that was
149 removed from the shrub islands was deposited outside of the study area. The browse treatment
150 occurred monthly through the growing season (May – September).

151 In the spring of 2017 (13 April 2017) a prescribed burn was applied to the 4-yr burn treatment.
152 Our study area experienced a full headfire which top-killed all browsed shrub island ramets and top-
153 killed a majority of control shrub islands. The browse treatment resumed after the prescribed fire
154 when new growth occurred, and leaves were fully expanded.

155 *Plant Community Composition*

156 Each August all shrub islands were surveyed for plant community composition and cover at their
157 center mid-point using a 10 m² circular plot. The circular plots did not exceed the boundary of the
158 shrub islands. All plants within the circular plot were identified down to species level and cover was
159 estimated using a modified Daubenmire cover scale (Bailey and Poulton 1968). The modified

160 Daubenmire cover scale size classes were as follows: 0-1, 1-5, 5-25, 25-50, 50-75, 75-95, and 95-
161 100%.

162 *Ramet Density*

163 At the end of each growing season, ramet density was determined by measuring the area of the *C.*
164 *drummondii* shrub island and then counting each ramet within the shrub islands. Due to the irregular
165 growth pattern of the clonal shrub islands, we calculated area of the shrub islands by dividing each
166 clone into 1 m wide lanes centered along the island's long axis. We then measured the distance
167 between the distalmost ramets of each lane. This distance was used to calculate the area of each lane.
168 Shrub island area was represented by the sum of all lane areas. We selected a wide range of shrub
169 areas with the smallest being 8.8 m² to the largest at 139.7 m². After determining the area of the shrub
170 island, we divided the total number of ramets within the shrub islands by their respective areas. This
171 protocol allowed us to measure the density of ramets for each individual shrub island.

172 *Leaf Photosynthesis*

173 We measured net photosynthesis using a LI-6400XT open gas exchange system with a red/blue light
174 source and a CO₂ injector (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE). We set the light source within the leaf
175 chamber to 2000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ and the CO₂ reference level to 400 μmol mol⁻¹. Measurements were
176 made throughout the growing season (May-August) from 1000-hr to 1500-hr on new fully expanded
177 leaves. Two measurements were recorded per shrub island, one at the periphery of the shrub island
178 and the second at the center of the shrub island to measure potential variation in photosynthesis within
179 the shrub islands. Net photosynthetic rates did not differ significantly ($P > 0.05$) between the inside
180 and outside of the shrub islands so the photosynthetic rates were treated as subsamples and averaged
181 for each shrub island prior to statistical analysis.

182 *Non-structural Carbohydrate Analysis*

183 *Cornus drummondii* root samples were collected at the end of the growing season after leaf
184 senescence to analyze for non-structural carbohydrates (NSC). Roots were harvested by locating three
185 ramets at the northern, center, and southern parts of the shrub island. Soil from around the ramets was
186 removed until fine and lateral roots were found. Once root tissues were uncovered 10 cm of root

187 tissue was excised from each ramet, no rhizomes were used for analysis, and root tissue was pooled
188 for each shrub island. We combined lateral and fine root tissues from each shrub island and placed the
189 roots in a cooler. All roots were washed in distilled water to remove all soil particles and then
190 microwaved for 90 seconds to halt enzymatic activity (Landhäusser et al. 2018). After microwaving,
191 roots were oven dried at 65 °C for 72 hours. All root samples were milled to 40 mesh (400 µm) prior
192 to ball milling (Wig-L-Bug®) and stored in glass vials in a -20 °C freezer until NSC analysis. NSC
193 analysis was performed to extract glucose, sucrose and starch concentrations from each root sample
194 (for a detailed methods of the NSC protocol see Appendix S1).

195 Because *C. drummondii* is clonal and exhibits strong responses in shrub island size following
196 fire (Lett et al. 2004), root NSC concentrations were multiplied by their respective ramet densities for
197 analysis and presentation. We assume that with a decrease in ramet density there will be a decrease in
198 root density, which could result in decreased NSC concentrations. Woody plant belowground net
199 primary production in woody encroached grasslands can be close to 50% of soil organic carbon in
200 clay soils (Barger et al. 2011).

201 *Statistical Analysis*

202 All the data met the assumptions of normality for repeated measures linear mixed effects models for
203 all response variables (plant cover, ramet density, glucose, sucrose, and starch). The fixed effects in
204 each model were browsing treatment and year with interaction of browsing treatment by year. Our
205 random effects for these models were shrub island nested within year to account for the variation
206 between the different shrub islands as well as to account for the repeated measures on each shrub
207 island. We used repeated measures mixed effects models for net photosynthetic rates. Our fixed
208 effects were browsing treatment and date sampled with random effects of shrub island nested within
209 year due to the repeated sampling within and between years. A fire effect (4-year or unburned) was
210 not included in the models because of the experimental design at KPBS, where fire is prescribed at the
211 watershed level (landscape-scale) and our experiment was nested within two watersheds. If the
212 interaction term of browsing and date sampled was significant then a Tukey's pairwise post-hoc
213 comparison was performed within each year or date. All analyses were done in Program R v3.4.3 (R
214 Core Team 2012) with the "lme4" package v1.1-17 (Bates et al. 2015) for linear mixed models,

215 repeated measure ANOVAs in “car” (Fox and Weisberg 2011) and figures were made with “ggplot2”
216 v2.2.1 (Wickham 2009).

217 **Results**

218 Simulated browsing treatments were effective in reducing *C. drummondii* cover in both fire
219 treatments (4-yr burn and unburned), however differences in the magnitude of the responses between
220 the two fire treatments varied according to the measurement type and scale of inquiry.

221 *Browsing and fire effects on community plant cover*

222 Browsing x year were significant in the 4-yr burn for *C. drummondii* cover (browsing x year $P <$
223 0.001) and grass cover (browsing x year $P < 0.001$). *C. drummondii* cover in the browsed shrub
224 islands were 20 % lower than the unbrowsed control shrub islands in the first year (2015) (Fig. 1a, $P =$
225 0.008). Grasses responded to the browse treatment with 43% higher cover in 2015 (Fig. 1c, $P <$
226 0.001). By the end of 2016, and prior to the next fire treatment, there was no additional reduction in
227 *C. drummondii* cover, which remained 20% lower than the unbrowsed control shrub islands ($P =$
228 0.008). Grass cover was 67% higher in the browsed shrub islands compared to the unbrowsed control
229 ($P < 0.001$). In the spring of 2017, the prescribed fire resulted in 100% top-kill of the browsed shrub
230 islands and 75% top-kill of the unbrowsed control shrub islands prior to budburst. By the end of the
231 2017 growing season, we saw a ~90% reduction in *C. drummondii* cover in browsed shrub islands (P
232 < 0.001) and grass cover was 77% higher in relation to the unbrowsed control shrub islands ($P <$
233 0.001). The unburned treatment experienced no statistically significant changes in shrub cover ($P =$
234 0.096) or grass cover ($P = 0.211$) due to browsing for any of the years sampled (Fig. 1b,d).

235 *Ramet density in response to browsing and fire*

236 Ramet density mimicked patterns of *C. drummondii* cover in the 4-yr burn treatment with statistically
237 significant responses in browsing x year ($P < 0.001$ respectively). In 2015 and 2016, there was no
238 statistically significant reduction of ramets in the browsed shrub islands compared to the unbrowsed
239 control shrub islands (Fig. 2a). However, in 2017 after the prescribed fire, *C. drummondii* ramets
240 increased in unbrowsed control shrub islands up to 16.7 ± 1.4 ramets m^{-2} while in the browsed shrub
241 islands ramets decreased to 7.4 ± 1.0 m^{-2} ($P < 0.001$).

242 We did not observe a strong browsing treatment effect on ramet density in the unburned
243 treatment ($P = 0.225$), but we did see a browsing \times year interaction (Fig. 2b; $P = 0.042$). The browsed
244 shrub islands had higher ramet densities than the unbrowsed control shrub islands, until 2017 when
245 there was no difference between treatments.

246 *Photosynthetic rate response to browsing and fire*

247 Regardless of fire frequency, net photosynthetic rates remained relatively similar in 2015 and 2016
248 between treatments and within fire frequencies (Fig. 3). In 2017 after the prescribed fire, browsed
249 shrub islands had lower net photosynthetic rates compared to the unbrowsed control shrubs (Fig. 3; 4-
250 yr burn, $P < 0.001$). Browse \times date sampled was not statistically significant. While in the unburned
251 treatment in 2017, net photosynthetic rates in the unbrowsed control shrub islands were lower
252 compared to the browsed shrub islands by the end of the growing season (Fig. 3; Unburned, $P =$
253 0.004).

254 *Non-Structural Carbohydrate (NSC) responses to browsing and fire*

255 The effects of browsing and year on NSC varied depending on the forms of NSC measured (i.e.
256 glucose, sucrose and starch) and the fire treatment (4-yr burn and unburned) (Fig. 4, Appendix S2:
257 Table S1). In 2016 for the 4-yr burn treatment, we observed no effects of browsing on glucose
258 concentration ($16.6 \pm 3.5 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$) compared to the unbrowsed control shrub islands ($13.8 \pm 2.4 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$).
259 In 2017, glucose concentrations increased 2-fold in the unbrowsed control shrub islands and
260 decreased by 30% in the browsed shrub islands relative to concentrations in 2016 ($25.4 \pm 2.2 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ vs
261 $11.6 \pm 1.9 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$; Fig. 4a, $P = 0.002$). In 2016, *C. drummondii* sucrose concentrations in the 4-yr burn
262 treatment were not statistically significant in the browsed shrub islands ($6.8 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$) compared to
263 unbrowsed control shrub islands ($9.2 \pm 3.3 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$). In 2017, sucrose concentrations were 3-fold higher
264 in unbrowsed control shrub islands relative to browsed shrub islands ($8.0 \pm 1.6 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ vs $24.5 \pm 5.4 \text{ mg}$
265 g^{-1} , Fig. 4c, $P = 0.002$). *C. drummondii* starch concentrations in 2016 in the 4-yr burn treatment were
266 not statistically different between the browsed shrub islands and the unbrowsed control shrub islands
267 ($400.0 \pm 64.5 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ vs $530.7 \pm 53.0 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$), while in 2017 starch concentrations were 3-fold higher in
268 the control shrub islands compared to the browsed shrub islands, relative to concentrations in 2016,
269 resulting in a significant difference between treatments ($198.7 \pm 45.7 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ vs $648.0 \pm 91.9 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$; Fig.

270 4e, $P < 0.001$). In the unburned treatment, we observed little to no difference in the amounts of
271 glucose, sucrose and starch between the browsed and unbrowsed control shrub islands (Fig. 4b, 4d,
272 4f; Appendix S2: Table S1).

273 Discussion

274 Here, we provide clear evidence for the interactive role of recent fire and browsing as a strong top-
275 down control on woody vegetation in the tallgrass prairie. As expected, simulated browsing removed
276 enough leaf and new meristematic tissues that the typically closed canopies of *Cornus drummondii*
277 shrub islands were opened allowing more light infiltration for grasses to increase in biomass and
278 cover. The grasses within the shrub islands likely existed as dormant rhizomes before browsing, and
279 changes in grass abundance were likely due to vegetative reproduction and not the germination of
280 new seedlings (Benson and Hartnett 2006). With increased light and nutrient availability, grasses
281 respond positively and quickly via tiller production from dormant buds (Lett and Knapp 2003, 2005,
282 Vanderweide et al. 2014). The continuation of season-long removal of new growth over subsequent
283 years led to decreases in *C. drummondii* ramet density and a buildup of fine fuels from grasses that, in
284 the 4-yr burn treatment, resulted in the prescribed fire causing 100% topkill in the browsed shrub
285 islands (personal observation). The browsed shrub island responses following fire were an even
286 further decrease in ramet density and an 88% reduction in *C. drummondii* cover and an increase of
287 80% grass cover by the end of the 2017 growing season (Fig 1a, c). However, the response to fire in
288 the unbrowsed control shrub islands in the 4-yr fire treatment was a large increase in ramet density,
289 similar to previous studies (McCarron and Knapp 2001, Heisler et al. 2004). In the unburned
290 treatment, browsed *C. drummondii* shrub islands gradually decreased percent cover each year with a
291 concurrent gradual increase in grass cover (Fig 1b, d). The slower decrease in shrub cover and
292 increase in grass cover in the unburned treatment may result from no change in ramet density among
293 browsed shrub islands during the first 2 years of the study. To explain the dramatic differences
294 between the 4-yr burn and unburned treatments we propose that the species composition of the woody
295 plants present determines the efficacy of browsing (Augustine and McNaughton 2004, Ascoli et al.
296 2013, Roberts et al. 2014, Anderson et al. 2015). In the burned location, *C. drummondii* was the
297 dominant woody plant on the landscape with *Rhus glabra* L (smooth sumac), another clonal
298 resprouting shrub, mixing within the shrub islands. In the unburned location, there were more woody

299 plant species that had infilled within the *C. drummondii* shrub islands (Briggs et al. 2005). Some of
300 these woody species were not dominant at the start of the experiment, or even present, but by the end
301 of our measurement period, significant growth of these sub-dominant species had occurred within the
302 shrub islands. A few of these species were *Symphoricarpos orbiculatus* Moench (coralberry),
303 *Gleditsia triacanthos* L. (honeylocust) and *Prunus americana* Marshall (American plum), which are
304 all resprouting and/or clonal woody plants. Thus, successful adaptive management of woody plants
305 must focus on functional groups (i.e. clonal woody plants, resprouting woody plants, non-resprouting
306 plants), rather than species-specific removals.

307 Browsing did not increase leaf-level photosynthetic rates in *C. drummondii* shrub islands
308 throughout the growing seasons of 2015 and 2016 as expected in either the 4-yr burn or unburned
309 treatments. In 2017 after the prescribed fire, leaf-level photosynthesis did not increase in the browsed
310 shrub islands. However, in the unburned, unbrowsed control shrub islands leaf-level photosynthesis
311 was lower, presumably from a pulse-drought that coincided with the July sampling (July precipitation:
312 2017 = 33 mm, 30-yr avg. = 100 mm; August precipitation: 2017 = 159 mm, 30-yr avg. = 107 mm).
313 Measurements of leaf-level photosynthesis for the 4-year burn were performed in August after
314 precipitation. Our leaf-level photosynthesis results differ from other studies that observed increases in
315 photosynthesis following herbivory from native browsers (elk) in clonal or resprouting woody plants
316 (Johnston et al. 2007, Rhodes et al. 2017). Generally, increases in photosynthesis from herbivory is a
317 mechanism that plants use to compensate for loss of tissue (Pinkard et al. 2011). In 2017, after the
318 prescribed fire, we expected to see continued increases in photosynthesis because of a release of
319 available nitrogen and new ramet growth (Fig. 2) (Longstreth and Nobel 1980, Blair 1997). However,
320 after the prescribed fire, only shrubs in the unbrowsed control treatments exhibited higher
321 photosynthesis compared to previous years (Fig. 3), increasing NSC (glucose, sucrose and starch) for
322 unbrowsed control shrubs in 2017 (Fig. 4). In contrast, browsed shrub island NSC was reduced by
323 200-300% following the prescribed fire (Fig. 4a), likely impacted by reduced photosynthetic rates
324 (Fig. 4), reduced ramet density (Fig. 2) and reduced total leaf area (expressed as cover in Fig. 1).
325 Independently, the effects of browsing or fire alone were insufficient to reduce ramet densities,
326 photosynthesis or NSC reserves to produce large shrub ramet mortality. However, when browsing and

327 fire were combined, the effects on ramet densities and root NSC were large and suggest a potential for
328 long-term shrub mortality in this grassland.

329 *Management Implications*

330 Woody encroachment is one of the greatest conservation threats to grasslands worldwide. The
331 increase in dominance of woody plants, particularly resprouting woody species, may result from
332 changes in many drivers including land use change, urban expansion, decreased fire frequency and
333 severity, and decreased browsing herbivore pressure. Many grasslands experience frequent
334 disturbance and require disturbance for the maintenance of the ecosystem state. However, clonal or
335 resprouting woody plants have developed mechanisms to increase their competitive ability with
336 grasses and ultimately alter disturbance patterns. These strategies of clonal woody shrubs include 1)
337 access to water deep in the soil profile (Nippert et al. 2013, Holdo et al. 2017), 2) stored energy
338 reserves (NSC) in belowground tissues (Bond and Midgley 2003, Bond 2008), 3) stored demographic
339 potential in belowground bud banks (Clarke et al. 2013, Vanderweide et al. 2014), and 4) utilizing
340 rapid vertical growth which results in shading out herbaceous competitors (Bond and Midgley 2003).
341 We have shown that of these four adaptive strategies shared by many clonal woody species, two can
342 be negatively impacted via simulated browsing and prescribed fire. By decreasing the woody plants'
343 abilities to adequately store energy belowground and improving the light environment for understory
344 herbaceous species, simulated browsing decreased the dominance of the clonal woody species
345 measured here, and promoted increased grass cover.

346 As land managers struggle to maintain both ecosystem function and profitability in the face of
347 woody encroachment, finding effective tools for woody species mitigation is becoming increasingly
348 important (Wilcox et al. 2018). Frequent disturbance of aboveground biomass to open up the canopy
349 and increase light availability can be achieved with mechanical removal or by using browsers (Green
350 and Newell 1982, Hart 2001, Lett and Knapp 2005). The data shown here illustrate that repeated
351 disturbances that partially remove aboveground woody plant tissues negatively affects resprouting
352 shrubs, while increasing grass cover. Our suggestion for land managers dealing with clonal
353 resprouting shrubs in mesic temperate grasslands is the frequent removal of new shrub growth; total
354 removal of aboveground biomass is not necessary. The method for removal of woody plant

355 aboveground biomass can be through herd type browsers, mechanical removal, or both to increase
356 light availability for grass growth. Once fine fuels are established, then fire can be reintroduced into
357 the landscape for continued suppression and eventual mortality of the woody plants.

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551

552 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

553 Data are available on the LTER Network Data Portal at:

554 <https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/7ec1d77684c30eb707468f72db101bb0>

555

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Effects of browsing on *Cornus drummondii* cover and grass cover in 4-yr burn and unburned (UB) treatments from 2015 to 2017. In the 4-yr burned treatment a spring prescribed fire occurred in 2017 (red dashed line). Means are given with one SE around the mean as error bars. Significance is indicated by an asterisk ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 2. Effects of browsing on *Cornus drummondii* ramet densities in 4-yr burned and unburned (UB) treatments from 2015 to 2017. In the 4-yr burned treatment a spring prescribed fire occurred in 2017 (red dashed line). Means are given with one SE around the mean as error bars. Significance is indicated by an asterisk ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 3. Effects of browsing on the photosynthetic rates of *Cornus drummondii* in the 4-yr burned and unburned (UB) treatments. Photosynthetic rates were measured during the growing season for 3 years (2015-2017). In the 4-yr burned treatment a spring prescribed fire occurred in the spring of 2017 (red dashed line). Means are given with one SE around the mean as error bars. Significance is indicated by an asterisk ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 4. Effects of browsing on *Cornus drummondii* root glucose, sucrose and starch in 4-yr burned and unburned (UB) treatments in 2016 and 2017. In the 4-yr burned treatment a spring prescribed fire occurred in 2017 (red dashed line). Means are given with one SE around the mean as error bars. Significance is indicated by an asterisk ($P < 0.05$).

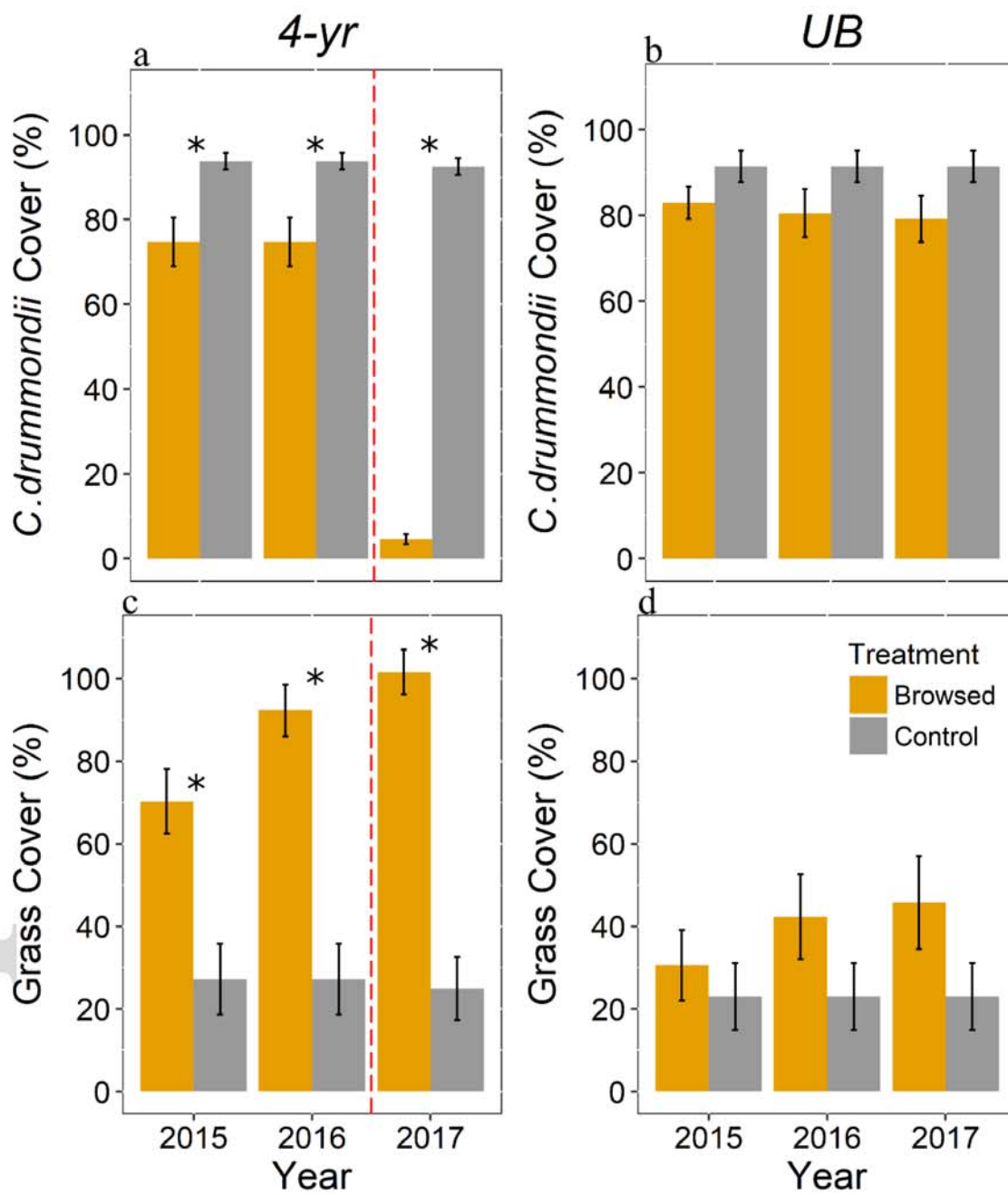


Figure 1.

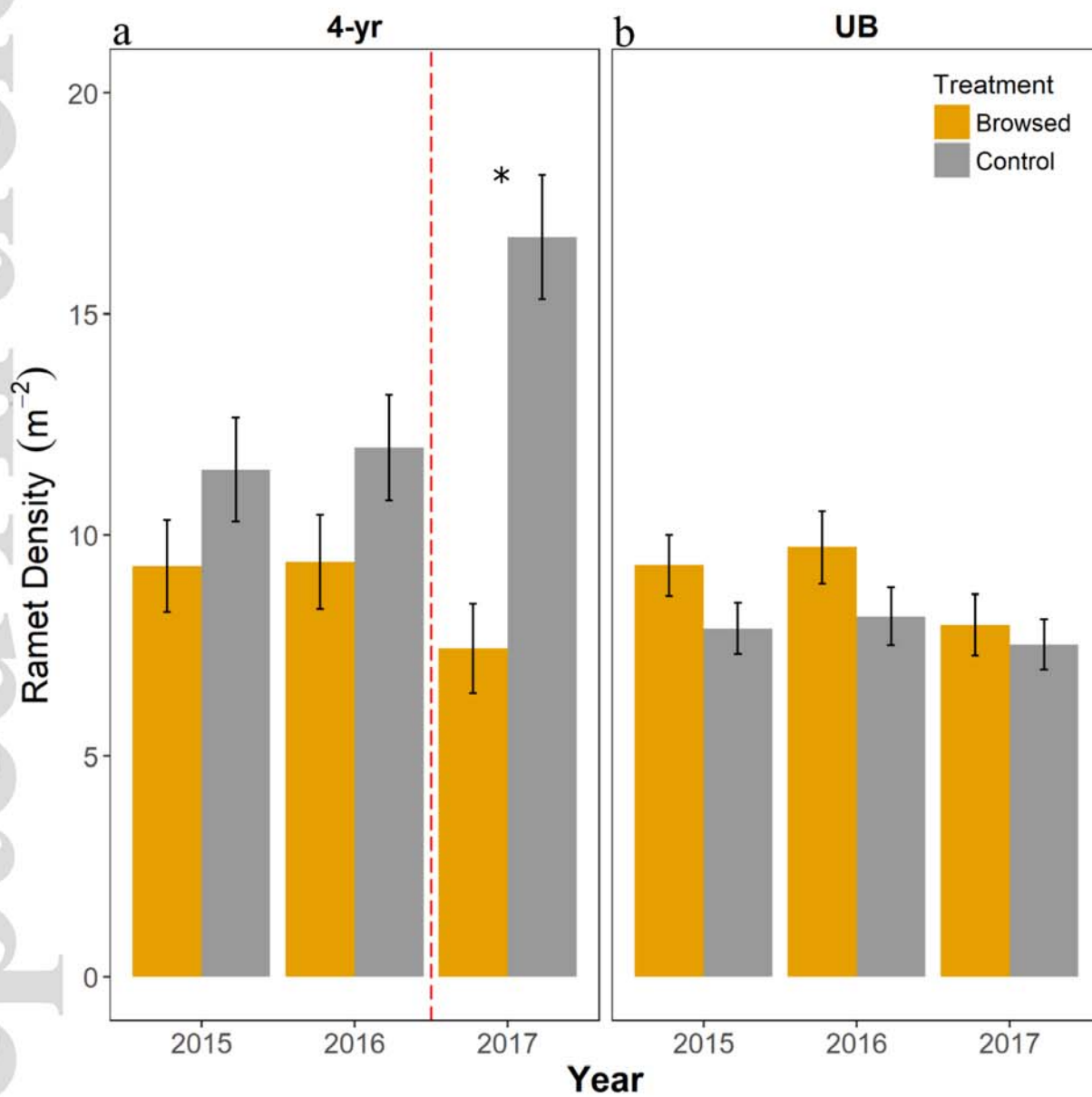


Figure 2

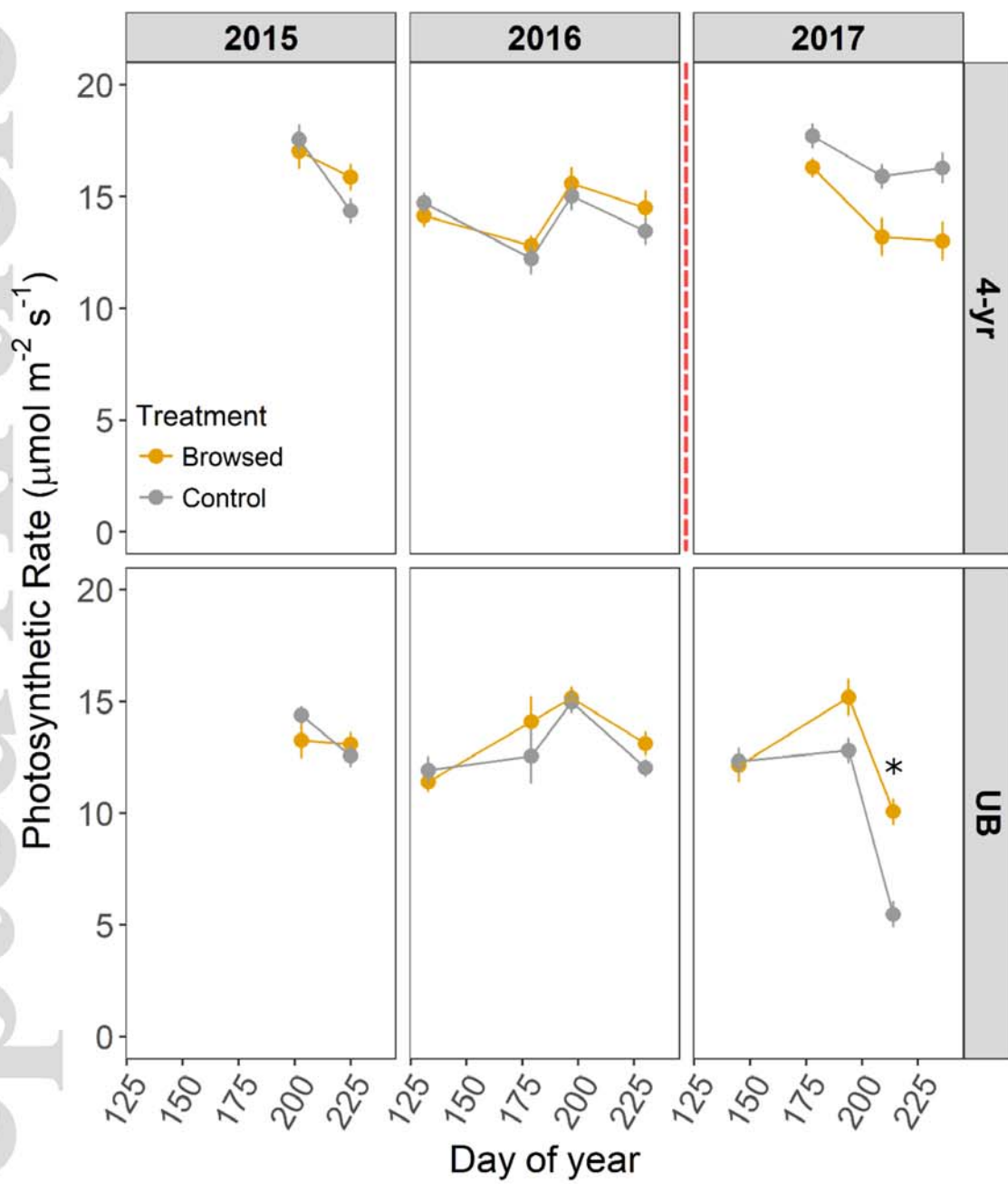


Figure 3

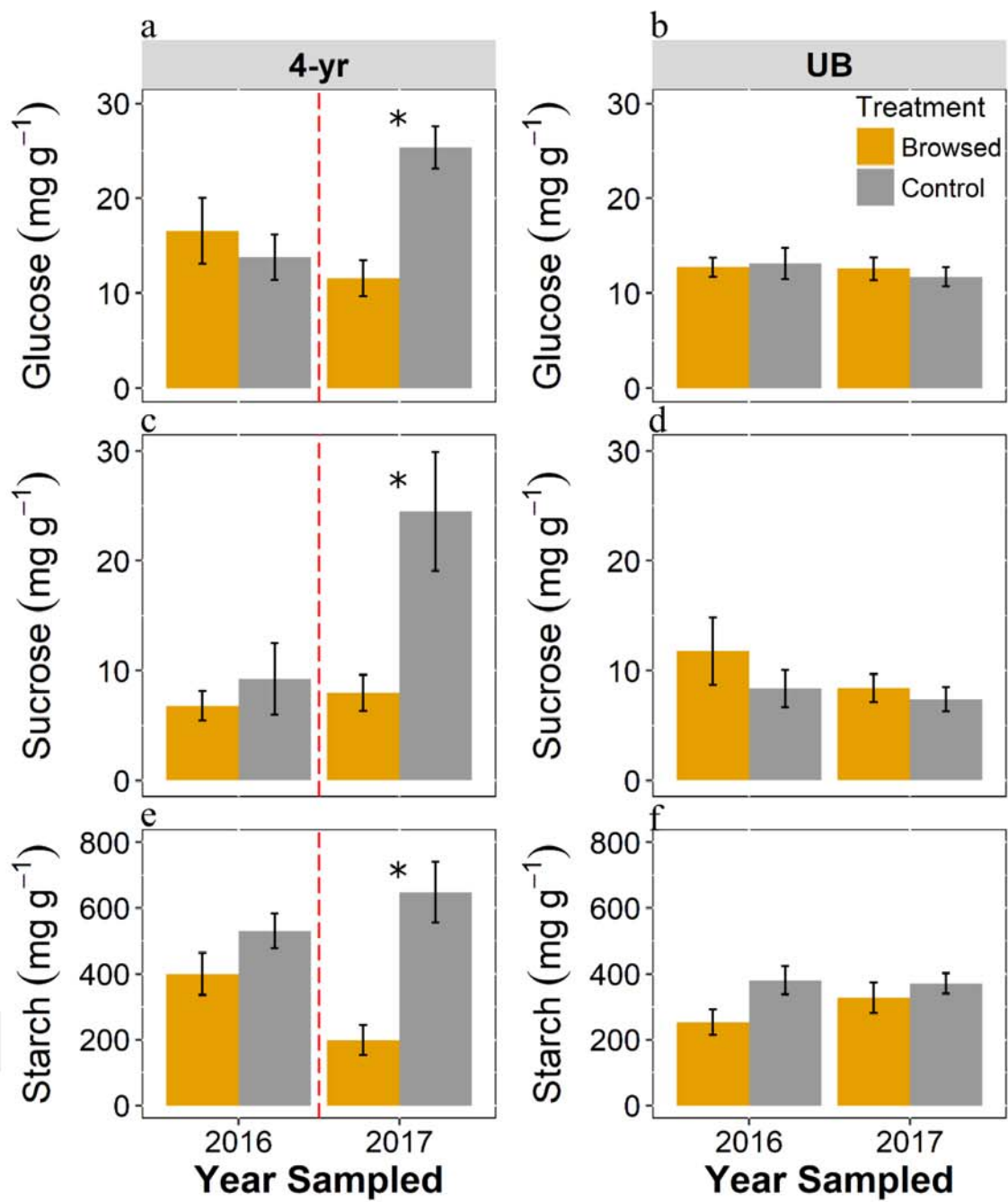


Figure 4