

Ecological site FX052X01X010

Dense Clay (DC) Dry Grassland

Last updated: 12/28/2022

Accessed: 12/16/2025

General information

Provisional. A provisional ecological site description has undergone quality control and quality assurance review. It contains a working state and transition model and enough information to identify the ecological site.

MLRA notes

Major Land Resource Area (MLRA): 052X–Brown Glaciated Plains

The Brown Glaciated Plains, MLRA 52, is an expansive and agriculturally and ecologically significant area. It consists of around 14.5 million acres and stretches across 350 miles from east to west, encompassing portions of 15 counties in north-central Montana. This region represents the southwestern limit of the Laurentide Ice Sheet and is considered to be the driest and westernmost area within the vast network of glacially derived prairie pothole landforms of the northern Great Plains. Elevation ranges from 2,000 feet (610 meters) to 4,600 feet (1,400 meters).

Soils are primarily Mollisols, but Entisols, Inceptisols, Alfisols and Vertisols are also common. Till from continental glaciation is the predominant parent material, but alluvium and bedrock are also common. Till deposits are typically less than 50 feet thick, and in some areas glacially deformed bedrock occurs at or near the soil surface (Soller, 2001). Underlying the till is sedimentary bedrock largely consisting of Cretaceous shale, sandstone, and mudstone (Vuke et al., 2007). Bedrock is commonly exposed on hillslopes, particularly along drainageways. Significant alluvial deposits occur along glacial outwash channels and major drainages, including portions of the Missouri, Teton, Marias, Milk, and Frenchman Rivers. Large glacial lakes, particularly in the western half of the MLRA, deposited clayey and silty lacustrine sediments (Fullerton et al., 2013).

Much of the western portion of this MLRA was glaciated towards the end of the Wisconsin age, and the maximum glacial extent occurred approximately 20,000 years ago (Fullerton et al., 2004). The result is a geologically young landscape that is predominantly a level till plain interspersed with lake plains and dominated by soils in the Mollisol and Vertisol orders. These soils are very productive and generally are well suited to dryland farming.

Much of this area is aridic-ustic. Crop-fallow dryland wheat farming is the predominant land use. Areas of rangeland typically are on steep hillslopes along drainages.

The rangeland, much of which is native mixed grass prairie, increases in abundance in the eastern half of the MLRA. The Wisconsin-age till in the north-central part of this area typically formed large disintegration moraines with steep slopes and numerous poorly drained potholes. A large portion of Wisconsin-age till occurring on the type of level terrain that would typically be optimal for farming has large amounts of less-suitable sodium-affected Natrustalfs. Significant portions of Blaine, Phillips, and Valley Counties were glaciated approximately 150,000 years ago during the Illinoian age. Due to erosion and dissection of the landscape, many of these areas have steeper slopes and more exposed bedrock than areas glaciated during the Wisconsin age (Fullerton and Colton, 1986).

While much of the rangeland in the aridic-ustic portion of MLRA 52 is classified as belonging to the “dry grassland” climatic zone, sites in portions of southern MLRA 52 may belong to the “dry shrubland” climatic zone. The dry shrubland zone represents the northernmost extent of the big sagebrush (*Artemisia tridentata*) steppe on the Great Plains. Because similar soils occur in both southern and northern portions of the MLRA, it is currently hypothesized that climate is the primary driving factor affecting big sagebrush distribution in this area. However, the precise factors are not fully understood at this time.

Sizeable tracts of largely unbroken rangeland in the eastern half of the MLRA and adjacent southern Saskatchewan are home to the Northern Montana population of greater sage-grouse (*Centrocercus urophasianus*), and large portions of this area are considered to be a Priority Area for Conservation (PAC) by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, 2013). This population is unique among sage grouse populations because many individuals overwinter in the big sagebrush steppe (dry shrubland) in the southern portion of the MLRA and then migrate to the northern portion of the MLRA, which lacks big sagebrush (dry grassland), to live the rest of the year (Smith, 2013).

Areas of the till plain near the Bearpaw and Highwood Mountains as well as the Sweetgrass Hills and Rocky Mountain foothills are at higher elevations, receive higher amounts of precipitation, and have a typic-ustic moisture regime. These areas have significantly more rangeland production than the drier aridic-ustic portions of the MLRA and have enough moisture to produce crops annually rather than just bi-annually, as in the drier areas. Ecological sites in this higher precipitation area are classified as the moist grassland climatic zone.

Classification relationships

NRCS Soil Geography Hierarchy

- Land Resource Region: Northern Great Plains
- Major Land Resource Area (MLRA): 052 Brown Glaciated Plains
- Climate Zone: Dry Grassland

National Hierarchical Framework of Ecological Units (Cleland et al., 1997; McNab et al., 2007)

- Domain: Dry
- Division: Temperate Steppe
- Province: Great Plains-Palouse Dry Steppe Province 331
- Section: Northwestern Glaciated Plains 331D
- Subsection: Montana Glaciated Plains 331Dh
- Landtype association/Landtype phase: N/A

National Vegetation Classification Standard (Federal Geographic Data Committee, 2008)

- Class: Mesomorphic Shrub and Herb Vegetation Class (2)
- Subclass: Temperate and Boreal Grassland and Shrubland Subclass (2.B)
- Formation: Temperate Grassland, Meadow, and Shrubland Formation (2.B.2)
- Division: Great Plains Grassland and Shrubland Division (2.b.2.Nb)
- Macrogroup: *Hesperostipa comata* – *Pascopyrum smithii* – *Festuca hallii* Grassland Macrogroup (2.B.2.Nb.2)
- Group: *Pascopyrum smithii* – *Hesperostipa comata* – *Schizachyrium scoparium* Mixedgrass Prairie Group (2.B.2.Nb.2.c)
- Alliance: *Pascopyrum smithii* – *Nassella viridula* Northwestern Great Plains Herbaceous Alliance
- Association: No existing correlation

EPA Ecoregions

- Level 1: Great Plains (9)
- Level 2: West-Central Semi-Arid Prairies (9.3)
- Level 3: Northwestern Glaciated Plains (42)
- Level 4: North Central Brown Glaciated Plains (42o) & Glaciated Northern Grasslands (42j)

Ecological site concept

This provisional ecological site occurs in the Dry Grassland climatic zone of MLRA 52. Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of this ecological site based on current data. This map is approximate, is not intended to be definitive, and may be subject to change. Dense Clay Dry Grassland is a moderately extensive ecological site occurring on alluvial landscapes throughout MLRA 52. It occurs on fans, drainageways, and terraces.

The distinguishing characteristic of this site is that soils contain more than 45 percent clay in the upper 4 inches. Soils in this ecological site are typically very deep (more than 60 inches to bedrock) and derived from clayey glaciolacustrine or outwash deposits. Soil textures in the upper 4 inches are typically clay, or silty clay. The soils commonly have an ochric epipedon and weakly developed underlying horizons. Characteristic vegetation is western wheatgrass (*Pascopyrum smithii*), prairie Junegrass (*Koeleria macrantha*), and green needlegrass (*Nassella viridula*). The principal sagebrush species on this site is

silver sagebrush (*Artemisia cana*), which typically only occurs at low cover.

Associated sites

FX052X01X001	Clayey (Cy) Dry Grassland Clayey Dry Grassland is on similar landscapes as Dense Clay Dry Grassland but is typically upslope where clay content is less. On lake plains, the Clayey site is around the perimeters whereas the Dense Clay site is closer to the center.
FX052X01X012	Dense Clay Sodic (Dcsd) Dry Grassland Dense Clay Sodic Dry Grassland is on similar landscapes as Dense Clay Dry Grassland but typically occupies the lowest position on the landscape where salts have accumulated.
FX052X01X005	Clayey-Steep (Cystp) Dry Grassland Clayey Steep Dry Grassland is adjacent to Dense Clay Dry Grassland where terraces or lake plains have been dissected by streams or drainageways. The Clayey Steep site is on sideslopes whereas the Dense Clay site is on summits or toeslopes.

Similar sites

FX052X01X012	Dense Clay Sodic (Dcsd) Dry Grassland This site differs from Dense Clay Dry Grassland in that soils contain accumulated salts in the upper 20 inches. This is evidenced by sodium-tolerant shrubs such as greasewood and a lack of mid-statured bunchgrasses.
FX052X01X001	Clayey (Cy) Dry Grassland This site differs from Dense Clay Dry Grassland in that clay content is greater than 35 percent but not more than 45 percent.
FX052X99X003	Alkali Flat (Af) This site differs from Dense Clay Dry Grassland in that it receives additional moisture and contains accumulated salts in the upper 20 inches of soil. This site is normally on active playas that experience frequent long-duration ponding.
FX052X03X010	Dense Clay (DC) Dry Shrubland This site differs from Dense Clay Dry Grassland in that it has slightly warmer annual temperatures and can support big sagebrush.

Table 1. Dominant plant species

Tree	Not specified
Shrub	Not specified
Herbaceous	Not specified

Legacy ID

Physiographic features

The Dense Clay Dry Grassland ecological site is a moderately extensive ecological site occurring on fans, drainageways, terraces, and lake plains. This site is not affected by aspect.

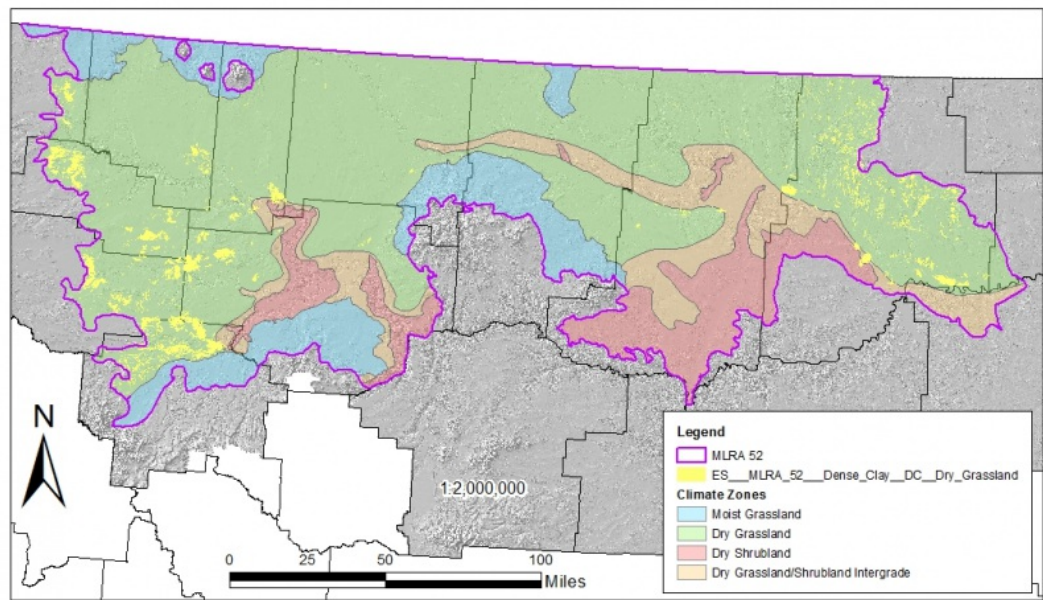


Figure 1. Figure 1. General distribution of the Dense Clay Dry Grassland ecological site by map unit extent.

Table 2. Representative physiographic features

Landforms	(1) Fan (2) Drainageway (3) Terrace (4) Lake plain
Elevation	2,000–3,870 ft
Slope	0–14%
Aspect	Aspect is not a significant factor

Climatic features

The Brown Glaciated Plains is a semi-arid region with a temperate continental climate that is characterized by frigid winters and warm to hot summers (Cooper et al., 2001). The average frost-free period for this ecological site is 120 days. The majority of precipitation occurs as steady, soaking, frontal system rains in late spring to early summer. Summer rainfall comes mainly from convection thunderstorms that typically deliver scattered amounts of rain in intense bursts. These storms may be accompanied by damaging winds and large-diameter hail and result in flash flooding along low-order streams. Severe

drought occurs on average in 2 out of 10 ten years. Annual precipitation ranges from 10 to 14 inches, and 70 to 80 percent of this occurs during the growing season (Cooper et al., 2001). Extreme climatic variations, especially droughts, have the greatest influence on species cover and production (Coupland, 1958, 1961; Biondini et al., 1998).

During the winter months, the western half of MLRA 52 commonly experiences chinook winds, which are strong west to southwest surface winds accompanied by abrupt increases in temperature. The chinook winds are strongest on the western boundary of the MLRA near the Rocky Mountain foothills and decrease eastward. In addition to producing damaging winds, prolonged chinook episodes can result in drought or vegetation kills due to the reaction of plants to a “false spring” (Oard, 1993).

Table 3. Representative climatic features

Frost-free period (average)	120 days
Freeze-free period (average)	140 days
Precipitation total (average)	12 in

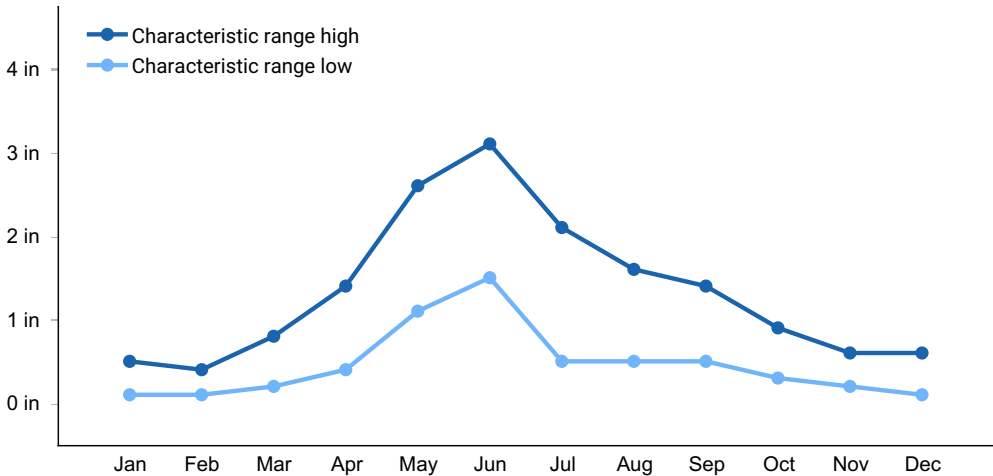


Figure 2. Monthly precipitation range

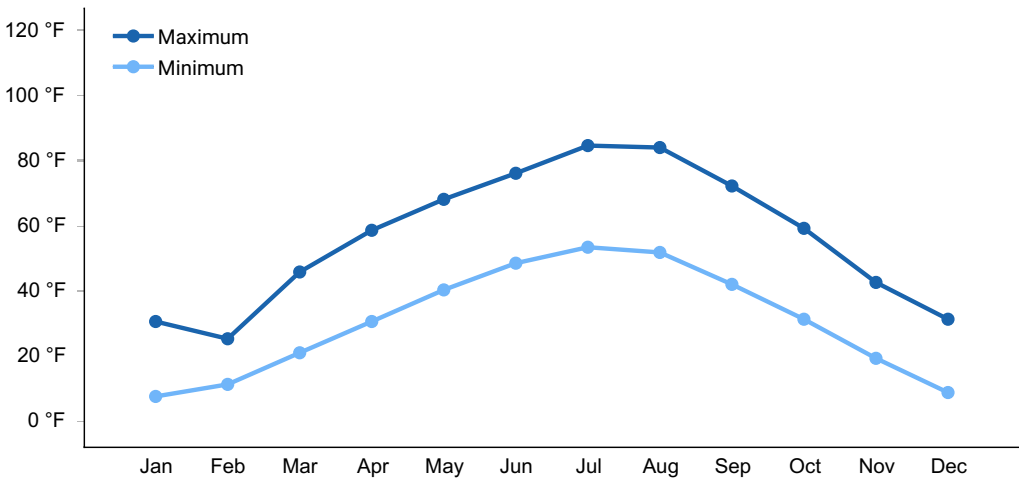


Figure 3. Monthly average minimum and maximum temperature

Climate stations used

- (1) CARTER 14 W [USC00241525], Floweree, MT
- (2) CHESTER [USC00241692], Chester, MT
- (3) TIBER DAM [USC00248233], Chester, MT
- (4) HARLEM [USC00243929], Harlem, MT
- (5) MALTA 7 E [USC00245338], Malta, MT
- (6) TURNER 11N [USC00248415], Turner, MT
- (7) CONRAD [USC00241974], Conrad, MT
- (8) SHELBY [USC00247500], Shelby, MT
- (9) GLASGOW [USW00094008], Glasgow, MT
- (10) HAVRE CITY CO AP [USW00094012], Havre, MT

Influencing water features

This is a dry upland site, and the water budget is normally contained within the soil profile. During intense precipitation events, precipitation rates frequently exceed infiltration rates and this site delivers moisture to downslope sites via surface runoff. Moisture loss through evapotranspiration exceeds precipitation for the majority of the growing season. Soil moisture levels are greatest in May and June, but rarely reach field capacity in the upper 40 inches.

Soil features

The Dense Clay concept covers over 360,000 acres in MLRA 52. Soil series that best represent the central concept for this ecological site are Marias and Pendroy soils. They are both in the Haplusterts great group. Marias is in a fine family, meaning it contains between 35 and 60 percent clay in the particle-size control section. Pendroy is in a very-fine family, meaning it contains more than 60 percent clay in the particle-size control section. The typical parent material for these series is clayey glaciolacustrine deposits. Underlying horizons exhibit strong shrink-swell characteristics, as evidenced by slickensides (USDA-NRCS, 2016) and are very hard to extremely hard when dry. The minerology for both soils is smectitic. These and all soils in this site concept are characterized by a surface horizon that lacks enough organic matter to have a mollic epipedon. The soil moisture regime for all soils in this ecological site concept is ustic bordering on aridic, which means that the soils are moist in some or all parts for either 180 cumulative days or 90 consecutive days during the growing season but are dry in some or all parts for over 90 cumulative days. These soils have a frigid soil temperature regime (Soil Survey Staff, 2014).

Surface textures found on this site are most commonly clay, clay loam, silty clay or silty clay loam. The upper 4 inches of soil contains more than 45 percent clay. The underlying horizons typically contain 40 to 75 percent clay and have clay or silty clay textures. Organic matter in the surface horizon typically ranges from 1 to 3 percent, and moist colors vary from grayish brown (2.5Y 5/2) to dark grayish brown (2.5Y 4/2). Calcium

carbonate equivalent is typically less than 15 percent throughout the soil profile. Soil pH classes are moderately acid to slightly alkaline in the surface horizon and neutral to strongly alkaline in the subsurface horizons. The soil depth class for this site can be moderately deep (between 20 to 40 inches to bedrock) in places where bedrock is present but is typically very deep (greater than 60 inches). Coarse fragments are typically rare or absent in the upper 20 inches of soil.

Table 4. Representative soil features

Parent material	(1) Glaciolacustrine deposits
Surface texture	(1) Clay (2) Clay loam (3) Silty clay (4) Silty clay loam
Drainage class	Well drained
Soil depth	20–72 in
Available water capacity (0-40in)	5.2–5.7 in
Calcium carbonate equivalent (0-5in)	0–14%
Electrical conductivity (0-20in)	0–3 mmhos/cm
Sodium adsorption ratio (0-20in)	0–12
Soil reaction (1:1 water) (0-40in)	5.6–9
Subsurface fragment volume ≤3" (0-20in)	0–14%
Subsurface fragment volume >3" (0-20in)	0–14%

Ecological dynamics

The information in this ecological site description, including the state-and-transition model (STM), was developed based on historical data, current field data, professional experience, and a review of the scientific literature. As a result, all possible scenarios or plant species may not be included. Key indicator plant species, disturbances, and ecological processes are described to inform land management decisions.

The Dense Clay provisional ecological site in MLRA 52 Dry Grassland consists of five states: The Reference State (1.0), the Shortgrass State (2.0), the Invaded State (3.0), the Cropland State (4.0), and the Post-Cropland State (5.0). Plant communities associated

with the Dense Clay ecological site evolved under the combined influences of climate, grazing, and fire. Extreme climatic variability results in frequent droughts, which have the greatest influence on the relative contribution of species cover and production (Coupland, 1958, 1961; Biondini et al., 1998). Due to the dominance of cool-season graminoids, annual production is highly dependent upon mid- to late-spring precipitation (Heitschmidt and Vermeire, 2005; Anderson, 2006).

Native grazers also shaped these plant communities. American bison (*Bison bison*) were the dominant historic grazer, but pronghorn (*Antilocapra americana*), elk (*Cervus canadensis*), and deer (*Odocoileus* spp.) were also common. Additionally, small mammals such as prairie dogs (*Cynomys* spp.) and ground squirrels (*Urocitellus* spp.) also influenced this plant community (Salo et al., 2004). Grasshoppers and periodic outbreaks of Rocky Mountain locusts (*Melanoplus spretus*; Lockwood, 2004) also played an important role in the ecology of these communities.

The historic ecosystem also experienced relatively frequent lightning-caused fires with estimated fire return intervals of 6 to 25 years (Bragg, 1995). Historically, Native Americans also set periodic fires. The majority of lightning-caused fires occurred in July and August, whereas Native Americans typically set fires during spring and fall to correspond with the movement of bison (Higgins, 1986). Generally, the mixedgrass ecosystem is resilient to fire and the historic fire return interval had neutral or slightly positive effects on the plant community (Vermeire et al., 2011, 2014). However, studies have shown that shorter fire return intervals can have a negative effect, shifting species composition toward warm-season short-statured grasses (Shay et al., 2001; Smith and McDermid, 2014). Conversely, long-term fire suppression in the 20th century removed periodic fire from the ecosystem altogether. Lack of periodic fires can result in an increase in litter accumulation and, in some cases, provide ideal conditions for seed germination and seedling establishment of non-native annual brome species, such as field, or Japanese, brome (*Bromus arvensis*; Whisenant, 1990). These species have become naturalized in relatively undisturbed grasslands (Ogle et al., 2003; Harms, 2007) and can be present in any state within the scope of this ecological site. They typically do not have a significant ecological impact; however, their presence can reduce the production of cool-season perennial grasses in some cases (Haferkamp et al., 1997). Their abundance varies depending on precipitation and germination conditions.

Improper grazing of this site can result in a reduction in the cover of the mid-statured cool-season grasses and an increase in shortgrasses (Smoliak et al., 1972; Smoliak, 1974). Improper grazing practices include any practices that do not allow sufficient opportunity for plants to physiologically recover from a grazing event or multiple grazing events within a given year and/or that do not provide adequate cover to prevent soil erosion over time. These practices may include, but are not limited to, overstocking, continuous grazing, and/or inadequate seasonal rotation moves over multiple years. Periods of extended drought (approximately 3 years or more) can reduce mid-statured cool-season grasses, triggering an increase in shortgrasses such as prairie Junegrass (Coupland, 1961; Clarke et al., 1947).

Further degradation of the site due to improper grazing can result in a community dominated by shortgrasses such as prairie Junegrass and Sandberg bluegrass. Mid-statured rhizomatous grasses and bunchgrasses are severely reduced or absent. Cover of prairie sagewort can also increase.

Much of the Dense Clay Dry Grassland ecological site has been converted to annual cropland. Seeding of introduced grasses, particularly crested wheatgrass (*Agropyron cristatum*), was a common practice in eroded and abandoned agricultural areas after the droughts of the 1930s (Rogler and Lorenz, 1983). Crested wheatgrass is a highly drought-tolerant and competitive cool-season, perennial bunchgrass (DeLuca and Lesica, 1996). Crested wheatgrass can invade relatively undisturbed grasslands, reducing cover and production of native cool-season midgrasses (Heidinga and Wilson, 2002; Henderson and Naeth, 2005). Russian wildrye (*Psathyrostachys juncea*) was introduced in the 1950s to provide forage for livestock (Dormaar et al., 1995). Although less widespread, it is also a common pasture species in MLRA 52. Russian wildrye is typically planted in monocultures, but this species is not considered invasive and is unlikely to spread into undisturbed grasslands (Ogle et al., 2012).

When this site is taken out of production, this ecological site is either allowed to revert back to perennial grassland or is seeded with introduced species. Sites left to undergo natural plant succession after cultivation can, over several decades, support western wheatgrass and cool-season shortgrasses, although cover and production of these species are lower than in the Reference State. However, those sites seeded with non-native species, particularly crested wheatgrass, may persist as this cover type indefinitely (Christian and Wilson, 1999). Even when reseeded to native species, it may take over 75 years for soil organic matter to return to its pre-disturbed state (Dormaar and Willms, 1990).

The STM diagram suggests possible pathways that plant communities on this site may follow as a result of a given set of ecological processes and management. The site may also support states not displayed in the STM diagram. Landowners and land managers should seek guidance from local professionals before prescribing a particular management or treatment scenario. Plant community responses vary across this MLRA due to variability in weather, soils, and aspect. The reference community phase may not necessarily be the management goal. The lists of plant species and species composition values are provisional and are not intended to cover the full range of conditions, species, and responses for the site. Species composition by dry weight is provided when available and is considered provisional based on the sources identified in the narratives associated with each community phase.

State 1: Reference State

The Reference State contains two community phases. This state evolved under the combined influences of climate, grazing, and fire, with climatic variation having the greatest influence on cover and production. In general, this phase was resilient to grazing

and fire, although these factors could influence species composition in localized areas. Vegetation is characterized by mid-statured cool-season rhizomatous grasses, mid-statured bunchgrasses, and short-statured grasses.

Community Phase 1.1: Rhizomatous Wheatgrass Phase

The Rhizomatous Wheatgrass Phase is typically dominated by western wheatgrass. Thickspike wheatgrass may also be present, becoming abundant in the northern extent of this ecological site. The mid-statured bunchgrass green needlegrass is common. Short-statured grasses such as prairie Junegrass and Sandberg bluegrass (*Poa secunda*) are not abundant in this phase but are generally present at low cover. Forbs typically comprise approximately 10 percent of the total production. Silver sagebrush (*Artemisia cana*) is the predominant sagebrush species and is present at 5 percent cover or less. The approximate species composition of the reference plant community is as follows:

Percent composition by weight

Rhizomatous Wheatgrass 40%

Green Needlegrass 20%

Prairie Junegrass 10%

Other Native Grasses 15%

Perennial Forbs 10%

Shrubs/Subshrubs 5%

Estimated Total Annual Production (lbs/ac)*

Low - 400

Representative Value - 650

High - 900

* Estimated based on current observation – subject to revision

Community Phase 1.2: At-Risk Community Phase

In the At-Risk Community Phase, rhizomatous wheatgrasses are in decline and are in nearly equal proportion to shortgrasses. Shortgrasses such as prairie Junegrass and Sandberg bluegrass are increasing. Mid-statured bunchgrasses are rare or absent.

Community Phase Pathway 1.1a

Drought, improper grazing management, or a combination of these factors can shift the Rhizomatous Wheatgrass Phase (1.1) to the At Risk Community Phase (1.2). These factors favor a decrease in cool-season midgrasses and an increase in shortgrasses (Coupland, 1961).

Community Phase Pathway 1.2a

The At-Risk Community Phase (1.2) can return to the Rhizomatous Wheatgrass Phase (1.1) with normal or above-normal spring precipitation and proper grazing management.

Transition T1A

Improper grazing practices, prolonged drought (approximately 3 years or more), or a

combination of these factors weaken the resilience of the Reference State (1) and drive its transition to the Shortgrass State (2). The Reference State transitions to the Shortgrass State when mid-statured cool-season grasses become rare and contribute little to production. Shortgrasses, such as prairie Junegrass and Sandberg bluegrass dominate the plant community.

Transition T1B

The Reference State (1) transitions to the Invaded State (3) when aggressive perennial grasses or noxious weeds invade the Reference State (1). These communities are commonly adjacent to seeded pastures. Exotic plant species dominate the site in terms of cover and production. Site resilience has been substantially reduced. Other rangeland health attributes, such as reproductive capacity of native grasses (Henderson and Naeth, 2005) and soil quality (Smoliak and Dormaar, 1985; Dormaar et al., 1995), have been substantially altered from the Reference State.

Transition T1C

Tillage or application of herbicide followed by seeding of cultivated crops, such as winter wheat, spring wheat, or barley, transitions the Reference State (1) to the Cropland State (4).

State 2: Shortgrass State

The Shortgrass State consists of one community phase. The dynamics of this state are driven by long-term drought, improper grazing management, or a combination of these factors. The site is dominated by shortgrasses while mid-statured grasses have been eliminated or nearly so. Reductions in stocking rates can reduce shortgrass cover and increase the cover of rhizomatous wheatgrasses. This recovery may take decades, especially if soil properties are substantially altered (Dormaar and Willms, 1990).

Community Phase 2.1: Shortgrass Community Phase

The Shortgrass Community Phase is dominated by shortgrasses such as prairie Junegrass and Sandberg bluegrass. Prairie sagewort may also become common in this phase.

Transition T2A

The Shortgrass State (2) transitions to the Invaded State (3) when aggressive perennial grasses or noxious weeds invade the Shortgrass State (2). Crested wheatgrass, in particular, is a concern when native plant communities are adjacent to seeded pastures. Exotic plant species dominate the site in terms of cover and production. Site resilience has been substantially reduced. Other rangeland health attributes, such as reproductive capacity of native grasses (Henderson and Naeth, 2005) and soil quality (Smoliak and Dormaar, 1985; Dormaar et al., 1995), have been substantially altered from the Reference State.

Transition T2B

Tillage or application of herbicide followed by seeding of cultivated crops, such as winter

wheat, spring wheat, and barley, transitions the Shortgrass State (2) to the Cropland State (4).

Restoration Pathway R2A

Reduction in livestock grazing pressure alone may not be sufficient to restore the Shortgrass State (2) to the Reference State (1) (Dormaar and Willms, 1990). Practices such as range seeding may be necessary (Hart et al., 1985), but these are management intensive and costly. Therefore, returning the Shortgrass State (2) to the Reference State (1) can require considerable energy and cost and may not be feasible within a reasonable amount of time.

State 3: Invaded State

The Invaded State (3) occurs when invasive plant species invade adjacent native grassland communities. Crested wheatgrass is a common concern, especially when native plant communities are adjacent to seeded pastures. An estimated 20 million acres of crested wheatgrass have been planted in the western U.S. (Holechek, 1981). Crested wheatgrass produces abundant seeds that can dominate the seedbank of invaded grasslands (Henderson and Naeth, 2005), although crested wheatgrass cover decreases with increasing distance from seeded areas (Heidinga and Wilson, 2002). The early growth of crested wheatgrass allows this species to take advantage of early season soil moisture, which may result in competitive exclusion of native cool-season rhizomatous wheatgrasses and bunchgrasses, such as green needlegrass and prairie Junegrass (Christian and Wilson, 1999; Heidinga and Wilson, 2002; Henderson and Naeth, 2005). Reduced soil quality (Dormaar et al., 1995), reduced plant species diversity, and simplified structural complexity (Henderson and Naeth, 2005) result in a state that is substantially departed from the Reference State (1).

Noxious weeds such as leafy spurge are uncommon on this site but are capable of invading if a seed source is present. These species are very aggressive and typically displace native species and dominate ecological function when they invade a site. In some cases, these species can be suppressed through intensive management (herbicide application, biological control, or intensive grazing management). Control efforts are unlikely to eliminate noxious weeds, but their density can be sufficiently suppressed so that species composition and structural complexity are similar to that of the Reference State (1). However, cessation of control methods will most likely result in recolonization of the site by the noxious species.

Transition T3A

Tillage or application of herbicide followed by seeding of cultivated crops, such as winter wheat, spring wheat, and barley, transitions the Invaded State (3) to the Cropland State (4).

State 4: Cropland State

The Cropland State (4) occurs when land is put into cultivation. Major crops in MLRA 52 include winter wheat, spring wheat, and barley.

Transition T4A

The transition from the Cropland State (4) to the Post-Cropland State (5) occurs with the cessation of cultivation. The site may also be seeded to perennial forage species. Such seedings may be comprised of introduced grasses and legumes, or a mix of native species.

State 5: Post-Cropland State

The Post-Cropland State (5) occurs when cultivated cropland is abandoned and allowed to either re-vegetate naturally or is seeded back to perennial species for grazing or wildlife use. This state can transition back to the Cropland State (4) if the site is put back into cultivation.

Phase 5.1: Abandoned Cropland Phase

In the absence of active management, the site can re-vegetate naturally and, over time, potentially return to a perennial grassland community with rhizomatous wheatgrasses and shortgrasses. Shortly after cropland is abandoned, annual forbs and grasses invade the site (Samuel and Hart, 1994). The site is highly susceptible to erosion due to the absence of perennial species. Eventually, these pioneering annual species are replaced by perennial species such as western wheatgrass. Depending on the historical management of the site, perennial bunchgrasses may also return; however, species composition will depend upon the seed bank. Invasion of the site by exotic species, such as crested wheatgrass and annual bromes, will depend upon the site's proximity to a seed source.

Fifty or more years after cultivation, these sites may have species composition similar to phases in the Reference State (1). However, soil quality is consistently lower than conditions prior to cultivation (Dormaar and Smoliak, 1985; Christian and Wilson, 1999), and a shift to the Reference State (1) is unlikely within a reasonable timeframe.

Phase 5.2: Perennial Grass Phase

When the site is seeded to perennial forage species, particularly introduced perennial grasses, this community phase can persist for several decades. Crested wheatgrass, in particular, is very aggressive and may form monocultures persisting for at least 60 years (Krzic et al., 2000; Henderson and Naeth, 2005). A mixture of native species may also be seeded to provide species composition and structural complexity similar to that of the Reference State (1). However, soil quality conditions have been substantially altered and are unlikely return to pre-cultivation conditions within a reasonable timeframe (Dormaar and Willms, 1990).

Transition 5A

The Post-Cropland State (5) transitions back to the Cropland State (4) when the site is converted to cropland.

State and transition model

Dense Clay Dry Grassland R52XY010MT

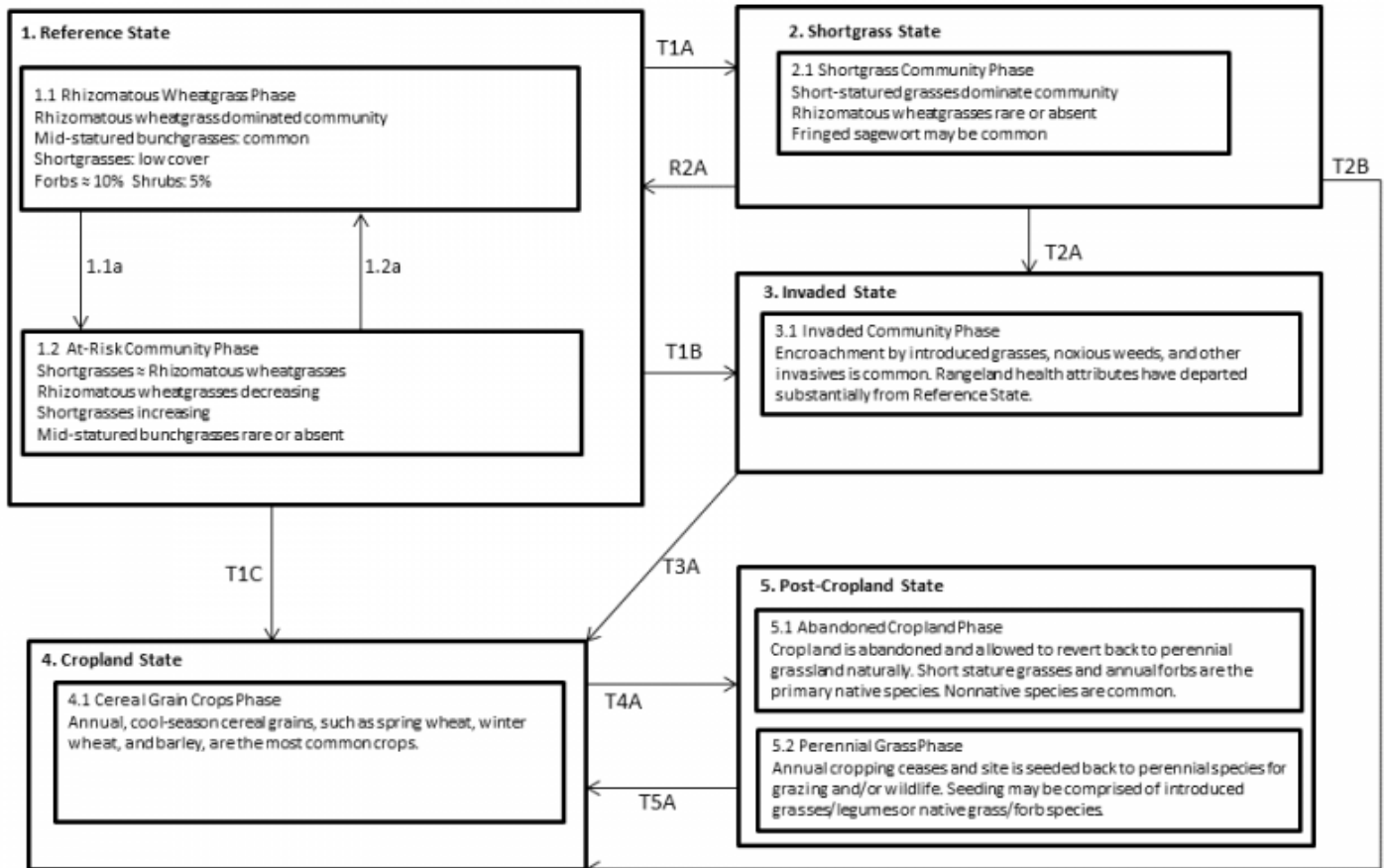


Figure 2. State-and-transition diagram

Dense Clay Dry Grassland R52XY010MT

Legend

- 1.1a drought, improper grazing management
- 1.2a normal or above-normal spring moisture, proper grazing management
- T1A prolonged drought, improper grazing, or a combination of these factors
- T1B introduction of non-native invasive species
- T2A introduction of weedy species; combined with drought and/or improper grazing management
- R2A range seeding, grazing land mechanical treatment, normal or above-normal moisture, proper grazing management (management intensive and costly)
- T1C, T2B, T3A, T5A conversion to cropland
- T4A cessation of annual cropping

Figure 3. State-and-transition legend

Inventory data references

One medium-intensity plot and 2 historical (417) plots were available for this site. These plots were used in conjunction with available literature to approximate the reference plant community for this provisional ecological site. Information for alternate states was

obtained from professional experience and a review of the scientific literature. All community phases are considered provisional based on these plots and the sources identified in the narratives associated with each community phase.

Other references

Adams, B.W., et al. 2013. Rangeland plant communities for the dry mixedgrass natural subregion of Alberta. Second approximation. Rangeland Management Branch, Policy Division, Alberta Environment and Sustainable Resource Development, Lethbridge, Pub. No. T/040.

Anderson, R.C. 2006. Evolution and origin of the central grassland of North America: Climate, fire, and mammalian grazers. *Journal of the Torrey Botanical Society* 133:626-647.

Baskin, J.M., and C.C. Baskin. 1981. Ecology of germination and flowering in the weedy winter annual grass *Bromus japonicus*. *Journal of Range Management* 34:369-372.

Biondini, M.E., and L. Manske. 1996. Grazing frequency and ecosystem processes in a northern mixed prairie, USA. *Ecological Applications* 6:239-256.

Biondini, M.E., B.D. Patton, and P.E. Nyren. 1998. Grazing intensity and ecosystem processes in a northern mixed-grass prairie. USA. *Ecological Applications* 8:469-479.

Bragg, T.B. 1995. The physical environment of the Great Plains grasslands. In: A. Joern, and K.H. Keeler (eds.) *The Changing Prairie*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 49–81.

Branson, D.H., and G.A. Sword. 2010. An experimental analysis of grasshopper community responses to fire and livestock grazing in a northern mixed-grass prairie. *Environmental Entomology* 39:1441-1446.

Bylo, L.N., N. Koper, and K.A. Molloy. 2014. Grazing intensity influences ground squirrel and American badger habitat use in mixed-grass prairies. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 67:247-254.

Christian, J.M., and S.D. Wilson. 1999. Long-term ecosystem impacts of an introduced grass in the Northern Great Plains. *Ecology* 80:2397-2407.

Clarke, S.E, E.W. Tisdale, and N.A. Skoglund. 1947. The effects of climate and grazing practices on short-grass prairie vegetation in southern Alberta and southwestern Saskatchewan. Canadian Department of Agriculture Technical Bulletin No. 46.

Cleland, D.T., et al. 1997. National hierarchical framework of ecological units. In: M.S. Boyce and A. Haney (eds.) *Ecosystem Management Applications for Sustainable Forest and Wildlife Resources*, Yale University Press, New Haven, CT.

Cooper, S.V., C. Jean, and P. Hendricks. 2001. Biological survey of a prairie landscape in Montana's glaciated plains. Report to the Bureau of Land Management. Montana Natural Heritage Program, Helena.

Coupland, R.T. 1950. Ecology of the mixed prairie of Canada. *Ecological Monographs* 20:271-315.

Coupland, R.T. 1958. The effects of fluctuations in weather upon the grasslands of the Great Plains. *Botanical Review* 24:273-317.

Coupland, R.T. 1961. A reconsideration of grassland classification in the Northern Great Plains of North America. *Journal of Ecology* 49:135-167.

Coupland, R.T., and R.E. Johnson. 1965. Rooting characteristics of native grassland species in Saskatchewan. *Journal of Ecology* 53:475-507.

Davis, S.K., R.J. Fisher, S.L. Skinner, T.L. Shaffer, and R.M. Brigham. 2013. Songbird abundance in native and planted grassland varies with type and amount of grassland in the surrounding landscape. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 77:908-919.

DeLuca, T.H., and P. Lesica. 1996. Long-term harmful effects of crested wheatgrass on Great Plains grassland ecosystems. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation* 51: 408-409.

Derner, J.D., and R.H. Hart. 2007. Grazing-induced modifications to peak standing crop in northern mixed-grass prairie. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 60:270-276.

Derner, J.D., and A.J. Whitman. 2009. Plant interspaces resulting from contrasting grazing management in northern mixed-grass prairie: Implications for ecosystem function. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 62:83-88.

Derner, J.D., W.K. Lauenroth, P. Stapp, and D.J. Augustine. 2009. Livestock as ecosystem engineers for grassland bird habitat in the western Great Plains of North America. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 62:111-118.

Dix, R.L. 1960. The effects of burning on the mulch structure and species composition of grasslands in western North Dakota. *Ecology* 41:49-56.

Dormaar, J.F., and S. Smoliak. 1985. Recovery of vegetative cover and soil organic matter during revegetation of abandoned farmland in a semiarid climate. *Journal of Range Management* 38:487-491.

Dormaar, J.F., and W.D. Willms. 1990. Effect of grazing and cultivation on some chemical properties of soils in the mixed prairie. *Journal of Range Management* 43:456-460.

Dormaar, J.F., B.W. Adams, and W.D. Willms. 1994. Effect of grazing and abandoned cultivation on a *Stipa-Bouteloua* community. *Journal of Range Management* 47:28-32.

Dormaar, J.F., M.A. Naeth, W.D. Willms, and D.S. Chanasyk. 1995. Effect of native prairie, crested wheatgrass (*Agropyron cristatum*) and Russian wildrye (*Elymus junceus*) on soil chemical properties. *Journal of Range Management* 48:258-263.

Fansler, V.A., and J.M. Mangold. 2010. Restoring native plants to crested wheatgrass stands. *Restoration Ecology* 19:16-23.

Federal Geographic Data Committee. 2008. The national vegetation classification standard, version 2. FGDC Vegetation Subcommittee. FGDC-STD-005-2008 (Version 2), p. 126.

Fullerton, D.S., and R.B. Colton. 1986. Stratigraphy and correlation of the glacial deposits on the Montana Plains. U.S. Geological Survey.

Fullerton, D.S., R.B. Colton, C.A. Bush, and A.W. Straub. 2004. Map showing spatial and temporal relations of mountain and continental glaciations on the northern plains, primarily in northern Montana and northwestern North Dakota. U.S. Geologic Survey pamphlet accompanying Scientific Investigations Map 2843.

Fullerton, D.S., R.B. Colton, and C.A. Bush. 2013. Quaternary geologic map of the Shelby 1° x 2° quadrangle, Montana: U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report 2012–1170, scale 1:250,000.

Haferkamp, M.R., R.K. Heitschmidt, and M.G. Karl. 1997. Influence of Japanese brome on western wheatgrass yield. *Journal of Range Management* 50:44-50.

Harmony, K.R. 2007. Grazing and burning Japanese brome (*Bromus japonicus*) on mixed grass rangelands. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 60:479-486.

Hart, M., S.S. Waller, S.R. Lowry, and R.N. Gates. 1985. Disking and seeding effects on sod bound mixed prairie. *Journal of Range Management* 38:121-125.

Heidel, B., S.V. Cooper, and C. Jean. 2000. Plant species of special concern and plant associations of Sheridan County, Montana. Report to U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. Montana Natural Heritage Program, Helena, Montana.

Heidinga, L., and S.D. Wilson. 2002. The impact of an invading alien grass (*Agropyron cristatum*) on species turnover in native prairie. *Diversity and Distributions* 8:249-258.

Heitschmidt, R.K., and L.T. Vermeire. 2005. An ecological and economic risk avoidance drought management decision support system. In: J.A. Milne (ed.) *Pastoral Systems in Marginal Environments*, XXth International Grasslands Congress, July 2005, p. 178.

Henderson, A.E., and S.K. Davis. 2014. Rangeland health assessment: A useful tool for linking range management and grassland bird conservation? *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 67:88-98.

Henderson, D.C., and M.A. Naeth. 2005. Multi-scale impacts of crested wheatgrass invasion in mixed-grass prairie. *Biological Invasions* 7:639-650.

Herrick, J.E., J.W. Van Zee, K.M. Havstad, L.M. Burkett, and W.G. Whitford. 2009. Monitoring manual for grassland, shrubland and savanna ecosystems. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, Jornada Experimental Range, Las Cruces, NM.

Higgins, K.F. 1986. Interpretation and compendium of historical fire accounts in the Northern Great Plains. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Resource Publication 161.

Holechek, J.L. 1981. Crested wheatgrass. *Rangelands* 3:151-153.

Joern, A. 2005. Disturbance by fire frequency and bison grazing modulate grasshopper assemblages in tallgrass prairie. *Ecology* 86:861-873.

Knopf, F.L. 1996. Prairie legacies—birds. In: F.B. Samson and F.L. Knopf (eds.) *Prairie Conservation: Preserving North America's Most Endangered Ecosystem*, Island Press, Washington, DC, pp. 135-148.

Knopf, F.L., and F.B. Samson. 1997. Conservation of grassland vertebrates. In: F.B. Samson and F.L. Knopf (eds.) *Ecology and Conservation of Great Plains Vertebrates: Ecological Studies 125*, Springer-Verlag, New York, NY, pp. 273-289.

Krzic, M., K. Broersma, D.J. Thompson, and A.A. Bomke. 2000. Soil properties and species diversity of grazed crested wheatgrass and native rangelands. *Journal of Range Management* 53:353-358.

Lacey, J., R. Carlstrom, and K. Williams. 1995. Chiseling rangeland in Montana. *Rangelands* 17:164-166.

Lauenroth, W.K., O.E. Sala, D.P. Coffin, and T.B. Kirchner. 1994. The importance of soil water in recruitment of *Bouteloua gracilis* in the shortgrass steppe. *Ecological Applications* 4:741-749.

Laycock, W.A. 1988. History of grassland plowing and grass planting on the Great Plains. In: J.E. Mitchell (ed.) *Impacts of the Conservation Reserve Program in the Great Plains—Symposium Proceedings, September 16-18, 1987*. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, General Technical Report RM-158.

Laycock, W.A. 1991. Stable states and thresholds of range condition on North American

rangelands. *Journal of Range Management* 44:427-433.

Lockwood, J.A. 2004. *Locust: The devastating rise and mysterious disappearance of the insect that shaped the American frontier*. Basic Books, New York, NY.

Looman, J., and D.H. Heinrichs. 1973. Stability of crested wheatgrass pastures under long-term pasture use. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 53:501-506.

Madden, E.M., R.K. Murphy, A.J. Hansen, and L. Murray. 2000. Models for guiding management of prairie bird habitat in northwestern North Dakota. *American Midland Naturalist* 144:377-392.

McNab, W.H., et al. 2007. Description of ecological subregions: Sections of the conterminous United States [CD-ROM]. USDA Forest Service General Technical Report WO-76B.

Montana State College. 1949. Similar vegetative rangeland types in Montana. Montana State College, Agricultural Experiment Station.

Mushet, D.M., N.H. Euliss, Jr., and C.A. Stockwell. 2012. A conceptual model to facilitate amphibian conservation in the Northern Great Plains. *Great Plains Research* 22:45-58.

Nesser, J.A., G.L. Ford, C.L. Maynard, and D.S. Page-Dumroese. 1997. Ecological units of the Northern Region: Subsections. USDA Forest Service, Intermountain Research Station, General Technical Report INT-GTR-369.

Oard, M.J. 1993. A method of predicting chinook winds east of the Montana Rockies. *Weather and Forecasting* 8:166-180.

Ogle, D., et al. 2012. Plant guide for Russian wildrye (*Psathyrostachys junceus*). USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service, Aberdeen Plant Materials Center, Aberdeen, Idaho.

Ogle, S.M., W.A. Reiners, and K.G. Gerow. 2003. Impacts of exotic annual brome grasses (*Bromus* spp.) on ecosystem properties of the northern mixed grass prairie. *American Midland Naturalist* 149:46-58.

Roath, L.R. 1988. Implications of land conversions and management for the future. In: J.E. Mitchell (ed.) *Impacts of the Conservation Reserve Program in the Great Plains—Symposium Proceedings, September 16-18, 1987*. USDA Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station, General Technical Report RM-158.

Rogler, G.A., and R.J. Lorenz. 1983. Crested wheatgrass: Early history in the United States. *Journal of Range Management* 36:91-93.

- Romo, J.T. 2011. Clubmoss, precipitation, and microsite effects on emergence of graminoid and forb seedlings in the semiarid northern mixed prairie of North America. *Journal of Arid Environments* 75:98-105.
- Rowe, J.S. 1969. Lightning fires in Saskatchewan grassland. *Canadian Field Naturalist* 83:317-327.
- Salo, E.D., et al. 2004. Grazing intensity effects on vegetation, livestock and non-game birds in North Dakota mixed-grass prairie. *Proceedings of the 19th North American Prairie Conference*, Madison, Wisconsin.
- Samuel, M.J., and R.H. Hart. 1994. Sixty-one years of secondary succession on rangelands of the Wyoming High Plains. *Journal of Range Management* 47:184-191.
- Semlitsch, R.D. 2000. Principles for management of aquatic-breeding amphibians. *Journal of Wildlife Management* 64:615-631.
- Shay, J., D. Kunec, and B. Dyck. 2001. Short-term effects of fire frequency on vegetation composition and biomass in mixed prairie in south-western Manitoba. *Plant Ecology* 155:157-167.
- Smith, B., and G.J. McDermid. 2014. Examination of fire-related succession within the dry mixed-grass subregion of Alberta with the use of MODIS and Landsat. *Rangeland Ecology and Management* 67:307-317.
- Smith, R.E. 2013. Conserving Montana's sagebrush highway: Long distance migration in sage-grouse. M.S. thesis, University of Montana, Missoula.
- Smoliak, S. 1974. Range vegetation and sheep production at three stocking rates on *Stipa-Bouteloua* prairie. *Journal of Range Management* 27:23-26.
- Smoliak, S., and J.F. Dormaar. 1985. Productivity of Russian wildrye and crested wheatgrass and their effect on prairie soils. *Journal of Range Management* 38:403-405.
- Smoliak, S., J.F. Dormaar, and A. Johnston. 1972. Long-term grazing effects on *Stipa-Bouteloua* prairie soils. *Journal of Range Management* 25:246-250.
- Soil Survey Staff. 2014. Keys to soil taxonomy, 12th edition. USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service.
- Soller, D.R. 2001. Map showing the thickness and character of Quaternary sediments in the glaciated United States east of the Rocky Mountains. U.S. Geological Survey Miscellaneous Investigations Series I-1970-E, scale 1:3,500,000.
- Stephens, S.E., J.J. Rotella, M.S. Lindberg, M.L. Taper, and J.K. Ringelman. 2005. Duck nest survival in the Missouri Coteau of North Dakota: Landscape effects at multiple spatial

scales. *Ecological Applications* 15:2137-2149.

Umbanhowar, Jr., C.E. 2004. Interactions of climate and fire at two sites in the Northern Great Plains. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, and Palaeoecology* 208:141-152.

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. 2013. Greater sage-grouse (*Centrocercus urophasianus*) conservation objectives: Final report. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service. Glossary of landform and geologic terms. National Soil Survey Handbook, Title 430-VI, Part 629.02c. http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/detail/soils/ref/?cid=nrcs142p2_054242 (Accessed April 13, 2016)

Van Dyne, G.M., and W.G. Vogel. 1967. Relation of *Selaginella densa* to site, grazing, and climate. *Ecology* 48:438-444.

Vaness, B.M., and S.D. Wilson. 2007. Impact and management of crested wheatgrass (*Agropyron cristatum*) in the northern Great Plains. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 87:1023-1028.

Vermeire, L.T., J.L. Crowder, and D.B. Wester. 2011. Plant community and soil environment response to summer fire in the northern Great Plains. *Rangeland Ecology & Management* 64:37-46.

Vermeire, L.T., J.L. Crowder, and D.B. Wester. 2014. Semiarid rangeland is resilient to summer fire and postfire grazing utilization. *Rangeland Ecology & Management* 67:52-60.

Vuke, S.M., K.W. Porter, J.D. Lonn, and D.A. Lopez. 2007. Geologic map of Montana - information booklet: Montana Bureau of Mines and Geology Geologic Map 62-D.

Whisenant, S.G. 1990. Postfire population dynamics of *Bromus japonicus*. *American Midland Naturalist* 123:301-308.

Wilson, S.D., and J.M. Shay. 1990. Competition, fire, and nutrients in a mixed-grass prairie. *Ecology* 71:1959-1967.

With, K.A. 2010. McCown's Longspur (*Rhynchophanes mccownii*). In: A. Poole (ed.) *The Birds of North America* (online), Cornell Lab of Ornithology, Ithaca. <http://bna.birds.cornell.edu/bna/species/096>

Contributors

Scott Brady
Stuart Veith

Acknowledgments

This provisional ecological site description could not have been completed without the contributions of Karen Newlon. She conducted an extensive literature review, which provided most of the background information for this project as well as many of the references. She also co-authored the Loamy and Thin Claypan Dry Grassland ecological sites previously prepared in MLRA 52.

A number of USDA-NRCS and USDI-BLM staff supported this project. Staff contributions are as follows:

Soil Concepts, Soils Information, and Field Descriptions

Charlie French, USDA-NRCS

Josh Sorlie, USDI-BLM

NASIS Reports, Data Dumps, and Soil Sorts

Bill Drummond, USDA-NRCS

Pete Weikle, USDA-NRCS

Peer Review and Beta Testing

Kirt Walstad, USDA-NRCS

Kyle Steele, formerly USDA-NRCS

Kelsey Molloy, USDA-NRCS

Rick Caquelin, USDA-NRCS

Josh Sorlie, USDI-BLM

BJ Rhodes, USDI-BLM

Editing

Ann Kinney, USDA-NRCS

Jenny Sutherland, USDA-NRCS

Quality Control

Jon Siddoway, USDA-NRCS

Quality Assurance

Stacey Clark, USDA-NRCS

Rangeland health reference sheet

Interpreting Indicators of Rangeland Health is a qualitative assessment protocol used to determine ecosystem condition based on benchmark characteristics described in the Reference Sheet. A suite of 17 (or more) indicators are typically considered in an assessment. The ecological site(s) representative of an assessment location must be known prior to applying the protocol and must be verified based on soils and climate. Current plant community cannot be used to identify the ecological site.

Author(s)/participant(s)	
Contact for lead author	
Date	12/16/2025
Approved by	Kirt Walstad
Approval date	
Composition (Indicators 10 and 12) based on	Annual Production

Indicators

1. Number and extent of rills:

2. Presence of water flow patterns:

3. Number and height of erosional pedestals or terracettes:

4. Bare ground from Ecological Site Description or other studies (rock, litter, lichen, moss, plant canopy are not bare ground):

5. Number of gullies and erosion associated with gullies:

6. Extent of wind scoured, blowouts and/or depositional areas:

7. Amount of litter movement (describe size and distance expected to travel):

8. Soil surface (top few mm) resistance to erosion (stability values are averages - most sites will show a range of values):

9. **Soil surface structure and SOM content (include type of structure and A-horizon color and thickness):**

10. **Effect of community phase composition (relative proportion of different functional groups) and spatial distribution on infiltration and runoff:**

11. **Presence and thickness of compaction layer (usually none; describe soil profile features which may be mistaken for compaction on this site):**

12. **Functional/Structural Groups (list in order of descending dominance by above-ground annual-production or live foliar cover using symbols: >>, >, = to indicate much greater than, greater than, and equal to):**

Dominant:

Sub-dominant:

Other:

Additional:

13. **Amount of plant mortality and decadence (include which functional groups are expected to show mortality or decadence):**

14. **Average percent litter cover (%) and depth (in):**

15. **Expected annual annual-production (this is TOTAL above-ground annual-production, not just forage annual-production):**

16. **Potential invasive (including noxious) species (native and non-native). List species which BOTH characterize degraded states and have the potential to become a dominant or co-dominant species on the ecological site if their future establishment**

and growth is not actively controlled by management interventions. Species that become dominant for only one to several years (e.g., short-term response to drought or wildfire) are not invasive plants. Note that unlike other indicators, we are describing what is NOT expected in the reference state for the ecological site:

17. Perennial plant reproductive capability:
