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# Forest response to permafrost thaw is strongly mediated by organic layer thickness in a boreal peatland

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1 **Title:** Forest response to permafrost thaw is strongly mediated by organic layer thickness 2 in a boreal peatland 3 4 **Authors:** Katherine D. Dearborn<sup>1\*</sup>, Cory A. Wallace<sup>2</sup>, Rajit Patankar<sup>1,3</sup>, Jennifer L. 5 Baltzer<sup>1</sup> 6 7 <sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Wilfrid Laurier University, 75 University Ave. W, Waterloo, 8 ON, N2L 3C5 9 <sup>2</sup>Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, Wilfrid Laurier University, 75 10 University Ave. W, Waterloo, ON, N2L 3C5 11 <sup>3</sup>National Ecological Observatory Network, 1200 S Woodrow Ln., Denton, TX, 76205 12 13 \*Corresponding Author: Katherine Dearborn; katherined88@gmail.com 14 15 **Abstract** 16 17 1. Boreal peatlands are frequently underlain by sporadic or discontinuous permafrost, 18 which is thawing rapidly. A common ecological response to thaw is the conversion of 19 raised forested plateaus to treeless wetlands, but unexplained spatial variation in 20 responses, combined with a lack of stand-level data make it difficult to predict future 21 trajectories of boreal forest composition and structure. 22 2. We sought to characterize patterns and identify drivers of forest structure, composition, 23 mortality, and recruitment in a boreal peatland experiencing permafrost thaw. To do this,

24 we established a large (10 ha) permanent forest plot (completed in 2014), which includes 25 40,584 mapped and measured trees. In 2018, we conducted a comprehensive mortality 26 and recruitment recensus. We also measured frost table depth, soil moisture, soil 27 humification, and organic layer thickness within the plot between 2012 and 2018, and 28 used habitat association tests to link these variables to forest characteristics and 29 dynamics. 30 3. Forest composition and structure varied markedly throughout the plot and were strongly governed by patterns in permafrost presence and organic layer thickness. 32 Overall, there was a net loss of trees from the plot at a rate of 0.7% yr<sup>-1</sup>. Mortality of 33 black spruce, the dominant tree species, was more than double that of recruitment and 34 was strongly associated with rapid permafrost thaw and thick organic soils. In contrast, 35 recruitment of larch was over four times greater than mortality, and occurred primarily in 36 low-lying, permafrost-free wetlands with surficial mineral soil. 37 4. Synthesis: The trends in tree demography and underlying drivers suggest that spruce-38 dominated permafrost plateaus will be converted into larch-dominated wetlands as 39 permafrost thaw progresses in boreal peatlands, particularly in areas with surficial 40 mineral soil. In the longer term, thaw could increase the hydrologic connectivity of the landscape, resulting in widespread drainage and re-vegetation by spruce, but we did not 42 find evidence that this is occurring yet. Given the increasing rates of permafrost thaw, 43 and positive feedbacks between thaw and forest change, we predict that larch abundance will continue to increase in boreal peatlands over the coming decades, leading to shifts in 44 45 ecosystem function, wildlife habitat, albedo, and potentially snow dynamics.

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# **Keywords**

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Active layer, boreal forest, eastern larch, black spruce, ForestGEO, organic layer thickness, peatland, permafrost

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## Introduction

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Boreal peatlands store vast amounts of carbon (Kurz et al., 2013; Tarnocai et al., 2009) and provide critical habitat for wildlife (Bradshaw, Hebert, Rippin, & Boutin, 1995). They are also spatially extensive. The boreal forest is the second largest forested biome in the world, and approximately 25-30% of it is composed of peatlands (Gorham, 1991). Boreal peatlands are characterized by poor drainage, sparse forest canopies, thick organic soils (>40 cm), and the frequent presence of sporadic (10-50% coverage) or discontinuous (50-90% coverage) permafrost (Helbig, Pappas, & Sonnentag, 2016; National Wetlands Working Group, 1997). This permafrost plays a critical role in governing hydrological and ecological processes (Baltzer, Veness, Chasmer, Sniderhan, & Quinton, 2014; Connon, Quinton, Craig, & Hayashi, 2014). Near its southern limits, it is relatively warm (near  $0^{\circ}$ C), making it vulnerable to rapid thaw with even minor amounts of climate warming (Tarnocai, 2006). As a result, boreal peatlands are poised to undergo rapid landcover change in the near future, and there is evidence that this change is already underway (Helbig et al., 2016). Given these changes and the importance of boreal peatlands as carbon stores, wildlife habitat, and to the livelihoods and cultures of local inhabitants, understanding potential post-thaw forest trajectories is critical.

A frequent outcome of permafrost thaw in boreal peatlands is the conversion of raised forested plateaus to treeless wetlands (Baltzer et al., 2014; Carpino, Berg, Quinton, & Adams, 2018; Osterkamp et al., 2000; Vitt, Halsey, & Zoltai, 2000). Permafrost often elevates the ground surface above the surrounding wetlands in these systems due to the volumetric expansion of water as it freezes. These raised permafrost "plateaus" are well drained and densely treed compared to the surrounding wetlands. As thaw progresses, plateaus subside, resulting in local flooding and forest loss (Baltzer et al., 2014; Quinton, Hayashi, & Chasmer, 2011). This process has accelerated in recent decades, reaching rates as rapid as half a percent per year (Baltzer et al., 2014). However, trajectories of forest response to thaw are not always consistent, and in some cases different tree species have shown contrasting responses, leading to an increase in the dominance of one species over another (Lara et al., 2016).

There are several abiotic and biotic factors that could be mediating forest response to thaw, including organic layer thickness. Tree recruitment in boreal peatlands tends to be higher when nutrient-rich mineral soils are near the surface (i.e. when organic layers are thin) (Préfontaine & Jutras, 2017), suggesting that the benefits of higher nutrient availability could counteract some of the mortality resulting from plateau subsidence and flooding. It is also possible that plateaus underlain by mineral soil will experience less subsidence and therefore undergo lower rates of forest loss, since they generally contain less pore space (and therefore less frozen water) than permafrost composed of organic

material, although the presence of ice lenses would result in rapid subsidence if/when the thaw front reaches these lenses.

Species-specific nutrient and moisture requirements are also likely to affect trajectories of forest change. North American boreal peatlands typically consist of a combination of *Picea mariana* (black spruce), *Larix laricina* (eastern larch), and *Betula spp*. (birch) (Islam, Macdonald, & Zwiazek, 2003; Lara et al., 2016). Eastern larch is more flood-tolerant than black spruce (Islam & Macdonald, 2004; Montague & Givnish, 1996), suggesting it may begin to replace black spruce as permafrost thaw proceeds. However, it is also more nutrient demanding (Islam & Macdonald, 2005), which could limit this process to nutrient-rich sites. Birch can be highly vulnerable to the effects of ground subsidence because it tends to be most abundant along plateau-wetland edges (Lara et al., 2016; Osterkamp et al., 2000). However, its rapid growth rate and propensity to reproduce vegetatively (Bret-Harte, Shaver, & Chapin, 2002) could give it a competitive edge over conifers when gaps form in the canopy.

Due in part to the remote nature of boreal peatlands, forest response to permafrost thaw has primarily been quantified using remotely sensed imagery (Baltzer et al., 2014; Chasmer & Hopkinson, 2017; Helbig et al., 2016; Jorgenson et al., 2010). These methods can quantify land cover change across broad spatial extents, but cannot elucidate dynamic processes or differential responses of tree species (Baltzer et al., 2014; Helbig et al., 2016; Lara et al., 2016). A few studies have used dendrochronology to quantify growth responses to changing permafrost conditions (Sniderhan & Baltzer, 2016; Zhang, Bai,

Hou, Chen, & Manzanedo, 2019), but these methods cannot capture fine-scale demographic dynamics. There is also a network of permanent forest plots in the Northwest Territories (Gillis, Omule, & Brierley, 2005), but they exclude trees less than 5 cm in diameter (which are very common in peatlands), contain no spatial information, and are small (400 m²). Large forest dynamics plots provide an opportunity to examine fine-scale spatial patterns in mortality and recruitment of individual species across local gradients in edaphic conditions, thereby enhancing our understanding of warming-induced landcover change (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015).

Pronounced variation in rates and trajectories of change, combined with a lack of species-specific recruitment and mortality data at high latitudes make it difficult to anticipate forest response to permafrost thaw in boreal peatlands. To address this uncertainty, we used forest structure and dynamics data coupled with measurements of key abiotic variables to characterize recent forest change in a unique 10-ha mapped forest plot. The plot (established between 2012 and 2014) encompasses a mosaic of rapidly thawing permafrost plateaus and permafrost-free wetlands, and traverses a strong gradient in organic layer thickness. We asked: (1) How do forest structure, mortality, and recruitment vary spatially and among species within this boreal peatland? (2) What are the abiotic controls on forest composition, structure, mortality, and recruitment? (3) To what extent has recent permafrost thaw driven mortality and recruitment of the dominant species? Our results establish direct links between abiotic variables and fine-scale forest dynamics, information that is necessary to improve predictions of future forest composition and structure in permafrost peatlands.

#### **Materials and Methods**

Study site

The study site is located at Scotty Creek (61°18'38" N, 121°17'36" W), a 152 km<sup>2</sup> basin located approximately 50 km south of Fort Simpson, Northwest Territories. The area is undisturbed boreal forest. Mean annual air temperature in Fort Simpson is -2.8°C and the total annual precipitation is 388 mm, approximately 60% of which falls as rain (1981-2010 climate normals; Environment and Climate Change Canada). Permafrost in the area is sporadic or discontinuous, which results in a mosaic of raised forested permafrost plateaus, permafrost-free wetlands (ranging from nutrient-rich fens to ombrotrophic bogs), and lakes (Quinton et al., 2011).

#### Plot initiation and recensus

An 800 m (east-west) by 120 m (north-south) forest plot was established between 2012 and 2014 as part of the Smithsonian Forest Global Earth Observatory (ForestGEO), a global network of 61 methodologically identical permanent plots (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015). These plots support spatially explicit investigations of forest dynamics across local environmental gradients (Furniss, Larson, & Lutz, 2017; Harms, Condit, Hubbell, & Foster, 2001) and comparative studies at the global scale (Allen et al., 2010; Chisholm et al., 2014; Chu et al., 2018; Lutz et al., 2018). The Scotty Creek plot is the only boreal

forest plot in the network. It is the most northerly, experiences the most extreme (cold and dry) climate and climate change, and has the second lowest woody biomass of all plots (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015; Lutz et al., 2018). Elevation varies by less than two meters within the plot, and relates strongly to permafrost conditions.

In 2012, 287 aluminum posts were installed at 20 m intervals throughout the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot using a GNSS receiver (Leica Viva GS10, Leica Geosystems AG, Heerbrugg, CH) with differential correction via an on-site base station (horizontal accuracy of 8 to 15 mm), dividing the plot into 240 20 m  $\times$  20 m grid cells. Between 2012 and 2014, every live stem with a diameter at breast height (DBH; 1.3 m height)  $\geq$  1 cm was tagged, measured, and mapped following standard ForestGEO protocols (Condit, 1998). Stems were identified to species except in the case of shrub species that exhibited high rates of introgressive hybridization (*Salix* and *Betula* spp.) and were considered species complexes (Porsild & Cody, 1990). For *Salix* and *Betula* spp., identification was to genus except in the case of the tree form of *Betula neoalaskana* Sarg., for which unhybridized trees were clearly identifiable. Multi-stemmed individuals were common due to the high rates of clonal reproduction in shrub taxa. These individuals were identified using a single numeric tag corresponding to the entire genet and individual stems were uniquely identified within that genet using lettered tags.

In summer 2018, we conducted a complete mortality and recruitment recensus.

For each tree, we recorded its status (alive or dead). We recorded probable cause of mortality for all dead stems; this included waterlogging (dead stem was either standing or

had fallen over in, or immediately adjacent to, fully saturated soil), falling over (stem fell over from below breast height, likely due to blow-down, but was not located in or immediately adjacent to standing water), physical damage (main stem snapped off above breast height), browsing (evidence of heavy browsing), or biological/unknown (dead stem was standing and cause of death was unknown, but likely attributable to fungal decay, insect damage, or senescence). Finally, we tagged, measured, mapped, and identified all new stems with DBH  $\geq 1$  cm as described for the original census, hereafter referred to as "recruits".

#### Abiotic variables

We measured key abiotic variables at 20 m intervals throughout the plot (i.e. adjacent to each of the 287 aluminum posts) between 2012 and 2018. We obtained volumetric soil water content measurements from the top 5 cm of soil using TDR (time domain reflectometry) probes (ThetaProbe, Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK, and Stevens Hydra Probe, Stevens Water Monitoring Systems Inc., Oregon, US) on July 19, 2012. We subsequently adjusted these measurements using site-specific calibrations (Warren, 2015). We also obtained soil moisture measurements from subsections of the plot on two additional days in 2012, four days in 2013, and one day (at multiple depths) in 2017. These repeated measurements correlated strongly with the July 19, 2012 measurements (Appendix 1). We therefore considered the July 19, 2012 measurements to be representative of spatial patterns in soil moisture, and used them in all subsequent analyses. We measured snow depth between March 21 and 26, 2013 using a GPS

automatic snow depth probe with ±5 cm accuracy (Snow-Hydro LLC, Fairbanks, US). Finally, we measured organic layer thickness (using a 1.5 m auger), fibric layer thickness, and peat humification at a depth of 5 cm (using the qualitative von Post scale; von Post, 1922) between August 5 and 8, 2018.

We measured frost table depth as depth to refusal using a 2 m steel rod on July 19, 2012 and August 5, 2018, and on multiple dates (May 27, May 31, and August 27) across the westernmost 500 m of the plot in 2013. To quantify changes in frost table depth between 2012 and 2018, we first adjusted the values to make them comparable, since active layers were not measured at their seasonal maximums in either year due to logical constraints of the remote field site. Full details of this adjustment are provided in Appendix 2 but briefly, we used repeated thaw measurements from 2013 to determine a seasonal rate of active layer development (in cm per thawing degree day). We used this rate to extend the frost table measurements made in 2012 and 2018 to an equivalent number of thawing degree days to make depths comparable (1855; the thawing degree day accumulation on August 27, 2013).

Next we subtracted adjusted 2012 values from adjusted 2018 values at each location and assigned a score to each point based on the amount of thaw that occurred between years (0 = permafrost-free in both 2012 and 2018, 1 = 0-30 cm of thaw, 2 = >30 cm of thaw, and 3 = permafrost present in 2012, but not in 2018). A categorical variable was necessary to differentiate between sites that had permafrost and had undergone no change in thaw depth versus those that had no permafrost in 2012 or 2018 and similarly

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had undergone no change. Next, we summed scores at the four corners of each grid cell to generate an aggregate thaw severity score that ranged from 0 (no change; all four corners were permafrost-free in 2012 and 2018) to a maximum of 12 (major change; all four corners had permafrost in 2012, but not in 2018). Data analysis Characterizing patterns in forest composition, structure, mortality and recruitment To quantify forest compositional and structural attributes of the plot, we calculated stem density, basal area, and species richness in each 20 m x 20 m grid cell. Hybridizing genera (*Betula* spp. and *Salix* spp.) were treated as single species, meaning species richness is somewhat underestimated. We also tallied the number of mortality and recruitment events for each species in each grid cell, and calculated overall rates of mortality and recruitment (as percentages of initial stem counts) across all grid cells. We included multiple stems produced by the same individual as separate stems in these calculations because each stem is functionally distinct. However, we also performed analyses at the genet level to ensure that our findings did not depend on treatment of multi-stemmed individuals (see Appendix 3). All data manipulation and analyses were performed in the R statistical platform (v. 3.2.1). Characterizing patterns in abiotic variables

Since the six measured abiotic variables (soil moisture, active layer depth, organic layer thickness, fibric layer depth, soil humification, and snow depth) covaried strongly, we sought to summarize major gradients using principal components analysis (PCA). As three of these variables were categorical (see Appendix 4) we used mixed PCA (package PCAmixdata) (Chavant, Kuentz-Simonet, Labenne, & Saracco, 2017), which performs a standard PCA on numeric variables, a multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) on categorical variables, and then combines the two into a single ordination. Explained variance dropped notably between the second and third PC, and the difference in explained variance between each of the subsequent PCs did not exceed 2%, so we extracted values of the first two principal components for each 20 m post for use in further analysis. We then averaged the values from the four corner posts of each grid cell to generate a mean value of each principal component for each grid cell.

Testing for associations between abiotic variables and forest attributes/dynamics

To test whether initial stems, deaths, and recruits of each of the dominant taxa (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) Britton, Stems & Poggenburg, *Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch, and *Betula* spp.) were significantly associated with the first or second principal components, we used an adjusted habitat association test developed for use with continuous environmental variables (Itoh, Ohkubo, Nanami, Tan, & Yamakura, 2010). Specifically, we used a kernel density function to estimate the probability of initial stem, death, and recruit occurrences of each of the dominant taxa across the full range of PC1 and PC2 values. Next, we used the same function to estimate the probability of

occurrence of PC1 and PC2 values. We then divided the former by the latter to generate "adjusted" probabilities of initial stem, death, and recruit occurrence that took into account the frequency of PC1 and PC2 values.

We extracted the mean PC1 and PC2 values from these adjusted distributions for use as test statistics. Other studies have used the standard deviation or the value at maximum probability as test statistics (Itoh et al., 2010), but we felt the mean would best capture the affinity of initial stems/deaths/recruits for particular values of PC1 or PC2. We then used torus translation to generate null distributions of PC1 and PC2 means. To do this, we held the positions of initial stems/deaths/recruits constant and shifted the 20 m-resolution maps of PC1 and PC2 values in every combination of x and y directions (preserving all spatial autocorrelation in the values), then flipped the original maps vertically as well as horizontally and repeated each shift for a total of 960 shifts per PC (calculating the mean PC value each time). Finally, we extracted the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of the resulting distributions of means and compared observed means to these bounds.

Testing for associations between permafrost thaw and forest dynamics

Because of the importance of permafrost thaw in peatland landcover changes (Baltzer et al., 2014), we sought to determine the extent to which thaw was driving forest dynamics. We evaluated associations between mortality and recruitment of the dominant taxa and thaw severity (represented by three categories of thaw severity scores: 0, 1-5,

and >5) using a categorical torus translation test (Harms et al., 2001). We also evaluated associations between causes of *P. mariana* deaths (biological/unknown, falling/physical damage, and waterlogging) and thaw severity using the same test. We restricted this last analysis to *P. mariana*, since we did not find obvious evidence of waterlogging-induced mortality in other taxa.

#### **Results**

Spatial patterns in species composition, forest structure, and edaphic conditions

The Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot is dominated in both stem density and basal area by three common boreal species. In the initial census, *P. mariana* comprised 80.1% of stems and was distributed throughout the plot, *L. laricina* made up 11.2% and occurred mainly in the eastern half of the plot, and *Betula* spp. comprised 7.3% with high density patches in the eastern and western ends of the plot. The remaining 1.4% of stems was composed of *Salix* spp., *Alnus alnobetula* (Ehrh. K.Koch, *Picea glauca* (Moench) Voss, and *Pinus banksiana* Lamb., all of which generally occurred in the eastern half of the plot (Figs 1 & 2). Botanical nomenclature follows (Porsild & Cody, 1990)

Salix spp. (likely composed of Salix glauca L., Salix planifolia Pursh, Salix bebbiana Sarg., Salix pyrifolia Andersson, Salix serissima (L.H. Bailey) Fernald, and their hybrids) and A. alnobetula are shrub species, while P. mariana, L. laricina, P. glauca, and P. banksiana are trees with very few records of multi-stemmed individuals.

Betula spp. were predominantly shrub species (likely composed of Betula occidentalis Hook., Betula glandulosa Michx., Betula pubescens Ehrh., Betula pumila L., and their hybrids). The exception was B. neoalaskana, which is characterized by tree form, but hybridizes with Betula spp. shrubs as well. Tree and shrub stems were very small, with 73% of tree stems less than 5 cm DBH, and 89% of shrub stems less than 2 cm DBH (Appendix 5).

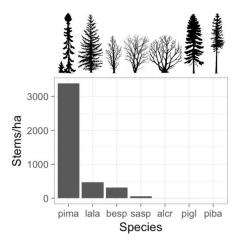


Figure 1: Number of stems per hectare of each species present in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot as of the original census completed in 2014 (pima = *Picea mariana*, lala = *Larix laricina*, besp = *Betula* spp., sasp = *Salix* spp., alcr = *Alnus alnobetula*, pigl = *Picea glauca*, piba = *Pinus banksiana*). See Appendix 6 for counts of stems versus individuals for each species. Tree silhouettes taken from Natural Resources Canada website (https://tidcf.nrcan.gc.ca/en/trees/).

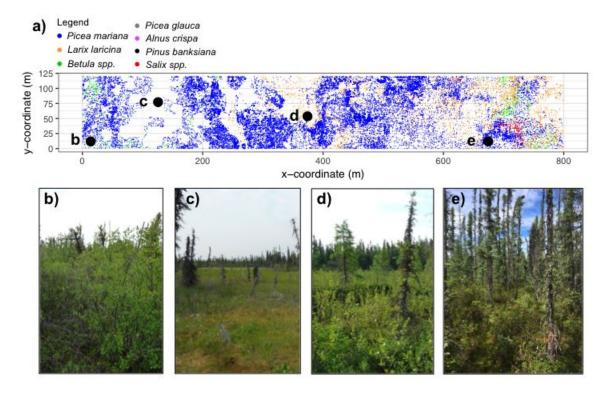


Figure 2: a) Map of all stems in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot as of the initial census completed in 2014 (see Appendix 6 for separate maps of each species), with photos showing b) a dense thicket of *Betula* spp. shrubs underlain by permafrost, c) a permafrost-free bog with a few scattered *P. mariana*, d) a permafrost-free fen with a sparse canopy of *L. laricina*, and e) a dense forest dominated by *P. mariana* and underlain by permafrost. Approximate locations of these pictures are denoted by the corresponding letters on the map.

The first two axes in the mixed principal components analysis captured 34.7% of variance in the six abiotic variables (subsequent axes explained an additional 10% or less) (Appendix 7). The first axis (PC1) explained 21.4% of variance and reflected a gradient in permafrost presence and soil moisture. High values represented dry soils atop permafrost plateaus, while low values represented permafrost-free wetlands. The second axis (PC2) explained an additional 13.3% of the variance and reflected a gradient in

organic layer thickness, peat decomposition, and maximum snow depth. Areas with high values had more surficial mineral soils (within 1.5 m of the surface), more highly decomposed peat, and a deeper snowpack, whereas areas with low values had thick organic layers (>1.5 m), undecomposed peat, and shallow snowpacks (Fig 3).

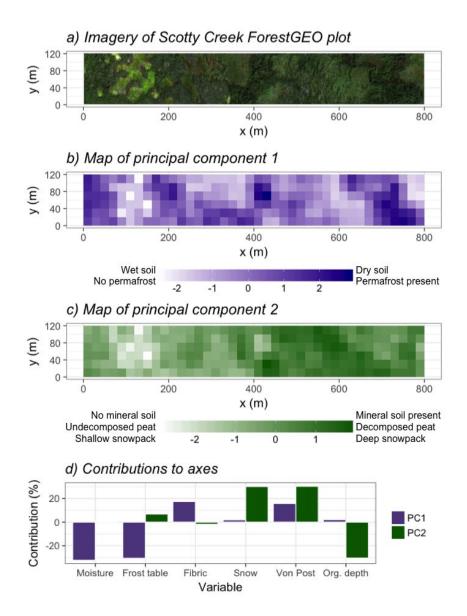


Figure 3: Mixed principal components analysis of abiotic variables measured at 20 m intervals throughout the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot between 2012 and 2018. Panel a) shows satellite imagery of the plot (Esri World Imagery; Esri, DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, i-cubed, USDA FSA,

USGS, AEX, Getmapping, Aerogrid, IGN, IGP, swisstopo, and the GIS User Community). Panels b) and c) depict maps of averaged values of the first and second principal components, respectively, for each of the 240 grid cells in the plot (i.e. each value is an average of the values at the four corners of a grid cell), and the scale bars are labeled with variables that had contributions of greater than 20% to each axis. Panel d) depicts the contributions of all six variables to axes 1 and 2 (expressed as percentages of total contributions and oriented in accordance with the direction they load onto each axis).

Patterns in species richness and basal area corresponded with gradients in both principal components, while patterns in stem density were more erratic. Mean stem density at the grid cell scale was  $4227 \pm 3125$  stems/ha and tended to be low in areas with low PC1 values (i.e. permafrost-free wetlands), but did not clearly correspond with patterns in PC2 (Fig 4a). Species richness of trees and tall shrubs was generally low (mean of  $2.6 \pm 1.2$  species per grid cell), but increased with increasing values of PC1 and PC2, meaning it was highest in well-drained areas underlain by permafrost and mineral soil (Fig 4b). Mean basal area at the grid cell scale was  $6.7 \pm 5.1$  m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> and, like species richness, increased with increasing values of PC1 and PC2 to a maximum of 25.2 m<sup>2</sup> ha<sup>-1</sup> (Fig 4c).

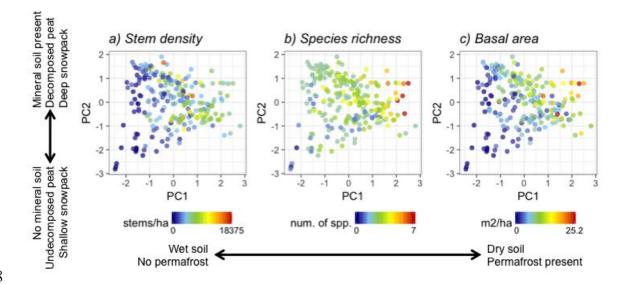


Figure 4: Ordination plots showing each of the 240 20 m × 20 m grid cells in two-dimensional space defined by the first and second principal components depicted in Figure 3. Grid cells are colour-coded according to their a) stem density, b) species richness, and c) basal area.

# Spatial patterns of forest dynamics

Overall, the plot experienced a net loss of stems at a rate of 0.7% yr<sup>-1</sup> between censuses (2013 to 2018), but mortality and recruitment varied spatially and among species. Mortality of *P. mariana* was more than double that of recruitment (2586 deaths vs. 992 recruits), but because initial stem density was so high, they only experienced a 1.0% yr<sup>-1</sup> net loss of stems. In contrast, recruitment of *L. laricina* was more than four times that of mortality (128 deaths vs. 566 recruits), resulting in a 1.9% yr<sup>-1</sup> net gain in stems. Mortality of *Betula spp.* was only marginally greater than recruitment, but because rates were high, *Betula* spp. still experienced a 0.7% yr<sup>-1</sup> net loss of stems (Fig 5) (see Appendix 9 for rates of *Betula* spp. genets). The remaining species (*Salix spp.*, *A. crispa*,

P. glauca, and P. banksiana) experienced net losses as well, though their initial densities were so low that these losses did not notably influence forest composition or structure. The net change in basal area was predominantly negative for all species due to the small diameters of new recruits, although L. laricina showed net gains in basal area of between 1% and 77% in approximately half (51%) of the grid cells it occupied (Appendix 8).

The diameters of stems that died between 2013 and 2018 were very similar in distribution to the diameters of surviving stems, meaning mortality occurred more or less equally across size classes. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that the diameter distributions of deaths and survivors were significantly different (p < 0.05 for all species), but this is likely an artifact of large sample size and unlikely to be ecologically significant (see Appendix 5). In general, mortality and recruitment rates of shrub species were higher than those of tree species, mainly because clonal stems had high turnover rates (see Appendix 9).

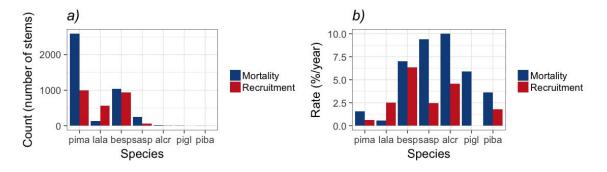
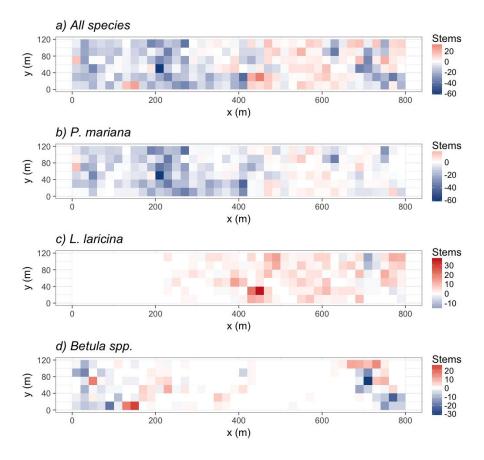


Figure 5: The a) numbers of stem deaths and recruits, and b) rates of stem mortality and recruitment of each species in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot between the initial census completed in 2014 and the recensus in 2018 (see Fig 1 for species abbreviations and Appendix 8 for basal area losses and gains).



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Figure 6: Maps of net change in the number of stems of a) all species combined, b) Picea mariana, c) Larix laricina, and d) Betula spp. in each of the 240 20 m × 20 m grid cells in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot between censuses. Darker blue colours indicate high net losses of stems (i.e. more deaths than recruits), while darker red colours indicate high net gains. Note the difference in scales between maps. See Appendix 8 for maps of net change in basal area of each species.

Abiotic drivers of forest dynamics

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The abiotic variables governing the initial distributions of *P. mariana* and *Betula* spp. were different from those governing the distribution of L. laricina. The abundance of both P. mariana and Betula spp. stems was positively associated with the presence of permafrost and correspondingly well-drained soils (high PC1) according to habitat

association tests. However, neither species was sensitive to gradients in organic layer thickness (PC2). In contrast, *L. laricina* abundance was not significantly associated with gradients in permafrost presence or soil moisture (PC1), but was positively associated with thin organic layers (high PC2) (Fig 7, Tables 1 and 2).

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Abiotic drivers of mortality often differed from those of recruitment, leading to spatial shifts in the distributions of stems, and the magnitude and direction of these shifts varied among species. P. mariana deaths and recruits were both associated with dry soils underlain by permafrost (high PC1), like their initial stem densities. However, P. mariana recruits were also associated with thin organic soils (high PC2), even though deaths and initial stems were not. Net losses of *P. mariana* were therefore greatest in areas with thick organic soils (Fig 7, Tables 1 and 2). L. laricina deaths occurred randomly in relation to environmental conditions (PC1 or PC2). In contrast, recruits were significantly associated with wet, permafrost-free soils (low PC1) and thin organic layers (high PC2). As a result, net gains of L. laricina stems were highest in wet, permafrost-free areas with surficial mineral soil (Fig 7, Tables 1 and 2). Both deaths and recruits of *Betula* spp. were associated with dry soils underlain by permafrost (high PC1), but were not sensitive to organic layer thickness (PC2), similar to their initial stem densities. As a result, there was no spatial shift in the abundance of *Betula* spp. stems within the plot. This was consistent when analysis was done at the genet level as well.

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Permafrost thaw and forest dynamics

The extent to which permafrost thaw drove mortality and recruitment varied notably among the three dominant species. *L. laricina* and *Betula* spp. deaths were not significantly associated with areas that experienced minor or major thaw (i.e. deaths were distributed randomly in relation to permafrost dynamics), but *P. mariana* deaths were positively associated with areas that experienced minor as well as major thaw (Appendix 10). Interestingly, *P. mariana* and *L. laricina* recruitment showed very different trends with respect to permafrost dynamics. *P. mariana* recruitment was negatively associated with permafrost-free areas and positively associated with areas that experienced major thaw, whereas *L. laricina* recruitment was positively associated with permafrost-free areas (though not significantly) and negatively associated with major thaw. *Betula* spp. recruits followed a similar pattern to that of *P. mariana* recruits.

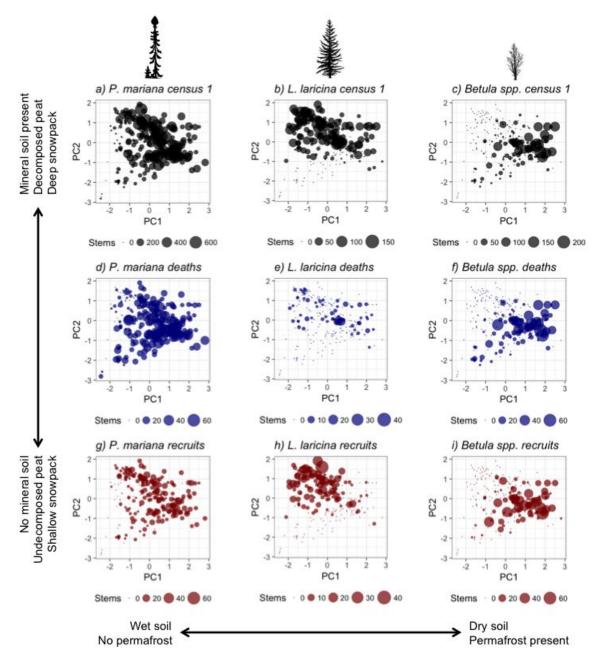


Figure 7: Ordination plots showing each of the 240 20 m × 20 m grid cells in two-dimensional space defined by the first and second principal components depicted in Fig 3. Grid cells are sized according to the number of stems of each of the three most dominant species in the initial census (black, letters a-c), the number of deaths (blue, letters d-f), and the number of recruits that occurred between censuses (red, letters g-i). Note that scales differ between species, as well as

between initial census values and deaths/recruits, and that circles are semi-transparent to show overlap.

Table 1: Observed mean values of PC1 for each species (adjusted according to the probability of that species occurring at a given value of PC1, given the distribution of PC1 values) compared to 95% confidence intervals derived from 960 torus translations of the grid cells. Note that high values of PC1 correspond with low soil moisture content and shallow active layers (Fig 3), and that asterisks indicate the observed mean is below (-) or above (+) the 2.5% or 97.5% bound, respectively, of the distribution of torus translated values.

	Species	Torus mean	Torus mean	Observed
		lower bound	upper bound	mean (adj.)
Census 1	P. mariana	-0.18	0.51	0.71*(+)
	L. laricina	-0.27	0.69	0.18
	Betula spp.	-0.63	1.11	1.64*(+)
Deaths	P. mariana	-0.18	0.51	0.76*(+)
	L. laricina	-0.79	1.30	0.56
	Betula spp.	-0.58	1.03	1.48*(+)
Recruits	P. mariana	-0.15	0.48	0.83*(+)
	L. laricina	-0.36	0.81	-0.56*(-)
	Betula spp.	-0.54	0.93	1.37*(+)

Table 2: Observed mean values of PC2 for each species (adjusted according to the probability of that species occurring at a given value of PC2, given the distribution of PC2 values) compared to

95% confidence intervals derived from 960 torus translations of the grid cells. Note that high values of PC2 correspond with thin organic layers, decomposed peat, and deep snowpacks (Figure 3), and that asterisks indicate the observed mean is below (-) or above (+) the 2.5% or 97.5% bound, respectively, of the distribution of torus translated values.

	Species	Torus mean	Torus mean	Observed
		lower bound	upper bound	mean (adj.)
Census 1	P. mariana	-0.97	0.12	0.02
	L. laricina	-1.23	0.61	0.75*(+)
	Betula spp.	-1.67	0.94	-0.29
Deaths	P. mariana	-1.17	0.27	-0.55
	L. laricina	-1.73	0.79	0.35
	Betula spp.	-1.67	0.94	-0.46
Recruits	P. mariana	-0.82	-0.09	-0.02*(+)
	L. laricina	-1.31	0.71	0.99*(+)
	Betula spp.	-1.54	0.84	-0.39

Permafrost thaw and causes of mortality

Causes of mortality varied among species, though biological/unknown causes were the most common. Biological/unknown causes accounted for 84% and 77% of *L. laricina* and *Betula* spp. deaths, respectively, with the remainder due to stems falling over or physical damage. Most *P. mariana* mortality was also due to biological/unknown

causes (59%), but the remainder was due to a combination of waterlogging (23%) and
falling over or physical damage (18%) (Fig 8a). Waterlogged <i>P. mariana</i> stems were
positively associated with minor amounts of vertical thaw (thaw severity scores of 1 to
5), while other causes (biological/unknown, falling over, or physical damage) were
positively associated with major thaw (scores of 6-12) (Appendix 10). Most
waterlogging occurred in the western half of the plot (i.e. areas with no underlying
mineral soil) (Fig 8b,c), but there was no discernable east-west gradient in the magnitude
of thaw (Fig 8d).

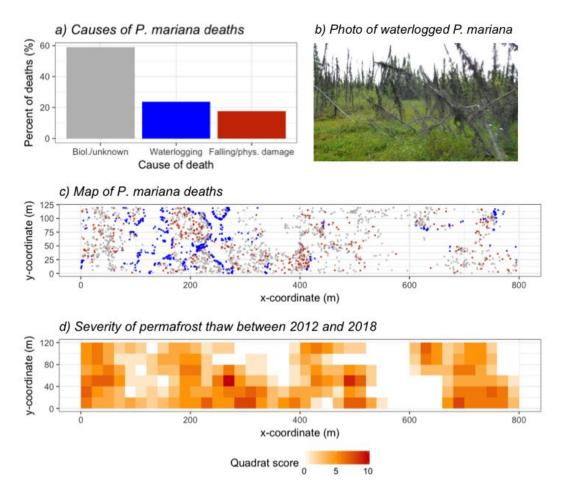


Figure 8: a) The proportion of *P. mariana* deaths that occurred as a result of biological/unknown causes, waterlogging, and falling over/physical damage; b) a photo of *P. mariana* deaths that occurred as a result of waterlogging along the margins of a subsiding permafrost plateau in the western half of the plot; c) a map of *P. mariana* deaths throughout the plot, colour-coded by cause (see panel a) for colour meanings); d) a map of change in frost table depth between 2012 and 2018 for each grid cell (white values had no permafrost and higher values indicate greater thaw - see methods for explanation of score).

### **Discussion**

We found that spatial patterns of forest composition, structure, mortality, and recruitment in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot were driven in part by gradients in soil moisture associated with permafrost conditions, but that they were also driven to a large extent by soil organic layer thickness. Species richness, basal area, and stem density were all higher atop well-drained plateaus than in surrounding permafrost-free wetlands, but basal area and species richness were also positively associated with thin organic layers (i.e. access to mineral soil), which varied substantially across the 800 m gradient captured by the plot. The plot experienced a net loss of stems at a rate of 0.7% yr<sup>-1</sup> between 2013 and 2018, which was partially driven by waterlogging of *P. mariana* associated with lateral permafrost thaw along permafrost plateau margins, and partially by indirect effects of vertical permafrost thaw within plateau interiors. Mortality occurred throughout the diameter range, meaning permafrost thaw was an agent of mortality for both smaller and larger trees. However, high recruitment of L. laricina and to a lesser extent P. mariana in areas with thin organic soils resulted in localized net gains of stems. Collectively, these results suggest that permafrost thaw is driving forest loss in the Scotty Creek basin, but that access to mineral soil and species-specific responses to thaw strongly mediate these dynamics.

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Permafrost thaw is an ongoing and accelerating process in our study area and throughout the circumpolar north (Jorgenson et al., 2010; Quinton et al., 2011). Mean annual temperature in our study area has increased substantially over the past century from -4.1°C (between 1896 and 1970) to -2.8°C in recent decades (1981-2010) (Quinton, Hayashi, & Chasmer, 2009). Given that permafrost in this region is already near 0°C and

is often maintained by canopy shading, forest fragmentation associated with thawing permafrost plateaus has greatly increased the rate of thaw since the 1970s (Baltzer et al., 2014). Temperatures are projected to continue increasing at northern latitudes over the coming decades (Hartmann, Klein Tank, & Rusticucci, 2013) and, as a result, the rate of thaw will likely continue to accelerate. Therefore, thaw-driven shifts in forest composition or structure are unlikely to be ephemeral.

The overall mortality rate in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot was 2.0% yr<sup>-1</sup> across all species and diameter classes. In the Canadian boreal forest, permanent forest plots are primarily located in permafrost-free regions of the southern boreal forest, and exclude stems that are less than 5 cm DBH (Gillis et al., 2005), making direct comparisons with our results difficult. Mortality rates in these southern plots began to exceed 2.0% yr<sup>-1</sup> in western Canada after the early 2000s due in part to climate-induced drought stress (Birch et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2011). When we removed stems smaller than 5 cm DBH from our data, we found a mortality rate of 1.9% yr<sup>-1</sup> at Scotty Creek, suggesting that the direct and indirect effects of vertical and lateral permafrost thaw in northern portions of the boreal forest are resulting in comparable mortality rates to climate-induced drought stress in the southern portions.

Given the high latitude and extreme climate of the Scotty Creek plot, we expected stem mortality and recruitment rates to be lower than those in other ForestGEO plots (Stephenson & van Mantgem, 2005). However, the mortality rate we observed is comparable to those in other forest types, which tend to range between 1% and 5% yr<sup>-1</sup>

for most species and diameter classes (Condit, Hubbell, & Foster, 1995; Furniss et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Akre et al., 2016; Itoh et al., 2012). Furthermore, the large discrepancies between mortality and recruitment rates of the two dominant species in the Scotty Creek plot (net loss of *P. mariana* and net gain of *L. laricina*) are fairly unique amongst large forest plots. Other plots have observed discrepancies, but they tend to correspond with species-specific diseases, are found in less dominant species, or are related to known successional trends (Furniss et al., 2017; Gonzalez-Akre et al., 2016; Lutz et al., 2014). Given that the forest at Scotty Creek is not currently undergoing succession (i.e. *L. laricina* is not a late-successional species), permafrost thaw is almost certainly responsible for the discrepancies we observed, and may be initiating unprecedented shifts in boreal forest composition.

We found that organic layer thickness strongly mediated forest response to permafrost thaw. Despite the occurrence of thaw and associated flooding throughout the plot, net gains of stems frequently occurred in areas with thin organic layers. This was particularly true for *L. laricina*, which can produce aerenchymatous tissue in the stem that facilitates root aeration, thereby maintaining higher root mass and root hydraulic conductivity than *P. mariana* in saturated soils (Islam et al., 2003). Partially because of the need to produce new foliage every spring, *L. laricina* is also notably more nutrient demanding than *P. mariana* (Islam & Macdonald, 2005), which explains why recruitment was so strongly associated with the presence of surficial mineral soil.

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Though we expected the flood-tolerant L. laricina to fare better than P. mariana as soils became increasingly waterlogged, the fact that L. laricina recruitment was more than four times greater than mortality was surprising. It is likely that the loss of P. mariana from recently flooded sections of the plot provided new openings in the canopy for L. laricina to colonize. This is supported by the fact that L. laricina recruitment was strongly associated with high soil moisture even though initial stem distributions were not. Larch growth has responded positively to permafrost thaw in other regions, perhaps because it is capable of rapidly taking advantage of nutrients released at the thaw front (Islam & Macdonald, 2005; Keuper et al., 2012; Prokushkin et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). L. laricina has also advanced northward in North America in response to climate warming over the past few decades (Mamet, Brown, Trant, & Laroque, 2019). The increase in L. laricina dominance at Scotty Creek has so far been restricted to areas with surficial mineral soil, but it is possible that coalescing taliks (pockets of ground beneath the active layer that remain unfrozen throughout the winter) and degrading permafrost "dams" will facilitate the movement of nutrient-rich groundwater to formerly isolated bogs as thaw progresses (Connon, Devoie, Hayashi, Veness, & Quinton, 2018; Connon et al., 2014). This could enable *L. laricina* to overtake *P. mariana* in other areas as well.

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Despite our expectation that *P. mariana* mortality would be driven primarily by waterlogging associated with permafrost thaw, we found that most deaths were due to biological or unknown causes, and that deaths due to stems falling over or incurring physical damage were almost as common as deaths due to waterlogging. Some deaths were likely the delayed result of damage incurred during a wet snowfall event in late

spring 2012 (J. Baltzer, personal observation). This is supported by damage assessments done on large stems (those >10 cm DBH) in 2012. Notably, 36% of live stems with snapped crowns in 2012 had died by 2018. This is a considerably higher mortality rate than we found amongst stems with other types of damage (26% or less) or no damage (only 8%) (Appendix 11). As climate warms, spring snowfall and frost events could become increasingly common sources of damage or mortality for boreal trees (Man, Kayahara, Foley, & Wiseman, 2013). These events will likely affect *P. mariana* more severely than L. laricina, since the top-heavy crown architecture of the former makes it particularly susceptible to damage via snow loading, and because deciduous species are generally less susceptible to overwinter damage than evergreens due to reduced canopy snow capture (Man et al., 2013; Nykänen, Peltola, Quine, Kellomäki, & Broadgate, 1997). Lastly, windthrow could become increasingly common in peatlands as stems are lost to waterlogging and damage, since trees at forest edges or in thinned stands are more susceptible to windthrow than those in dense stand interiors (Peltola, Kellomäki, Väisänen, & Ikonen, 1999).

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Causes of *P. mariana* deaths other than waterlogging (i.e. biological/unknown, falling over, or physical damage) were positively and significantly associated with high rates of vertical permafrost thaw, supporting the mounting evidence that trees growing atop plateaus may be suffering from thaw-induced drought stress. The water table is perched atop the frost table at this site such that any deepening of the latter makes it difficult for shallow-rooted *P. mariana* to access adequate moisture (Sniderhan & Baltzer, 2016). Drought stress can cause reductions in physiological function and growth

(Patankar, Quinton, Hayashi, & Baltzer, 2015; Sniderhan & Baltzer, 2016) or outright mortality (Peng et al., 2011). It may also leave trees more vulnerable to insects or pathogens, thereby indirectly increasing mortality rates (Desprez-Loustau, Marçais, Nageleisen, Piou, & Vannini, 2006). Furthermore, the thinning of forest stands within plateau interiors feeds back positively on the rate of vertical thaw, since it increases the amount of incident radiation reaching the ground surface (Baltzer et al., 2014; Lara et al., 2016). As such, the rate of *P. mariana* loss we observed in the Scotty Creek plot is likely to accelerate in the future.

In contrast to our expectations, *P. mariana* deaths due to waterlogging were associated with minor rates of permafrost thaw. This may be partially attributable to the fact that surface subsidence can occur without any change in active layer thickness (i.e. the depth from the surface to permafrost can remain constant as the surface sinks). Additionally, waterlogging is a response to lateral thaw (i.e. disappearance of permafrost) along abrupt plateau margins, which our active layer measurements often failed to capture. Measurements tended to fall within permafrost-free wetlands or plateau interiors, where vertical thaw was occurring, but permafrost persisted between years. Locations where we did capture lateral thaw were immediately adjacent to permafrost-free wetlands, which experienced no change in active layer depth between 2012 and 2018, and were thus assigned a zero in our thaw severity rating. These zeros lowered the aggregate thaw severity scores of grid cells in which lateral thaw was observed at one or two grid cell corners. In short, the coarseness of our thaw depth measurements masked

dynamic processes at plateau margins but effectively, the minor thaw category often corresponded with degrading plateau margins.

We found that *Betula* spp. experienced a very high turnover of stems, but spatial patterns in abundance were stable between censuses. Areas dominated by *Betula* spp. also tended to have highly decomposed peat (high von Post scores) and showed evidence of fire (surficial charcoal; K. Dearborn, personal observation). It is possible that *Betula* spp. rapidly colonized these areas following small burns, and subsequently prevented conifers from colonizing. *Betula* spp. are competitive, fast-growing, and produce high quality litter compared to evergreen species (Aerts, Verhoeven, & Whigham, 1999; Bret-Harte et al., 2002). These characteristics could maintain patches of high *Betula* spp. abundance for extended time periods following small burns, similar to the long-term replacement of conifer forests by shrub fields following severe burns in the Cascade Mountains (Lauvaux, Skinner, & Taylor, 2016). Their ability for clonal reproduction also means that once they become dominant, they likely remain that way with limited opportunity for succession toward a forested state, since rates of individual or genet mortality are low (Appendix 9).

### **Conclusions**

Our results, combined with the ongoing and projected increases in annual and summer boreal temperatures, suggest that permafrost thaw will continue to elevate black spruce mortality in boreal peatlands. A corresponding increase in larch abundance might

maintain sparse forest cover, but is also likely to alter a range of key ecosystem functions. For instance, an increase in soil nutrient content and corresponding shift towards more minerotrophic plant communities could occur, since larch needles fall every year and are higher quality and more readily decomposable than spruce needles (Aerts et al., 1999; Carlyle & Malcolm, 1986). The thinning of forest stands and increasing dominance of deciduous species could also increase surface albedo in the winter, with potential consequences for snow cover duration (Lundquist, Dickerson-Lange, Lutz, & Cristea, 2013). Finally, a loss of raised plateau habitat will likely be detrimental to caribou whether a sparse canopy is maintained or not, since the lichens growing atop plateaus form an important component of their diet (Joly, Chapin, & Klein, 2010). In any case, the high disparities between mortality and recruitment among the dominant tree species suggest high rates of community change for the boreal region, even higher than those reported for more southerly boreal forests (Birch et al., 2019).

In the longer term, it is possible that extensive permafrost thaw and increasing hydrological connectivity within the watershed will result in sufficient landscape drainage to cause widespread drying of the landscape (Connon et al., 2014; Haynes, Connon, & Quinton, 2018). If this occurs, successional processes will likely initiate an increase in black spruce cover over time (Préfontaine & Jutras, 2017; Zoltai, 1993). However, we did not find any indication that this is occurring yet. Instead, the evidence we found of positive feedbacks between spruce loss and vertical thaw atop plateaus, combined with previously uncovered evidence of positive feedbacks between plateau subsidence and lateral thaw (Baltzer et al., 2014) suggest that the conversion of plateau-

wetland mosaics into more homogeneous, larch-dominated wetlands is likely to accelerate in the coming decades.

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726	Authors' Contributions
727	
728	JB conceived ideas, obtained funding, and contributed substantially to data
729	analysis and writing, KD led the plot recensus in 2018, conducted data analysis, designed
730	figures, and wrote the manuscript, RP and CW led plot establishment, collected abiotic
731	data, and provided feedback on methodology, data analysis, and writing. All authors gave
732	final approval for publication.
733	
734	Data Availability
735	
736	Forest census data will be archived in the ForestGEO online data portal
737	(http://ctfs.si.edu/datarequest/).
738	
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### Appendix 1: Soil volumetric water content correlation matrix

Table 1: Pearson correlations among volumetric water content measurements taken on various dates, at various depths, and in various subsets of the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot (Warren 2015). Measurements were taken immediately adjacent to posts as described in the methods section of the manuscript, and the depth at which measurements were taken is noted in brackets after each date. Note that the July 19, 2012 measurements are the only set of measurements completed across the entire plot, and thus are the measurements used in our analysis. The remaining measurements from 2012, and all measurements from 2013 were taken across the westernmost 500 m of the plot (meters 0 to 500), while the measurements from 2017 were taken between meters 180 and 480. All correlations were positive and significant at the 0.05 level.

	Jul 19, 2012 (<5 cm)	Jul 31, 2012 (<5 cm)	Aug 2, 2012 (<5 cm)	May 27, 2013 (<5 cm)	May 31, 2013 (<5 cm)	Aug 27, 2013 (<5 cm)	Aug 28, 2013 (<5 cm)	Sep 4, 2017 (6 cm)	Sep 4, 2017 (12 cm)	Sep 4, 2017 (20 cm)
Jul 19, 2012										
(<5 cm)	1									
Jul 31, 2012										
(<5 cm)	0.94	1								
Aug 2, 2012										
(<5 cm)	0.96	0.99	1							
May 27, 2013										
(<5 cm)	0.94	0.93	0.93	1						
May 31, 2013										
(<5 cm)	0.94	0.95	0.97	0.94	1					
Aug 27, 2013										
(<5 cm)	0.93	0.94	0.96	0.90	0.94	1				
Aug 28, 2013										
(<5 cm)	0.93	0.93	0.94	0.92	0.93	0.94	1			
Sep 4, 2017										
(6 cm)	0.27	0.35	0.32	0.30	0.28	0.29	0.31	1	-	

Sep 4, 2017 (12 cm)	0.48	0.57	0.54	0.53	0.51	0.50	0.52	0.76	1	
Sep 4, 2017										
(20 cm)	0.47	0.55	0.52	0.48	0.49	0.48	0.47	0.65	0.88	1_

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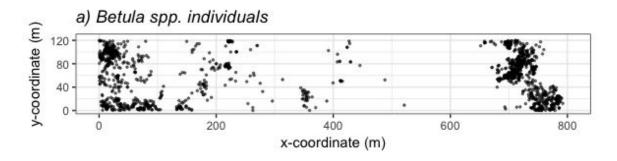
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Appendix 2: Adjustments to 2012 and 2018 frost table depth measurements

To ensure that frost table depths were comparable between 2012 and 2018, we used known intraseasonal rates of thaw derived from repeat measurements taken across the westernmost 500 m of the plot in 2013 (i.e. at 182 of the 287 posts). Specifically, we used the difference in frost table depth between May 31 and August 27, 2013 (in cm), and the difference in thawing degree days (TDD, derived from Fort Simpson station data) between the same two dates to calculate rates of thaw (in cm/TDD) at each post within this subset of the plot. We then used multiple linear regression to model the relationship between rate of thaw and a selection of abiotic variables that had the strongest correlations with rates of thaw (soil moisture, organic layer thickness, and tree density within a 5 m radius of the post). We used this model ( $R^2 = 0.31$ , p = 0.07) to estimate rates of thaw (in cm/TDD) at the 105 posts in the easternmost portion of the plot for which we did not have known rates. Next, we calculated the difference in TDD between August 27, 2013 and July 19, 2012, as well as between August 27, 2013 and August 5, 2018. We then multiplied known and estimated rates of thaw at each post by differences in TDD between dates to make the 2012 and 2018 frost table depths comparable (in terms of TDD) to August 27, 2013 depths. Finally, we subtracted adjusted 2012 values from adjusted 2018 values to estimate the amount of thaw (in cm) that occurred between 2012 and 2018.

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Appendix 3: Maps of *Betula* spp. individuals (genets) and *Betula* spp. stems (ramets)



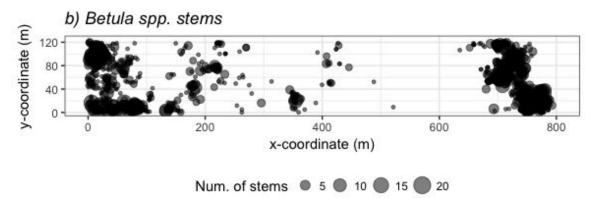


Figure 1: Map showing the a) locations of *Betula* spp. individuals (1349 total genets comprising 2973 ramets) in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot and b) locations of *Betula* spp. individuals resized according to the number of multiple stems (ramets) making up each individual.

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### Appendix 4: Categorization of abiotic variables

Several of the abiotic variables we included in our principal components analysis were categorical. The von Post score is inherently categorical, and we converted organic layer thickness and 2012 frost table measurements into categorical variables as well, since over 50% of the values of these two variables were censored beyond the limits of our equipment (i.e. beyond the length of the auger or frost probe). We explored several methods of including censored quantitative data in regression-based analyses, but all of them required that less than half of the values be censored (Tobin 1958; Buettner et al. 2014; Fisher et al. 2016). We therefore categorized 2012 frost table depth measurements into one of three categories (less than 50 cm, between 50 cm and 200 cm, and greater than 200 cm), and the organic layer thickness measurements into one of three categories (less than 60 cm, between 60 cm and 150 cm, and greater than 150 cm) prior to performing our principal component analysis. We performed a sensitivity analysis using higher numbers of categories for each variable, but the results of the principal components analysis were not notably affected.

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Appendix 5: Frequency histograms of surviving stem diameters and diameters of stems that died for each of the three dominant species in the plot

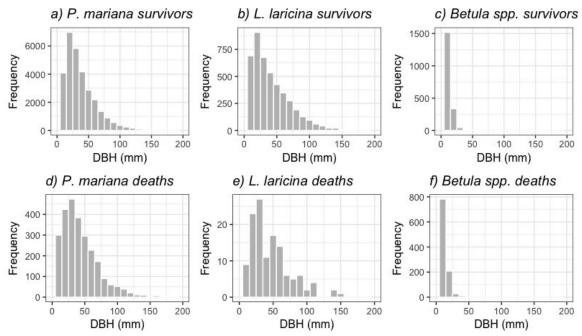


Figure 1: The distribution of surviving stem diameters of *Picea mariana*, *Larix laricina*, and *Betula spp*. (a-c), as well as distributions of diameters of *P. mariana*, *L. laricina*, and *Betula spp*. stems that died between the initial census (completed in 2014) and recensus in 2018 (d-f).

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## Appendix 6: Stem counts for each species

Table 1: The number of ramets and genets of each species in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot as of the initial census completed in 2014.

Species	Number of	Number of
	ramets	genets
Picea mariana	32490	32034
Larix laricina	4550	4394
Betula spp.	2973	1349
Salix spp.	520	386
Alnus crispa	22	10
Picea glauca	17	16
Pinus banksiana	11	11
All species	40583	38200

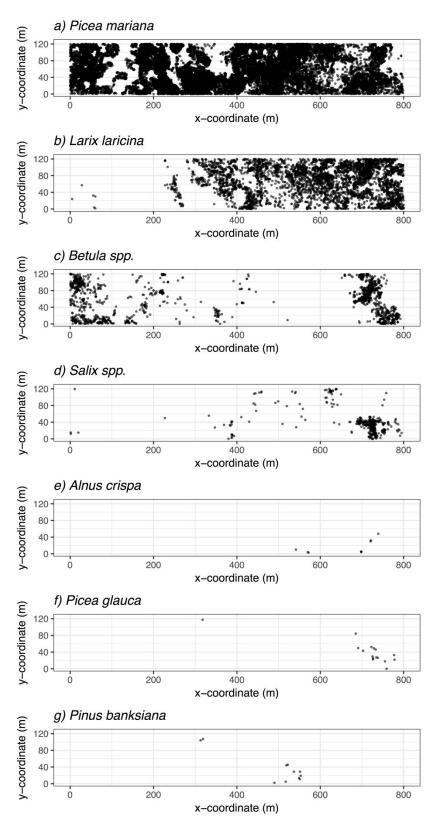


Figure 1: Maps of the distributions of each genet (individual) of the species present in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot.

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Appendix 7: Results of principal components analysis on abiotic variables.

Table 1: Eigenvalues and variance explained for each axis in the mixed principal components analysis.

		Proportion	Cumulative
Axis	Eigenvalue	variance explained	variance explained
PC1	2.57	21.38	21.38
PC2	1.60	13.34	34.72
PC3	1.27	10.55	45.28
PC4	1.10	9.19	54.47
PC5	1.05	8.72	63.18
PC6	0.98	8.13	71.31
PC7	0.86	7.17	78.48
PC8	0.80	6.63	85.10
PC9	0.67	5.58	90.68
PC10	0.57	4.76	95.44
PC11	0.40	3.32	98.76
PC12	0.15	1.24	100.00

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Appendix 8: Change in basal area (in m<sup>2</sup>) between the initial census completed in 2014 and the recensus in 2018.

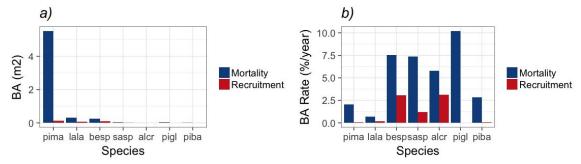


Figure 1: The a) amount of basal area lost and gained, and b) rates of basal area loss and gain for each species in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot between the initial census completed in 2014 and the recensus in 2018.

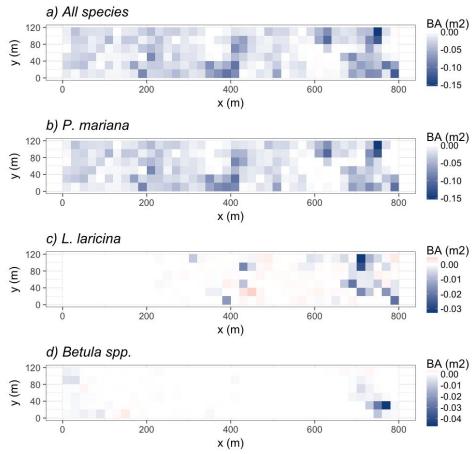


Figure 2: Maps of net change in the basal area of a) all species combined, b) *Picea mariana*, c) *Larix laricina*, d) *Betula spp*. in each of the 240 20 m × 20 m grid cells in the Scotty Creek ForestGEO plot between the initial census completed in 2014 and the recensus completed in 2018. Darker blue colours represent higher net losses of basal area. Note the difference in scales between maps.

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Appendix 9: Comparison of *Betula spp*. dynamics when each multi-stemmed individual is treated as a separate data point (genets) versus when stems originating from the same individual (ramets) are combined into a single data point.

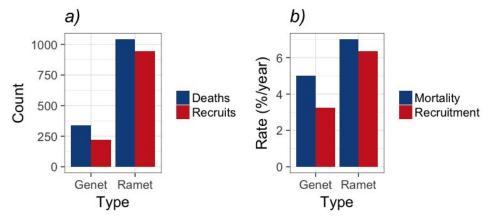


Figure 1: The a) numbers of deaths and recruits, and b) rates of stem mortality and recruitment of *Betula spp*. when each multi-stemmed plant is treated as a separate data point (ramets) compared to numbers and rates when stems originating from the same *Betula spp*. individual were combined into a single data point (genets). Values refer to mortality and recruitment that occurred between the initial census completed in 2014 and the recensus in 2018.

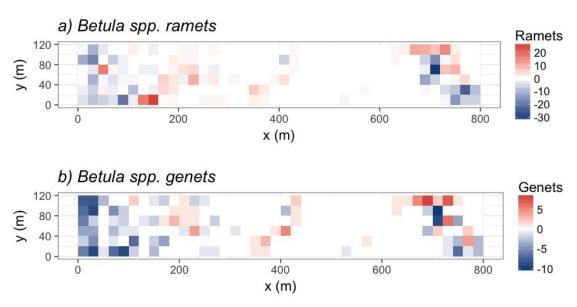


Figure 2: Maps of net change in the number of *Betula spp.* when a) stems in multi-stemmed individuals (ramets) were treated as separate data points, and b) when stems originating from the same individual (genets) were combined into a single data point. Darker blue colours indicate

high net losses of stems between 2013/2014 and 2018 in a given 20m x 20m grid cell (i.e. more deaths than recruits), while darker red colours indicate high net gains of stems. Note the difference in scales between maps.

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Appendix 10: Results of categorical habitat association tests between the degree of vertical permafrost thaw and the deaths and recruits of each of the three dominant species (*Picea mariana*, *Larix laricina*, and *Betula spp.*), as well as the three causes of *P. mariana* mortality.

Table 1: Results of categorical torus translation test of association between three categories of vertical permafrost thaw (no permafrost, minor thaw and major thaw – see methods for explanation of categories) and deaths of the three dominant species (*Picea mariana*, *Larix laricina*, and *Betula spp.*) in the Scotty Creek Forest Dynamics Plot. Values indicate the number of torus-translated maps in which the true relative density of deaths in a given habitat is greater than, less than, or equal to translated maps. Using a two-tailed test and alpha=0.05, a relative density greater or less than 97.5% of the torus-translated maps (234 out of 240) indicates a positive or negative association, respectively.

	No permafrost			Minor vert	ical thaw		Major vertical thaw		
	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal
P. mariana	0	239*	1	239*	0	1	237*	2	1
L. laricina	97	131	12	187	44	9	73	160	7
Betula spp.	0	239*	1	163	76	1	232	7	1
All spp.	0	239*	1	235*	4	1	239*	0	1

Table 2: Results of categorical torus translation test of association between three categories of vertical permafrost thaw (no permafrost, minor thaw and major thaw – see methods for explanation of categories) and recruits of the three dominant species (*Picea mariana*, *Larix laricina*, and *Betula spp.*) in the Scotty Creek Forest Dynamics Plot. Values indicate the number of torus-translated maps in which the true relative density of recruits in a given habitat is greater than, less than, or equal to translated maps. Using a two-tailed test and alpha=0.05, a relative density greater or less than 97.5% of the torus-translated maps (234 out of 240) indicates a positive or negative association, respectively.

	No permafrost			Minor vert	ical thaw		Major vertical thaw		
	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal
P. mariana	1	238*	1	161	73	6	237*	2	1
L. laricina	224	14	2	91	147	2	2	237*	1
Betula spp.	0	239*	1	222	16	2	208	31	1
All spp.	4	235*	1	208	31	1	215	23	2

Table 3: Results of categorical torus translation test of association between three categories of vertical permafrost thaw (no permafrost, minor thaw and major thaw – see methods for explanation of categories) and the three causes of *Picea mariana* mortality. Values indicate the number of torustranslated maps in which the true relative density of a given cause of death in a given habitat is greater than, less than, or equal to translated maps. Using a two-tailed test and alpha=0.05, a relative density greater or less than 97.5% of the torus-translated maps (234 out of 240) indicates a positive or negative association, respectively.

	No permafrost			Minor vert	ical thaw		Major vertical thaw		
	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal	Greater	Less	Equal
Biol./unknown	0	239*	1	215	23	2	239*	0	1
Waterlogging	0	238*	2	239*	0	1	2	237*	1
Falling/damage	0	239*	1	219	20	1	239*	0	1

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Appendix 11: The percentage of large (>10 cm DBH) damaged stems that died between 2012 when damage assessments were completed and 2018 when the plot was recensused.

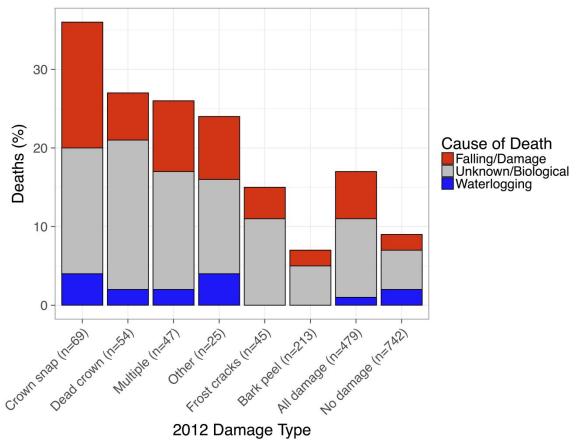


Figure 1: Percentage of damaged stems that died between 2012 when damage assessments were completed and 2018 when stems were recensused. Bars are colour coded by cause of death (see methods), and the number of trees in each damage category is noted in brackets after the name of the damage type. Note that damage assessments were only done on large stems (>10cm DBH), and that damage types that occurred on fewer than 10 trees are not shown (though they are included in the "All damage" category).