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Fire in the Northern Great Plains of North America

by Tom Bragg¹



Spring burning in cool-season-grass-dominated prairies of the Northern Great Plains can be an effective land management option. The long-term benefits to plants and animals, however, come with a short-time generation of smoke columns often visible for great distances.

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INTENT

The following review is intended to summarize available literature in order to provide a state-of-the-art understanding of the effects of fire in the Northern Great Plains of North America. There are gaps in our knowledge so, where reasonable, fire effects are inferred from studies in other ecoregions. In addition, since no landscape is homogeneous, local conditions may elicit different responses by plants and animals to fire. This summary provides a starting place from which to make management decisions. However, monitoring is needed to ensure that management objectives are being met when using prescribed fire or when interpreting the response of biota to wildfire. Thanks to Dan Hoffmann who lay some of the groundwork for this review in a special topics course. Scientific nomenclature of plants follows Flora of North America (1993+). Constructive comments, additions to the literature, and any updates are encouraged by e-mailing tbragg@unomaha.edu.

THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

The Northern Great Plains, as defined for this review, extends northwestward from northcentral Nebraska (exclusive of the Nebraska Sand Hills Prairie) through eastern Wyoming and western South Dakota, eastern Montana and western North Dakota and into southeastern Alberta and southwestern Saskatchewan (Fig. 1). Covering approximately 94 million acres (38 million hectares), the region incorporates short, mixed, and tallgrass prairie types, specifically including the wheatgrass-bluestem-needlegrass (*Agropyron-Andropogon-Stipa*) and the wheatgrass-needlegrass (*Agropyron-Stipa*) associations of Küchler (1985). These grasslands occur primarily on loamy glacial tills and clay to clay-loam soils.

Within the region, cool-season, C3 grasses dominate in the north but are increasingly replaced by warm-season, C4 species towards the south. Associations of taller plant species are often limited to lower slopes but transition to mid-height and then to shorter species associations on the dry hilltops (Barnes et al. 1983). Western wheatgrass (*Pascopyrum smithii*) is the common denominator species of the Northern Great Plains, even though it is not always a dominant (Gartner et al. 1986). Other common grasses include blue grama (*Bouteloua gracilis*), needle-and-thread (*Hesperostipa comata*), green needlegrass (*Nassella viridula*) and porcupine grass (*Hesperostipa spartea*).

Forb productivity ranges from 0-40 percent of total net primary production (Handley 1969, Lura et al. 1988) but may vary considerably depending on grazing intensity (Whitman 1974). Several woody species, including western snowberry (*Symphoricarpos occidentalis*), fringed sagebrush (*Artemisia frigida*), eastern redcedar (*Juniperus virginiana*), and quaking aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) are among woody species that have replaced herbaceous species in some portions of the region, with quaking aspen the greatest concern towards the north and eastern redcedar the greatest concern towards the south (Wright and Bailey 1982, Kaul and Rolfsmeier 1993, Romo et al. 1993, Grant et al. 2004, Grant and Murphy 2005). Kentucky bluegrass (*Poa pratensis*) and smooth brome (*Bromus inermis*), both cool-season exotics, have increased since the 1970's, even with burning (Kirsch and Kruse 1973, Murphy and Grant 2005, DeKeyser et al. 2013) resulting in the loss of plant and animal diversity. This loss, however, is not the only consequence of the invasion of these introduced grasses. Nutrient pools, energy flow, soil invertebrate and mycorrhizal relationships, and the water cycle also can be altered significantly (Seastedt 1985, Bragg and Steuter 1996, Christian and Wilson 1999, Wilson 2002, Neary et al. 2005).



Fig. 1. The Northern Great Plains Ecoregion, one perspective (Forrest et al. 2004).

FIRE EFFECTS ON VEGETATION OF THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

General: Historically, fires occurred frequently in the Northern Great Plains (Higgins 1984, 1986) with the number of years between fires ranging from 4-6 years in the south to greater than 20 years towards the north (Frost 1998, Guyette et al. 2011). Resident plants and animals are variously adapted to persist with fire, although responses differ considerably across the region as affected by local variables such as weather, topography, and species composition (Singh et al. 1983). Fire suppression results in accumulation of mulch which favors cool-season exotic species (Ode et al. 1980, Whisenant 1990) and most likely accounts for the active invasion of woody plants in the southern portion of the Northern Great Plains (Kaul and Rolfsmeier 1993, Grant and Murphy 2005).

In general, fire reduces standing crop (i.e. annual production) of both cool-season and warm-season species on dry upland Northern Great Plains sites (e.g. Whisenant and Uresk 1989, Pylypec and Romo 2003), although standing crop for some species, such as threadleaf sedge (*Carex filifolia*), has been reported to increase on some sites after burning in wet years (e.g. Engle and Bultsma 1984). Recovery from fire to pre-burn productivity may take 1-3 years but fire may improve herbage quality (Willms et al. 1980), decrease litter (Willms et al. 1986 and 1993), and increase bare ground allowing more light to penetrate the canopy during the growing season (Dix 1960), which in combination could enhance seedling success and early plant growth. The inability of fire to reduce western snowberry (*Symphoricarpos occidentalis*), however, suggests that fire alone is not a likely means of woody plant control for native resprouting species (Romo et al. 1993). Overall, reductions in net production and in individual species' primary production caused by fire vary depending on a number of site-specific and time-specific variables including: 1) lower plant and soil water potentials on burned sites (DeJong and MacDonald 1975), 2) weather conditions and the attraction of grazers to recently burned areas (Gartner et al. 1986), 3) differences in site productivity (Dix 1960, DeJong and MacDonald 1975, Whisenant and Uresk 1990), 4) the presence of significant amounts of native warm-season species (Schacht and Stubbendieck 1985), 5) topographic location, and 6) season of occurrence. In addition, studies in other grasslands observed bunch

grasses to be more susceptible to fire damage than rhizomatous grasses (e.g. Pfeiffer and Steuter 1994, Engle et al. 1998), thus species composition may also affect the response of Northern Great Plains grasslands to fire.

Season of Burn: Plant responses that differ depending on the season in which fires occur have been widely reported (Dix 1960, Coupland 1973, Schacht and Stubbendieck 1985, Gartner et al. 1986, Steuter 1987, Biondini et al. 1989, Whisenant and Uresk 1990, Redmann et al. 1993) including some indicating different effects when fire is followed by drought (e.g. Engle and Bultsma 1984). In general, spring fires in the Northern Great Plains (i.e. those occurring early in the growing season) decrease overall yields, although they may improve range condition with increased yields of western wheatgrass, needle-and-thread, and blue grama and decreased yields for Kentucky bluegrass and green needlegrass (Gartner et al. 1986, White and Currie 1983, Engle and Bultsma 1984, Steuter 1987, Pylypec and Romo 2003). White and Currie (1983) also reported that, while fire reduced plant yield, the reduction was less with spring burning than with fall burning. Spring burns also were shown to shift production more towards warm-season species than summer and fall burns (Steuter 1987). Regarding the forb component of the Northern Great Plains, Biondini et al. (1989) reported that differences in composition were not drastic among burns conducted in the spring, summer, fall, or unburned treatments, although plant responses in unburned and spring treatments were more similar to each other than summer and fall burn treatments, which were more self-similar. Forb density was highest with fall and spring burns.

Research to date on summer fires suggests they reduce productivity in dry sites of the Northern Great Plains (Dix 1960, Erichsen-Arychuk et al. 2002), although on wetter, more mesic sites, they do not substantively affect productivity. Where conditions are more mesic, summer fires increase both the relative importance of cool-season plant production and the relative contribution to cool-season species through reduction of warm-season grasses (Steuter 1987). Vermeire et al. (2011) observed similar results with an August burn in which productivity was not affected but where species composition was shifted to one dominated by native, cool-season perennial grasses

with a concomitant decline in non-native annual grasses. Needle-and-thread grass and threadleaf sedge were among cool-season species that were resilient, declining the first year after the summer burn but recovering to pre-burn productivity the second year. Perennial warm-season grasses were generally unaffected by summer fire.

Fire and Invasive Plants: Kentucky bluegrass (*Poa pratensis*) and smooth brome (*Bromus inermis*), both cool-season exotics, have increased since the mid-1900's in the Northern Great Plains (Kirsch and Kruse 1972, Murphy and Grant 2005, Travnicek et al. 2005). DeKeyser et al. (2013) reported a similar invasion but found that, while both grazed and ungrazed areas maintained a high cover of Kentucky bluegrass, smooth brome cover was significantly lower in areas grazed by cattle than in those not grazed. Fire, however, has been shown to reduce the non-native invasive Kentucky bluegrass (Murphy and Grant 2005), although it also reduced the native, invasive purple threeawn (*Aristida purpurea*) (Russell et al. 2013). Summer fires, however, had a greater impact on purple threeawn than did fall fires (Strong et al. 2013). Steuter (1987) also reported a significant reduction in Kentucky bluegrass following dormant fall fires, although fall burning maintained or increased the native cool-season grass component. In contrast to these studies, whether occurring in the spring or the fall, fire has been unsuccessful in controlling smooth brome, one of the principal invasive grass of the Northern Great Plains, (Kirsch and Kruse 1972, Grilz and Romo 1994, Sieg 1996, Murphy and Grant 2005, DeKeyser et al. 2013).

FIRE EFFECTS ON FAUNA OF THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

Birds: Bird species of the Northern Great Plains, as elsewhere, respond individualistically to fire. In the Northern Great Plains, passerine (a.k.a. perching) bird species reported to decrease in numbers immediately following a fire include sedge wren (*Cistothorus platensis*), clay-colored sparrow (*Spizella pallida*), Le Conte's sparrow (*Ammodramus leconteii*), Savannah sparrow (*Passerculus sandwichensis*), bobolinks (*Dolichonyx oryzivorus*), Lark Sparrow (*Chondestes grammacus*), Grasshopper Sparrow (*Ammodramus savannarum*), and Western Meadowlark (*Sturnella neglecta*), although most recovered to pre-burn levels

within 2-3 years (Tester and Marshall 1961, Forde et al. 1984, Grant et al. 2010). Other passerine species that recover quickly or increase following fire include cowbirds (*Molothrus* spp), Baird's Sparrow (*Ammodramus bairdii*), and Sprague's Pipit (*Anthus spragueii*) (Madden et al. 1999, Danley et al. 2004). These results suggest that, in general, fire benefits passerine birds, for example by increasing both the amount and diversity of food as standing dead and litter is removed exposing seeds (Higgins et al. 1989). The effect of fire on non-passerine birds in the Northern Great Plains, which includes upland game birds, was not found to be widely reported in the literature but Kirsch and Kruse (1973) believe enough basic information is known to be able to use fire as an effective management tool. For example, fire size can be critical as demonstrated by a modeling study of a sagebrush plant community in Idaho in which frequent, large fires had the potential to threaten local extinction of populations of sage grouse (Pedersen et al. 2003). Similarly, the prevalence of annual burning across large portions of the Kansas Flint Hills is causing significant declines in Greater Prairie Chicken (*Tympanuchus cupido pinnatus*) (Svedarsky et al. 2000).

Overall, fire is important for maintaining prairie habitat since grassland birds appear to be well adapted to periodic fires that approximate those of the historic prairie (Murphy 2008). Thus, land managers in the Northern Great Plains should not be overly concerned about fire's effect on bird abundance, which is generally limited to the year or two after burning (Grant et al. 2010). A greater concern is the absence of fire, which has other more deleterious consequences. For example, decades of fire prevention to manage for duck nesting habitat in the Drift Prairie of North Dakota resulted in dominance by Kentucky bluegrass and smooth brome and a decline in populations of grassland dependent birds (Murphy and Grant 2005). Only 3-4 species of breeding grassland passerines persisted while at least six other grassland dependent species of passerines declined or were no longer found (Madden et al. 1999, Murphy and Sondreal 2003). Declining species included the endemic Sprague's pipit (*Anthus spragueii*), which is associated with native bunch grasses and avoids broad-leaved, introduced grasses, such as smooth brome (Wilson and Belcher 1989, Madden et al. 1999).

Mammals: Published studies on the effect of fire on small mammals specifically in the Northern Great Plains appear to be limited, although studies elsewhere suggest likely effects (Higgins et al. 1989). In general, studies on small mammals and fire in other grassland-dominated ecosystems suggest that their response is more a reaction to fire-altered habitat than it is to direct mortality during burning. Most small mammals readily find shelter from fire underground in burrows (e.g. Lawrence 1966, Quinn 1979, Geluso and Bragg 1986). From 2-4 years after burning, primary production gradually declines while litter gradually accumulates. This creates a dynamic change in habitat and food sources over time resulting in shifts in small mammal species composition and density since small mammals respond individualistically to the fire regime (Dix 1960, Vogl 1965, McGee 1982, Smith 2000). For example, across a broad range of post-burn habitats, a variety of studies show significantly higher populations of deer mice (*Peromyscus maniculatus*) in recently burned areas than in unburned areas (Cook 1959, Tester 1965, Beck and Vogl 1972, McGee 1976, Kaufman et al. 1983). Deer mice remain the dominant species for 2-4 years until the accumulated litter becomes too dense for optimum habitat (Rickard 1960, McGee 1976). The western harvest mouse (*Reithrodontomys megalotis*), a granivore, generally follows deer mice in post-fire succession. It will inhabit a recently burned area but tends not to invade until some vegetative cover is established (Cook 1959, Kaufman et al. 1983). Voles (*Microtus* spp.) are among the last to move into a once-burned area so populations usually are low for the first 2-4 years or until litter accumulations reach that of unburned areas (Cook 1959, Rickard 1960, McGee 1976, Vacanti and Geluso 1985). Jumping mice (*Zapus* spp) are also found mostly in unburned areas where cover and food are available (McGee 1976).

Invertebrates: The effect of fire on invertebrates is likely to vary with season of occurrence, although few studies have been conducted in the Northern Great Plains to verify this assumption. Studies in the more mesic Tallgrass Prairie region to the south and east suggest possible effects. For example, Rice (1932) assessed the effects of fire on invertebrates in a Tallgrass Prairie and noted different responses for different groups finding, for example, a decrease in spiders but an increase in ants. Similarly, Arnett (1960), Nagel (1973), and Lussenhop (1976) reported an increase in

arthropod biomass and density in Tallgrass Prairie following burning. For grasshoppers, Branson (2005) noted that a fall fire in the Northern Mixed-Grass Prairie resulted in a decline in population density the year following burning but that densities recovered two years thereafter. No difference in grasshopper diversity was detected between burned and unburned treatments. For spring burning, however, Knutson and Campbell (1976) noted different effects of burning in the Tallgrass Prairie depending on when in the spring a burn occurs. Early spring fire induced earlier emergence and greater numbers and diversity of grasshoppers than fires later in the spring.

SUMMARY

Although fire in the Northern Great Plains may reduce standing crop (i.e. annual production) and alter community composition and diversity patterns, these responses are indicative of a grassland biota well adapted to fire (e.g. Steuter 1987, Biondini et al. 1989). In addition, the range of variability in plant composition resulting from spring, summer, and fall burns is further affected by variables such as annual fluctuations in weather (Biondini et al. 1989) or soil condition (e.g. Piper 1995). However, without fire, litter accumulates, cool-season exotic species increase, and prairie faunal diversity declines. While the Northern Great Plains grasslands are adapted to fire (e.g. Moore 1972, Higgins et al. 1989), the variability of weather, soil, and topography across this expansive ecoregion requires careful and continuous monitoring of observed effects of fire at any particular location in order to ensure meeting land management objectives.

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GETTING HELP

Additional information can be found in a [summary](#) of the 2014 workshop on cool-season invasive grasses of the Northern Great Plains available from the products page of the Great Plains Fire Science Exchange website. The Great Plains Fire Science Exchange has resources on fire, fire effects, monitoring, and more at <http://GPFireScience.org>.



For more information: gpfirescience.org