1	Seed sourcing for climate-resilient grasslands: the role of seed source diversity during early
2	restoration establishment
3	Running Head: Seed source diversity in restoration establishment
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17 ABSTRACT

Restoration often advocates for the use of local seed in restoration, however increasingly 18 19 new strategies have been proposed to incorporate diverse sources to maintain evolutionary 20 potential within seed mixes. Increasing seed sources per species within a seed mix should increase genetic variation, however, few empirical studies have evaluated how seed source 21 22 diversity impacts plant community composition following restoration. Thus, the goal of this research was to compare the use of single or multi-source seed mix treatments to plant 23 community diversity following restoration. Using 14 species commonly applied in grassland 24 25 restoration, we examined plant community diversity following restoration comparing seed mixes 26 with either one or five sources per species across two restoration sites in Minnesota and South Dakota, United States. Following seeding, species establishment and abundance were recorded to 27 calculate plant diversity for each seed mix treatment. There were no major effects of seed mix 28 29 treatment on community emergence and diversity observed, with the majority of plant 30 establishment reflecting non-seeded species. However, site-specific differences were observed. Heterogeneous land-use history associated with the Minnesota site likely contributed to 31 32 differences across the restoration treatments. In contrast, community diversity at the South 33 Dakota site was homogeneous across seed mix treatments with changes in plant community influenced solely by early season species establishment. This suggests land-use history 34 irrespective of seed mix treatment influences establishment and persistence, particularly in the 35 first year following restoration. Future monitoring across seasons will be needed to evaluate if 36 37 community diversity changes in response to seed mix treatment.

- 39 KEYWORDS: Grassland restoration, plant diversity, emergence, seed mix, species richness,
- 40 genetic variation

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41 INTRODUCTION

One of the major aims of ecological restoration is to restore or re-establish functional 42 plant species diversity to ensure key ecosystem services are maintained (Barr et al. 2017; 43 Montoya et al. 2012). To ensure ecosystem health and the maintenance of productive plant 44 communities, this includes creating diverse seed mixes for application in restoration (Tilman et 45 46 al. 1996, 1997, 2001; Brudvig 2011). These seed mixes create communities that may be resilient to changes in nutrient availability (Craven et al. 2016), competition from non-natives (Funk et al. 47 48 2008; Oakley & Knox 2013; Yurkonis et al. 2012; Norland et al. 2013), and climate change 49 (Isbell et al. 2015). Evolutionary theory emphasizes the important role both inter- and intraspecific variation established within seed mixes may have to restoration success over time 50 51 (McKay et al. 2005). Greater biodiversity within restoration communities may increase total 52 plant productivity across time leading to increased stability in soil nutrient availability (Craven et 53 al. 2016), and resilience to extreme events (Isbell et al. 2015). In addition, intraspecific variation 54 is essential as this may provide the raw material that natural selection may act upon and is needed to maintain species' evolutionary potential (Pizza et al. 2021; McKay et al. 2005). 55 56 Despite the importance of intraspecific diversity to restoration success, few studies have quantified the role diversity within species has to restoration outcomes (Hamilton et al. 2020). 57 Consequently, to ensure that plant communities persist over time and in response to change, 58 there is a need to consider both the role of within and between species diversity to restoration. 59 Current strategies used to establish seed mixes often advocate a 'local is best' approach 60 (Broadhurst et al. 2008; McKay et al. 2005). This approach assumes that local seed sources will 61 have greatest fitness in local restoration environments relative to non-local sources (Kawecki & 62 63 Ebert 2004; Hoban et al. 2016). While there is evidence of local adaptation for many plant

species (Leimu et al. 2010; Hereford 2009), the degree or scale of adaptation is often unknown 64 (McKay et al. 2005). Furthermore, to conserve evolutionary potential requires genetic variation 65 66 (Kawecki & Ebert 2004). Genetic diversity is the raw material that selection acts upon and is necessary for adaptation to changing environmental conditions. Genetic variation may be lost 67 through random fluctuations in population size via genetic drift, but maintained through gene 68 69 flow among populations (Reed & Frankham 2003). In addition, small, isolated plant populations that exhibit reduced connectivity or gene flow may exhibit reduced genetic variation, but 70 71 increased genetic differentiation (Durka et al. 2017). If seeds are sourced locally for restoration 72 from small, isolated populations then individual seed sources may not have the requisite genetic 73 variation needed to adapt to change (Davis et al. 2005; Etterson & Shaw 2001). To ensure the maintenance of evolutionary potential therefore may require seed sourcing strategies that 74 increase genetic diversity. Accounting for the role evolutionary forces play in the maintenance of 75 diversity will aid in establishing seed mixes that ultimately increase restoration success 76 77 (Bucharova et al. 2017; Hamilton et al. 2020). To ensure preservation of evolutionary potential, variation within species is required 78

79 alongside the establishment of species rich seed mixes. The combination of intraspecific and 80 interspecific species diversity can influence community composition during establishment (Larson et al. 2013). Diversity at these two scales can impact short-term response to the 81 82 environment and competition with local seed banks (Grman et al. 2013). During the first few 83 years following restoration it is expected that communities will be largely dominated by nonseeded weedy species typically found within the soil seed bank (Bakker et al. 1996). For 84 85 example, when comparing an active prairie restoration to multiple remnant prairies, Martin et al. (2005) observed more non-native species present within the restoration, with the overall 86

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proportion of non-natives ranging from 236% to 413% higher in the restoration relative to
remnant sites. Thus, considering early establishment of seeded relative to non-seeded species
may be important to predicting longer-term plant community composition. Despite the potential
importance of early establishment to long-term restoration success, this phase is often
overlooked in favor of evaluating restorations after they have been established for several years.

92 Globally, native grasslands remain one of the most critically imperiled ecosystems requiring active restoration (Hoekstra et al., 2005). These ecosystems provide essential services, 93 94 including maintenance of hydrological flow and retention (Seeling & DeKeyser 2006), carbon 95 sequestration (Euliss et al. 2006), nutrient cycling, and habitat for a diversity of species (Helzer & Jelinski 1999; Skagen et al. 2008). Throughout the North American Great Plains, up to 87% of 96 97 historical grassland habitat has been lost primarily to agricultural conversion (Comer et al. 2018; 98 Hoekstra et al. 2005; Samson et al. 1999) leading to highly fragmented and isolated remnant 99 habitats. Where these grasslands remain, they are prone to invasion by non-native species and the 100 evolutionary consequences of isolation, which has lasting negative effects to diversity and 101 species richness (DiAllesandro et al. 2013; Haddad et al. 2015). Ensuring seed mixes restore 102 grassland populations so they have the capacity to adapt to change, resist invasion, and persist 103 over time is critical. However, the role of intraspecific diversity within seed mixes to restoration 104 success has yet to be empirically evaluated. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the impact of 105 both species and population diversity within seed mixes has to establishment of grassland 106 restorations.

107 We assessed plant community diversity following restoration using single- and multi-108 source seed mixes to test the role within-species seed source diversity played in community 109 establishment. We used seed collected from five unique populations for each of 14 different

110	species as a proxy for creating genetic diversity within a seed mix. We expected that increasing
111	the number of unique seed sources per species used within a seed mix would lead to increased
112	emergence diversity following restoration relative to the use of a single seed source seed mix
113	(Bucharova et al. 2018). Overall, we predicted greater within-species diversity for seed mixes
114	would lead to increased species diversity in restored plant communities. This research
115	empirically evaluates the role of within species to between species diversity following
116	restoration. This study will provide a baseline understanding of the role of diversity across scales
117	to establishment during restoration.

118 METHODS

119 Seed Collection

In the summer of 2019, seed from 12 forb and two grass species were collected between 120 June and October from remnant native prairies within the Northern Great Plains of the United 121 122 States. A minimum of five unique populations per species each were collected from the Missouri Coteau region of North and South Dakota and from the northwestern prairie region of Minnesota 123 (Table 1, Fig. 1). These 14 species were chosen because they are widely distributed throughout 124 the Northern Great Plains and are commonly used in regional restoration seed mixes (e.g., Smith 125 126 2010; Kurtz 2013). In addition, to control for potential dominance of warm-season grasses and to 127 increase establishment of sown forbs, species chosen were weighted toward forb species (McCain et al. 2010; Norland et al. 2013; Dickson & Busby 2009). Populations were classified 128 as distinct if separated by at least one mile, however, were more commonly spaced further apart. 129 130 In northwestern MN, distances between seed source locations ranged from 3 km to 215 km (Table S2), and pairwise distances between the restoration site and seed source ranged from 2 km 131 to 129 km (Table S3). Within the Missouri Coteau region, distances between seed source 132

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133	locations ranged between 2 km and 312 km (Table S4), and pairwise distances between the
134	restoration site and seed source site ranged from 3.5 km to 214 km (Table S5).
135	Seed was hand-harvested as it ripened, with seed harvested multiple times at different
136	sites throughout the growing season following Bureau of Land Management seed harvesting
137	guidelines (BLM 2015). Within each population, individual maternal seed heads were sampled at
138	least three feet apart to reduce potential relatedness within populations. For species with multiple
139	seed heads, no more than 30% of available seed per maternal seed head was collected.
140	Seed Mix Preparation
141	Following harvest, seeds were dried at room temperature for a minimum of two weeks and

142 then transferred to 4°C storage for seven months to provide cold stratification and maintain

143 viability. Seeds were cleaned using several species-specific approaches. Large seeds were

stripped by hand, smaller seeds separated using sieves, Hesperostipa comata (Needle and thread 144

grass) seed awns were trimmed during the drying process to limit tangling, and Solidago rigida 145

(Stiff Goldenrod) and Helianthus maximiliani (Maximilian sunflower) and H. pauciflorus (Stiff 146 sunflower) seed were mechanically cleaned and separated using a Fractioning Aspirator Test 147

148 Model at the USDA Agricultural Research Center in Fargo, ND.

Seed was weighed for each species (Mettler Toledo, ML503T/00) from each population to 149 calculate population-specific numbers of seeds using a seeds per gram conversion (Table S1). To 150 maximize the seeds per species in the mix and ensure seed mix consistency across treatments and 151 replicates, the amount of seeds to include in the mix per species was calculated based on the 152 153 population with the lowest seed weight (g). In addition, for Artemisia fringida (Fringed 154 sagewort), H. pauciflorus, and S. rigida, the amount of seeds used in the seed mixes was reduced

by 0.9%, 3.5-7.0%, and 4.4-6.0% of the lowest seed weight respectively, to ensure these species
were not overrepresented in seed mixes as they can exhibit dominant characteristics (Table 1).

157 Across the two regions, seed mixes were established using the same species with the exceptions of A. fringida, Anemone cylindrica (Tall timbleweed), and Schizachyrium scoparium 158 (Little bluestem), which were collected and planted exclusively in the northwestern MN region 159 and Ratibida columnifera (Prairie coneflower), H. comata, Bouteloua gracilis (Blue grama), 160 161 which were collected and planted exclusively in the Missouri Coteau region. Five different seed 162 mixes were established each using a single unique population per species for the seed mix within 163 each of the two restoration regions. For these single-source seed mixes, populations for the different species were largely sourced from similar latitudes to minimize potential impacts 164 associated with latitudinal variation in phenology (Olsson & Ågren 2002; Dunnell & Travers 165 166 2011) (Fig. 1). In addition to five single source seed mixes, one multiple-source seed mix was 167 established for each region. The multi-source seed mix used proportionally the same amount of 168 seeds per species as the single-source mix, but each species' contribution was divided evenly 169 across five population sources. Thus, for both single and multi-source seed mixes the proportion 170 of seed used per species was the same. In this way, the ratio of species present within the single 171 source and multi-source was maintained across seed mixes for direct comparison. Vermiculite (Vigoro) was added to final seed mixes in a 1:1 ratio as a common method to increase seed to 172 soil contact during planting and thus increase probability of emergence (Shaw et al. 2020). 173

174 *Seed Viability*

Unused seed from the restoration plots sampled from the northwestern MN region were sent
to South Dakota State University's Seed Testing Laboratory to assess seed viability. Unused seed

177	from the Missouri Coteau were not available for seed viability testing. These tests evaluated the
178	total viability of individual species when grown under ideal laboratory growth conditions to
179	induce germination. This test reported the percent of seed that germinated defined as the total
180	number of individuals emerged per seeds planted, percent of hard seed defined as seed that is
181	dormant due to a water impervious seedcoat, and dormant seed which is defined as seed that is
182	viable but does not germinate due to a physical or physiological condition (SDSU Seed Testing
183	Laboratory; https://www.sdstate.edu/sites/default/files/file-archive/2021-07/Seed-Testing-
184	Lab.pdf).

185 *Restoration Sites and Site Preparation*

During May and June of 2019, experimental restoration sites were identified and prepped 186 187 in both the northwestern MN and Missouri Coteau regions. The northwestern MN restoration site was established at the Minnesota State University Moorhead Regional Science Center (RSC) 188 (46.872, -96.452) in Glyndon, MN. Portions of this site are abandoned agricultural brome fields 189 that are adjacent to remnant mesic prairie owned by Buffalo River State Park. Another portion of 190 this site was actively maintained as the Ponderosa golf course starting in 1962 and continued 191 operation after the transfer of ownership until May 2015, following which limited mowing 192 management has occurred. Due to site and space limitations, both areas of this site were used to 193 establish the experimental plots. The Missouri Coteau restoration site was established on the 194 195 Samuel H. Ordway Prairie Preserve (ORD) (45.704 -99.086), owned and managed by The Nature Conservancy (TNC). Prior to TNC ownership in 1978, this site was used as a 196 197 brome/alfalfa production plot for cattle. Since TNC's ownership, this site has been maintained 198 for hay production every other year.

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In 2019, the RSC site was prepared by placing landscape cloth over experimental 199 restoration plots to remove existing vegetation and limit potential establishment and competition 200 with the existing seedbed prior to applying the restoration treatment. In fall 2019, the ORD site 201 was treated with herbicide prior to application of restoration treatment (Roundup®, 3-4% 202 concentration) within each plot to reduce competition with existing weedy vegetation during 203 204 establishment. Additionally, all plots had a second Roundup treatment in early May, 2020 to further reduce Bromus inermis (Smooth brome) encroachment. 205 At each site, twenty 3 x 3m experimental restoration plots were established. This included 206 207 establishment of five different single source seed treatment plots each replicated three times 208 (n=15) and one multi-seed source treatment replicated five times (n=5). For each individual

replicated plot within a seed treatment, a barrier of 3m was maintained and a minimum 100m

buffer maintained between each single- and multi-source seed treatment group to limit potential

211 gene flow between plots.

212 Planting Experimental Restoration Treatments

213 To establish the restoration treatments, tarps were removed from the plots at the RSC site, 214 and litter was raked and hand weeded in April 2020 at both sites to expose the seed bed. Following this, each plot was broadcast seeded and then raked again to increase seed-soil 215 contact. For both sites, five times the total commonly recommended seeding rate of ~5kg (11 216 217 pounds) of seeds per acre were applied to increase probability of emergence success (Rowe 218 2010). Higher seeding rates were applied as these rates have previously been associated with 219 increased establishment and diversity following restoration (Sheley & Half 2006; Barr et al. 220 2017). An agri-fab push lawn roller was used to increase seed to soil contact and enhance the 221 probability of germination success. To limit potential carryover of seeds between seed treatments

the roller was rinsed and dried between each application. Finally, each plot received a one-time
watering treatment. Throughout the growing season, plot maintenance included weekly barrier
mowing around each plot. In July, mid-season mowing was performed at both sites to increase
light availability and reduce competition with non-seeded species (Maron & Jefferies 2001; Kaul
& Wilsey 2020). Plots were mowed at the maximum adjustable height setting (12.7cm) and all
trimmings were removed.

228 Data Collection

Each restoration plot was visited once per month at both sites between June and 229 September of 2020 to assess plant community composition. A 0.2m x 0.2m quadrat randomly 230 placed at each of the four cardinal corners and center of each replicated experimental plot was 231 used to estimate community composition of the broader restoration plot. To reduce the impact of 232 233 edge effects, quadrats were not placed directly at the edges of each plot. For all species present in 234 the quadrat, we counted the number of individuals present and estimated the percent cover per 235 species. Individuals that were unidentifiable in the field were marked with unique toothpicks and 236 photographed for later identification. There were two unknown species at the RSC site and three at the ORD site that did not match planted species seedlings and were unable to be identified. 237 238 These species were uniquely labeled as unknowns and included in diversity calculations as 239 unique non-seeded species. Total percent cover of dead vegetation and percent bare soil cover was also assessed visually within the quadrat. At the quadrat-level, total species coverage was 240 recorded as the total percent coverage of each species, litter coverage was the percent cover of 241 dead matter covering the ground, and soil coverage was the percent of visible bare ground. Each 242 coverage estimate was assessed with a modified Daubenmire cover-class system for grassland 243

vegetation (Table S6; Daubenmire 1959) and averaged across quadrats to obtain replicate-level
percent coverages for each seed mix treatment.

246 Statistical Analysis

247 To infer plant productivity and assess plant community composition following restoration, species diversity metrics such as richness, evenness, abundance, and associated 248 249 diversity indices are often used and may be monitored over time (Martin et al. 2005; Polley et al. 250 2003). We tested for differences in community composition based on seed mix treatment at each of our restoration sites using measures of species richness and diversity. Species richness was 251 defined as the total number of species present across all five quadrats sampled per replicate and 252 253 abundance as the total number of individuals present per species across quadrats. We also analyzed the total number of unique species and the number of seeded species that established 254 255 within seed treatments for replicated plots. To evaluate our seed treatment communities 256 regardless of planted or non-seeded species status, we calculated Shannon's Diversity Index (H') 257 for each seed treatment and each replicate plot across time from June to September.

$$H' = \sum_{i=1}^{s} p_i \ln p_i$$

Where *s* is the total number of species within the community (richness), p_i is the proportion of each species (*i*) within the community relative to the total number of species multiplied by the natural logarithm and summed across all species to get a value between 0-1. Values closer to 0 indicated lower diversity and values closer to 1 indicated higher diversity. We used Shannon's Diversity for our data as it was the most appropriate given our data collection approach (Magurran 2004). Diversity indices were calculated at the seed treatment level and for the individual replicates within seed treatment to create distance matrices.

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266	To compare plant community diversity within each restoration site for varying seed
267	treatments across time we used non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) in three
268	dimensions with a Bray—Curtis dissimilarity distance matrix which was derived from the
269	Shannon's diversity indices for each seed treatment and each month of data collection. We used
270	NMDS because it uses an ordination approach where community data is summarized on two-
271	axes and communities that are more similar cluster together (Ruiz-Jaen & Aide 2005).
272	To evaluate differences between community compositions, we performed permutational
273	ANOVAs (PERMANOVAS) on the same Shannon's diversity values for seed treatment
274	communities across each month, using the adonis function in package "vegan" (Oksanen et al.
275	2020). We used a PERMANOVA approach to evaluate differences between individual seed
276	treatments and more broadly between single source and five-source community diversity. Seed
277	treatment, replicate, month, and the interaction of seed treatment and month were predictor
278	variables and the percent bare ground and thatch were included as random-effect variables within
279	our models. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were performed to evaluate differences between seed
280	mix treatment per month for RSC communities and by month for ORD communities within the
281	pairwise.adonis function in package "pairwiseAdonis" (Martinez Arbizu 2019). All analyses
282	were conducted in R version 4.0.2 (R Core Team 2016).

283

284 RESULTS

285 *Seed Viability*

286 Six of the 14 species sent for testing had enough seed for an assessment of viability.287 Variability in seed viability may impact how individual species may or may not establish within

288	the first year following restoration. Seeds from Amorpha canescens exhibited a viability score of
289	20% with 16% of seed reaching germination, 4% labeled as hard seed, and 0% dormant seed.
290	Seeds from Anemone cylindrica exhibited 82% viability with 75% of seed reaching germination,
291	0% hard seed and 7% assessed as dormant. Seeds from Artemisia fringida were 62% viable, with
292	25% of seed reaching germination, 0% labeled as hard seed, and 37% dormant seed. Geum
293	triflorum seed had a total viability of 47% with 47% of seed reaching germination, 0% labeled as
294	hard seed, and 0% dormant seed. Potentilla arguta seed exhibited 88% viability, with 66% of
295	seed reaching germination and 0% labeled as hard seed, 22% dormant seed. Finally, Solidago
296	rigida seeds had a viability score of 54% with 44% of seed reaching germination, 10% labeled as
297	hard seed, and 10% dormant seed.

298 Plant Community Structure following Restoration

Seed mix application at both the RSC and ORD sites resulted in a mixture of seeded and 299 300 non-seeded species emergence. At the RSC site, seeded species emerged from all plots excluding 301 seed treatment 'D' in the first growing season. Of seed mix treatment types, the multi-source seed mix type 'ABCDE' had the greatest number of seeded species emerge, including Echinacea 302 303 angustifolia, Helianthus maximilani, and Verbena hastata. Across all seed treatments at the RSC site, Helianthus maximilani exhibited the greatest rate of emergence, followed by Liatris 304 punctata. In the first year of observation, in total only five of the seeded species established at 305 306 the RSC site. At the ORD site, seeded species emerged within all plots in the first growing season. Of seed mix treatment types, the multiple-source seed mix type 'ABCDE' and the single-307 308 source seed treatment 'C' had the greatest number of seeded species emerge, including H. 309 maximiliani, S.rigida which were found within every seed treatment, followed by Ratibida

columnifera, and *Dalea purpurea*. In total only six unique seeded species established at the ORD
site.

312	At both restoration sites, seed treatment plots were largely dominated by non-seeded
313	species (Fig. 2.) At the RSC site the most common species within our experimental restoration
314	plots were Ambrosia psilostachya (Western Ragweed), Melilotus sp. (Sweetclover sp.), Panicum
315	capillare (Witchgrass), Poa pratensis (Kentucky Bluegrass), Oxalis stricta (Yellow Wood
316	Sorrel), Trifolium repens (White Clover). At the ORD site the most common species within our
317	experimental restoration plots were A. absinthium, Bromus inermis (Smooth Brome), and P.
318	pratensis.
319	To evaluate plant community-level differences between seed mix treatment types and
320	across the growing season, we used a PERMANOVA based on Shannon's Diversity.
321	Additionally, to visualize any differences in these plant communities we used an NMDS with
322	Bray–Curtis dissimilarity. Within the RSC site, we found significant community-level
323	differences based on seed mix treatments (pseudo- F = 18.268, p = 0.001;), plot replicate (pseudo-
324	F = 7.868, $p = 0.001$), month (pseudo- $F = 2.677$, $p = 0.018$), and the interaction of seed treatment
325	and month (<i>Pseudo-F</i> = 2.172, $p = 0.008$; Table 2). However, as very few seeded species
326	established across seed mix treatments, the differences observed appear to be largely driven by
327	site-level differences associated with spatial heterogeneity in the presence of non-seeded species
328	(Fig. 3B). To then evaluate which seed treatments, or location of seed treatments within the RSC
329	site were compositionally different, we then performed individual pairwise analyses. Pairwise
330	comparisons evaluating community compositions differences across seed mix treatments were
331	subset by month to account for the significant interaction of seed treatment and month found
332	within our PERMANOVA results. From these comparisons we found the five-source seed

treatment was significantly different from all single-source seed treatments across all months
with the sole exception of seed source 'E, which became more similar to the five-source
treatment over time (Table S7). This follows our expectation that the multiple-source treatment
would produce a more diverse community when compared to single-source treatments; however,
with the caveat that differences observed seem to be driven largely by the diversity of nonseeded species present within individual plots.

Within the ORD experimental restoration site, we found no significant community-level 339 340 differences between seed mix treatments. However, within our PERMANOVA of community composition based on Shannon's Diversity Index, we observed a significant difference among 341 our ORD communities based on month alone (pseudo-F=0.385, p<0.001; Table 3). These results 342 indicate that any differences in community diversity was not due to seed mix treatments but were 343 primarily explained by the growing season (Fig. 3A). Pairwise comparisons found that plant 344 345 community composition in June was significantly different from the later seasonal communities 346 in August and September (Table S8). These results suggest that community diversity observed across the restoration site was different in June than was observed later in the season. 347

348 DISCUSSION

Current local seed sourcing approaches during restoration may not adequately incorporate within species genetic diversity needed to re-establish functional plant communities for adaptation to changing environmental conditions. Thus, establishing diversity within and between species for seed mixes will be critical to ensuring restoration success. Using seed source as a proxy to indicate increased genetic variation, we have empirically evaluated how community diversity establishes following the use of single and multiple- source seed mix treatments. There

was no major effect of seed mix treatment type on increasing community diversity within the 355 356 first year following restoration at two sites. However, community diversity across seed mix 357 treatment types at this early stage following restoration was strongly influenced by spatial heterogeneity and by the growing season across the RSC restoration site, and strongly influenced 358 by time at the ORD site. Community diversity within both sites was largely dominated by non-359 360 seeded species, with limited emergence of seeded species within the first year. These observations are consistent with previous restoration studies, which observed that non-seeded 361 362 species may dominate restored environments during the first several years following restoration 363 (Kaul & Wilsey 2020). Although no differences were observed in community diversity between 364 our single and multiple-source seed mix treatments, our results suggest that first-year restoration communities are influenced by heterogeneity in a restoration site and temporally by the growing 365 season. Thus, land-use history may be important in influencing plant establishment and 366 persistence over time, particularly in the first year following restoration. 367

368 Seed Viability

369 Although non-seeded species were expected in the first year, variation in seed viability 370 within our seed mixes (ranging from 20-88% for the RSC site) may have impacted first year emergence. For seed viability testing, 7-37% of seeds were considered "dormant" and therefore 371 may have germinated within the first year, but could emerge in subsequent years provided that 372 373 environmental conditions in the future are favorable for germination. In addition, seed predation 374 and seedling herbivory may have reduced establishment success during the first year. Herbivore disturbance can mediate non-seeded species dispersal through selective seed herbivory on native 375 plant species (Howe & Brown 2000) which may affect overall species diversity. At the 376 377 northwestern MN site, the thirteen lined-ground squirrel (Ictidomys tridecemlineatus) was

observed, alongside nearby and within-plot gopher mounds. As our study design was aimed to
mimic natural restoration practices, we did not take measures to actively exclude mammals from
the restoration sites, but instead used approximately five times the standard seeding rate for each
seed mix treatment type. High seeding rates are often used to mitigate potential effects of seed
viability and herbivory on seedling establishment, and increase overall plant densities
(Applestein et al. 2018).

384 Plant Community Structure following Restoration

385 We compared species richness following restoration with seed mixes containing a single source per species or multiple sources per species across two restoration sites. Multi-source seed 386 387 mixes were associated with greater seeded species richness at the RSC site, but not the ORD 388 restoration site. In the first growing season following the restoration four times the number of 389 non-seeded species were observed compared to seeded species at the ORD site, and seven times at the RSC site, respectively (Fig. 2). This is consistent with rates observed previously in 390 391 grassland restoration experiments (Martin et al. 2005). Seeded species that emerged were those 392 have evolved traits that provide competitive advantages in grassland ecosystems, such as 393 rhizomatous root systems (Mangan et al. 2011; Dickson & Busby 2009) or mutualist fungal 394 relationships which can promote and facilitate establishment (Busby et al. 2011). For example, 395 H. maximiliani is a widespread perennial forb native to prairies in the United States and Canada 396 (USDA). H. maximiliani readily established at both sites across seed treatments and is often 397 found in remnant and restored prairies as a sub-dominant or dominant species (Dickson & Busby 398 2009). Previous studies have found that *H. maximiliani* is often one of the most productive forb species within plant communities as it may outcompete other species due to its rhizomatous root 399 400 system that creates a spreading pattern for nutrient uptake, and thick sprouting stem that leads to

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increased biomass production and vegetative coverage (McKenna et al. 2019; Mangan et al. 401 2011; Dickson & Busby 2009). Ratibida columnifera was another common perennial species to 402 403 establish at the ORD site and across various seed treatments. This species occurs widely throughout southern Canada, across the US Great Plains, and into Northern Mexico (USDA). In 404 previous experiments, *R. columnifera* has been observed to have high first year survival and a 405 406 life span around three years and may negatively impact the abundance of other forbs (Lauenroth & Adler 2008; Dickson & Busby 2009). The competitive advantage expressed by R. columnifera 407 408 may be due to its establishment through a prominent taproot and strong positive relationship with 409 arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi which aids nutrient uptake and growth (Busby et al. 2011). In addition, both species are native to our study regions, thus may exist within the seed bank 410 currently. However, during field site visits we did not observe *H. maximiliani* at either site 411 outside of the experimental plots. *Ratibida columnifera* was present within the RSC site but was 412 413 not included in the experimental seed mixes and was not present within the plots. Evaluating 414 what species readily establish during the early stage of a restoration may aid in future seed mix design choices to combat non-native species establishment, and to ensure early restoration 415 416 success.

Both the PERMANOVA and NMDS analyses assessed plant community structure using measures of diversity from seeded and non-seeded species quantified across seed mix treatments for each site. For RSC, the seed treatment with the most diverse community established throughout the season was our multiple-source mix (ABCDE). The multi-source seed treatments were planted on the portion of the site that was once a golf course, near a remnant mesic area with surrounding woody vegetation. Several species that established solely within this treatment were persistent within the woody vegetation nearby, including *Achillea millefolium, Plantago*

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major, P. annua, and Salix interior. The presence of these species only within our multiple-424 source treatment plots is therefore likely influenced by the neighboring community, although as 425 426 predicted this treatment had the most seeded species establish. This treatment was significantly different from all other seed mix treatments, except 'E' which was compositionally more similar 427 during later seasonal months (Table S7). Given the spatial proximity of the 'ABCDE' and 'E' 428 429 treatments, similar communities likely arose due to local site conditions, including below ground nutrient resources and varying seed banks across the site. Community composition at RSC also 430 431 varied over time in response to seed mix treatments (Table 2). However, the spatial differences 432 observed in community composition were maintained throughout the growing season. 433 Although multi-source seed mixes were associated with greater sown species richness 434 within the RSC plots, total sown species richness was greater across all ORD plots, but not 435 different across seed treatments (Fig. 2). The increase in total seeded species richness could 436 indicate there was less competition from non-seeded species which may allow for increased 437 establishment, or seeded species already existed within the soil seed banks. Although seed 438 treatment did not appear to influence sown species establishment within ORD plots, growing 439 season influenced communities with similar community diversity establishing throughout the 440 growing season (Fig. 3b). Pairwise comparisons of community diversity across time indicated that June was the only month that was significantly different from the community present in later 441 442 months. This may indicate that early season emergence drives the formation of community 443 structure across time. These data provide a baseline understanding of site-specific community diversity to monitor composition change over time and across seed treatments. 444

445 Comparison across sites suggests the different patterns of diversity and those factors that
446 structure diversity across sites are likely associated with different land-use histories. The

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experimental seed mix treatments at the ORD restoration site were established on an old 447 agricultural field with active management for hay production. The site has experienced similar 448 land-use history, which has likely largely homogenized the above and belowground plant 449 community, currently dominated by smooth brome (B. inermis) and alfalfa (Medicago sativa). 450 The influence of agricultural activity and dominance of smooth brome and alfafa has also likely 451 452 contributed to further homogenization of the associated seed bank, reducing richness and 453 diversity of the non-seeded species community (Bekker et al. 1997). In contrast to the 454 homogeneity observed at the ORD site, the land-use history at RSC was more heterogeneous, 455 which may have contributed to spatial variation in plant community establishment across the site. Interestingly, while the ORD community structure did not exhibit differences associated with 456 seed mix treatment, the RSC site did exhibit significant differences across seed mix treatments. 457 Single-source seed treatments A, B, and C were established on a portion of the site that was once 458 459 planted with brome and alfalfa for having purposes. In contrast, seed treatments D, E, and the 460 multiple-source mix ABCDE were established on a portion of the site that was a golf course up until 2015. Combined, land use history and varying impacts of the seed bank and nutrient profile 461 across the site suggests there is substantial heterogeneity across the site that may have influenced 462 463 emergence following application of seed treatments. Despite site preparation methods used to prevent non-seeded species establishing within plots these differences may be reflected in the 464 465 site-level differences as opposed to seed mix application. Thus site-level differences are due to 466 spatial heterogeneity within the soil seed bank and nutrient availability associated with land-use 467 history impacting community establishment regardless of seed mix treatment.

Land use history can play an important role influencing how restoration communities
establish over time (Cousins et al. 2009; Grman et al. 2013). Spatial heterogeneity across a

restoration site could influence soil nutrient resources across the site and the associated species 470 471 that may persist within the seed bank (Ricklefs 1977; Bakker et al. 2003). Where greater nutrient 472 loading is observed, increased competition and exclusion between seeded and non-seeded species for resources could be observed (Eskelinen et al. 2021; Stotz et al. 2019). Aggressive 473 non-seeded species often outcompete natives along nutrient load gradients leading to a 474 475 subsequent loss of available soil nutrient resources. This can have substantial impacts to native 476 plant diversity both above and belowground (Stevens & Carson 2002; Wilson & Tilman 1993; 477 Eskelinen et al. 2021). Thus, heterogeneity in the soil nutrients or lack thereof likely impacted 478 how communities established at both sites, but data on emergence provide a baseline to monitor how patterns in community composition may change over time. 479

Although we were interested in which seeded species established within our seed mix 480 481 treatments, non-seeded species may also be important components to consider when evaluating 482 these experimental communities over time. In a previous study Kaul & Wilsey (2020) noted that 483 non-seeded weedy species abundance was the strongest predictor of species richness and 484 diversity in grassland restorations, regardless of the age of the restoration. The most common 485 non-seeded species to establish within our communities were introduced species, including cool-486 season grasses B. inermis and Poa pratensis. These species typically outcompete natives for resources, including both nutrient and light availability (reviewed in D'Antonio & Meyerson 487 2002). *Poa pratensis* establishes early in the spring before many native forbs, thus early 488 489 establishment and the consequent increased growing season may provide a competitive 490 advantage over native species (DeKeyser et al. 2015). Bromus inermis also establishes readily in 491 the spring and is a commonly planted pasture grass that readily forms a quickly establishing 492 monoculture through a rhizomatous root system (Stotz et al. 2019). The aggressive establishment

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of *B. inermis* often leads to outcompeting and displacing native species which may lead to 493 decreased plant diversity and community homogenization of a site when it becomes an 494 495 established invader (Stotz et al. 2019; DiAllesandro et al. 2013). The prevalence of these wellknown invasive species within our treatments, despite our pre-seeding site prep to limit non-496 seeded species establishment may indicate that more work is needed to successfully limit and 497 498 manage their establishment during restoration. Considering how these species establish may be 499 critical to restoration success as it may require more effort to shift these communities back to 500 native species (Martin & Wilsey 2014). Additionally, genetic variation within seeded species 501 used within seed mixes may mitigate some of the negative impacts of invasives. Genetic variation may increase the diversity of genotypes that establish increasing the probabilities of 502 producing a self-sustaining, persistent population that can evolve over generations. Evaluating 503 which non-seeded species establish and tracking their abundance in the early stages of a 504 505 restoration will help guide restoration expectations and community management practices over 506 time.

507 Single versus multiple source seed mix treatments did not have an impact on community 508 composition diversity in the first year of restoration establishment. Our results suggest that early 509 emergence and diversity within a plant community following restoration is largely influenced by 510 land-use history. In addition, first-year emergence following restoration may be largely insensitive to seed mix type if non-seeded species in the seedbank are able to outcompete seeded 511 512 species during establishment. Previous studies have shown that first year emergence positively 513 influences seeded species abundance and richness several years following restoration (Applestein 514 et al. 2018; Geaumont et al. 2019) Thus, while there is some evidence to suggest seed mix type may impact the diversity of established species, long-term assessments over multiple years will 515

be necessary to quantify the full impact of seed mix type has to community diversity and
restoration success over time. Evaluating what seeded and non-seeded species establish in the
first year of a restoration will help inform future restoration plans for long-term restoration
success. Indeed, identifying those seeded species that may have the competitive ability to readily
establish may be needed during the design of seed mixes, both identifying those species that
should be included and the proportion of seed that may be necessary to maintain those species
over time.

Understanding the role within and among population genetic variation has on native 523 524 grassland restorations may have substantial implications to seed mix design recommendations. We assumed here that a multi-population seed mix reflects increased genetic variation, however, 525 526 the degree to which population sources impact standing genetic variation within seed mixes 527 remains to be tested. Future work should include a genetic analysis of populations in single and 528 multi-source seed mixtures. Finally, although initial establishment results may be important to 529 early restoration success, longer-term monitoring will be necessary to evaluate the impact seed 530 mix treatment may have to community structure over time. Combined, genetic analysis and 531 longer-term monitoring of seed mix treatments will provide information needed for land 532 managers to establish seed sourcing guidelines critical to restoration in a changing environment.

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- 544
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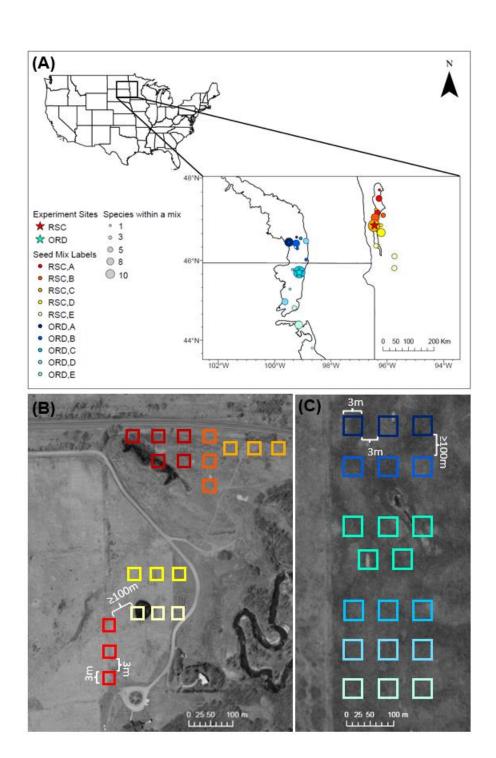


Fig. 1. A) Seed collection sites for seed mix treatments for Missouri Coteau (blues) and northwestern MN (reds) regions respectively. Colors represent individual seed mixes, and proportional symbols indicate the number of species sourced from a single site used within a seed mix. Stars indicate experimental site locations. B) Seed mix treatment layout at the RSC restoration site in Glyndon, MN. C) Seed mix treatment layout at ORD restoration site in Leola, SD. Colors correspond to seed treatment, single-source treatments include three replicate plots and the multiple-source treatment includes five replicate plots.

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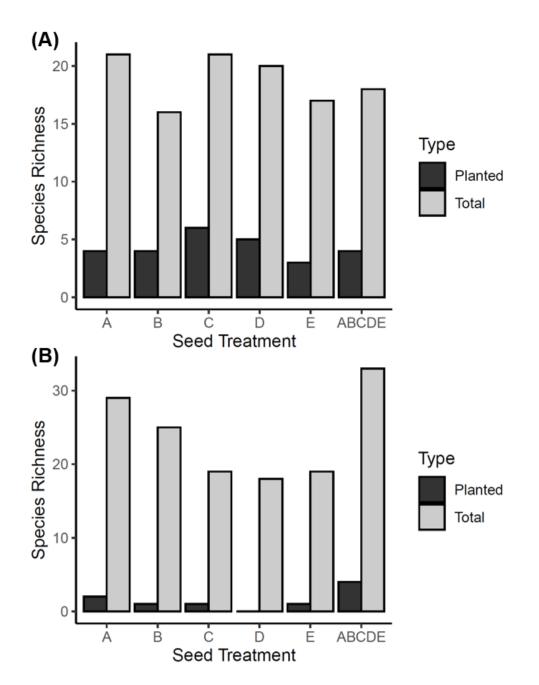


Fig. 2. Comparison of planted and total species richness within each seed mix treatment throughout
June-September 2020 within the ORD experimental site (A) and RSC experimental site (B).
Overall planted richness was greater in within all ORD seed treatments compared to RSC. Total
species richness was higher in RSC than in ORD, and the multiple-source seed treatment, labeled
ABCDE, had greatest planted species richness.

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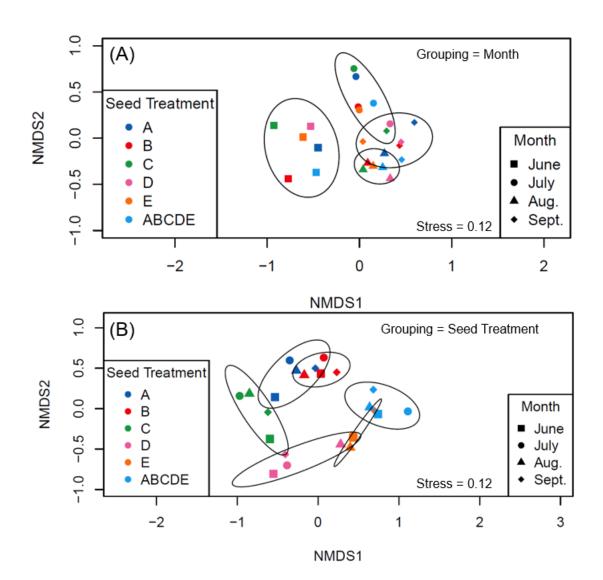


Fig. 3. Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling with Bray – Curtis dissimilarity graphs of the first
year established communities within (A) RSC communities grouped by seed treatment and (B)
ORD communities grouped by month. Seed treatment indicated by color and shapes indicate
month of data collection. Ellipses are 95% confidence intervals.

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Table 1. Species used experimental restoration plots for RSC and ORD sites, weighed amounts used in individual seed mix treatments, individual species composition within seed mixes, approximate seeds/ m^2 , and seed viability included where applicable.

	RSC				ORD				
Species Scientific Name	Single- population Seed Mix (g)	Five- population Seed Mix (g)	Species composition in mix (%)	Seeds/m ²	Viable Seed (%)	Single- population Seed Mix (g)	Five- population Seed Mix (g)	Species composition in mix (%)	Seeds/m ²
Amorpha canescens	12.5	2.5	21.8	784	20	12.5	2.5	23.2	784
Anemone cylindrica	7.5	1.5	13.1	764	82	-	-	-	-
Artemisia frigida	0.5	0.1	0.9	556	62	-	-	-	-
Bouteloua curtipendula	5.0	1.0	8.7	233	-	1.5	0.3	2.8	70
Bouteloua gracilis	-	-	-	-	-	0.5	0.1	0.9	78
Dalea purpurea	5.0	1.0	8.7	353	-	5.0	1.0	9.3	353
Echinacea angustifolia	8.0	1.6	13.9	219	-	8.0	1.6	14.8	219
Geum triflorum	1.3	0.3	2.2	132	47	8.5	1.7	15.8	899
Helianthus maximiliani	1.3	0.3	2.2	64	-	1.0	0.2	1.9	51
Helianthus pauciflorus	2.0	0.4	3.5	31	-	2.0	0.4	3.7	31
Hesperostipa comata	-	-	1.5	-	-	0.6	0.1	1.2	18
Liatris punctata	4.3	0.9	7.4	117	-	1.0	0.2	6.5	274
Pediomelum argophyllum	2.5	0.5	4.4	88	-	3.5	0.7	1.9	27
Potentilla arguta	1.5	0.3	-	1352	88	1.3	0.3	6.5	123
Ratibida columnifera	-	-	2.6	-	-	2.5	0.5	2.3	1127
Schizachyrium scoparium	2.8	0.6	4.8	162	-	-	-	4.6	412
Solidago rigida	2.5	0.5	4.4	402	54	2.5	0.5	4.6	402

Table 2. PERMANOVA results for community composition differences within RSC

690 experimental seed mix treatments, using Seed Treatment, Plot Replicate, Month, and the

691 interaction between seed treatment and month as main explanatory variables.

	Df	SS	MS	Pseudo F	R2	Р
Seed Treatment	5	1.475	0.295	18.268	0.323	0.001
Plot Replicate	14	1.778	0.127	7.868	0.390	0.001
Month	3	0.130	0.043	2.677	0.028	0.018
Bare Ground	1	0.002	0.002	0.135	0.000	0.897
Thatch	1	0.007	0.007	0.408	0.001	0.640
Treatment:Month	15	0.526	0.035	2.172	0.115	0.008
Residuals	40	0.646	0.016		0.142	
Total	79	4.5627			1	

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- Table 3. PERMANOVA results for community composition differences within ORD
- experimental seed mix treatments, using Seed Treatment, Plot Replicate, Month, and the
- 697 interaction between seed treatment and month as main explanatory variables.

	Df	SS	MS	Pseudo F	R2	Р
Seed Treatment	5	0.181	0.036	2.165	0.077	0.068
PlotRep	14	0.228	0.016	0.975	0.097	0.509
Month	3	0.908	0.303	18.095	0.385	0.001
Bare Ground	1	0.018	0.018	1.079	0.008	0.314
Thatch	1	0.001	0.001	0.061	0.000	0.928
Treatment:Month	15	0.352	0.023	1.401	0.149	0.157
Residuals	40	0.669	0.017	0.284		
Total	79	2.358	1.000			