

Title:

Effects of short-interval disturbances continue to accumulate, overwhelming variability in local resilience

Katherine Hayes¹, Brian Buma¹

Author Affiliations:

¹University of Colorado Denver, Department of Integrative Biology

* Correspondence to katherine.hayes@ucdenver.edu

1 **Abstract:**

2 Increasing rates of short-interval disturbances have the potential to rapidly transform ecosystems
3 via shifts in post-disturbance regeneration. While research has explored compound events in
4 multiple biomes, we know little regarding how local site conditions interact with short-interval
5 disturbances to influence post-disturbance regeneration. Furthermore, questions remain regarding
6 the consequences of continued high frequency events – what happens when emerging new
7 communities are themselves subject to short-interval disturbances? To investigate effects of
8 ongoing short-interval fires on regeneration, we examined post-fire forest regeneration in two
9 locations in Interior Alaska. We established 50 plots across a mosaic of fire histories (1, 2 or 3
10 fires in <70 years) in an upland and lowland site in Interior Alaska. To investigate how shifts in
11 community driven by short-interval fires differ according to local site conditions, we quantified
12 abundance, proportion and density of conifer and deciduous regeneration in a drier upland site
13 and a wetter lowland site. Both sites were dominated by black spruce prior to burning. In the
14 drier upland site, black spruce (*Picea mariana*) presence declined sharply after two fires while
15 paper birch (*Betula neoalaskana*) became increasingly abundant with each additional fire. In the
16 wetter lowland site, less organic soil was consumed by fire and presence of black spruce
17 persisted through an initial single reburn (two fires), indicating local topography may
18 temporarily buffer reburning impacts. However, after three burns, conifers were effectively
19 eliminated in both upland and lowland stands. Deciduous regeneration differed with site: birch
20 dominated in upland plots while willow (*Salix* spp.) and aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) dominated
21 in lowlands. These results offer strong empirical evidence of the divergence of boreal
22 successional trajectories from previous historic norms. Furthermore, results from this study
23 demonstrate shifts in postfire succession in forested ecosystems continue to accumulate with

24 additional short-interval disturbance events, overwhelming the interactive effects of local site
25 conditions.

26 **Keywords:** boreal, ecosystem transformation, fire frequency, reburns, regime shifts, succession

27 **Introduction**

28 Disturbances are a major driver of community composition and biomass, and in many
29 ecosystems are the major force that create and maintain ecosystems themselves (e.g., grassland
30 or forests, Dantas et al. 2016). Theory suggests that in disturbance-adapted systems, communities
31 can recover via resilience mechanisms after even intense disturbances (“ecological memory,”
32 Johnstone et al. 2016). Here, the capacity for ecological resilience refers to the degree of
33 disturbance a system or community can absorb without undergoing meaningful transformational
34 change (i.e., shifting into an alternate state; Holling 1973, Pickett et al. 1989), and resilience
35 mechanisms refer to the system or species-specific characteristics that promote a return to pre-
36 disturbance state. In this context, if additional disturbance events occur within the timeframe of
37 recovery, resilience mechanisms can be overwhelmed, enabling irreversible population collapse
38 and subsequent “ecological surprises” (Paine et al. 1998): recovery trajectories not easily
39 predictable from knowledge of the individual disturbance agents themselves (Scheffer and
40 Carpenter 2003, Buma 2015). Examples abound, both terrestrial and aquatic – from changes in
41 bamboo communities after fires and floods (Gagnon 2009), coral reef phase shifts after fishing
42 and hurricanes (Hughes 1994), and experimental aquatic mesocosm studies (Kercher and Zedler
43 2004). Long-term shifts to different disturbance regimes (e.g., higher frequency) or other
44 feedbacks can allow new community types to persist, driving fundamental shifts in ecosystem
45 structure (e.g., grazing and fires, Archibald et al. 2005; coral reef functioning, Jones et al. 2004).
46 Theoretical modeling agrees, and further suggests changes in disturbance frequency are more
47 important than changes to severity or other disturbance characteristics (Fraterrigo et al. 2020) in
48 driving variability in recovery.

49 Research into the effects of disturbance frequency changes have almost exclusively
50 focused on high severity disturbances and single short-interval events (two disturbances). This

51 limits our understanding of the ongoing effects of continued short-interval disturbances. While
52 modeling suggests progressive loss in ecosystem functions (e.g., ongoing fires in Yellowstone,
53 Westerling et al. 2011), it is also true that subsequent disturbances interact with previous
54 disturbance conditions, changing severity and overall impacts which can limit future disturbance
55 severity or even occurrence (Parks et al. 2015, Buma et al. 2020). Trajectories inferred from
56 single short-interval events may therefore not be valid if frequency of disturbances remains high.
57 In addition, effects on ecosystems are mediated by external factors, such as topography and local
58 site conditions, which theoretically may modulate cumulative impacts (Paine et al. 1998).
59 However, if frequency is truly the most significant factor (Fraterrigo et al. 2020) then that
60 moderation effect should disappear with ongoing events. This too has not been empirically
61 investigated.

62 This study tests theoretical outcomes of continued short-interval disturbance effects
63 directly in a disturbance adapted biome by examining 1, 2 or 3 events occurring in short-interval
64 across two topographic contexts with known differences in resiliency via local site conditions.
65 We use fires and boreal forests as our test system. Boreal forests are globally significant in terms
66 of permafrost (Mann et al. 2012) and carbon stocks (Alexander et al. 2012) and are highly fire
67 adapted and warming rapidly, meaning they are ideal to test theory related to changes in
68 disturbance frequency, multiple disturbances, and ecosystem resilience. Boreal fire return
69 intervals were historically >100 years in Interior Alaska (Yarie 1981, Viereck 1983, Johnstone et
70 al. 2010). These forests are highly resilient to fire via self-replacement successional pathways
71 (Kurkowski et al. 2008, Ott et al. 2006), and here we quantify resilience with that metric –
72 regeneration densities and areas. The dominant conifer, black spruce (*Picea mariana*), typically

73 self-replaces within 5-10 years via a large canopy seedbank after fire (Greene et al. 2013,
74 Kurkowski et al. 2008, Johnstone et al. 2004).

75 Self-replacement is enabled by 2 primary factors: species-specific regeneration traits
76 (including dispersal distances and seed size) and local soil characteristics. Prior research suggests
77 the interaction between short-interval fires, species regeneration traits and soil characteristics
78 may lead to widespread community conversion of black spruce forests via the following
79 processes: first, loss of aerial seedbanks through repeat short-interval burning can favor wind-
80 dispersed species with longer dispersal distances (e.g., 80m for black spruce vs. several
81 kilometers for aspen or birch; McCaughey et al. 1985, Marquis et al. 1969, Burns and Honkala
82 1990), which can better colonize from outside burn perimeters (Brown and Johnstone 2012).
83 Additionally, short-interval burns can consume deep layers of organic soil and *Sphagnum*
84 mosses, providing greater exposed mineral soil surface which may enhance germination rates.
85 Aspen (*Populus tremuloides*; Greene and Johnson 1999) and birch (*Betula neoalaskana*; Zasada
86 1971) produce large quantities of small wind-borne seeds (Roland et al. 2013, Johnstone et al.
87 2009, Greene et al. 2007), which may benefit from the interaction of limited black spruce seed
88 availability and greater available mineral soil surface, depending on the amount of substrate
89 consumed during fire (Hesketh et al. 2009). Models suggest that the interaction of seedbank and
90 soil consumption driven by short-interval fires will lead to a shift in local community
91 composition from conifer-dominated stands to deciduous forest (Mann et al. 2012, Roland et al.
92 2019, Rupp et al. 2002) or grassland (Brooks et al. 2004, Roland et al. 2013).

93 The definition of short interval fires varies by study (e.g., 5 or 25 years, Buma et al. 2020,
94 Fairman et al. 2019; 50 years, McRae et al. 2006, 30 years, Turner et al. 2019), but for the boreal
95 forest can be functionally defined as when second (or third) fires occur prior to the time required

96 to regenerate the local serotinous seedbanks, extirpating local populations and facilitating rapid
97 forest type conversion (Buma et al. 2013, Enright et al. 2015). Here we investigate fire return
98 intervals from 12 –30 years (see Methods, Appendix S1: Table S1) and define short interval fires
99 for discussion purposes within this region as <50 years given system-specific research that
100 suggests 50 years or more are required for full aerial seedbank regeneration (Johnstone et al.
101 2004).

102 Ecosystem transitions (from black spruce to deciduous species) following two
103 consecutive, short-interval fires have been well documented in Interior Alaska (Johnstone et al.
104 2004), the Yukon Territory (Brown et al. 2015, Whitman et al. 2018), Eastern Canada (Bergeron
105 and Fenton 2012) and Northern Minnesota (Camill and Clark 2000, Frelich et al. 2017).

106 However, the two key limitations mentioned above apply. First, we do not know if those
107 emerging communities are themselves resilient to ongoing short-interval fires (in other words,
108 what happens when a deciduous forest reburns within a short interval?). To our knowledge, there
109 are no studies examining 3 burns in short succession, despite the fact that overall increases in fire
110 frequency can be expected to facilitate continued and ongoing short-interval burning. Second,
111 previous studies on short-interval fires in boreal Interior Alaska are primarily in gently sloped
112 upland environments (i.e., Gibson et al. 2016, Houle et al. 2017) where fires are generally high
113 intensity, so the impact of short-interval fires in more inherently resilient topographic contexts is
114 unknown. The under-examination of reburns in lowlands compared to uplands may be partially
115 due to the historic unlikelihood of lowlands burning (Le Goff and Sirois 2004, Whitman et al.
116 2019, Alexander and Mack 2016), though they represent a substantial fraction of the biome
117 (~42% in interior Alaska, Douglas et al. 2014). Despite having the same ecological community,
118 higher soil moisture in lowland areas may provide a mechanism of resilience to soil

119 consumption. Investigating short-interval fires in understudied lowlands will not only contribute
120 to our understanding of the scale of landscape transformation in the boreal, it will also inform
121 expectations regarding whether continued accrual of disturbances at frequencies higher than
122 historic norms will eventually overwhelm even the more resilient topographic positions,
123 “homogenizing” previously variable locations.

124 This study characterizes post-fire regeneration of tree species in upland and lowland
125 stands across a gradient of 0, 1, 2 or 3 fires since 1940 occurring via a rapid increase in fire
126 frequency in boreal interior Alaska. We ask the following research questions: 1) what is the
127 impact of ongoing short-interval reburning in boreal forests?, 2) is the effect of short-interval
128 reburning on soil consumptions mediated in wetter, potentially more resilient lowland locations?
129 and 3) does local landscape position interact with continued reburning to influence the dynamics
130 of conifer and deciduous regeneration? We hypothesize the following: initial short-interval fires
131 will reduce conifer regeneration and favor deciduous regeneration in uplands, and repeat burning
132 (3 fires in sequence in short intervals) will push historically-resilient lowland stands toward the
133 same outcome. Given the evidence that short interval fires can trigger ecosystem regime shifts
134 from coniferous to deciduous systems (Johnstone et al. 2011, Brooks et al. 2004, Hoy et al.
135 2016), understanding the *ongoing* effects of multiple short-interval fires, especially in
136 regenerating deciduous stands, is essential to understanding and predicting environmental and
137 climatic change.

138 **Methods**

139 ***Site Selection***

140 To investigate these questions, we worked in the boreal forest of interior Alaska. We
141 established 50 20x20m plots in the summers of 2018 and 2019 between an upland and lowland

142 location in Interior Alaska in pre-fire black spruce forest types (Fig. 1). Plots were randomly
143 placed within described burn histories, an average of 4.7 km apart (minimum 90 meters,
144 maximum 13 km, median 4.19 km) and a minimum of 100 meters away from unburned legacies
145 to control for black spruce dispersal distances. Plots were stratified evenly between two
146 topographic positions: an upland and lowland location. The upland site ($n = 26$) represents well-
147 drained, gently sloped (slope 3-13 degrees) boreal forest topographies; the lowland ($n = 24$) a
148 flatter (slope = 0.3-2.6 degrees) and more poorly drained environment (Appendix S1: Figure S1).
149 Plots were climatically similar (Appendix S2: Table S2; Western Regional Climate Center). Both
150 are on the northern edge of the discontinuous permafrost zone and nearby unburned black spruce
151 communities have shallow permafrost in both locations (data not shown).

152 Using historical aerial photographs, burn history (Alaska Large Fire Database, FRAMES,
153 2018), and modern remotely sensed fire perimeters (Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity
154 database, MTBS), we identified pre-fire mature black spruce stands that experienced one to three
155 severe (complete aboveground mortality) fires in the last 60 years; all stands underwent the final
156 burn in 2003-2006 (Appendix S1: Table S1). Plots represented four specific reburn histories: 1)
157 mature unburned black spruce forest stands ($n = 8$; Fig. 2A), 2) once-burned black spruce forest
158 recovering from a single recent (>50 years) fire ($n = 15$, ~15-16 years ago, Fig. 2B), 3) twice-
159 burned black spruce forest recovering from two short-interval fires ($n = 15$, one ~15-16 years
160 ago, and the second ~30-50 years ago, Fig. 2C), and 4) thrice-burned black spruce forest ($n = 12$,
161 burned once ~15-16 years ago, a second time ~30-50 years ago and finally a third ~45-70 years
162 ago; Fig. 2D). For the earliest fires, pre-fire composition and complete aboveground mortality at
163 a plot was inferred via the historical photographs and verified via wood anatomy/tree ages (to
164 ground-truth initial spruce dominance and no survivors from previous fires; data not shown).

165 Fires were of comparable size (Appendix S1: Table S1). All burned plots were sampled 12-15
166 years postfire.

167 ***Field Sampling***

168 To determine the impact of repeat short-interval fires on conifer and deciduous post-fire
169 regeneration, we surveyed density, basal area and species composition of tree species on each
170 plot. We recorded species, diameter, and condition (live or dead) of all individuals above
171 diameter at breast height (DBH; 1.37 meters). Where density precluded counting over the entire
172 400 m², we counted a randomly selected subset (100 or 200 m²) and scaled accordingly. We
173 recorded presence, species and condition of seedlings that fell below 1.37 meters across ten 1-m²
174 sections randomly placed on each plot. We counted asexual reproducers like willow and aspen,
175 as one individual in our density estimates and as separate individuals in our basal area estimates
176 in order to avoid overestimating abundance of regeneration events, while still accounting for the
177 biomass of regeneration present on a plot. Tree and seedling counts were pooled in this study to
178 focus on broad-scale trends in regeneration.

179 We calculated three metrics of regeneration: 1) density (number of stems per hectare), 2)
180 basal area (square meters per hectare) and 3) the relative proportion of species present within a
181 plot (number of stems of a species present / number of stems of all species present). The drivers
182 and implications of changes in tree density, tree basal area and tree proportion are distinct and
183 meaningful: we used stem density to represent an important characteristic of post-fire stand
184 structure, basal area to describe trends in overall biomass and tree size and the proportion of tree
185 species present on a plot to capture stand-level patterns in post-fire tree community composition.

186 To characterize soil characteristics across the burn histories, we evaluated organic layer
187 depth and percent cover of exposed mineral soil. Organic layer depth was measured at the center

188 and at each corner of each plot. Percent cover of organic and exposed mineral soil surfaces were
189 estimated across 1-meter subplots at each corner of each site. To infer soil consumption in the
190 most recent fire, distance from adventitious roots (opportunistic, lateral roots produced after
191 initial root system development) to current soil surface was measured where snags with such
192 roots were available to sample following the approach of Kasischke and Johnstone 2005 (data
193 presented in Appendix S1: Figure S2).

194 ***Data Analysis***

195 To investigate the interactive effects of short-interval fires and landscape position on
196 conifer and deciduous regeneration, we created a series of generalized linear models to model
197 both density and basal area of conifer and deciduous regeneration. To investigate whether the
198 effects of fire interacted with topographic position to influence regeneration, we evaluated the
199 strength of an interaction term between fire and topographic position in each model. We used
200 negative binomial regression with a log link function to model conifer and deciduous density,
201 given its effectiveness in modeling overdispersed ecological count data (Lindén and Mäntyniemi
202 2011). We used a gamma distribution with a log link function to model basal area of deciduous
203 species (conifer species had insufficient basal area present in reburned plots to model).

204 Topographic attributes like slope, solar radiation and elevation have well-documented
205 roles in shaping site-level community composition (Hollingsworth et al. 2013). Based on the
206 presumed role of slope in altering local drainage conditions between upland and lowland
207 topographic positions, we tested adding slope (USGS 2019; 5m resolution) as a variable and
208 evaluated subsequent model fit using lowest AIC values (reported with other goodness of fit
209 metrics in Appendix S1: Table S5). Elevation and annual solar radiation, while important factors
210 driving tree composition in Alaska, were ultimately not included as a variable since neither

211 varied meaningfully across plots (Appendix S1: Figure S1B). We evaluated the importance of
212 each variable by comparing the cumulative evidence provided by effect sizes, standard errors and
213 confidence intervals. All GLMs were built using the ‘MASS’ package (Venables and Ripley
214 202) and all analysis, model fit, and selection were performed in R version 3.5.2 (R Core Team,
215 2019). Reported means include standard errors.

216 Because our plots are clustered by design to take advantage of natural experimental -
217 conditions, spatial autocorrelation in density and basal area among plots was assessed using
218 Moran’s I (Moran 1950) (Appendix S1: Table S3).

219 **Results**

220 Unburned plots were dominated by black spruce. Unburned upland plots had larger
221 individual conifers, as reflected by greater overall basal area (mean 0.28 m²/ha, SE 0.02), while
222 lowland unburned plots had greater density of conifers (mean 13,057 stems/ha, SE 5147).
223 Deciduous species were largely absent from unburned plots (Fig. 3).

224 ***Patterns in post-fire regeneration***

225 Density of regeneration of all species was greatest after one fire and declines in both sites
226 with additional reburning. In both sites, conifer stem density increases after one fire: upland
227 conifer stem density increased 7x after one fire (relative to unburned plots) and lowland conifer
228 stem density increased 4x after one fire (Fig. 4). However, patterns of conifer density in the two
229 sites diverged with additional reburning: upland conifer density declined by a factor of 4x after
230 two fires (relative to the single burn plots) and by 16x after three fires (relative to the twice
231 burned plots). In lowlands, conifer density continued to increase by a factor of 1x after the
232 second (relative to once-burned plots), before declining by a factor of 32x after three fires
233 (relative to twice-burned plots). Density of deciduous species increased in both sites after on fire:

234 by a factor of 164x after one fire in upland plots (relative to unburned plots), and by a factor of
235 195x after one fire in the lowland site (relative to unburned plots). In upland plots, deciduous
236 density then declined by a factor of 2x after two fires (relative to once-burned plots) and
237 continued to decline by an additional 2x after three (relative to twice-burned plots). In lowland
238 plots, deciduous density increased by a factor of 3x after two fires (relative to once-burned plots)
239 and by a factor of 2x after three fires (relative to twice-burned plots), a slower trend compared to
240 upland plots (for numerical values, see Fig. 4).

241 Regeneration of basal area followed a similar trend: after one fire, deciduous basal area
242 declines by a factor of 24x in uplands and by a factor of 20x in lowlands (compared with
243 respective unburned plots). Deciduous basal area then increases by a factor of 15x in upland
244 plots but declines by a factor of 2x in lowland plots, relative to respective once-burned plots in
245 each site. After three fires, deciduous basal area increases by a factor of 2x in upland plots and
246 by 2x in lowlands, compared to twice-burned plots (Fig. 5).

247 Composition of all burned plots was primarily deciduous species, but the specific species
248 present differed between upland and lowland sites (Fig. 6). Once-, twice- and thrice-burned
249 lowland regeneration was predominantly willow (29%, 55%, and 58% respectively) with aspen
250 emerging after the third burn (24%). Regeneration in burned upland plots differed across reburn
251 sequence: willow presence declined across reburn while birch presence increased to 63% by
252 three fires (Appendix S1: Table S4).

253 ***Post-fire soil characteristics***

254 On average, lowland organic layers were twice thicker than upland layers regardless of
255 number of reburns. The difference between the two topographic positions was largest in twice-
256 burned plots where lowland organic-layers were 3 times larger on average (Fig. 7). The decline

257 in organic layer depth occurred faster in upland plots than in lowland plots: organic layers were
258 reduced by a factor of 3x after one fire in upland plots (relative to unburned plots), but only by a
259 factor of 2x in lowland plots (Fig. 7B). After two fires, upland organic layers were smaller by a
260 factor of 2x relative to once-burned sites, while lowland organic layers were smaller by an
261 average factor of 1x. After three fires, average upland organic layers were 2 times smaller
262 compared to twice-burned counterparts, while lowland organic layers were smaller by a factor of
263 3x, indicating more organic soil layer was consumed in the third fire in lowland plots. Similar
264 trends exist in exposed mineral soil: upland plots had no exposed mineral soil in unburned plots
265 but saw an increase in the amount of exposed mineral soil, up to 100% in some thrice-burned
266 plots (Fig. 7C). Less exposed mineral soil was present in lowland plots, potentially because of
267 higher grass cover (data not shown).

268 ***Interactive effects of fire and topographic position on conifer and deciduous regeneration***

269 The most predictive model of density of regeneration of both conifer and deciduous
270 species included only number of fires and topographic position as variables with an additional
271 interaction term between the two. Including slope as an additional variable marginally improved
272 model fit of deciduous basal area, as indicated by AIC value (Appendix S1: Table S5).

273 The effect of fire on regeneration varied between topographic position and between
274 conifer and deciduous species. As expected, fire decreased density of conifer regeneration, but
275 specific reburns had different effects: three fires had a greater effect size (effect size -4.8 log
276 conifer density per fire, SE 0.59) than two fires (-2.52, SE 0.55) (Table 1). Fire had negative
277 effects on deciduous density, stronger after three fires (-1.45, SE 0.5) than after two (-0.8, SE
278 0.55) (Table 1). Both the second fire and the third had positive effects on deciduous basal area
279 (1.77 log basal area per fire, SE 0.44; and 2.98, SE 0.50 respectively) (Table 2).

280 The strength of the interactive effect between fire and topographic position differed
281 according to the metric of regeneration and according to the fire. Two fires interacted with
282 topographic position strongly to influence conifer density (effect size 2.6, SE 0.82), while the
283 effect of interaction between three fires and topographic position on conifer density was slightly
284 weaker (1.47, SE 0.83) (Table 1). The inverse relationship existed between the interaction
285 between fire and topographic position and deciduous density: the effect size of two fires
286 interacting with position was 1.84 (SE 0.82), while the effect of three interacting with position
287 was 2.0 (SE 0.83). Deciduous basal area was strongly impacted by the effect of two fires
288 interacting with topographic position (-1.64, SE 0.61), but less impacted by the interaction of
289 three fires and position, given the large standard error (-0.77, SE 0.69).

290 **Discussion**

291 Using novel empirical evidence of 3 fires in short sequence, we show that reburning-
292 triggered shifts in forest composition and structure continue beyond two fires and that new
293 effects begin to emerge with three short-interval fires. Our results suggest that the transition from
294 conifer to deciduous species documented by Brown and Johnstone 2012 and others (Beck et al.
295 2011, Hoy et al. 2016, Johnstone et al. 2010) continues to occur with additional fires.
296 Furthermore, specific species composition within deciduous trajectories differed between
297 topographic position, indicating the importance of local topography in filtering specific
298 successional outcomes. Our results suggest that not only can topographic position interact with
299 reburning to alter post-fire trajectories but that 3 reburns in sequence appears to disrupt self-
300 replacement trajectories even in a historically resilient topographical context.

301 Conifer regeneration declined with reburning in favor of deciduous species. These results
302 are consistent with trends reported in Brown and Johnstone 2012 and others, who have
303 documented a sharp decline in conifer regeneration following two fires in short sequence (I.e.,

304 Whitman et al. 2019, Johnstone and Chapin 2006). However, the extent of conifer population
305 collapse documented in this study surpasses that reported in Johnstone et al. 2010 and others:
306 Whitman et al. 2019 reported conifer regeneration in plots burned under short intervals (<17
307 years) declined by a factor of 2x compared to plots burned under more typical intervals (>30
308 years), similar to our finding that conifer recruitment declined by a factor of 3.7x after 2 fires in
309 upland plots. However, while others have documented widespread extirpation of conifer
310 regeneration after two fires in short-intervals, hinting at a regime shift, previous studies examine
311 only the effects of a single reburn event, and are limited in their ability to address the question of
312 ongoing burning. We confirm that here that ongoing burning continues to change regeneration
313 of both conifer and deciduous species, particularly even in potentially more resilient lowlands. A
314 study of single reburn events in lowland forests might capture the demonstrated slower decline in
315 conifer regeneration and presume that lowlands might be more resilient to short-interval burning.
316 Our results indicate that accounting for the effects of short-interval disturbances across
317 heterogenous landscapes like Interior Alaska requires examining ongoing change.

318 Post-fire soil characteristics differed between topographic contexts as hypothesized:
319 uplands had substantially thinner organic layers and more exposed mineral soil than lowlands,
320 but organic layer thickness decreased with greater burn frequency in both locations. Given the
321 well-documented role of burn severity in altering competitive dynamics between coniferous and
322 deciduous species in the North American boreal (Johnstone and Chapin 2006, Whitman et al.
323 2018), this variation between topographic position indicates that black spruce may retain
324 competitive advantage longer in lowlands under single fires or reburn events. However, lowland
325 plots still underwent a transition to deciduous communities linked with a removal of organic
326 layers, indicating potential resilience via initially lower soil consumption (implying lower fire

327 intensity) is limited and that, as predicted by theory, frequency of events is as important as any
328 disturbance characteristic in driving recovery trajectories (Fraterrigo et al. 2020).

329 Post-fire stand characteristics differed across reburn sequence and between topographic
330 position. Tree density and basal area were consistently higher in upland stands than lowland
331 counterparts. Greater exposed mineral soil lead to greater deciduous basal area but reduced
332 deciduous densities, indicating a more open stand structure with larger individual trees. A shift in
333 stand structure (via changes to stand density) may alter landscape characteristics like
334 aboveground carbon storage and landscape flammability. Given that fuel will play a central role
335 in ongoing boreal fire regime change, understanding the influence of altered stand structure on
336 local fuel loads and structure will be crucial to managing and predicting future fire behavior
337 (Higuera et al. 2008).

338 The shift from conifer to deciduous species occurred differently in upland and lowland
339 sites: upland reburned plots were composed of willow and birch in higher abundance and
340 densities than comparable lowland plots and experienced a decline in black spruce earlier in the
341 reburn sequence. Black spruce populations declined slower in lowland plots and were replaced
342 by aspen and willow after three fires. This divergence suggests that both site-level differences in
343 drainage conditions and reburning effects play an important initial role in determining species-
344 specific successional outcomes in boreal forests – but that the effects of reburning continue to
345 accrue after the 2nd event. Additionally, species-specific reproductive traits like asexual
346 reproduction may play an important role, which this study does not address.

347 These results are limited in spatial and temporal scale in two major ways: one, our
348 assessment of forest regeneration occurs 15-16 years post-fire, resting on the assumption that early
349 recruitment dynamics in boreal Alaskan forests remain sufficiently predictive of future

350 composition. The eventual composition of these specific sites will remain to be seen, as even low
351 densities of black spruce (for example) can infill if the interval between fires is long enough.
352 However, the bulk of evidence provided by Johnstone and Chapin 2006 and others indicate that
353 early patterns of regeneration in the boreal tend to be highly prescriptive of multidecadal
354 successional trajectories. Furthermore, the spatial extent of larger ecosystem transition in the
355 boreal remains unknown: emerging deciduous communities appear to be spatially constrained
356 within fire or reburn perimeters (Roland et al. 2019). The results of this study are similarly limited
357 in scale. However, we contribute to the growing body of evidence of site-level successional
358 trajectory disruption via short-interval reburns.

359 Our work presents several key inferences relevant to boreal forest ecology and
360 disturbance theory generally. First, low quantities of black spruce seedlings in twice- and thrice-
361 burned plots suggests a potential local extirpation of black spruce seed sources, preventing future
362 self-replacement. Second, organic soil layers in both sites were consumed during each reburn,
363 even in the wetter lowland site, leading to increased exposure of mineral soil surfaces. Finally,
364 deciduous communities emerged in both upland and lowland sites, replacing original black
365 spruce communities entirely. Together, these patterns suggest that short interval fires lead to
366 meaningful disruption of existing successional trends despite proposed local resiliency within
367 poorly drained lowland conditions, and that repeat burning in emerging deciduous post-fire
368 communities not only can occur but continues to drive community shifts towards dominance of
369 deciduous trees and shrubs partly facilitated by removal of organic soil layers and surfaces.
370 Results from this study have broad implications for transitions and trajectories of both coniferous
371 and deciduous boreal forests under climate change, as it appears the widely anticipated reduction

372 in fire return intervals will continue to change forest structure and function beyond initial short-
373 interval effects and regardless of initial local resiliency.

374 **Conclusions**

375 The effects of more frequent disturbances do not stop with the first ecosystem transition,
376 recovering communities themselves can be transformed by ongoing short-interval events.
377 Further, high frequency disturbances can drive transitions even if those occur with lower
378 intensity. For boreal forests, successional trajectories can quickly become untethered from
379 regional legacy conditions. Ongoing transformations are more in line with primary successional
380 pathways than secondary, and while wetter lowland forests are initially more resistant to
381 ecosystem transitions, that resilience is overcome by subsequent fires. The unique perspective of
382 this study demonstrates current shifts in disturbance regimes continue to drive quantitatively
383 different outcomes compared to single, short-interval events, and therefore questions regarding
384 resilience to future climate effects must explicitly consider unfolding, emerging, and ongoing
385 changes, not just snapshots in time.

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392 **Data Availability Statement**

393 Regeneration and soil datasets available on Zenodo (<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4016939>).

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Table 1. Parameters of negative binomial generalized linear models of regeneration density (stems/ha) with a log link function. Models are structured as Density = Fire + Position + (Fire * Position). Number of fires modeled as a factor. “Position” refers to topographic position.

Metric	Effect	Coeff.	SE	95% CI	z	df	p
Conifer Density	Intercept	11.64	0.39	(10.96, 12.51)	29.82	36	<.001
	Two Fires	-2.52	0.55	(-3.62, -1.42)	-4.60		<.001
	Three Fires	-4.80	0.59	(-5.96, -3.57)	-8.09		<.001
	Position	-0.17	0.57	(-1.29, 0.99)	-0.29		0.77
	2 Fires * Position	2.60	0.82	(0.98, 4.24)	3.17		<.001
	3 Fires * Position	1.47	0.83	(-0.20, 3.12)	1.77		0.08
Decid. Density	Intercept	12.6	0.39	(11.95, 13.49)	32.65	36	<.001
	Two Fires	-0.80	0.55	(-1.90, 0.29)	-1.47		<.001
	Three Fires	-1.45	0.59	(-2.61, 0.23)	-2.45		<.001
	Position	-1.49	0.57	(-2.62, 0.34)	-2.		0.18
	2 Fires * Position	1.84	0.82	(0.23, 3.48)	-2.64		0.01
	3 Fires * Position	2.00	0.83	(0.33, 3.64)	-0.31		0.76

Table 2. Parameters of gamma-distributed generalized linear models of regeneration basal area (m^2/ha) as modeled by fire, topographic position and slope with an interaction term between fire and topographic position. “Position” refers to topographic position.

Metric	Effect	Coeff.	SE	95% CI	t	df	p
Decid. Basal Area	Intercept	-0.27	0.68	(-1.43, 0.98)	-0.40	36	0.69
	Two Fires	1.77	0.44	(0.95, 2.59)	4.00		<.001
	Three Fires	2.98	0.50	(1.83, 4.03)	5.94		<.001
	Position	-1.50	0.63	(-2.68, -0.36)	-2.37		0.02
	Slope	-0.15	0.63	(-0.31, 0.03)	-1.65		0.11
	2 Fires * Position	-1.64	0.61	(-2.82, -0.45)	-2.70		0.01
	3 Fires * Position	-0.77	0.69	(-2.16, 0.70)	-1.12		0.27

552 Figure 1. Sampled wildfires and field site locations within Interior Alaska. Fire perimeters
553 displayed in color and marked with year of fire. Highways marked with black line (Dalton
554 highway in the Upland site, Steese Highway in the Lowland). Coordinates included are
555 approximate.

556 Figure 2. Pictures of study sites. A) Unburned mature black spruce stand. B) Once-burned former
557 black spruce stand, 15 years since last fire C) Twice-burned former black spruce stand, 15 years
558 since last fire. D) Thrice-burned former black spruce stand, 16 years since last fire. Labels on the
559 image describe years of fire and number of plots investigated. A-C from the upland site; D from
560 the lowland.

561 Figure 3. Density (stems/ha) and basal area (m^2/ha) of unburned reference plots in upland and
562 lowland site. A) Basal area (m^2/ha) of conifer and deciduous species in unburned upland and
563 lowland plots. B) Density (stems/ha) of deciduous and conifer individuals in unburned upland
564 and lowland plots.

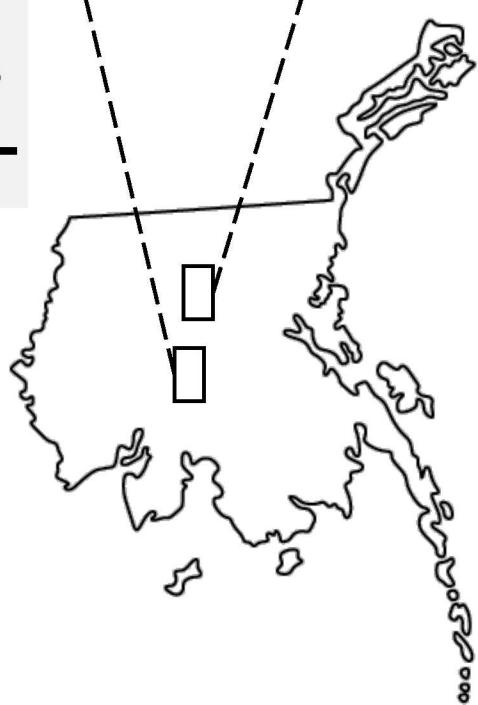
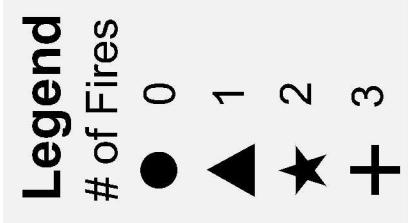
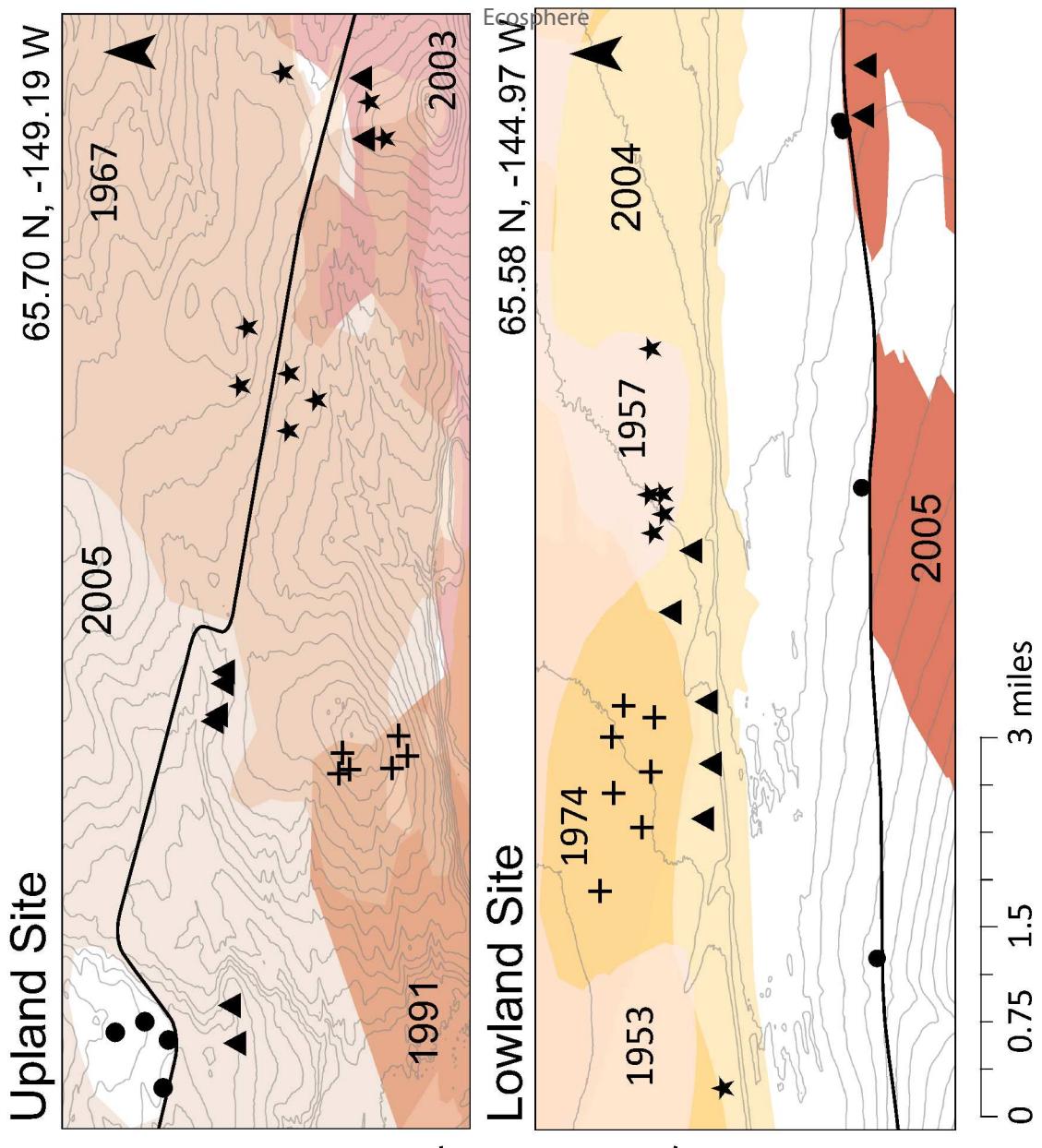
565 Figure 4. Conifer and deciduous tree density (stems/ha) across reburn sequence and between
566 upland and lowland sites. 2 outliers above 115,000 stems/ha removed for visual clarity.

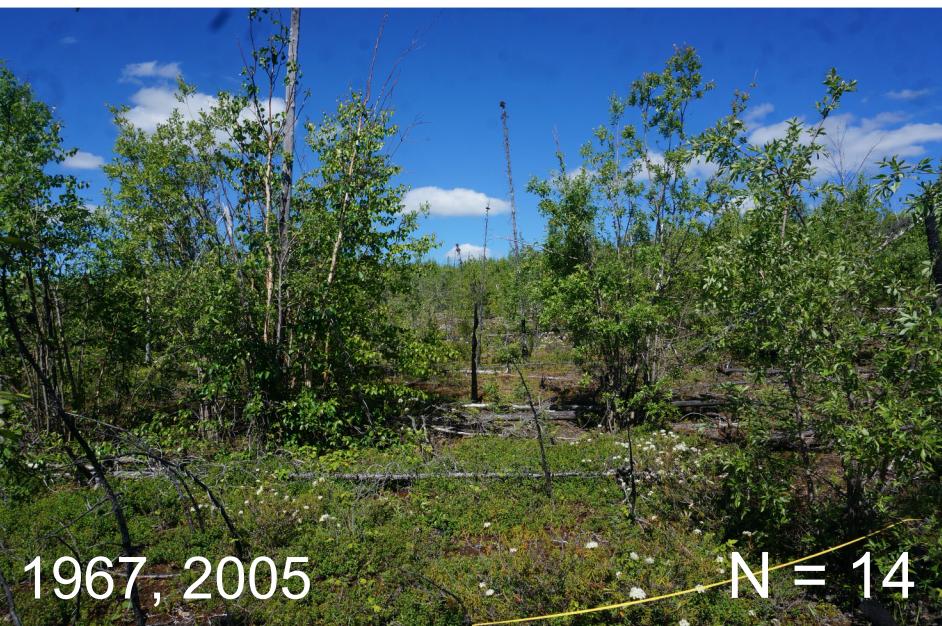
567 Figure 5. Average conifer and deciduous basal area (m^2/ha) across reburn sequence and between
568 upland and lowland sites.

569 Figure 6. Proportion of species-specific regeneration present on a plot (stems of a species divided
570 by total stems within a plot) across reburn sequence between upland and lowland plots. A)
571 Species-specific regeneration in Upland plots across reburn history. B) Species-specific
572 regeneration in Lowland plots across reburn history. Error bars represent standard deviations and
573 center points represent mean within reburn history and site. Data presented in Appendix S1:

574 Table S4.

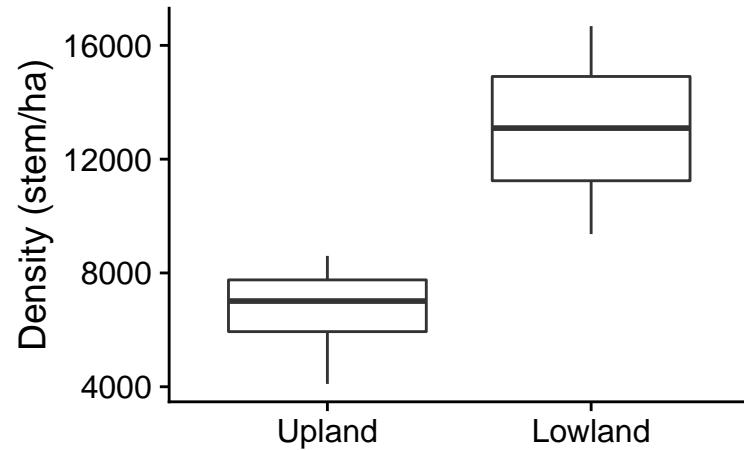
575 Figure 7. Soil characteristics in upland and lowland plots. A) Depth of organic layer (cm) in
576 upland and lowland plots according to reburn sequence. B) Percent cover of exposed mineral soil
577 in upland and lowland plots across reburn sequence.



A.**B.****C.****D.**

Conifer Density

Ecosphere



Deciduous Density

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Density (stem/ha)

400
200
0

Upland Lowland

Deciduous Basal Area

Basal Area (m²/ha)

0.6
0.4
0.2
0.1

Upland Lowland

Conifer Basal Area

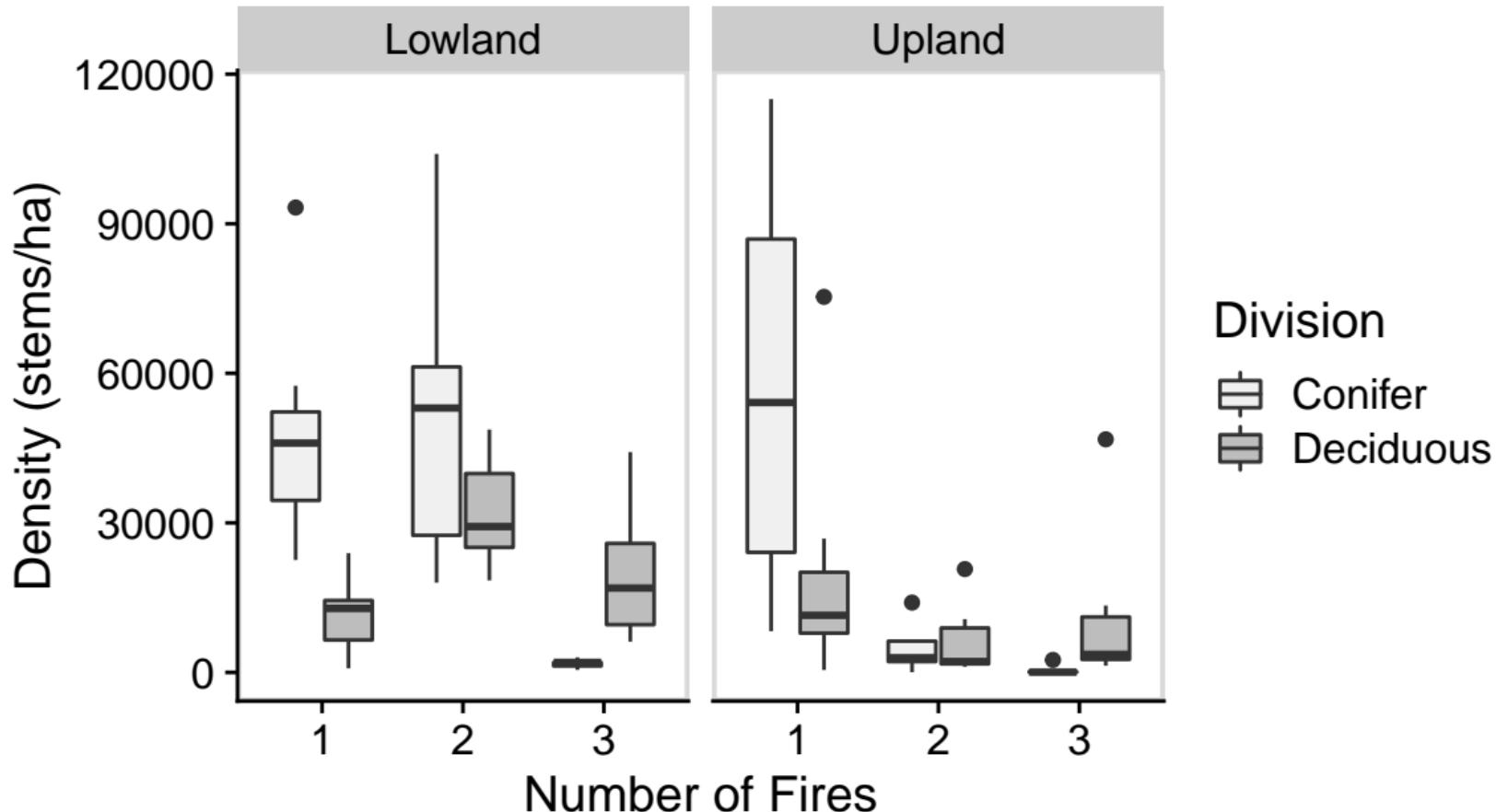
Basal Area (m²/ha)

0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1

Upland Lowland

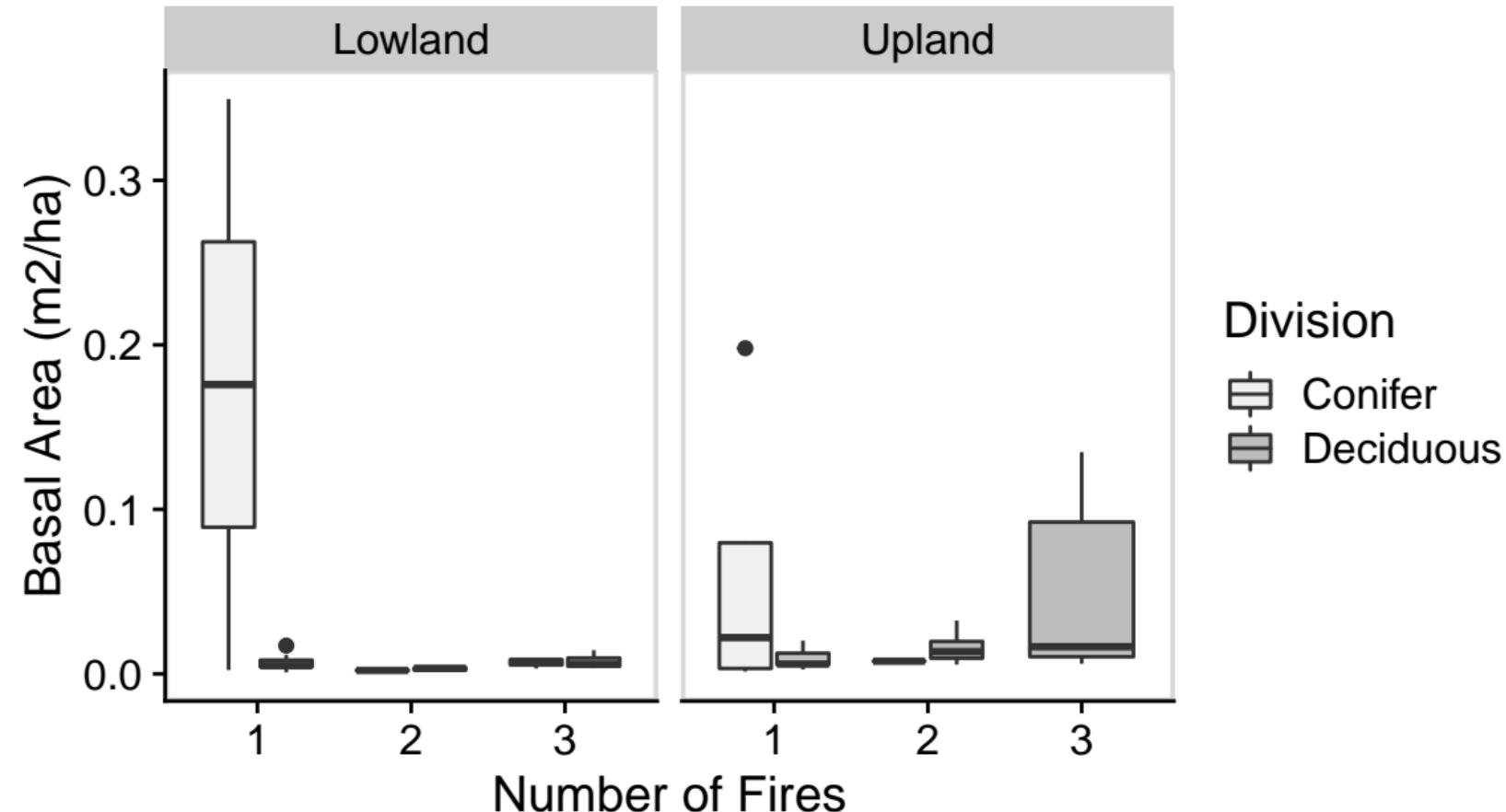
Regeneration Density across Reburns

EcospHERE

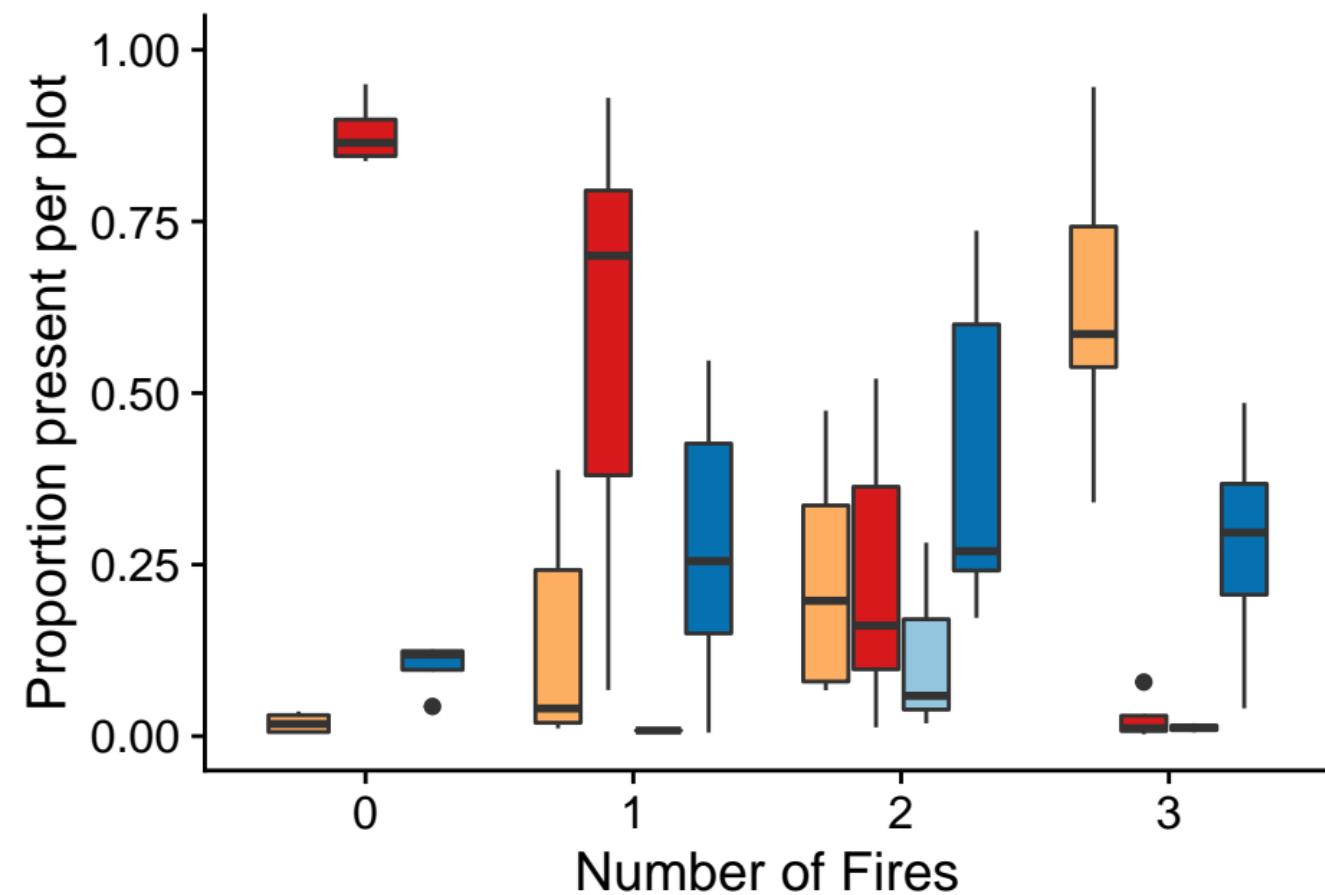


Basal Area in Burned Plots

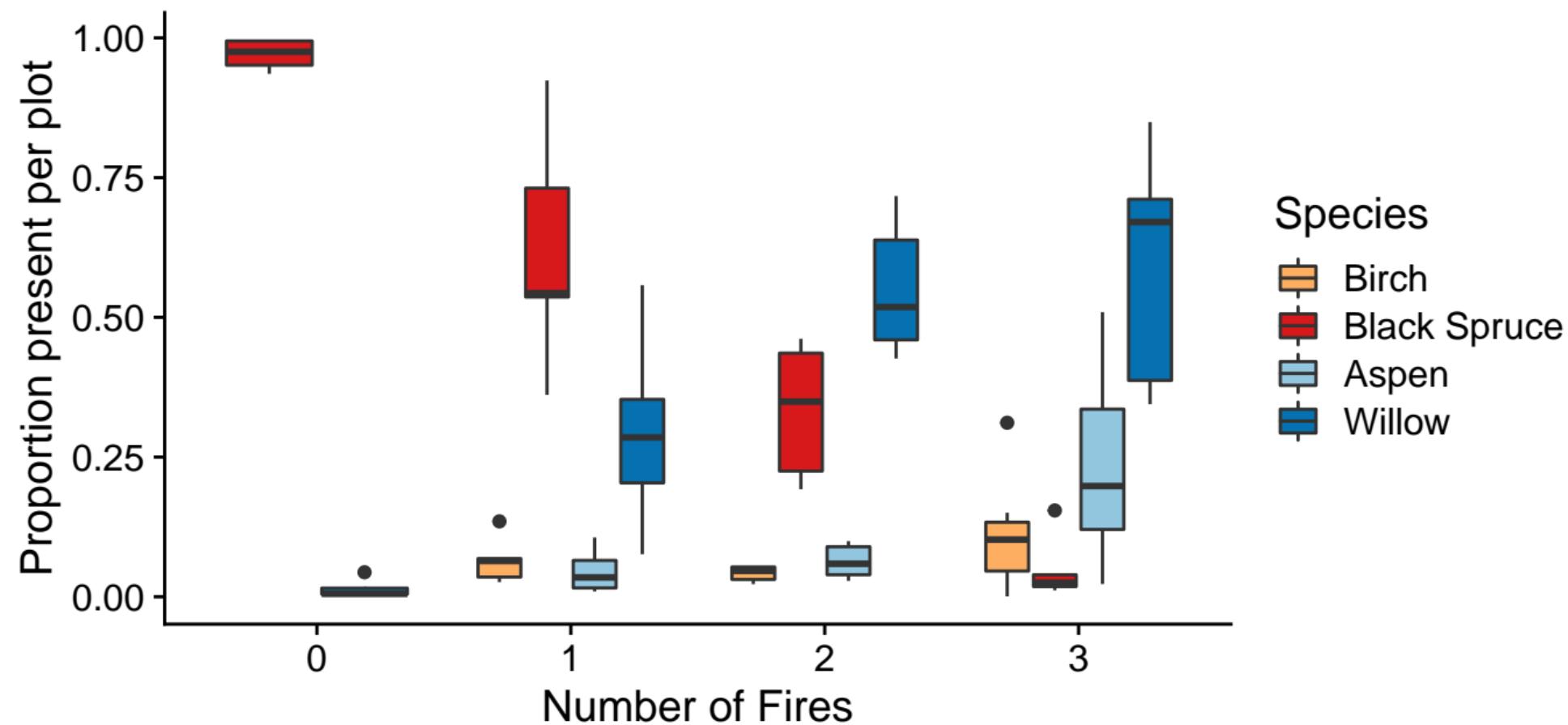
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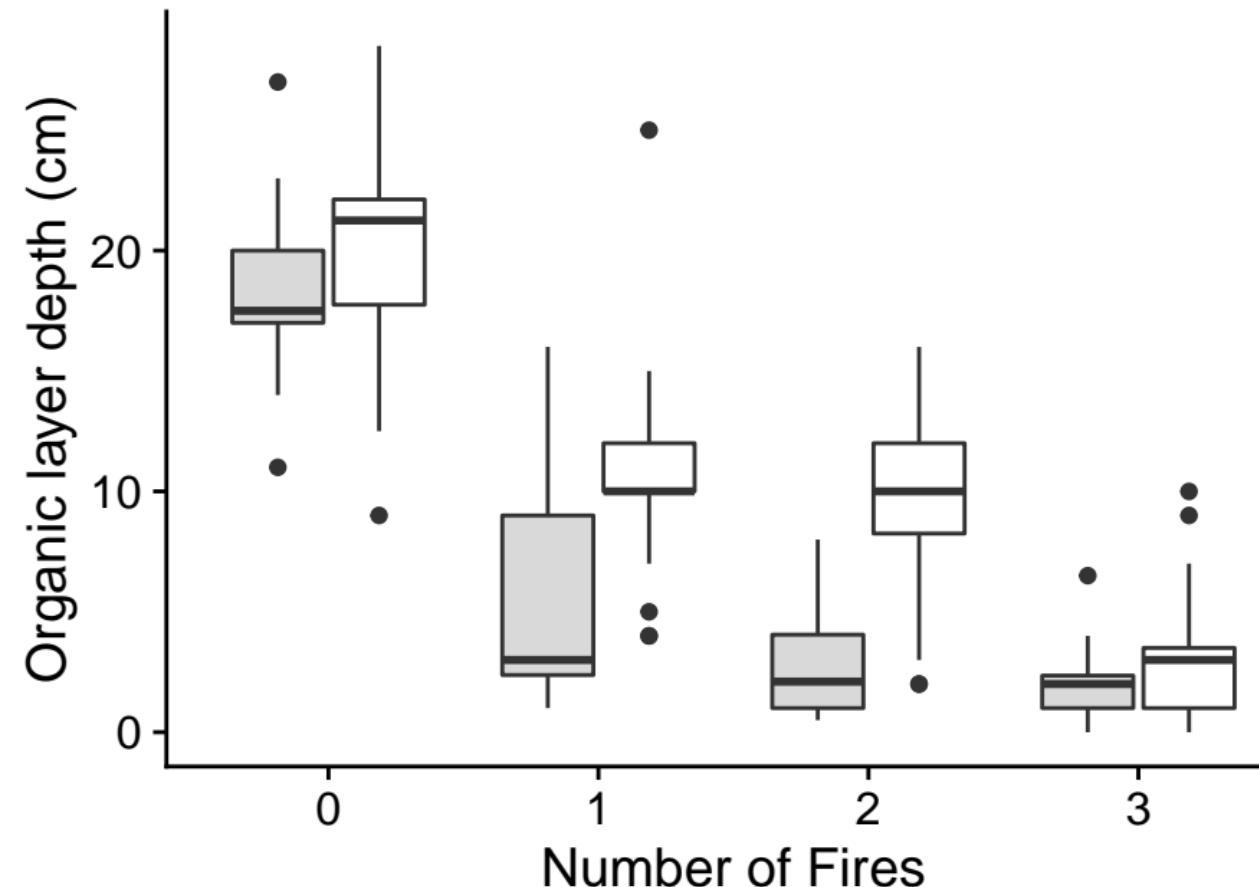
A. Upland Site
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B. Lowland Site
Ecosphere



A. Organic Layer Depth



B. Exposed Mineral Soil

