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1 **Tree seedling regeneration in Canada's southern Rocky Mountains: contrasting**
2 **recently burned and unburned areas**

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16 **Abstract**

17 To predict patterns of forest regeneration following wildfires, we must determine the
18 factors that affect tree seedling establishment. We tested the relative influence of abiotic,
19 biotic, and landscape factors on the probability of tree seedling presence in Waterton Lakes
20 National Park, Alberta, Canada. We recorded the presence of seedlings in 98 plots that were
21 first surveyed 25 years before the 2017 Kenow Wildfire, 53 of which burned in the fire. We
22 included plots that did not burn to test the effect of the wildfire on seedling occurrence, and
23 whether the importance of other factors varied in burned versus unburned plots. Lodgepole
24 pine seedlings occurred in about 25% of burned plots, but only 2% of unburned plots. Seedlings
25 of poplars, subalpine fir, and Engelmann spruce occurred in 7.5% or less of the burned plots and
26 20% to 48% of unburned plots. After accounting for burn status, pine seedlings were more
27 likely to occur in plots with higher herbaceous plant cover, while spruce seedling occurrence
28 declined with elevation. After burn status, past presence of the tree species in a plot was the
29 strongest predictor of seedling occurrence. However, seedlings of spruce and fir are still mostly
30 absent from burned areas. Long-term monitoring of these plots will reveal whether these
31 species can successfully recolonize burned areas, and how long it will take.

32 **Keywords:** forest, forest fire, succession, recovery, resurvey

33 Introduction

34 Globally, wildfires are becoming more common, and they are capable of dramatically
35 changing the landscapes they impact. By the end of the century, the area burned annually in
36 Canada could be 100% greater than the annual amount burned at the end of the 20th century
37 (Flannigan et al. 2005). It is important to study how forests respond following severe wildfires
38 to understand the effects that wildfires will have on forest-dependent species and on
39 ecosystem services (i.e. the timber and recreation industries). Tree seedling establishment
40 immediately post-wildfire is an early indicator of the degree of forest resilience (Donato et al.
41 2009, Hansen and Turner 2019).

42 Regeneration is often influenced by abiotic factors. For example, water availability can
43 affect successful tree regeneration (Casady et al., 2009). Higher elevations tend to receive more
44 precipitation than lower areas, making those areas more favourable for seedling regeneration
45 (Casady et al. 2009). In southern Alberta, north facing slopes have higher soil moisture levels
46 and receive less solar radiation, resulting in reduced evapotranspiration (Lieffers and Larkin-
47 Lieffers 1986). Rother and Veblen (2016) found that conifer regeneration was greatest at higher
48 elevations and on north facing slopes following severe wildfires in Colorado, due to greater
49 water availability for seedlings. Soil drainage can also influence tree regeneration. Roy et al.
50 (1999) found that black spruce (*Picea mariana* Kuntze) seedlings in better-drained soils had
51 increased foliar concentrations of both carbon and nitrogen, resulting in increased growth.
52 Well-drained soils may also have greater nutrient availability due to having more oxygen
53 available for the decomposition of organic material (Perry et al. 2008).

54 Another factor that can influence seedling regeneration is slope steepness. Stevens-
55 Rumman and Morgan (2019) found that steeper slopes have shallower soil beds, resulting in
56 reduced sapling regeneration density on steeper slopes following wildfires across the western
57 United States. This contrasts with the findings of Franklin and Bergman (2011) who found that
58 slope steepness had little influence on occurrence of Coulter pine (*Pinus coulteri* D. Don)
59 seedlings. Interestingly, Tsuyuzaki et al. (2013) determined that poplars (*Populus* spp.) were
60 more likely to regenerate on steeper slopes, suggesting that steep or concave slopes acted as
61 traps for wind-dispersed seeds. Therefore, seedling occurrence may vary with slope steepness,
62 particularly for species with long-range wind dispersal.

63 Biotic factors can also influence seedling establishment. For example, the abundance of
64 understorey vegetation can affect tree seedling establishment and growth. Thick understorey
65 vegetation may hinder tree regeneration due to competition with seedlings for both nutrients
66 and sunlight (Bonnet et al. 2005). In contrast, Chambers et al. (2016) found that understorey
67 vegetation cover was positively correlated with the density of Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga*
68 *menziesii*) seedlings. This effect was attributed to herbaceous understorey vegetation shielding
69 the light-sensitive Douglas-fir from excessive sunlight. However, the same study found no effect
70 of understorey vegetation cover on the regeneration of ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa*
71 Douglas ex Loudon). After studying the regeneration of whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis*
72 Engelm.) following wildfires in Montana, Leirfallom et al. (2015) found that seedling presence
73 was positively correlated with understorey vegetation up to 30% cover, with this facilitation of
74 seedling survival being due to the partial shade provided, but probability of seedling presence

75 decreased above that point due to increased competition for light. Therefore, the cover of
76 understory vegetation may have a positive, negative, or no effect, and this may vary for
77 different tree species.

78 The patchwork of unburned refugia surrounding a burned site can influence patterns of
79 regeneration for wind-dispersed tree species. Wind rarely disperses conifer seeds more than
80 250 meters from seed sources, which reduces the probability of finding wind-dispersed tree
81 seedlings far from a viable seed source (Greene and Johnson 1996; Kemp et al. 2015; Peeler
82 and Smithwick 2020). For example, Kemp et al. (2015) found that for Douglas-fir, ponderosa
83 pine, and grand fir (*Abies grandis* Hook.), distance to a live seed source was the most important
84 predictor of tree sapling densities following wildfires in the Idaho and Montana Rocky
85 Mountains. However, the distance beyond which seedling establishment is limited may exceed
86 a few hundred metres. For example, Donato et al. (2009) found high conifer seedling densities
87 up to 400m away from the edge of a burn, suggesting that actual dispersal distances may be
88 underestimated. In any case, for species that are primarily wind dispersed, distance to an
89 unburned seed reservoir may be the most important predictor of seedling presence in burned
90 areas.

91 However, distance to unburned refugia may not influence regeneration for all species.
92 Lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta* Bol.) has serotinous cones which can withstand wildfire,
93 allowing regeneration from on-site seeds rather than relying on seeds dispersing from
94 unburned areas (Lyon and Stickney, 1976). While these seeds are able to maintain germination
95 viability only up to 100°C when exposed, when protected within the cone they are able to

96 survive much higher temperatures (Knapp and Anderson 1980). As a result, viable seeds can
97 survive fire and begin regeneration regardless of distance to an unburned seed reservoir (Kemp
98 et al. 2015). Other species rely on resprouting as their primary method of regeneration,
99 producing sprouts from underground rootstock. For these species the survival of belowground
100 tissues is critical, and therefore burn severity may be the most important predictor of
101 regeneration post-fire. For example, Moreno and Oechel (1994) found that high severity burns
102 could damage subterranean roots and rhizomes of chaparral shrubs, preventing resprouting
103 and slowing regeneration in areas of high burn severity. Trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides*
104 Michx.) generally regenerates by resprouting, with only occasional establishment from seed
105 (Kay 1993). Therefore, burn status may be the most important predictor of seedling presence
106 for lodgepole pine and poplars, with lodgepole pine more likely in burned areas and poplars
107 more likely in unburned sites.

108 Several studies have examined tree regeneration after wildfire in the US Rocky
109 Mountains (e.g. Doyle et al. 1998, Kemp et al. 2015, Chambers et al. 2016, Harvey et al. 2016,
110 Stevens-Rumann and Morgan 2019) and in Canada's boreal forest (e.g. Jean et al. 2020).
111 However, we found no studies that examined tree regeneration following wildfire events in the
112 Canadian Rocky Mountains. In addition, most studies of tree regeneration do not compare
113 patterns in burned areas to natural regeneration occurring in unburned sites. Forests in the
114 Rocky Mountains are thought to be quite resilient to wildfire, with early-successional species
115 representing many of the same species that dominate late-successional communities (Lyon and
116 Stickney 1976). However, this resilience could be reduced in the context of anthropogenic

117 climate change in which wildfires are now occurring. In this study, we aim to identify what
118 factors affect tree seedling occurrence in the Canadian Rocky Mountains in both recently
119 burned and unburned sites. We test the relative importance of abiotic, biotic, and landscape
120 factors for tree regeneration in Waterton Lakes National Park (WLNP), Alberta, Canada, in both
121 burned and similar but unburned sites 2-3 years after a severe wildfire in 2017. This allows us
122 to contrast regeneration rates and influences in recently burned areas with areas in later stages
123 of succession. We use a unique database of nearly 100 vegetation plots surveyed both in 1994-
124 1999 and in 2019 and 2020, after just over half of them had burned.

125

126 **Methods**

127 Study Site

128 WLNP is located in the southwest corner of the Canadian Rocky Mountains and covers
129 about 525 km² between 49°00' and 49°12' N, and 113°40' and 114°10' W (Figure 1). There is
130 significant variation in climatic and topographical conditions throughout the park. Elevation
131 ranges from 1280 m above sea level in the foothills (mean annual temperature 3°C, mean
132 growing season precipitation 377mm) to 2940 m above sea level in the high alpine (mean
133 annual temperature -2.4°C, mean growing season precipitation 472 mm; Natural Regions
134 Committee 2006). Located along the Continental Divide, WLNP includes four distinct ecoregions
135 (foothills parkland, montane, subalpine, and alpine). Aspen (*Populus sp.*) groves are distinctive
136 vegetative features of the foothills parkland ecoregion. While aspens are able to disperse seeds
137 long distances, following disturbance they primarily regenerate via resprouting (Frey et al.

138 2003). Aspen are shade intolerant (USDA 2024). The montane and subalpine ecoregions are
139 characterized by coniferous forests, with vegetation dominated by lodgepole pine and
140 subalpine fir. The lodgepole pine included in this study is notable for its serotinous cones (Lyon
141 and Stickney 1976). Like aspen, lodgepole pine is shade intolerant (USDA 2024). Subalpine
142 forests can also be differentiated by the co-dominance of the shade intermediate Engelmann
143 spruce (*Picea engelmannii* Engelm.; USDA 2024). The alpine ecoregion vegetation is mainly
144 composed of low-laying shrubs (Strong and Leggat 1992). Over half of Alberta's vascular plant
145 species can be found in the park (Achuff et al. 2002). First designated as a national park in 1895,
146 WLNP is a popular area for tourism and recreation, hosting over half a million visitors annually
147 (Parks Canada 2020).

148 Median fire return intervals in the WLNP region prior to 1948 (when effective fire
149 suppression was implemented) ranged between 26 and 85 years, depending on the ecoregion
150 (Rogeanu 2016). In the last hundred years, WLNP has experienced two major wildfire events. The
151 Sofa Mountain Wildfire in September 1998 was limited to the southeast corner of the park,
152 burning approximately 15 km². In 2017, a lightning strike in southeastern British Columbia
153 ignited the Kenow Wildfire. The fire reached WLNP by early September and rapidly spread
154 (Greenaway et al. 2018). Although firefighting efforts saved most of the small village within
155 WLNP, 193 km² of the park (38%) was affected by fire (Parks Canada 2019). Roughly 50% of
156 vegetated area within the park was burned, with about three quarters of that burning at a high
157 severity (Greenaway et al. 2018). Within high severity areas, less than 10% of the pre-fire
158 canopy cover remained (Key and Benson 2006).

159

160 Data collection

161 Over the course of three field seasons in 1994, 1995 and 1999, Parks Canada biologists
162 surveyed 330 vegetation plots to classify plant communities and soil types at WLNP (Achuff et
163 al. 2002). Plots varied in size depending on the vegetation type: 20x20m plots for
164 forests/woodlands, 15x15m plots for shrublands, and 10x10m plots for grasslands/herbaceous
165 vegetation. At each plot, surveyors identified and visually estimated percent cover for all
166 vascular plant species present. They also classified vegetation into four different strata: (1) all
167 woody plants greater than 5m tall, (2) woody plants 2-5m tall, (3) all woody plants between 0.5
168 and 2m tall, (4) woody plants less than 0.5m tall and all herbaceous species regardless of
169 height. They classified soil drainage following the guidelines in the Canadian Soil Information
170 System using the following scale: (1) very rapidly drained, (2) rapidly drained, (3) well drained,
171 (4) moderately well drained, (5) somewhat drained, (6) poorly drained and, (7) very poorly
172 drained (Day 1983, Achuff et al. 2002).

173 Following the Kenow Wildfire, during the summers of 2019 and 2020, we relocated and
174 resurveyed 98 of the original plots, 53 of which had burned in the Kenow Wildfire (Figure 1).
175 We resurveyed plots following the same protocol established by Parks Canada during the initial
176 surveys. We selected plots to resurvey based on accessibility and maximizing variation in
177 elevation, slope steepness, slope aspect, and vegetation type among both burned and
178 unburned plots. The plots were not permanently marked in the original survey, but the
179 coordinates of each plot were recorded using a handheld GPS unit. We estimate that relocation

180 error ranged from 3-5 m based on the accuracy of the GPS units. Given the relatively large size
181 of the plots (100 - 400 m²), we consider this a relatively small source of error. Unfortunately, we
182 did not count individual tree seedlings, therefore we do not have an estimate of seedling
183 density. The main aim of our resurvey was to assess shifts in the plant community as a whole
184 (Lloren 2021, Lloren & McCune 2024). However, the presence of a tree species in layer 4 (less
185 than 0.5 m height) indicates the presence of at least one seedling or young sapling. At this early
186 stage of succession, seedlings were never in abundance greater than 1% cover. Because we
187 aimed to record every species present in each plot, regardless of abundance, our surveys were
188 comprehensive, requiring two surveyors up to four hours in unburned sites.

189 We then compiled data on potential predictors of tree seedling presence. Burn severity
190 was mapped by WLNP workers following the fire in October 2017 using satellite imagery. Burn
191 severity classes were then determined using the Normalized Burn Ratios (NBR) as published by
192 Key and Benson (2006) to delineate five burn severity classes based on a comparison of near-
193 infrared and mid-infrared reflectance of vegetation pre- and post-fire (dNBR). Burn classes
194 ranged from 1 (low severity, dNBR -0.10 to +0.09) to 5 (high severity, dNBR +0.66 to +1.30). The
195 region burned by the Kenow Wildfire was almost all classified as class 4 or 5 (Figure 1), meaning
196 that large trees and the upper canopy were entirely burned, with foliage at all strata being
197 torched. Therefore, we classified each plot as either burned or unburned in the Kenow Wildfire.

198 We noted the historical presence of trees in each site based on the original survey data
199 from the 1990s. We considered a species to be historically present if it was found in the plot in
200 any strata during the original surveys (i.e. present at *any* height from <0.5 m to > 2m). We

201 acknowledge that because twenty-five years have passed between the original surveys and the
202 wildfire, some species could have disappeared from a plot in the interim (i.e. due to windfall,
203 disease), before the wildfire. However, we think this is unlikely. In unburned areas, all unburned
204 plots still contained the tree species found in the original surveys.

205 We determined the elevation and aspect of each site using a 25m Digital Elevation
206 Model (DEM) in ArcGIS. The original surveyors measured slope steepness (%) at each plot using
207 a clinometer. To convert aspect in degrees to a linear predictor, and based on evidence that
208 north facing slopes were most likely to have seedling presence (Casady et al. 2009, Rother and
209 Veblen 2016), we calculated an index of 'northness' as follows:

$$210 \quad \text{northness} = \frac{|(\text{aspect in degrees} - 180)|}{180}$$

211 This results in a continuous value for aspect, with north facing slopes as 1, south as 0, and east
212 or west as 0.5.

213 We used GIS to measure the distance from the center of each plot to the nearest
214 unburned area bordering line based on burn area data obtained from Parks Canada. The
215 geospatial data used to denote burn area was created by using pre- and post-fire Landsat
216 imagery, using the dBNR index (Key and Benson 2006). Edges were refined by hand using aerial
217 images. All plots that were not burned had a distance to unburned area of zero, by definition.
218 We quantified the total understorey cover in each plot in 2019/2020 by summing the percent
219 cover of all species present in each plot within stratum four (all herbaceous species and woody
220 species <0.5m tall). Due to physical overlap of plants of different species, total understorey
221 cover can be greater than 100%. We used soil drainage values as assessed by the original study
222 (Achuff et al. 2002), but reduced them from 7 to three categories, with drainage values of 2

223 being classed as moderately drained, 3 as well drained, and 4,5,6 and 7 as poorly drained. None
224 of the resurveyed plots had a soil drainage value of 1 (very rapidly drained).

225

226 Statistical Analysis

227 We used generalized linear models (GLMs) to test the relative influence of each factor
228 on the probability of finding at least one tree seedling. We built five models for seedling
229 presence: one for the presence or absence of seedlings of any species, and one each for the
230 presence or absence of lodgepole pine seedlings, poplar seedlings, subalpine fir seedlings, and
231 Engelmann spruce seedlings. We included both *Populus* species (*P. tremuloides* and *P.*
232 *balsamifera* Lyall) in the poplar model due to their similar regeneration methods.

233 Our explanatory variables included burn status (burned vs. unburned), historical
234 presence of trees (any of the five species for the general model, or the species in question for
235 the single-species models), elevation, northness, slope steepness, distance from the site to the
236 unburned area in metres, soil drainage (poor, well, moderate) and the total percent cover of
237 herbaceous understorey species in 2019/2020. We included the interaction between northness
238 and elevation as we expected that the role of slope aspect (northness) on seedling
239 establishment could vary with elevation, with southerly slopes at cooler, higher elevations less
240 prone to drought. We also included the year of the resurvey as a categorical predictor.

241 Differences in seedling frequency between 2019 and 2020 surveys could result from a delay in
242 colonization and/or germination of seedlings in the burned areas. Alternatively, variability in
243 seedling occurrence frequency between years could result from variability in seed production

244 or climatic conditions year to year, which could cause variability in seedling frequency between
245 survey years even in unburned plots (e.g. LaMontagne et al. 2021). In the general model, we
246 also included all pairwise interactions between burn status and the other predictors based on
247 evidence from the literature that the effects of fire on tree regeneration can vary depending on
248 these factors (e.g. Coop et al. 2010, Tsuyuzaki et al. 2013). Models for individual species had
249 insufficient data (i.e. very few occurrences in burned plots) to consider these interactions. We
250 checked for correlations between all explanatory variables, and no pair of predictors had
251 absolute correlation coefficients greater than $r=0.62$. We log-transformed understorey cover to
252 improve normality.

253 For each response variable, we built a binomial GLM with a logit link including all the
254 potential explanatory variables. We standardized continuous predictors by rescaling them so
255 that they had a mean of zero and a standard deviation of 0.5. We then used backward stepwise
256 model selection to determine the explanatory variables included in the minimum adequate
257 model based on Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). Next, we used a 'drop1' test to determine
258 the importance of each explanatory variable, while accounting for all other variables, by
259 comparing the selected minimum adequate model to a model excluding the variable in
260 question. We used spline correlograms to check for spatial autocorrelation in the residuals of
261 each model. We also ensured there was no overdispersion by comparing the dispersion of
262 simulated residuals to the observed residuals.

263 We visualized the final models using partial regression plots, which hold all other
264 predictors in the model constant while adjusting the focal variable (Breheney and Burchett

265 2013). Finally, we evaluated the performance of each model by calculating the percent of the
266 null deviance explained by the model, and a measure of classification accuracy: the area under
267 the receiver-operating characteristic curve (AUC; Swets 1988). We carried out all statistical
268 analyses in R version 4.0.3 (R Core Team 2013) and used the following packages: 'arm' to
269 standardize predictors (Gelman et al. 2007), 'ncf' to create spline correlograms (Bjornstad and
270 Cai 2020), 'MASS' for stepwise model selection (Venables and Ripley 2002), 'visreg' to make
271 partial regression plots (Breheney and Burchett 2013), 'rocr' to calculate AUC (Sing et al. 2020),
272 and 'DHARMA' to test for model misspecification problems (Hartig 2020).

273

274 **Results**

275 Of the 98 resurveyed plots, 53 were burned in the Kenow Wildfire. None of the plots
276 were burned in the 1998 Sofa Mountain Wildfire. Twenty-three plots were located in
277 grasslands/herbaceous vegetation (15 burned), 15 plots were located in shrubland vegetation
278 (7 burned), and 60 plots were located in forest/woodland (31 burned). Elevation ranged from
279 1,268m to 2,323m, with a median value of 1,712.5m. Of the 98 plots, 50 had at least one
280 seedling in 2019/2020, compared to only 33 plots in the 1990s. The number of plots with
281 Engelmann spruce and subalpine fir seedlings did not change much between the original survey
282 and the 2019/2020 survey, whereas the number of plots having lodgepole pine and poplar
283 seedlings increased (Table 1). Subalpine fir and Engelmann spruce seedlings were very rare in
284 burned plots, occurring in only two and one burned plot, respectively.

285 The minimum adequate model for the presence of one or more tree seedlings
286 regardless of species included seven individual predictors and three interactions. When all
287 other factors were accounted for, burn status, historical tree presence, survey year, northness,
288 total understory cover, and the interaction between burn status and elevation were significant
289 predictors (Table 2, Figure 2). The probability of tree seedling occurrence was highest in plots
290 that were unburned and that had trees present at the time of the first survey in the mid-1990s
291 (conditional mean probability 77.5% in unburned plots with prior tree presence compared to
292 2.0% in unburned plots without prior tree presence). After accounting for burn status, the
293 probability of tree seedling presence increased on southerly aspects and with increasing
294 understory plant cover. The probability of seedling presence declined with elevation, but only in
295 burned plots (Figure 2). The model explained 59.7% of the null deviance and AUC was 0.95.

296 The minimum adequate model for the presence of one or more lodgepole pine
297 seedlings included burn status, historical presence, elevation, slope steepness, northness,
298 distance from unburned refugia, herbaceous cover, and the interaction between elevation and
299 northness. However, only burn status, historical presence of pine trees, and herbaceous cover
300 were important predictors of pine seedling presence once the other factors had been
301 accounted for (Table 3). The probability of lodgepole pine seedling presence was highest in
302 burned plots that had prior presence of lodgepole pine. Burned plots with prior presence of
303 pine trees had a predicted probability of 94.3% of having a pine seedling, compared to 5.4%
304 probability in burned plots without trees prior to the fire (Figure 3). Plots with higher

305 herbaceous plant cover also had higher probability of having pine seedlings present (Figure 3).

306 The model explained 54.0% of the null deviance and AUC was 0.93.

307 The minimum adequate model for the presence of one or more poplar seedlings

308 included burn status, historical presence of poplar, survey year, and total herbaceous cover.

309 Based on the drop1 test, historical poplar presence and survey year were significant predictors

310 (Table 3). The probability of poplar seedling presence was higher in unburned plots that had a

311 prior poplar presence (predicted probability 26.8%) compared to unburned plots without

312 poplars in the 1990s survey (predicted probability 2.6%) and in plots assessed in 2020 (89.4% if

313 poplars present in the 1990s) compared to plots assessed in 2019 (26.8% if poplars present in

314 the 1990s; Figure 4). The model explained 36.8% of the null deviance and AUC was 0.91.

315 The minimum adequate model for the presence of one or more subalpine fir seedlings

316 included historical presence of subalpine fir, survey year, and the distance to unburned refugia,

317 and all were significant predictors according to the drop1 test (Table 3). Historical presence of

318 subalpine fir resulted in a higher probability of subalpine fir seedling presence (53.6%) than

319 when fir trees were absent in the plot at the time of the 1990s surveys (2.2%), and plots

320 surveyed in 2020 were more likely to have subalpine fir seedlings, as were those closer to or

321 within unburned areas (Figure 5). The model explained 51.5% of the null deviance and AUC was

322 0.93.

323 Finally, the minimum adequate model for the presence of one or more Engelmann

324 spruce seedlings included burn status, historical presence, survey year, elevation, northness,

325 and the interaction between northness and elevation. The drop1 test indicated that burn

326 status, historical presence, survey year, and elevation were significant predictors after
327 accounting for the other predictors in the model (Table 3). The probability of Engelmann spruce
328 seedling presence was highest in plots that did not burn, with Engelmann spruce presence in
329 the original 1990s survey, in 2020, and at lower elevations (Figure 6). For example, in unburned
330 plots at the median elevation, with historical spruce presence, and surveyed in 2020, the
331 predicted probability of seedling occurrence is 57.0%, compared to 5.9% in similar plots that
332 burned. The model explained 46.8% of the null deviance and AUC was 0.93.

333

334 **Discussion**

335 The ability of tree species to regenerate following wildfire is the key to resilience of
336 forest systems (Donato et al. 2009, Hansen and Turner 2019). If the dominant tree species
337 present before a wildfire are not able to regenerate, there will be a shift to an alternative state
338 (e.g. Johnstone and Chapin 2006). The 'normal' fire regime of our study region is thought to
339 consist of large and severe wildfires (Lyon and Stickney 1976). Post-fire forest regeneration
340 begins with lodgepole pine, which quickly dominates, and a smaller pulse of immediate post-
341 fire spruce seedling establishment – with fir arriving much later (Day 1972). Natural thinning of
342 pines begins about 30 years after the fire, allowing spruce and fir to begin increasing, eventually
343 becoming dominant, but only after more than 100 years without fire (Day 1972). Our results
344 are consistent with the very earliest stages of this long-term process. However, if increased fire
345 frequency or increased temperatures or drought reduce the ability of tree seedlings to establish
346 or survive, this successional pattern could be altered. Therefore, it is important to track tree

347 seedling regeneration after recent wildfires and to understand what factors promote or limit
348 tree seedling establishment.

349 We studied the relative roles of abiotic, biotic, and landscape factors on the presence of
350 tree seedlings in sites recently burned in the Kenow wildfire and long unburned sites within
351 WLNP across a wide gradient of elevation and vegetation types. We found that the presence of
352 a tree species at a site in the past is a strong predictor of seedling presence. However, seedlings
353 of all species except lodgepole pine were very rare in burned sites 2-3 years following the fire.
354 In fact, among plots that had trees at the time of the 1990s surveys, only 56% of those that
355 burned had tree seedlings present in 2019/2020, compared to 85% of unburned plots. In
356 Glacier National Park, just south of WLNP, post-fire establishment of Engelmann spruce and
357 subalpine fir began right after wildfire but did not peak until 4-6 years afterwards (Harvey et al.
358 2016). We found increased occurrence of seedlings in 2020 compared to 2019, suggesting we
359 may be in the early stages of seedling establishment of these species in burned areas. However,
360 seedling occurrence frequency increased in 2020 compared to 2019 even for species found
361 mainly in unburned plots (e.g. poplar), suggesting that year-to-year variability in seed
362 availability or climatic conditions – rather than delayed colonization alone – contributed to this
363 pattern. Therefore, continued monitoring is needed to determine to what extent trees will
364 recolonize burned areas in the next few years, and how this will be affected by local or
365 landscape factors.

366 Abiotic conditions at local sites – in particular, soil moisture levels – are known to be
367 important determinants of tree seedling establishment success in the Rocky Mountains (Casady

368 et al. 2019, Harvey et al. 2016, Hansen and Turner 2019, Peeler and Smithwick 2021). Given
369 that south-facing slopes are much drier in our region, we were surprised to find that seedlings
370 of all species lumped together had a higher probability of occurring on south-facing slopes
371 (northness index closer to 0) than on north-facing slopes. One explanation could be that the
372 presence of trees prior to the wildfire was concentrated on south-facing slopes, and therefore
373 having 1990s tree presence in the models accounted for slope aspect. However, 1990s tree
374 presence was not correlated with aspect. Alternatively, south-facing slopes may be more likely
375 to support seedling establishment where temperature is limiting establishment more than
376 moisture. This may be the case in the montane and sub-alpine ecoregions of WLNP where
377 forest vegetation dominates. Climatic conditions in WLNP from 2018 to 2020 – including annual
378 precipitation and average maximum temperature – were within normal ranges for the previous
379 decade, so seedling establishment was likely not aided by exceptionally favourable growing
380 conditions, or depressed by drought (Alberta Agriculture and Forestry 2022).

381 Although we expected greater rates of seedling occurrence at higher elevations (where
382 moisture is greater), the probability of finding tree seedlings of all species combined declined
383 with elevation in burned plots. Similarly, Engelmann spruce had a higher likelihood of seedling
384 presence at lower elevations. Redmond and Kelsey (2018) also found Engelmann spruce
385 seedling density to decline with elevation in the Colorado Rockies, suggesting this could result
386 from frost damage or other consequences of lower temperatures at higher elevations. This
387 could be the case also in WLNP. Coop et al. (2010) found that tree regeneration measured
388 about 30 years post-fire at high elevations in Colorado declined with elevation. However,

389 Donato et al. 2009 found elevation to be relatively unimportant for seedling density 2-4 years
390 post-fire in the Klamath-Siskiyou Mountains of Oregon, USA.

391 The presence of dense herbaceous or shrubby understory vegetation can either
392 promote or depress tree seedling establishment, depending on the context (e.g. Leirfallom et
393 al. 2015, Chambers et al. 2016). When we pooled all species, seedling occurrence was more
394 likely in plots with higher total cover of understory vegetation, which is consistent with a
395 facilitative rather than a competitive effect. Pine seedling probability of occurrence was also
396 correlated with increasing understory cover. Peeler and Smithwick (2021) found understory
397 vegetation cover to be relatively unimportant as a predictor of tree seedling establishment in
398 the U.S. Rocky Mountains, south of our study area. However, they examined regeneration
399 about two decades post-wildfire, whereas our surveys were only 2-3 years after wildfire. It may
400 be that higher cover of understory vegetation benefits tree seedlings at earlier stages, but
401 later becomes unimportant, or even a detriment to older saplings, as competition for soil
402 moisture and nutrients intensifies.

403 Several studies have found that landscape context – in particular the proximity and
404 relative topographic position of living seed trees – is an important predictor of tree
405 regeneration patterns (e.g. Doyle et al. 1998, Donato et al. 2009, Coop et al. 2010, Peeler and
406 Smithwick 2020, 2021). We predicted that distance to an unburned area would be a significant
407 predictor of seedling presence in burned plots for the wind dispersed species, subalpine fir and
408 Engelmann spruce, however this was the case only for subalpine fir. At this stage only 2-3 years
409 post-fire, very few seedlings of spruce or fir were found in burned plots in our surveys. The one

410 spruce seedling found in a burned plot was only 106 m from an unburned area, while the two
411 subalpine fir seedlings found in burned plots were 6.5 m and 156 m distant from unburned
412 refugia. Most likely our surveys were too soon after the burn to detect the influence of
413 proximity to unburned refugia for Engelmann spruce, as practically no spruce has yet been able
414 to establish in burned sites. The significant effect of distance on fir seedling occurrence is likely
415 driven by the fact that the majority of seedlings were in unburned sites (distance = 0m), with
416 the two burned sites being relatively close to the unburned areas – hence distance in this case
417 is effectively a proxy for burn status. The probability of seedling occurrence was far more likely
418 in plots we surveyed in 2020 compared to 2019, but this was true for both burned and
419 unburned plots. It may be that our surveys in 2020 were just capturing the beginning of a rise in
420 tree seedling establishment. Continued monitoring of the plots within the burn will allow us to
421 determine the timing of the peak of seedling establishment, and to measure how strongly the
422 distance from the burn edge predicts seedling presence or density.

423 Our study has a number of limitations. First, our survey methods recorded the presence
424 of tree seedlings but not their density. Seedling density may be a more sensitive index of tree
425 regeneration. Many studies have found strong relationships between tree seedling density and
426 local or landscape predictors (e.g. Doyle et al. 1998, Donato et al. 2009, Coop et al. 2010,
427 Harvey et al. 2016). Second, the relative importance of abiotic, biotic, and landscape factors for
428 tree regeneration in burned sites likely changes over time, and our study only applies to the
429 very earliest stages post-fire. While lodgepole pine seedlings generally establish in the first two
430 growing seasons after wildfire in our region, establishment of other species may peak a few or

431 several years after fire (Harvey et al. 2016). More detailed data on soil characteristics, in
432 addition to our coarse categorical classification of soil drainage, might also help to explain more
433 of the variation in seedling occurrence in these plots.

434

435 **Conclusion**

436 In their comprehensive review of post-fire succession in the Rocky Mountains, Lyon and
437 Stickney (1976) suggest that wildfire should be considered “an internal perturbation of a
438 generally stable system”. Rather than recovery proceeding by a sequential succession of suites
439 of different species, the early colonizers are the same species that will make up the ‘climax’
440 forest; what changes is the relative abundance of these species over time. This aligns with the
441 stand structure study by Day (1972), showing that pine, and then spruce and fir, are able to re-
442 colonize burned sites within a few decades, and only their relative abundance changes as
443 succession proceeds. Similarly, long-term studies following the massive wildfires in Yellowstone
444 National Park, USA, in the late 1980s have found that the plant communities present prior to
445 the fire were re-established within a couple of decades, with few exceptions (Abella and
446 Fornwalt 2015, Romme et al. 2016). Studies in other parts of the Rocky Mountains have also
447 found that the best predictor of post-fire forest composition was pre-fire forest composition
448 (Doyle et al. 1998, Harvey et al. 2016). In WLNP at this early stage post-fire, seedlings occupy
449 only about half of the previously forested plots in the burned sites, and firs and spruce
450 seedlings are very rare. The changing context in which wildfires are now occurring has the
451 potential to disrupt the return to pre-fire tree composition in the burned sites (Coop et al.

452 2020). Long-term tracking of tree regeneration and plant community composition in WLNP will
453 reveal whether or not these forests will ultimately recover to something like their pre-fire
454 composition.

455

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612 TABLE 1. Number of plots with seedling presence pre-fire (1990s) and post-fire (2019/2020). Some plots had more than one
 613 tree species present. In each column, the number of plots with an occurrence of trees or tree seedlings is indicated, out of the total
 614 number of plots. In the first column, the numbers in brackets show the number of plots out of 53 that would eventually burn in the
 615 2017 wildfire that had trees present in the 1990s. Pre-fire frequency of trees was approximately even among plots which burned and
 616 did not burn.

	# of plots with trees present 1990s (any height)	# of plots with seedlings present 1990s	# of plots with seedlings present 2019 or 2020	# of burned plots with seedlings present 2019 or 2020	# of unburned plots with seedlings present 2019 or 2020
SPECIES					
any	67/98 (33/53)	33/98	50/98	18/53	32/45
lodgepole pine	18/98 (7/53)	2/98	14/98	13/53	1/45
poplars	17/98 (9/53)	2/98	14/98	4/53	10/45
subalpine fir	50/98 (25/53)	26/98	24/98	2/53	22/45
Engelmann spruce	36/98 (16/53)	10/98	10/98	1/53	9/45

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620 TABLE 2. Model coefficients and results of drop1 test for each factor included in the best model for the presence/absence of at
 621 least one tree seedling (all species combined). Factors determined to be important predictors based on a drop1 test are in bold.
 622 Null deviance 135.82 (df = 97), residual deviance 54.65 (df = 87).

PREDICTOR	coefficient	SE ^a	AIC ^b	p ^c
Intercept	-0.46	0.39	76.65	n/a
burn status (unburned/burned)	-1.74	0.85	79.19	0.033
historical presence of trees (no/yes)	5.13	1.35	110.81	<0.001
survey year (2019 or 2020)	4.35	1.36	94.79	<0.001
elevation	-0.91	1.11	75.32	0.410
slope	1.28	0.93	76.63	0.159
northness index	-1.68	0.92	78.59	0.047
cover of understorey vegetation	2.43	1.10	80.27	0.018
burn x elevation interaction	-4.19	2.22	78.82	0.041
burn x slope interaction	2.65	1.71	77.30	0.103
burn x understory cover interaction	-3.15	2.29	76.69	0.153

623 ^a standard error

624 ^b AIC of the model including all factors except the one being tested

625 ^c p value based on a Chi-squared test comparing the full model with a model excluding the factor

626 TABLE 3. Model coefficients and results of drop1 test for each factor included in the best model for the presence/absence of at
 627 least one seedling for each species separately. Factors determined to be important predictors based on a drop1 test are in bold.

PREDICTOR	coefficient	SE ^a	AIC ^b	p ^c
<i>lodgepole pine (Null deviance 80.38 (df = 97), residual deviance 36.95 (df = 89))</i>				
Intercept	-3.87	0.98	54.95	n/a
burn status (unburned/burned)	5.09	2.30	61.22	0.004
historical presence (yes/no)	5.66	1.90	73.29	<0.001
elevation	1.90	1.79	54.15	0.273
slope steepness	1.64	1.03	56.53	0.058
northness index	1.75	1.32	54.95	0.158
distance to unburned area (m)	1.67	0.86	56.76	0.051
cover of understorey vegetation	3.14	1.88	56.89	0.047
elevation x northness interaction	4.25	2.86	55.43	0.115
<i>poplars (Null deviance 80.38 (df = 97), residual deviance 50.82 (df = 93))</i>				
Intercept	-3.12	0.67	60.82	n/a

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burn status (unburned/burned)	-1.25	0.78	61.60	0.095
historical presence (yes/no)	2.62	0.90	69.47	0.001
survey year (2019 or 2020)	3.13	0.98	73.65	<0.001
cover of understorey vegetation	1.99	1.25	61.77	0.086
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<i>subalpine fir (Null deviance 109.1 (df = 97), residual deviance 52.94 (df = 94))</i>				
<hr/>				
Intercept	-3.68	1.09	60.94	n/a
historical presence (yes/no)	3.93	1.05	87.69	<0.001
survey year (2019 or 2020)	1.97	1.02	64.022	0.024
distance to unburned area (m)	-8.86	3.28	91.43	<0.001
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<i>Engelmann spruce (Null deviance 64.59 (df = 97), residual deviance 34.39 (df = 91))</i>				
<hr/>				
Intercept	-4.72	1.21	48.39	n/a
burn status (unburned/burned)	-3.05	1.40	54.28	0.005
historical presence (yes/no)	2.14	1.00	52.03	0.018
survey year (2019 or 2020)	2.84	1.28	52.68	0.012
elevation	-2.84	1.42	51.16	0.029
northness index	-1.26	1.21	47.57	0.278
elevation x northness interaction	-5.66	3.23	49.89	0.061

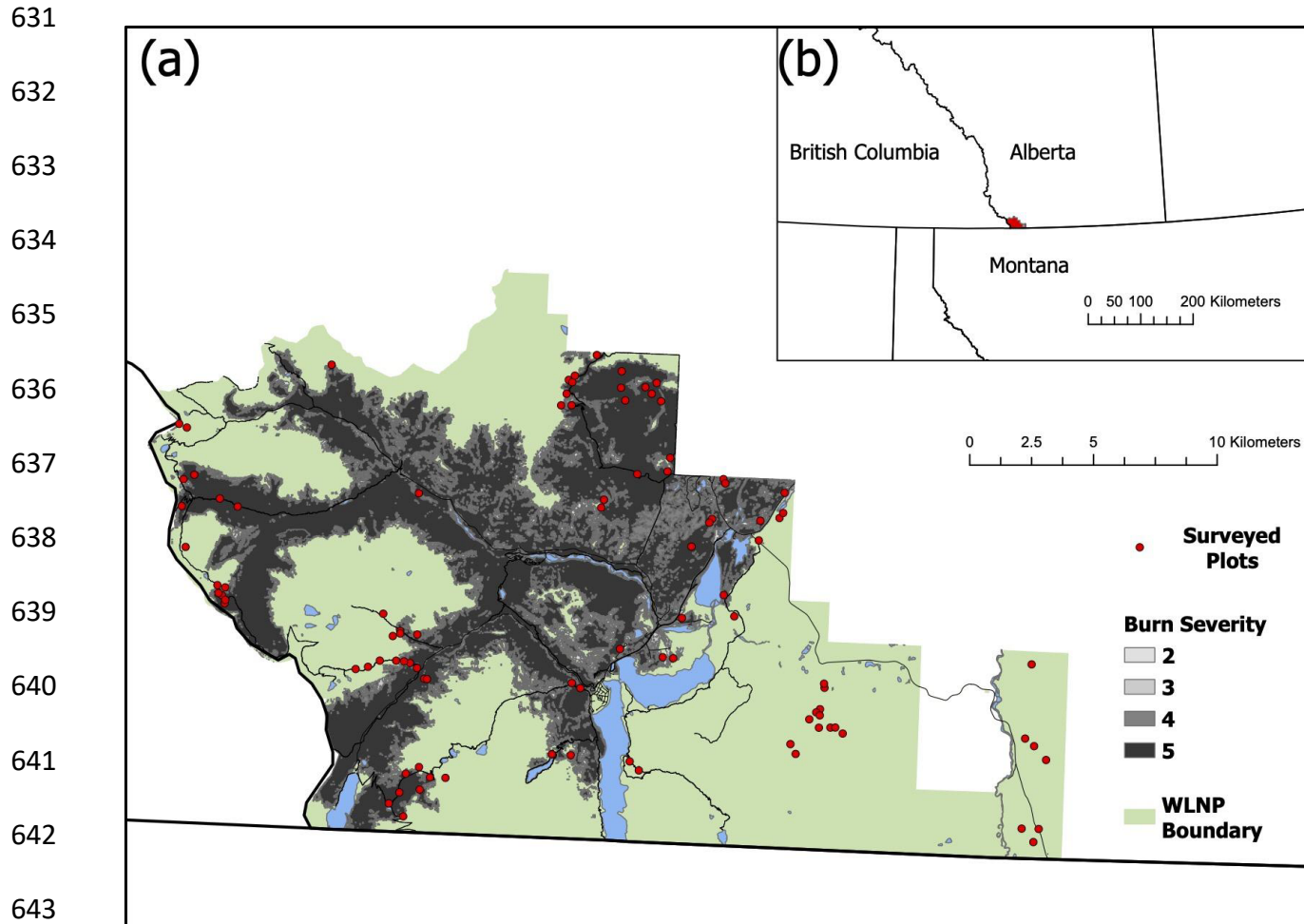
Musk D, Lloren JI, McCune JL. Tree seedling regeneration in Canada's southern Rocky Mountains: contrasting recently burned and unburned areas. *Northwest Science* 98(1): *in press*.

628 ^a standard error

629 ^b AIC of the model including all factors except the one being tested

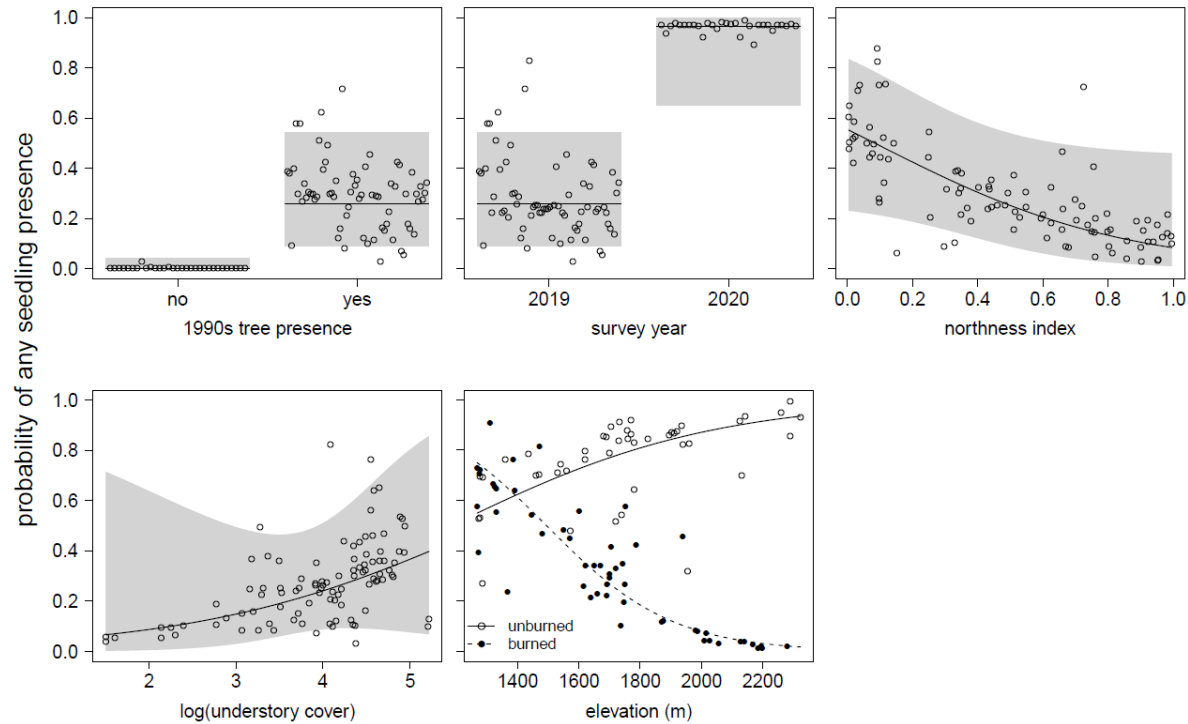
630 ^c p value based on a Chi-squared test comparing the full model with a model excluding the factor

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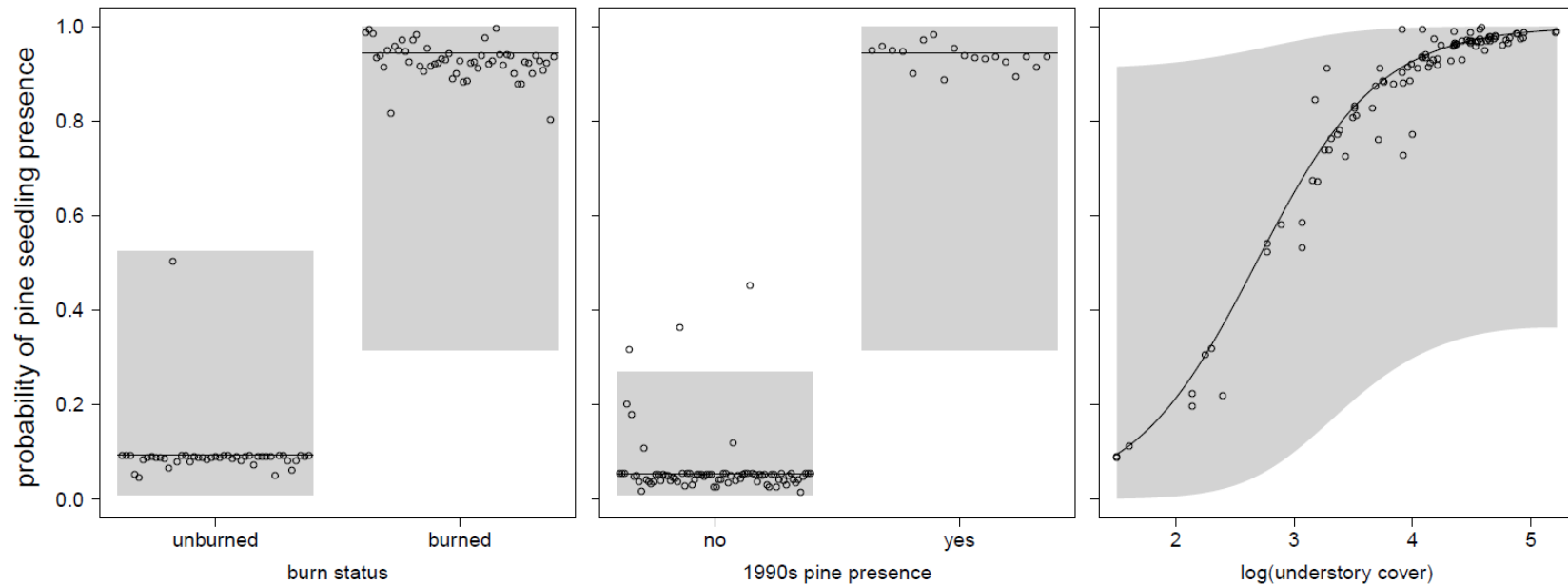


644 Figure 1. (a) Map outlining the boundaries of Waterton Lakes National Park (WLNP). The area burned in the 2017 Kenow Fire is
645 indicated by grey shading according to burn severity. Red points show the locations of all surveyed plots. (b) The location of
646 Waterton Lakes National Park (red) within the province of Alberta and the surrounding provinces and states.

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657 Figure 2. Partial regression plots based on the best model for presence/absence of any species of tree seedling showing the
658 predicted probability of seedling occurrence for historical tree presence, survey year, northness index (1 = northerly aspects, 0 =
659 southerly aspects), total understorey cover, and the interaction between burn status and elevation. In each panel, all other
660 predictors in the model are held constant at their median or the most frequent category. Confidence bands show the 95%
661 confidence interval for the conditional prediction. These bands are omitted in the last panel for clarity.



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663 Figure 3. Partial regression plots based on the best model for presence/absence of lodgepole pine seedlings showing the predicted
664 probability of seedling occurrence for burn status, historical tree presence, and total cover of understorey vegetation. In each panel,
665 all other continuous predictors are held constant at their median except historical pine presence was set to 'yes' when not the focal
666 predictor. Confidence bands show the 95% confidence interval for the conditional prediction.

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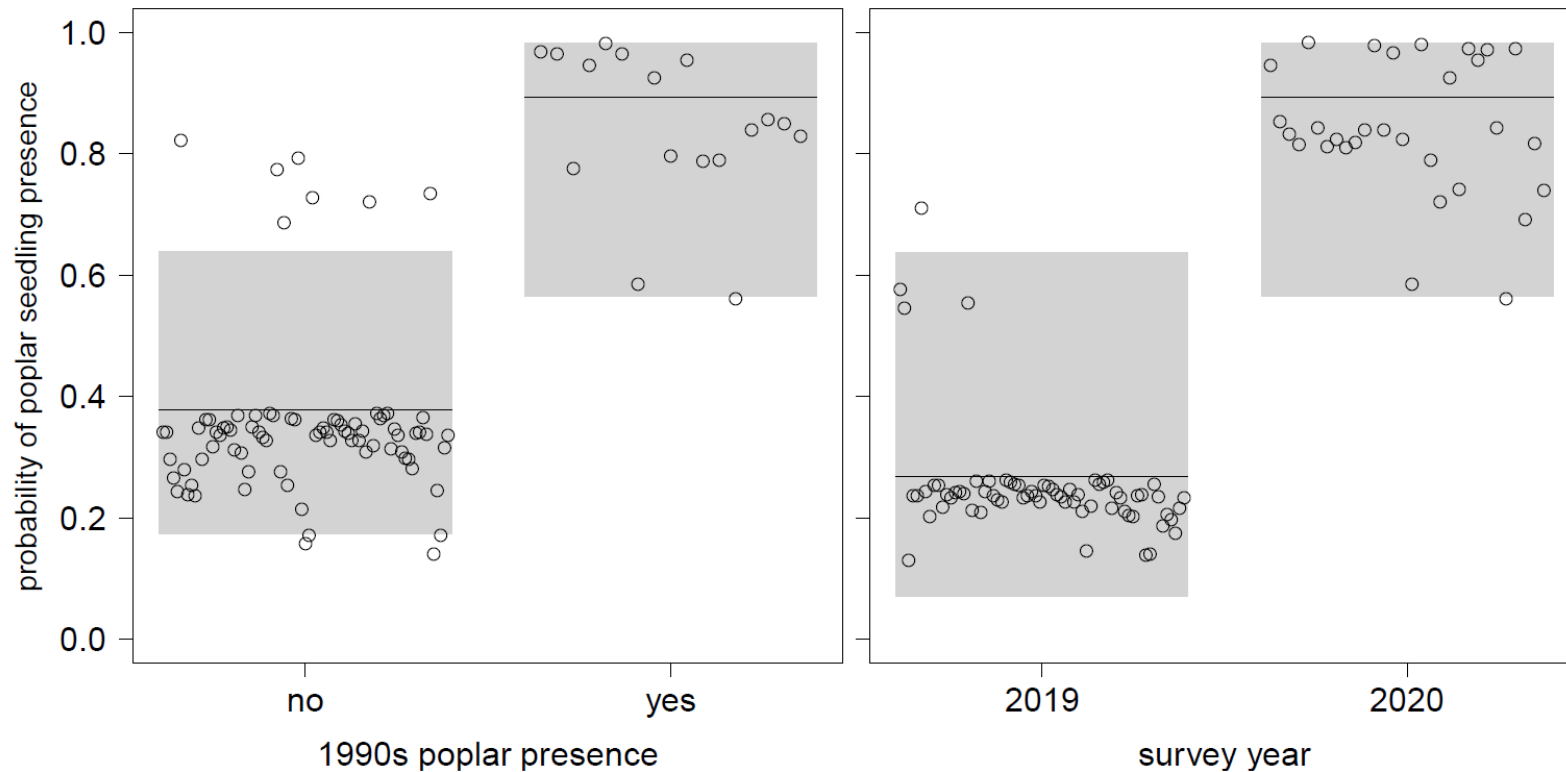
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Figure 4. Partial regression plots based on the best model for presence/absence of poplar seedlings showing the predicted probability of seedling occurrence for historical tree presence and survey year. Burn status is set to 'unburned'. In the first panel, survey year is set to 2020. In the second panel, historical poplar presence is set to 'yes'. Confidence bands show the 95% confidence interval for the conditional prediction.

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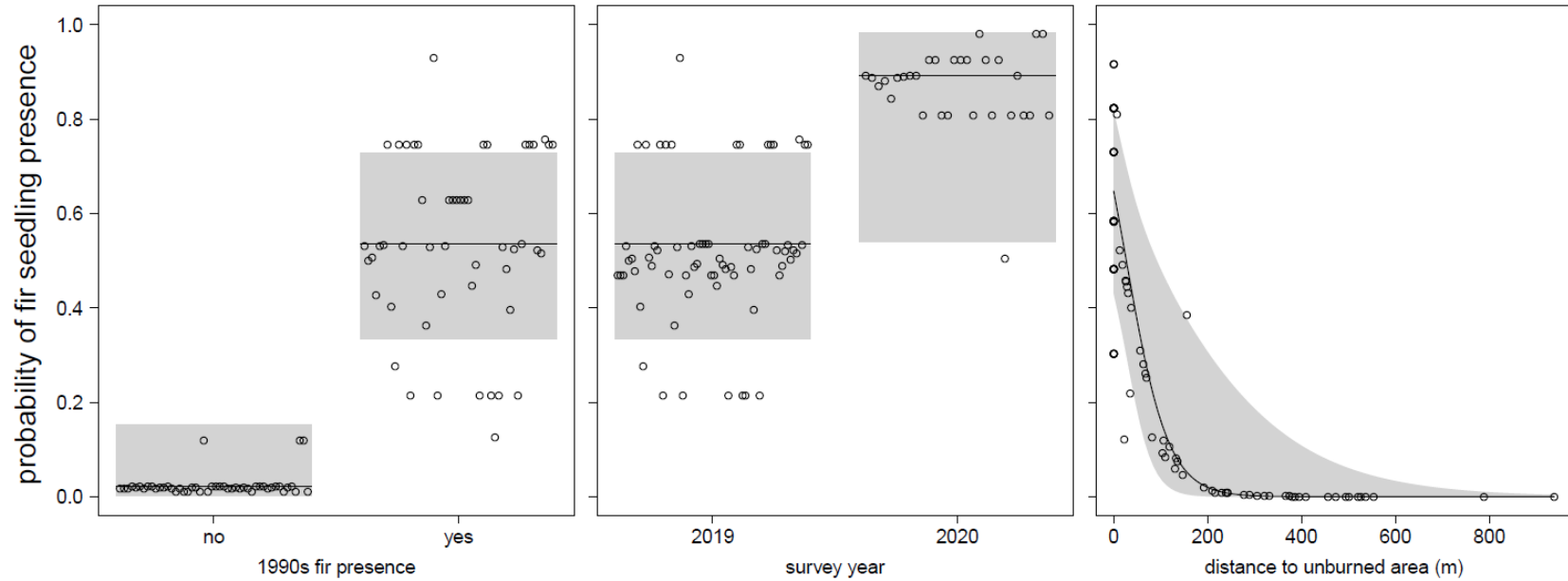
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Figure 5. Partial regression plot based on the best model for presence/absence of subalpine fir seedlings showing the predicted probability of seedling occurrence based on historical tree presence, survey year, and distance to unburned area. In each panel other factors are held constant at their median or the most frequent category. Confidence bands show the 95% confidence interval of the conditional prediction.

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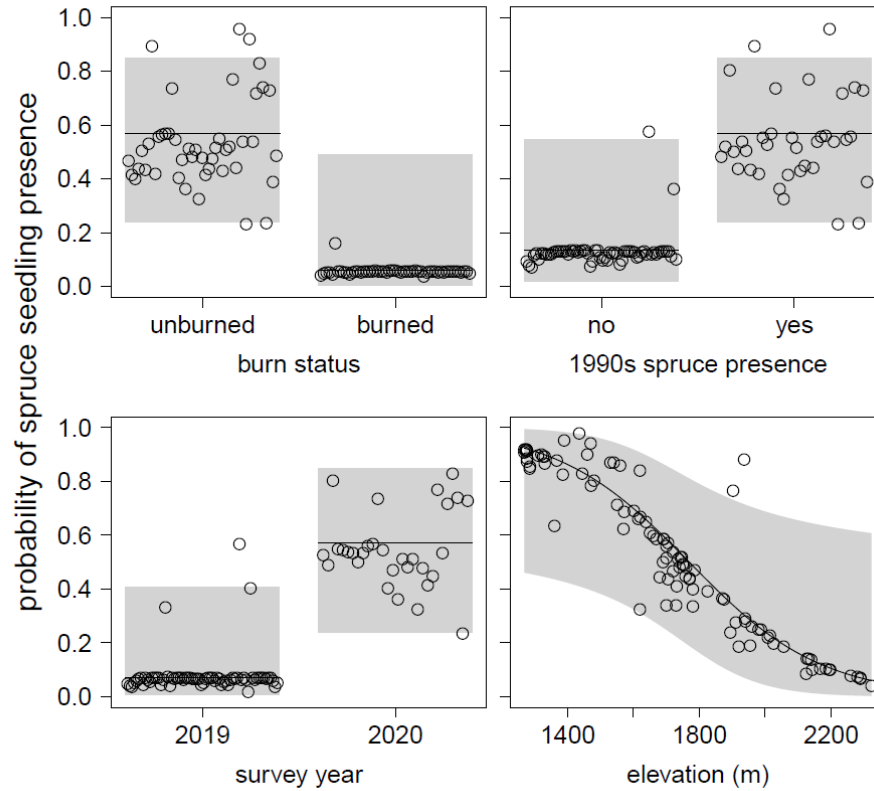
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Figure 6. Partial regression plots based on the best model for presence/absence of Engelmann spruce seedlings showing the predicted probability of seedling occurrence for burn status, historical tree presence, survey year, and elevation. Burn status is set to 'unburned', 1990s spruce presence is set to 'yes', and survey year is set to 2020 in the panels in which they are not the focal predictor. Confidence bands show the 95% confidence interval of the conditional prediction.