### Improving ecological insights from dendroecological studies of Arctic shrub dynamics: research gaps and potential solutions

Candice C. Power<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Jakob J. Assmann<sup>1,2</sup>, Angela L. Prendin<sup>1,2</sup>, Urs A. Treier<sup>1,2</sup>, Jeffrey T. Kerby<sup>2,3</sup>, Signe Normand<sup>1,2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Aarhus University, Ny Munkegade 114-116, DK-8000, Aarhus C, Denmark

<sup>2</sup>Center for Biodiversity Dynamics in a Changing world, Aarhus University, Ny Munkegade 114-116, DK-8000, Aarhus C, Denmark

<sup>3</sup>Aarhus Institute of Advanced Studies, Aarhus University, Høegh-Guldbergs Gade 6B, DK-8000, Aarhus C, Denmark

\*Corresponding authors, shared

ORCIDs:

Candice C. Power 0000-0002-9677-2587

Jakob J. Assmann 0000-0002-3492-8419

Angela L. Prendin 0000-0002-5809-7314

Urs A. Treier 0000-0003-4027-739X

Jeffrey T. Kerby 0000-0002-2739-9096

Signe Normand 0000-0002-8782-4154

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### More comprehensive understanding of Arctic shrub dynamics



# Improving ecological insights from dendroecological studies of Arctic shrub dynamics: research gaps and potential solutions

### 3 **Research Highlights**

We provide a perspective on how to improve ecological insights using dendroecology
 We highlight research gaps based on recent Arctic shrub dendroecological studies
 More attention should be given to inter- and intra- specific demographic responses
 More drivers and responses should be assessed at relevant spatial and temporal scales
 An interdisciplinary approach is suggested to improve cross-scale ecological insights

### 9 ABSTRACT

Rapid climate change has been driving changes in Arctic vegetation in recent decades, with 10 increased shrub dominance in many tundra ecosystems. Dendroecological observations of 11 tundra shrubs can provide insight into current and past growth and recruitment patterns, both 12 key components for understanding and predicting ongoing and future Arctic shrub dynamics. 13 However, generalizing these dynamics is challenging as they are highly scale-dependent and 14 vary among sites, species, and individuals. Here, we provide a perspective on how some of 15 these challenges can be overcome. Based on a targeted literature search of dendroecological 16 studies from 2005-2022, we highlight five research gaps that currently limit dendroecological 17 studies from revealing cross-scale ecological insight into shrub dynamics across the Arctic 18 biome. We further discuss the related research priorities, suggesting that future studies could 19 consider: 1) increasing focus on intra- and interspecific variation, 2) including demographic 20 responses other than radial growth, 3) incorporating drivers, in addition to warming, at 21 different spatial and temporal scales, 4) implementing systematic and unbiased sampling 22 approaches, and 5) investigating the cellular mechanisms behind the observed responses. 23

24 Focusing on these aspects in dendroecological studies could improve the value of the field for addressing cross-scale and plant community-framed ecological questions. We outline how 25 this could be facilitated through the integration of community-based dendroecology and 26 27 dendroanatomy with remote sensing approaches. Integrating new technologies and a more multidisciplinary approach in dendroecological research could provide key opportunities to 28 close important knowledge gaps in our understanding of scale-dependencies, as well as intra-29 and inter-specific variation, in vegetation community dynamics across the Arctic tundra. 30 Keywords: demographic responses, shrub ring-width, spatial-temporal scales, earth

observations, sampling approach, plant community-based dendroecological sampling 32

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#### 34 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Rising temperatures have been associated with increases in plant productivity across the 35 Arctic over recent decades (Bjorkman et al., 2020; IPCC Working Group II, 2022). Shrubs, a 36 dominant feature of Arctic tundra, have increased in height, biomass, cover, and abundance 37 in many areas of the biome, a process referred to as "shrubification" (Martin et al., 2017; 38 Myers-Smith et al., 2011; Tape et al., 2006). These shrub responses to warming have 39 40 potentially wide-reaching impacts such as altering herbivory interactions (Le Moullec et al., 2020; Post et al., 2021; Skarin et al., 2020), albedo (Belke-Brea et al., 2020; Blok et al., 2011; 41 42 Bonfils et al., 2012; Loranty et al., 2011), soil temperatures (Lawrence and Swenson, 2011), 43 and land-atmosphere exchanges of carbon (CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>) (Bonfils et al., 2012; Mekonnen et al., 2021). Thus, changes in shrub communities can contribute to large-scale climatic 44 feedbacks (Pearson et al., 2013), although the net effect of the combined feedbacks remains 45 46 uncertain (AMAP, 2021, 2017).

47 Despite many areas showing increases in shrub productivity, these changes are occurring heterogeneously throughout the landscape (Berner et al., 2020; Gamm et al., 2018; Guay et 48 al., 2014), with evidence of substantial differences in local and regional scale trends (Bhatt et 49 50 al., 2013; Gamm et al., 2018; Myers-Smith et al., 2015a; Phoenix and Bjerke, 2016; Post et al., 2021; Reichle et al., 2018). Currently, the mechanisms driving these different vegetation 51 responses are not fully understood. In particular, we lack knowledge on how the responses of 52 individuals scale to the responses of communities and vary across species' geographic ranges 53 (Martin et al., 2017) (Fig. 1a). This contributes uncertainty to predictions of the magnitude 54 55 and extent of ongoing local changes and their implications for climate feedbacks, as well as the structure and function of Arctic ecosystems (Kemppinen et al., 2021; Myers-Smith et al., 56 2011; Vowles and Björk, 2019). Therefore, to better understand and predict future global 57 58 climate and ecosystem changes, it is necessary to understand the complex dynamics and 59 interactions within and among Arctic shrubs and their responses to non-climatic and climatic factors from local to broad scales. This requires quantifying responses and their drivers across 60 61 temporal and spatial scales, including where along the plant structure or life stage the driver acts, in which season it acts, and if the effect is immediate or gradual (Körner and 62 Hiltbrunner, 2018). Advancements in technology and techniques across a spectrum of 63 disciplines (e.g., remote sensing, dendroanatomy, dendrometers, and phenocams) now allow 64 for investigations ranging from quantifying very fine cellular responses to broad scale 65 66 patterns in both time and space (Anderson and Gaston, 2013; Dobbert et al., 2021a; Myers-Smith et al., 2020; Parmentier et al., 2021; Prendin et al., 2020). 67 Dendroecology is a branch of dendrochronology that examines annual and sub-annual growth 68 69 patterns of woody plants in relation to ecological drivers (Fritts, 1976, 1971; Fritts and 70 Swetnam, 1989; Schweingruber, 1996). Although long recognized for having dendroecological potential (Johnstone and Henry, 1997; Wilson, 1964; Woodcock and 71

72 Bradley, 1994), the widespread adoption of dendroecology to study dwarf shrubs growing above the tree line has been relatively recent. Notably, dendroecology, has been successfully 73 applied to understand long-term temporal variation in shrub growth (Bär et al., 2008, 2006; 74 Rayback and Henry, 2005; Schweingruber and Poschlod, 2005) and recruitment (Büntgen et 75 al., 2015; Myers-Smith and Hik, 2018). Additionally, dendroanatomy has been successfully 76 used to gain knowledge on structure-function responses of plants to climate and 77 environmental variability (Fonti et al., 2010; Schweingruber et al., 2013). This discipline 78 focuses on the quantitative assessment of wood anatomical traits (e.g., lumen dimensions and 79 80 wall thickness of conducting cells, fibers, and several ray properties (von Arx et al., 2016)), and their link to the specific xylem functions (e.g., water and nutrient transport from the 81 plant-soil interface to stems and leaves, mechanical support and storage (Myburg et al., 82 83 2013)), using a dendrochronological approach (Carrer et al., 2016; von Arx et al., 2016). 84 Studies combining multiple approaches, e.g., ring-width measurements with time series of anatomical traits, have the potential to provide insight into current and past shrub dynamics 85 86 and mechanistic responses (Prendin et al., 2020; Wilmking et al., 2018), and to inform predictions about future changes (Babst et al., 2018; McMahon et al., 2011). These 87 techniques can provide information on an intra-annual to annual time scale. However, as 88 these studies typically provide data from discrete geographic locations, the findings can be 89 90 difficult to up-scale and generalize (Babst et al., 2018).

91 Geospatial analyses and remote sensing data on abiotic and biotic variables have become 92 more accessible to ecologists in recent years due to improvements in sensor design and 93 deployment, a push towards open access, cloud-computing, storage and software, and the 94 availability of ready-to-use data products (Kwok, 2018). These emerging geospatial 95 techniques and technologies could supplement and strengthen dendroecological studies to 96 better link individual and plot-based observations with landscape scale patterns (Fig. 1a). For

97 example, dendroanatomical (Prendin et al., 2020) and tree-ring (Babst et al., 2010) analyses can be combined with satellite-based remote sensing to reveal insights into impacts of insect 98 outbreaks at scales not possible with in-situ observations alone. Such multi-proxy approaches 99 100 have the potential to provide cross-scale ecological insight into how climate and environmental drivers affect plant growth and xylem structure at different temporal (i.e., 101 seasonal, annual, intra-annual) and spatial (e.g., local, regional) scales (Fig. 1b), but they 102 have not yet been widely adopted. Although possible with current technology, integrating 103 these techniques requires new perspectives in dendroecological studies (Manzanedo and 104 105 Pederson, 2019; Pearl et al., 2020) with increased attention on study design that allows for scaling responses from individuals to communities and ecosystems (Babst et al., 2018). 106 To evaluate the prevalence and potential for cross-scale perspectives in Arctic 107 108 dendroecological research, we conducted a targeted literature review to highlight key gaps in contemporary Arctic dendroecological approaches that may limit cross-scale generalization. 109 Building on these gaps, we outlined potential research priorities to improve cross-scale 110 ecological insights of Arctic shrub dynamics. Specifically, we: (1) reviewed current 111 methodologies and approaches; (2) highlighted research gaps and discussed the related 112 113 priorities; and (3) outlined potential ways forward for integrating plant community perspectives and spatio-temporal approaches spanning from dendroanatomy to geospatial 114 115 analyses and remote sensing. The highlighted research gaps and suggested ways forward are defined with respect to how dendroecological studies could contribute to the understanding of 116 cross-scale Arctic plant community dynamics, and do not reflect any criticism of the 117 individual studies included in the present review. 118

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### 120 **2. A TARGETED LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 METHODS**

We conducted a targeted literature review of studies using dendroecological methods and 122 extracted spatial and temporal information on the investigated samples, responses, and 123 drivers to obtain an overview of the research gaps that might limit cross-scale generalization 124 of dendroecological research. We included studies published between January 1st 2005 and 125 126 June 1st 2022. We searched the Scopus database for published articles including the following words in the title, abstract, or key words: 'Arctic or Oro-Arctic or tundra' and 127 'shrub or woody' and 'growth or recruitment or establishment or advancement or shrubline or 128 anatomy or xylem or lumen or fiber or vessel or dendroecology or dendrochronology or ring'. 129 Five-hundred and seventy articles were identified with this search (Appendix A). 130

### 131 2.1.1 Inclusion criteria

Of the 570 studies, 82 were included in our synthesis (Appendix B) based on the following 132 geographic and methodological criteria: The study 1) has at least one site located in the 133 Arctic, as defined by (Walker et al., 2005), or the 'Oro-Arctic' alpine tundra (Virtanen et al., 134 2016), including sites located within a 50 km buffer outside of these boundaries, to be 135 136 consistent with previous literature (e.g. (Berner et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2017)); 2) quantifies shrub growth or age using annual growth-rings or stem increments, and/or 3) 137 analyzes xylem anatomical traits. We organized the data both by study and by site (Appendix 138 139 A). If a study included multiple sites, we considered the sites as unique if: a) they were within distinct geographic locations as defined by the authors, and b) when site-specific data was 140 readily available. If multiple studies included the same site but with different analyses, the 141 site was considered more than once. When articles included sites that were inside and outside 142 of the Arctic, we only report on sites meeting our Arctic criteria. 143

We included studies that stated "shrubs" were sampled, regardless of how the authors define
a shrub, but only if methods of dendrochronology adjusted for shrubs were used (i.e., not tree
cores). The shrub species included range from prostrate (e.g., *Salix arctica* in high Arctic
Canada and Greenland (Boulanger-Lapointe et al., 2014) to tall shrubs (e.g., >3m *Alnus viridis* in West Greenland (Wilmking et al., 2018)).

### 149 2.1.2 Extracted information

150 For each included study, we recorded: 1) geographic coordinates of the study location(s); 2)

sampling strategy; 3) shrub part(s) sampled; 4) timespan of shrub growth and/or recruitment

records; 5) responses tested; and 6) drivers tested. When not given, geographic coordinates

153 were estimated based on the site description using Google Maps (<u>maps.google.com</u>).

We separated the sampling strategy into two main categories: 1) site selection (i.e., the 154 strategy used to select the specific sampling site in the landscape), distinguishing whether the 155 156 site selection was systematic or not; 2) shrub selection (i.e., the strategy used to select the specific individual shrubs to be sampled) distinguishing whether individuals were selected 157 based on specific characteristics or using a systematic/unbiased approach. Here, we consider 158 159 systematically placed plots those placed purposefully within a landscape, for example, to capture heterogeneity across an elevation gradient. We consider unbiased samples those 160 selected in a systematic way (e.g., the closest individual to a transect), and not based on plant 161 162 characteristics (e.g., the largest individual). We acknowledge that a systematic sampling design may also create biases, but, compared to the frequent dendroecological practice of 163 targeted selection based on plant characteristics, these biases are more appropriate for 164 upscaling. In this manuscript, we use the term "unbiased" to refer to this reduction in bias 165 when comparing targeted selection and systematic sampling approaches. 166

For each study we extracted the maximum timespan of shrub growth and/or recruitment based on the length of the chronology for all species combined. When the study reported the age of the oldest shrub, we included that; otherwise, we included the time span of the final chronology. When not stated, we estimated the time span from the relevant figures provided in the manuscripts.

We identified responses measured using dendrochronological methods, grouping them as: 1) 172 growth; 2) recruitment; 3) quantitative wood anatomy; 4) qualitative wood anatomy and 5) 173 mortality. Growth was quantified either by 1) measuring radial ring-width increments; 2) 174 measuring annual stem-increments (for example, measuring distances between 175 wintermarksepta (dark bands of meristem tissue) (Rozema et al., 2009) of Cassiope 176 tetragona) (Myers-Smith et al., 2015b); or 3) dividing the radius or diameter of the stem by 177 178 the number of rings to obtain the average annual growth (e.g. (Schmidt et al., 2010)) Recruitment and mortality were included only if quantified using age estimates from 179 dendroecological methods (i.e. quantifying representative age dynamics based on ring counts 180 (e.g. (Büntgen et al., 2015)). 181

We extracted information on drivers of shrub dynamics that were explicitly tested in the 182 studies. Tested drivers were grouped into nine categories: 1) air temperature, 2) precipitation, 183 3) large scale climate systems, 4) biotic factors, interactions, and disturbances, 5) geophysical 184 factors (including soil moisture), processes, and disturbances, 6) growing season length and 185 timing, 7) snow cover and depth, 8) ice dynamics, e.g., sea ice, glacial retreats or indirect 186 influences of ice caps, and 9) other (including solar-related variables) (Table 1). While some 187 of these are direct mechanistic drivers (e.g., temperature and precipitation), others are indirect 188 and proxies for mechanistic drivers (e.g., ice dynamics and climate systems). 189

Below we report our findings based on the extracted information from the publications
identified in our targeted literature search that meet our selection criteria. Since we did not
perform a systematic and comprehensive review the specific percentages relate specifically to
our criteria and may not be representative of the entire literature.

### 194 **2.1.3 Illustrations and analyses**

We used bar graphs to visualize the research gaps identified in our review. Additionally, we 195 mapped the extracted study locations in relation to the bioclimate subzones from the 196 197 Circumpolar Arctic Vegetation Map (CAVM) (Raynolds et al., 2019) with the addition of the Oro-Arctic (Virtanen et al., 2016) to visualize the spatial distribution of where drivers are 198 tested (Martin et al., 2017). Hereafter, we refer to the combined area of the CAVM and the 199 200 Oro-Arctic simply as "Arctic", "tundra", or "Arctic tundra". We also assessed how representative the study locations are with respect to the climate space of the tundra. For this 201 analysis, we retrieved mean annual temperature and annual precipitation for all study 202 locations, as well as 14,000 random locations across the Arctic tundra during the period from 203 1979-2013 using the CHELSA v1.2 bioclim dataset (Karger et al., 2017). 204

### 205 2.2 HIGHLIGHTED GAPS, RESEARCH PRIORITIES, AND POTENTIAL WAYS FORWARD

Based on our targeted literature review and the extracted information, we highlighted, what 206 207 we see, as five key research gaps that limit cross-scale generalizations in the current Arctic dendroecological literature and discuss research priorities that address each gap. The key 208 gaps and related research priorities are: 1) Knowledge of variation in shrub responses across 209 and within species is limited. Including more species and individuals would enhance our 210 understanding of inter- and intraspecific variation, 2) Shrub demographic responses to Arctic 211 212 change are not yet fully understood. Including more life history responses (such as recruitment and mortality, and their relationship to growth) would provide a more 213

comprehensive understanding, 3) Other potential drivers of shrub change aside from warming
have not been adequately explored. Increased focus on multiple drivers, their spatial and
temporal variation, and events could reveal insights into complex relationships, 4) Cross-site
and -study comparisons are limited by varying sampling methods. Systematic and unbiased
sampling of plant parts and individuals could reveal more cross-scale responses, and 5)
Insight on the structural-functional relationships behind growth trends is limited.
Incorporation of dendroanatomy could enhance this understanding.

221 2.2.1 Gap 1: Knowledge of variation in responses across and within species is limited.

222 Including more species and individuals would enhance understanding of inter- and

223 intraspecific variation.

### 224 Finding: Single species studies are the norm

Most studies assessed a dendroecological-derived response of just one species (67%), while 13% analyzed two species, 10% analyzed three to four species, and 11% analyzed over five species (Fig. 2a). While 26% (21) analyzed multiple species at the same site, only five studies used an unbiased sample from systematically placed plots. Twenty-seven studies (33%) analyzed the same species across multiple sites, though only five of these used systematic and unbiased sampling.

A total of 39 species from 12 genera were sampled across all studies. The three most studied

species were Betula nana (in 19 studies), Cassiope tetragona (in 17 studies) and Salix glauca

233 (in 15 studies). Salix was the most represented genus; eighteen different species were

included, and 44 studies considered at least one *Salix* species.

In summary, the included literature represents the most widely distributed genera of Arctic

shrubs. However, most studies focused on the same shrub taxa and investigated the response

of just one species. Relatively few (6%) used an unbiased sample to compare responses of
different species within the same sites or for the same species across multiple sites. This
leaves a gap in our ecological understanding of the variation in responses among individuals
of the same species across populations and species ranges, and of particular importance, in
responses among species within local plant communities.

### 242 Research priority: Focus on inter- and intraspecific variation across sites

Overcoming this gap requires studying multiple species at individual sites, as well as 243 studying the same species across multiple sites. Improved quantification of intra- and 244 interspecific responses is important for several reasons: First, different species might respond 245 to different drivers. For example, Weijers et al. (2018a), found that Betula nana growth in a 246 Norwegian alpine site was best explained by summer precipitation, while the growth of three 247 other species was best explained by summer temperature. Second, different species might 248 respond differently, and with different rates, to the same drivers, e.g., deciduous species have 249 250 been found to respond more rapidly to warming than evergreen ones (Demarco et al., 2014; Elmendorf et al., 2012; Gough et al., 2014). Similarly, individuals of the same species are 251 expected to respond differently to the same driver across the geographic range, e.g., 252 253 depending on local plant-plant interactions, micro-environmental conditions (Ackerman et al., 2017) or limiting resources (Post et al., 2021). Third, different species might have 254 contrasting effects on ecosystems (Cahoon et al., 2012; Post et al., 2021). For example, it has 255 been hypothesized that deciduous shrub expansion will have positive feedback on global 256 warming, in contrast to overall negative feedback caused by evergreen shrub expansion, due 257 258 in part to their lower stature and production of more recalcitrant litter (Vowles and Björk, 2019). 259

260 Steps forward: Analyzing more species and individuals, facilitated by data sharing

Future studies should represent as many individuals and species as feasible within and among 261 262 sites. Although this intensive sampling approach is costly, data sharing can alleviate some of the additional work by providing site- and species-specific chronologies to assist chronology 263 building and facilitating cross-species analyses. Myers-Smith et al. (2015a) provide an 264 265 example of such a cross-species and cross-site approach by compiling and analyzing growth data from published and unpublished shrub chronologies of 25 species sampled across the 266 Arctic-Alpine tundra. However, to use the full potential of shrub data, e.g., to study 267 268 demographic responses other than growth (see Gap 2) and the underlying cellular responses (see Gap 5), unbiased sampling (see Gap 4, cf. (Klesse et al., 2018)) and detailed metadata 269 across sites would be necessary (discussed further in section 3). 270

271 2.2.2 Gap 2: Shrub demographic responses to Arctic change are not completely

272 understood. Including more life history responses (such as recruitment and mortality,

and their relationship to growth) would provide a more comprehensive understanding.

274 Finding: Growth was the most common response investigated

In total, 89% of the studies analyzed growth, 27% recruitment, and 6% mortality. Only 18%
included both growth and recruitment (Fig. 2b, 2c), one of which also included mortality. The
shrubs in each study covered an average of 90 years (median: 84, range: 7-337; years: 16752018) (Fig. 3).

Ultimately, recruitment and mortality are understudied aspects of shrub dynamics, in terms of
responses quantified using dendrochronological methods. Additionally, there is underutilized
potential of applying these existing shrub ring time-series to gain retrospective insights into
demographic parameters.

### 283 *Research priority: Quantify growth, recruitment, and mortality*

Recruitment is the driving mechanism behind shrub expansion at a landscape to global scale, 284 285 as it is what drives new individuals to fill in gaps in the current range and to advance range limits, e.g., the northernmost shrubline (Büntgen et al., 2015; Myers-Smith et al., 2011). 286 287 While studies of recruitment are especially important for understanding range expansion, 288 increased insight on what drives mortality is important for understanding range contraction (Hampe and Petit, 2005; Lesica and Crone, 2017). Simultaneously investigating the drivers of 289 growth, recruitment, and mortality is important for gaining a more comprehensive 290 291 understanding of local plant community responses and mechanisms underlying species range dynamics (Normand et al., 2014). 292 293 Dendroecological methods have the unique ability to provide post-hoc time-series that enable the assessment of drivers of demographic responses across time, for example, linking 294 previous growth and recruitment pulses to climate (Büntgen et al., 2018, 2015). Further 295 296 investigation of the drivers of growth and recruitment in long time-series is important for 297 several reasons. First, what drives growth and recruitment is not always the same. For example, Salix spp. growth in Yukon, Canada was best explained by variation in summer 298 299 temperatures while recruitment pulses were best explained by variation in winter temperatures (Myers-Smith and Hik, 2018). Second, drivers of recruitment vary among sites 300 and species. For example, while winter temperature drives variation in recruitment in the 301 Yukon (Myers-Smith and Hik, 2018), increasing summer temperatures have been found to 302 drive recruitment in eastern Greenland (Büntgen et al., 2015). 303

## 304 Steps forward: Adjust sampling strategies to obtain demographic data from shrub 305 chronologies

306 Obtaining data on age dynamics requires a different sampling approach than traditionally used for growth data. To establish retrospective demographic time series, it is necessary to 307 308 sample a large and unbiased subset of the population to get an accurate estimate of the age 309 structure. This also requires sampling of the oldest part of the shrub to obtain the maximum 310 age estimation for each individual. Additionally, shrub mortality across life stages could be quantified, by, e.g., long-term monitoring of individuals in permanent plots (such as with a 311 312 long-lived herb in (Edelfeldt et al., 2019)) or systematically collecting dead shrubs and dating their year of death by using dendroecology or radio-carbon dating of their outermost ring (cf. 313 (Pizano et al., 2014). High-resolution landscape photomosaics, captured from overlooks with 314 phenocams or drones can also provide valuable baselines for identifying periods before/after 315 recruitment/mortality pulses. Taken in sequence over many years at long-term monitoring 316 317 sites, these data can provide landscape-scale insights into such processes.

# 2.2.3 Gap 3: Other potential drivers of shrub change aside from warming have not been adequately explored. Increased focus on multiple drivers, their spatial and temporal variation, and events could reveal insights into complex relationships.

321 Finding: Summer warming was the most common driver investigated

Most studies focused on climate as the main driving factor, with 76% and 53% of the studies investigating summer temperature and precipitation, respectively (Fig. 2e, Table 1). In total, we identified 39 different drivers, but most of these have been included in only 1 study each (mean: 7.8, median: 2, range: 1-62) (Table 1). Relating to the limited temporal availability for the different groups of drivers (Appendix C), time-series were only used for a subset of the drivers (e.g., climate, sea ice) while many drivers were assessed by average site characteristics. Furthermore, most studies focus on responses to mean conditions and trendswith only 21% considering extreme abiotic or biotic events (Fig. 2h).

The focus on few climatic drivers leaves a gap in our ecological understanding of how the climate sensitivity of shrubs is influenced by other factors including micro-environmental conditions, plant-plant and trophic interactions, and mostly overlooks the effects of extreme events, such as icing or the loss of snow cover in winter (Phoenix and Bjerke, 2016).

### 334 *Research priority: Investigate a variety of potential drivers*

335 Closing this gap requires more studies to focus on the interaction between shrub responses and variation in abiotic and biotic drivers across time and space, including both trends and 336 events. Consideration of time-series of non-climatic drivers is important for several reasons. 337 First, although climate has long been known to affect shrub growth, considerable variation 338 between sites has been observed (Myers-Smith et al., 2015a). With a decoupling observed 339 between tree growth and climate in recent decades (Martin et al., 2017; Wilmking et al., 2020), it is clear 340 there are other driving and limiting factors to be considered, e.g., soil moisture has been 341 identified as a key limiting factor for shrub growth and driver of variation among Arctic sites 342 (Ackerman et al., 2017; Myers-Smith et al., 2015a). 343

Second, the climatic data frequently used is often not ecologically meaningful in terms of 344 spatial and temporal relevance to the actual conditions impacting shrub growth (Körner and 345 Hiltbrunner, 2018). For instance, the growing conditions experienced by low-lying shrubs, 346 where much of the growth occurs near the soil surface, likely differs from the annual mean 347 temperatures recorded 2m above ground kilometers away from the sampled shrub. In 348 addition, the same conditions may have very different consequences on seedlings in early 349 spring compared to dormant stems in the winter. Thus, recording of the actual growing 350 conditions at the relevant scale for shrub growth as well as the relevant timing in relation to 351

phenology and life stage is essential to gain a holistic understanding of the drivers behindshrub growth.

Third, responses of Arctic shrubs to abiotic and biotic disturbances are understudied even 354 though both have been identified as important co-drivers for tundra vegetation growth and 355 expansion (Myers-Smith et al., 2011). For example, wildfires may have greater effect on 356 357 alder recruitment than temperature in Canada (Lantz et al., 2010); defoliation events due to insect outbreaks influence the climate sensitivity of Salix glauca and Alnus viridis growth in 358 western Greenland (Prendin et al., 2020; Wilmking et al., 2018); and the presence of large 359 herbivores alters shrub response to warming in western Greenland (Post et al., 2021; Post and 360 Pedersen, 2008). 361

### 362 Steps forward: Utilize in-situ and remote sensing-derived data

Although growth time series can span many decades, we typically lack such temporal data for potential ecological covariates (e.g., temperature, precipitation, length of growing season, etc.) (Fig. 3, Appendix C). This is due to either the lack of long-time meteorological station data or local environmental variation (e.g., soil moisture) only being measured at the time of sampling. Remote sensing may be used to overcome this gap in some cases (further discussed in Section 3).

Various sources of remote sensing data can be used to measure or estimate most, but not all, of the drivers identified in our review at least to some degree (Table 1). Contemporary satellite-derived measures (e.g., such as indices of soil moisture or topography variables based on satellite-derived digital elevation models) can provide information at grain sizes suitable for cross-site and increasingly also intra-site studies. These measures, including gridded datasets, provide opportunities to incorporate the potential covariates and scales of inquiry needed to better identify and evaluate ecological drivers. For example, they can provide information about spatial and temporal patterns of disturbance events or maps of
historical influences on contemporary ecological processes (Babst et al., 2010; Prendin et al.,
2020).

While gridded datasets and weather stations can provide valuable information on trends 379 within sites and relative differences among sites, the conditions experienced by low-lying 380 381 shrubs can be drastically different than those quantified using such methods. Therefore, to truly understand the mechanisms behind shrub responses, quantification of the growing 382 conditions at the relevant spatial and temporal scales for the shrub is necessary (Körner and 383 Hiltbrunner, 2018). Many downscaling approaches are emerging in the literature (e.g. 384 Microclima (Maclean et al., 2018)) but they remain unvalidated and little used in published 385 empirical dendroecological studies to date. Recording *in-situ* microsite growing conditions is 386 387 now more feasible and affordable through recent sensor developments, e.g., measuring synchronous soil moisture, as well as soil, surface, and air temperature using specialized 388 loggers (e.g., Tomst TMS-4 (Wild et al., 2019)), and can reveal patterns not discernable with 389 the more common macro-site data (Lembrechts et al., 2020). 390

### **2.2.4 Gap 4: Cross-site and -study comparisons are limited by varying sampling**

methods. Systematic and unbiased sampling of plant parts and individuals could reveal
 more cross-scale responses

### 394 Finding: Sampling methods varied between studies and sites

Sampling efforts vary across climatic (Fig. 4a) and geographic (Fig. 4b) space for all drivers
and responses. Less than half (43%) of the included studies systematically selected sampling
sites and even fewer (33%) sampled shrub individuals using an unbiased approach (Fig. 2f).
When considering site and shrub selection combined, 23% of studies sampled shrubs using
unbiased criteria in systematically chosen sites, and 2% selectively sampled shrubs in non-

400	systematically chosen sites (Fig. 2f). The majority of studies (82%) analyzed either root
401	collars or stems, while only 12% included below ground parts (Fig. 2g). Most studies (44%)
402	analyzed one shrub part, while fewer analyzed two or three shrub parts (26% and 11%) (Fig.
403	2g).

While sites were distributed across the Arctic, responses and drivers were not all assessed
evenly across regions and bioclimatic zones (Fig. 4), thus potentially biasing our
understanding of ongoing changes across the Arctic (Metcalfe et al., 2018). Additionally,
differences among sampling techniques (shrub and site selection and shrub part sampled)
make it challenging to compare data and draw generalizable conclusions from different
studies.

410 Research priority: Implement sampling approaches that allow for comparison of shrub
411 responses across individuals and sites

Closing this gap requires sampling that captures the variation across the tundra biome, both in 412 shrub responses and in environmental conditions. Unbiased sampling is important in relation 413 to several research topics. First, while it is common in dendroecological studies to sample the 414 largest individuals in the attempt to maximize chronology length, this approach does not give 415 insight into the range of responses in a population. Trees selected to maximize climate signal 416 have been found to overestimate climate sensitivity (Klesse et al., 2018), which can 417 418 potentially skew our understanding of ongoing and future responses to climate change. In generally harsh environments such as the Arctic, we might further expect the tallest/oldest 419 individuals to grow and survive at favorable and protected microsites. To our knowledge such 420 biases have not yet been directly tested for Arctic shrubs. 421

422 Second, different shrub parts are sampled across different sites and studies (Fig. 2g) (Ropars
423 et al., 2017). This non-uniform sampling is problematic when attempting to generalize

findings and compare datasets because shrub climate sensitivity is non-uniform within 424 individuals (Ropars et al., 2017; Shetti et al., 2018) thus hindering accurate cross- individual 425 and site comparisons. While serial sectioning of above and below parts is well established 426 427 and recommended to aid with cross-dating (Bär et al., 2006; Buchwal et al., 2013; Kolishchuk, 1990; Myers-Smith et al., 2015b; Wilmking et al., 2012), it is less common to 428 use these sections to compare growth sensitivities along the length of the stem and roots to 429 assess intra-individual variation. Notably, below ground relationships remain understudied, 430 despite most of Arctic plant biomass occurring below ground (Iversen et al., 2015; Mokany et 431 al., 2006) and being especially important for soil dynamics and carbon storage. 432

433 Steps forward: Representative sampling of sites and individuals

Representative sampling of sites and individuals can be reached through standardized
protocols, data sharing, and the use of remote sensing derived stratifications as the basis for
dendroecological sampling designs. This will ultimately facilitate the selection of comparable
sections, individuals and sampling sites that cover the ecological variation of interest for the
specific study questions (discussed further in Section 3).

### 2.2.5 Gap 5: Insight on the structural-functional relationships behind growth trends is limited. Incorporation of dendroanatomy could enhance this understanding

### 441 Finding: Few studies assessed functional mechanisms behind growth trends

In the included studies, 10% (8) of the studies assessed xylem anatomy, with seven assessing quantitative (i.e., cell lumen area, cell grouping and cell wall thickness) and one assessing qualitative (reaction wood and scars) anatomical features (Fig. 2b). Out of these eight studies, one assessed three responses (growth, recruitment, and qualitative wood anatomy); five assessed growth and quantitative wood anatomy; and two focused solely on quantitative wood anatomy (Fig. 2c). In summary, few studies combine assessment of xylem traits
together with ring widths, leaving a gap in our understanding in the mechanisms behind the
variation of intra- and inter- individual responses to ecological drivers.

450 *Research priority: Investigate cellular mechanisms behind growth responses* 

Closing this gap requires analyses of shrub responses at a cellular level to fully understand 451 growth trends. Xylem functional traits (e.g., the ones related to hydraulic transport and 452 mechanical support) have been shown to provide valuable information on functional and 453 structural adaptation (Fonti et al., 2010). First, while ring widths quantify annual growth, 454 anatomical traits reveal insights of plant functioning on an intra-annual scale (von Arx et al., 455 2016) (further discussed in Section 3.2). Second, anatomical traits may reveal shrub 456 responses to growing conditions that are not detectable with just annual ring widths. For 457 example, Buras et al. (2017) found that cell wall thickness, but not ring width, in Juniperus 458 communis ssp. nana in Kobbefjord (southwest Greenland) was significantly correlated with 459 460 Greenland Ice Sheet melt. It is possible that no significant relationship was found with ring 461 widths due to a higher sensitivity of radial growth to episodically occurring moth outbreaks (Buras et al., 2017). Third, anatomical features can impact the climate-growth relationship. 462 For example, Nielsen et al. (2017) found that Betula nana in western Greenland optimized 463 growth by increasing its hydraulic conductivity. These examples demonstrate how 464 dendroanatomy can be incorporated into dendroecological studies to lead to a better 465 understanding of shrub responses and the mechanisms behind them. 466

467 Steps forward: Adjust dendroecological protocols to incorporate anatomical analyses

Although still uncommon, recent studies have shown the potential for quantifying xylem
anatomical traits in dendroecological shrub studies. The inclusion of such analyses can give a

470 more comprehensive picture of changes that occur within shrubs and can allow for

471	estimations of future changes in the community, for example, why some species or
472	individuals thrive more than others at a given site (Huang et al., 2021). Notably, linking
473	anatomical features and their relative position within growth rings to variables of interest can
474	provide further mechanistic understanding behind the cellular responses at a higher (intra-
475	annual) temporal resolution (Fonti et al., 2010; Lenz et al., 2013). Incorporating such
476	microscopic features into dendroecological studies requires careful sample preparation
477	(Gärtner et al., 2015) and techniques (von Arx et al., 2016) that can be included in protocols
478	that have already been implemented for the small size of shrub rings (Schweingruber et al.,
479	2013). In addition to dendroanatomy, the field is further moving towards fine-scale analyses
480	with advancements in technology and techniques, for example, using high-precision
481	dendrometers to capture variations in shrub stems at unprecedented resolutions (Dobbert et
482	al., 2021b, 2021c).

483

## 484 3. SYNTHESIS: CROSS-SCALE INTEGRATION FROM CELLS TO SATELLITES 485 TO IMPROVE OUR UNDERSTANDING OF ARCTIC SHRUB COMMUNITY 486 DYNAMICS

Our targeted review summarizes the methodologies used in recent Arctic dendroecological 487 studies. Despite the numerous recent advances in the field, we found that in our selected 488 literature: a) most studies focused on how the growth of a limited number of species is 489 490 affected by trends in specific climatic drivers, mostly summer temperature and precipitation (Gaps 1-3), b) sampling is not uniform across geographic or climatic gradients (Gap 4), and 491 c) only few studies investigate several plant parts and the mechanisms behind the observed 492 493 shrub responses (Gap 4, 5). More generally, this reflects a field that is producing diverse and informative research, but few studies that are specifically designed to produce cross-scale 494 insights. To address this, we propose that research priorities should more often encompass the 495 496 quantification of additional responses (e.g., growth, recruitment, and mortality), and their

cellular mechanistic underpinnings, of a range of plant parts, individuals and species sampled
unbiasedly within and across sites. Doing so will require comprehensive sampling; cellular
analyses; and data on trends and events of multiple drivers derived from *in-situ* and satellitebased measurements. This would ultimately allow for linking fine-scale individual shrub
responses to large-scale trends and events occurring across the tundra landscapes and biome.
However, conducting such multidisciplinary studies is challenging and requires a synergetic
approach.

504 One possible approach to upscale *in-situ* information to larger scales is to combine emerging 505 approaches in dendroanatomical and remote sensing analyses with a plant community-based 506 perspective on dendroecological sampling. By presenting this approach we hope to inspire 507 more dendro and Arctic ecologists to adopt spatially unbiased, systematic, and cross-scale 508 sampling methodologies, which we think are needed to further our ecological understanding 509 of shrub dynamics across the rapidly changing Arctic.

In the following subsections we briefly outline the three main components of the proposed
synergetic approach: dendroanatomical analyses (section 3.1); remote sensing and geospatial
analyses (section 3.2), and community-based dendroecological (CBDE) sampling (section
3.3) (Fig. 5). We then conclude with a synthesis of the approach (section 3.4) and provide
examples of ecological questions that such an approach can address (section 3.5).

### 515 3.1. Dendroanatomy as a key to understand the cellular mechanistic underpinnings 516 behind growth responses at inter-annual level

517 Dendroanatomical analyses, based on quantitative wood anatomy, will provide novel and high-518 resolution information from dated woody plant annual rings (Fig. 5f) (Fonti et al., 2010) and 519 insight in the cellular mechanistic underpinnings behind inter-annual growth responses (Gap 520 5). Adjustments in the xylem structure remain permanently fixed and chronologically archived in the annual growth-rings (Fonti et al., 2010). Thus, they provide an explicit time record of
structural and functional responses, linking biological processes and plant functioning (Fonti
and Jansen, 2012). The analysis of xylem structure, therefore, allows to reconstruct growth
dynamics under different climatic and environmental conditions over decades and even
centuries (von Arx et al., 2016).

While growing, plants continuously adjust their structure to achieve an optimal balance of 526 carbon costs for the competing biomechanical and hydraulic requirements that sustain 527 transpiration and thus carbon assimilation (Prendin et al., 2018a). The axial organization of 528 529 cells follows a pattern common to all vascular plants (Anfodillo et al., 2013; Olson et al., 2014). Conduits progressively increase in diameter from the apex towards the stem base, which 530 minimizes the adverse effect of height growth on pathway length resistance (Carrer et al., 531 532 2014). This pattern is also reflected radially with the conduits increasing in dimension from the pith outwards (Carrer et al., 2014), but largely stable during ontogeny (Prendin et al., 2018b). 533 To disentangle how climatic and environmental factors are influencing the structural plant 534 development it is fundamental to use an appropriate standardization procedure to remove the 535 hydraulic-path length effect (Lechthaler et al., 2019) on the different anatomical traits (Prendin 536 et al., 2018b). 537

The recent advancements in methods and standard protocols (Gärtner and Schweingruber, 2013; von Arx et al., 2016), automated image-analysis systems (von Arx et al., 2013; von Arx and Carrer, 2014; von Arx and Dietz, 2005) and processing using artificial intelligence (Resente et al., 2021) allow to significantly increase the number of measured anatomical features, while also reducing the time required for the analysis. Nevertheless, the establishment of the new quantitative wood anatomy network (Q-NET) reflects the need of a growing community to share knowledge and experience, but also to advance methodologies (Resente et al., 2021) and to profit from interdisciplinary collaborations to tackle broader ecological
questions at multiple temporal and spatial scales (von Arx et al., 2021).

## 547 3.2 Incorporating remote sensing and geospatial analyses to promote cross-scale 548 understanding

Remote sensing and geospatial analyses are essential tools for linking site-based drivers and 549 responses to ecological patterns that span across spatiotemporal scales that are infeasible to 550 study with *in-situ* measurements. There are a variety of available remote sensing products and 551 approaches, spanning from direct measures of spectral or structural properties of a landscape 552 to more derived products. In the approach proposed here, remote sensing contributes to 553 bridge Gap 3 (lack of drivers studied) and 4 (lack of multi-site analyses) by allowing for: 1) 554 the selection of representative sampling of shrub individuals, within study sites, based on 555 landscape stratification; and 2) the collection of additional data on vegetation responses and 556 potential drivers at relevant scales to assess shrub responses to a wide range of variables. 557 These two aspects are discussed in further detail below. 558

The landscape of an Arctic study site might include large environmental variation at different 559 scales due to topography and small-scale heterogeneity (Fig. 5a,b). A useful method for the 560 selection of representative study sites is to stratify the landscape to select locations that 561 represent the variation of the relevant co-variates based on the ecological questions and 562 drivers of interest. Methodologies that classify and stratify vegetation as well as 563 environmental parameters such as climate and soil moisture are well established at global, 564 regional (Lara et al., 2018; Raynolds et al., 2019), and local scales (Bartsch et al., 2020; 565 Boelman et al., 2016). As an example, landscapes can be stratified based on elevation (e.g., 566 using satellite-derived digital elevation models), proxies for plant available water (e.g., using 567

normalized difference water index) and vegetation productivity (e.g., using normalised
difference vegetation index, NDVI) (Fig. 5a,c).

Additionally, remote sensing can be used to collect data on a range of potential drivers as 570 well as on vegetation changes. Satellite-derived indices have provided evidence of 571 widespread Arctic vegetation change, for example, increasing NDVI values show a greening 572 of the Arctic tundra in many regions (Berner et al., 2020). Drones (Assmann et al., 2020; 573 Cunliffe et al., 2020; Fraser et al., 2016; Siewert and Olofsson, 2020), phenocams 574 (Richardson et al., 2018), and repeat photography (Myers-Smith et al., 2019a; Tape et al., 575 2006) can be utilized to capture fine-scale patterns and dynamics of Arctic tundra 576 communities to bridge scale gaps between site- and satellite-based data. For example, drone 577 flights over a sampling area can obtain high-resolution (centimeter-scale) visual, 578 579 multispectral and thermal imagery, and detailed digital elevation models using drone-based light detection and ranging (LiDAR) or structure from motion (SfM) photogrametry. 580 Challenges and opportunities using satellite imagery and its interpretation in the Arctic 581 (Beamish et al., 2020; Berner et al., 2020; Myers-Smith et al., 2020) along with the 582 challenges and opportunities for combining dendroecological studies of trees with remote 583 584 sensing (Babst et al., 2018) have been recently discussed in more detail. These studies also 585 highlight the importance of ensuring the limitations and intricacies of remote sensing 586 measures are accounted for in the analyses and interpretation of the acquired data, 587 particularly with reference to scale and proxies. In addition, there is a need for continued updating of dendrochronologies (Babst et al., 2017; Larson et al., 2013) as they can quickly 588 lag behind the recent rapid environmental changes and most current remote sensing datasets 589 590 (Fig. 3).

#### 591 **3.3** A plant community-based perspective for dendroecological studies

592 Community-based dendroecological (CBDE) sampling can be used to increase understanding 593 of shrub growth, expansion, and demographics (Gap 2) and how the responses of shrub individuals, species, and communities relate to micro-environmental conditions, plant-plant 594 interactions, and larger scale climatic factors (Gap 1, Gap 3). Yet, it has not been widely 595 596 implemented (but see, for example, (Büntgen et al., 2015)). This CBDE approach focuses on 597 collecting a subset of shrubs that is representative of the study site (Gap 4). This implies, however, sampling a larger number of individuals at both plot- and site-level than what is 598 599 typical in dendro-based protocols. Using systematic unbiased sampling strategies of a large number of individuals (Fig. 5b,d) will allow for assessing within-population variation and age 600 dynamics, thus allowing for the study of retrospective growth and establishment patterns 601 (Fig. 5f). Compared to a sampling strategy that focuses on the largest individuals, unbiased 602 sampling might result in a shorter chronology with more variation in climate-growth patterns. 603 604 It will, however, be better suited for answering ecological questions on shrub communities (e.g., see section 3.5). To assess demographic responses, it is essential to get the best estimate 605 possible of shrub ages by extracting complete shrubs to collect the root collar. Furthermore, 606 607 sampling of the whole individuals allows for assessment of growth responses of different shrub parts (Ropars et al., 2017; Shetti et al., 2018) and quantification of biomass (Berner et 608 al., 2015). In addition, we suggest collecting a range of *in-situ* data both on the sampled 609 individuals and the surrounding growing conditions. Depending on research questions, such 610 data could include information on functional traits, e.g., plant height and specific leaf area 611 (Fig. 5e), the exact location of the sampled individual, vegetation cover, soil condition, and 612 micro topography. 613

#### 614 **3.4** Synthesis of synergetic approach

In summary, the core of our proposed synergetic approach is to collect a representative 615 616 sample of shrubs from across and within environmental gradients by stratifying the landscape using remote sensing tools and geospatial analyses. This will allow for cross-scale 617 618 investigations and demographic assessments of shrub communities and individuals (i.e., 619 contributing to bridging Gap 1 and 4). While excavating entire shrubs and collecting both 620 above and below ground parts allows for the collection of the oldest part of the shrub (the root collar) which is necessary for age estimation, this also provides the opportunity to assess 621 622 intra- individual variation in responses to various drivers obtained from remote sensing and *in-situ* data (Gap 2-4). Combined with detailed analyses of cellular responses and functional 623 traits (e.g., stem, root, leaf), this would allow for multidisciplinary studies linking different 624 responses and ecosystem functions across time and space (Gap 5). 625

Our approach is not without limitations, mainly due to the inherent difficulties when working 626 627 with tiny and irregular growth rings of Arctic shrubs and the costly workload involved with collecting and analyzing large numbers of individuals from remote locations. However, 628 making data comparable across sites and studies could help alleviate some of the practical 629 630 and logistical constraints of data collection by facilitating further collaboration and data sharing (e.g. through open access repositories). Additionally, the approach can and should be 631 adjusted to better suit particular research questions, needs, and constraints. For example, if 632 long and clear time-series are required, typical in dendroclimatic studies, CBDE sampling can 633 be supplemented by additionally collecting the largest individuals at a site - as long as such 634 selectively sampled individuals are clearly marked and are not taken into account in 635 demographic assessments requiring representative sampling. 636

637 To facilitate synergetic integration of dendroanatomy, remote sensing, and CBDE-sampling across sites, there is a need for standardized analytical methods and detailed metadata. This is 638 especially important since shrub-rings and anatomical features are not uniform within 639 individuals. Standardized sampling, sample preparation, and analyses will help with 640 disentangling environmental effects from axial trends of xylem anatomical traits (Anfodillo et 641 al., 2013; Carrer et al., 2014; Lechthaler et al., 2019; Olson and Rosell, 2013) and shrub-642 rings. The goal of this being to make data comparable between sampled individuals, sites 643 (Lechthaler et al., 2019), and growth forms (e.g., climbing, prostrate etc.). Extensive 644 645 metadata with information on how the plant was selected (Klesse et al., 2018), where on the plant the wood was sampled, and distance of the sample to the shoot apex (Fig. 5e) 646 (Lechthaler et al., 2019; Olson et al., 2021) should be included in all studies. Recording 647 648 coordinates of the location of each collected individual will facilitate the integration of satellite derived environmental data. Finally, recommended methods of microsection 649 preparation and measurements of shrub rings (Myers-Smith et al., 2015b) should be followed, 650 giving attention to prepare high quality microsections which will allow quantification of 651 anatomical features such as lumen area, cell-wall thickness, and the number and distribution 652 of the main cell types (von Arx et al., 2016). 653

654

We hope the approach presented here can be adopted in future studies to further our ecological understanding of shrub dynamics across the rapidly changing Arctic. The wealth of data that can be attainable with such synergic approaches will allow addressing a larger variety of questions and will foster collaboration both within the field of dendroecology and between dendroecology and other scientific fields.

### 660 **3.5 Examples of key ecological questions that could be addressed**

661 The synergetic approach can be used to answer a wide range of interdisciplinary questions

and can be adjusted to fit different needs, here we highlight three examples:

- 663 *Example 1: Linking ring widths with biomass*
- 664 With the collection of whole shrubs, ring widths can be linked with biomass-allometry

665 functions and plant traits. Knowledge on species-specific allometric relationships (Berner et

al., 2015) and tools to more easily include allometry in dendroecological studies (Kašpar et

al., 2019) can be incorporated to study biomass-allometry patterns across a range of species

and site characteristics. This area of research is gaining attention because of its important role

- 669 in carbon storage and how it provides the possibility for ring width data to contribute to
- 670 vegetation-climate and carbon models.

671 *Example 2: Linking microscopic responses to remotely-sensed patterns* 

With the incorporation of data from a micro (e.g., cells, rings) to a macro scale (e.g.,

satellites), local field-based biotic and abiotic measurements can be linked with remotely

sensed information (e.g., satellite derived indices) across time and space. For example, it

675 could be used to assess the links between NDVI and ring widths (Macias-Fauria et al., 2012;

Ropars et al., 2015; Weijers et al., 2018b), as well as xylem anatomical traits (Prendin et al.,

677 2020). Systematically sampling across the landscape, quantifying shrub growth and

anatomical traits, and using near surface remote sensing devices (e.g., drones, phenocams)

679 can be used to help build the bridges between microscopic responses, field-based

observations, and patterns observed by satellites that will allow us to gain a more complete

681 picture of Arctic shrub dynamics.

682 Example 3: Linking above and below ground traits

683 The collection of information on a wide range of plant traits from a variety of systematically

selected individuals, e.g., wood (density, anatomy), leaf (specific leaf area, leaf phosphorus

685 concentration, leaf dry matter content), below ground (root growth), and structural characteristics (maximum height) (Iturrate-Garcia et al., 2020; Kunstler et al., 2016), enables 686 insight into links between different traits among individuals, species, and locations. As an 687 688 example, collecting data on full shrubs can facilitate more below-ground trait research, which is particularly important, but still understudied in tundra ecosystems (Bjorkman et al., 2018; 689 Iversen et al., 2015; Myers-Smith et al., 2019b) where most biomass allocation is below 690 ground (Iversen et al., 2015; Mokany et al., 2006). This multidisciplinary approach can 691 provide a more comprehensive understanding of the impacts of vegetation change and 692 693 ecosystem processes (Díaz et al., 2007, 2004).

#### 694 **4. OUTLOOK**

695 Dendroecology provides a unique opportunity to study current and past shrub dynamics in the drastically changing Arctic. Here we propose a synergetic approach that combines a 696 comprehensive and community-based sampling design; quantitative wood anatomical 697 analyses that can reveal underlying functional mechanisms; and satellite-based and in-situ 698 data describing trends and events of multiple drivers. Such a multidisciplinary and cross-scale 699 700 community-based perspective in dendroecological studies could improve insight in relation to understanding: (i) the cellular mechanistic underpinnings of inter- and intraspecific variation 701 in shrub growth (e.g., adjustments in xylem functional traits); (ii) the links between 702 703 demographic responses (e.g., growth, recruitment, mortality) and drivers (e.g., abiotic and biotic trends and events), within and among shrubs communities; (iii) links and allocation 704 between above and below ground plant responses; and (iv) how plant responses translate into 705 706 ecosystem functions. These insights, achieved through the implementation of standardized protocols, data sharing, dendroanatomical analyses, and remote sensing, can ultimately be 707

used to improve quantification of the magnitude and extent of current shrub community responses.

710	Development of efficient management and conservation strategies requires information at
711	local to landscape/regional scales. As there is remaining uncertainty regarding how Arctic
712	vegetation is changing and will continue to change on local scales in the current period of
713	rapid warming, this improved understanding is necessary for predicting the impacts on Arctic
714	biodiversity and ecosystems across time and space. These comprehensive predictions can
715	ultimately better inform the development of local and regionally relevant climate change
716	conservation and mitigation strategies.
717	
718	APPENDIX A: LITERATURE REVIEW DATA
719	APPENDIX B: ARTICLES INCLUDED IN REVIEW
720	APPENDIX C: EXAMPLES OF GRIDDED GLOBAL DATASETS
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**Table 1:** Drivers and driver categories identified in the literature search, potential remote sensing sources that could be used to quantify the drivers, and example datasets or studies that include such drivers. Left column: Overview of drivers we identified in the 82 publications included in our review of recent Arctic dendroecological studies. We placed each driver in one of nine categories (the categories are written in bold). Numbers inside parentheses represent how many studies included the driver or category at least once. Middle column: Remote sensing sources available as direct measures or proxies for the driver variables. Right column: Selected datasets or studies related to the driver and remote sensing source. The sources and examples list are not exhaustive, but a relevant selection based on our knowledge at the time of writing.

Driver (number of studies)	Remote Sensing Source	Example Dataset or Study		
Air temperature (62)				
Summer Temperature (62)	Gridded climate reanalysis datasets including satellite	ERA5 reanalysis of climate variables at 0.1° resolution CHELSA downscaled ERA5 data at 33 arcsec resolution (Karger et		
Winter Temperature (42)	data	al., 2017) Also, see (Sun et al., 2018) for a recent review on gridded		
Frost day frequency (2)		precipitation datasets.		
Precipitation (45)				
Summer Precipitation (43)				
Winter Precipitation (37)				
Wet Day Frequency (2)				
Rain on Snow Events <sup>b</sup> (4)	Microwave remote sensing	(Forbes et al., 2016) (Grenfell and Putkonen, 2008)		
Geophysical factors, processes, and disturbances (39)				
Habitat characteristics (18)	Multispectral Satellite imagery Airborne Laser Scanning	Global vegetation mapping (Raynolds et al., 2019) Fine-scale habitat mapping with airborne laser scanning (Boelman et al., 2016)		
Soil nutrients (5)	-	-		
Soil moisture (4)	Microwave remote sensing Optical imagery	Accurate models at coarse grain sizes (e.g. Copernicus Soil Moisture Product) Proxies at medium grain sizes: (Bartsch et al., 2020)		
Standardized Precipitation- Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) (5)	-	-		
Ground temperature (2)	Infrared reflectance from multispectral imagery	Landsat ( <u>https://www.usgs.gov/core-science-</u> <u>systems/nli/landsat/landsat-collection-2-surface-temperature</u> ) or Copernicus Imagery ( <u>https://land.copernicus.eu/global/products/lst</u> )		
Soil temperature (1)	Models based on satellite data	ESA GlobPermafrost (Obu et al., 2018)		
Potential Evapotranspiration PET) (2)	Infrared reflectance from multispectral imagery	(Nedbal et al., 2020)		
Road <sup>a</sup> (1)	-	-		
Slope (1)	DEMs derived from satellite	Panarctic datasets like the Arctic DEM (Porter et al., 2018)		
Solar radiation index (2)	and airborne remote sensing, including laser scanning, stereographic imagery and radar data	National / Regional datasets like GIMP (Howat et al., 2014)		

Thaw depth <sup>a</sup> (1)	-	-
Thaw	Fine grain optical imagery	IKONOS (Belshe et al., 2013) or Worldview imagery.
ponds/		
slumps <sup>o</sup>		
Tsunami <sup>b</sup> / Storm		
surge <sup>b</sup> (2)	-	-
Dew point (1)	-	-
Humidity (1)	-	-
Sea ice and ice caps (8)		
Sea ice (5)	Microwave (coarse grain)	NSIDC CDR Sea-ice concentration ( <u>https://nsidc.org/data/g02202</u> )
	Optical imagery (fine grain)	(Cooley et al., 2020)
Glacial retreat (1)	Various sources	See special issue in Remote Sensing
		(https://www.mdpi.com/journal/remotesensing/special_issues/re
		motesensing_glaciers)
Greenland Ice Sheet (1)	Passive microwave and various other sources	NSIDC Greenland Ice Sheet Melt (Abdalati, 2007)
Years since glaciation (1)	-	-
Biotic factors,		
interactions, and		
disturbances (20)		
Biotic site characteristics (14)	-	-
Caribou & Sheep herbivory <sup>a b</sup> (4)	-	-
Insect outbreak <sup>b</sup> (3)	Multispectral imagery	(Prendin et al., 2020)
Fire (2)	Multispectral imagery	MODIS Fire Product
		(https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/dataprod/mod14.php)
Climate system (6)		
Arctic Oscillation	Gridded climate reanalysis	ERA5 reanalysis at
(5)	datasets including satellite	0.1° resolution
North Atlantic	data	
Oscillation (5)		
Index (1)		
Scandinavian		
Pattern (1)		
Growing season		
(6)		
Growing season	Multispectral imagery	MODIS and AVHRR imagery (Zeng et al., 2011)
length and timing		
(0) Snow cover and		
depth (9)		
Snow cover / Snow	Microwave remote sensing	NSIDC CDR Snow Cover (Brodzik and Armstrong, 2013)(Robinson
depth <sup>a</sup> (9)	Multispectral imagery	et al., 2012)
Other (4)	- •	
Cloud cover (2)	Optical imagery	MODIS imagery (Seddon et al., 2016)
Sunlight	DEMs derived from satellite	Global datasets like the Arctic DEM
duration (1)	and airborne remote sensing,	National / Regional datasets
	including laser scanning,	
	stereographic imagery and radar data	

*<sup>a</sup>* variables we believe could be theoretically measured using remote sensing data, but further developments of the methods are likely required. <sup>b</sup> variables we identify as events with the remainder being trends.



Spatial and temporal prediction: Magnitude and extent of shrub dynamics



**Figure 1:** Linking shrub dynamics and their drivers across spatial and temporal scales. **(a)** Effects of environmental drivers are initiated at the level of individuals through their cellular and demographic responses (e.g., recruitment, growth, mortality). They propagate across populations to determine plant community and species range dynamics (green arrows). Key drivers (blue arrows) of local to macro-scale shrub dynamics (i.e., biotic interactions, dispersal limitation, and macro- to micro-environmental conditions) are expected to vary in importance across scales (different shadings). Combining cellular analyses; *in-situ* measurements; and satellite, airborne, and drone-based remote sensing contributes to linking these dynamics and drivers across spatial and temporal scales (grey arrows). **(b)** Interlinking information on multiple drivers (blue) and multiple responses (green) from local- to macroecological scales provides the basis for understanding why shrub responses differ across individuals, communities and species geographic ranges. Such understanding can allow for better spatial and temporal predictions of the magnitude and extent of the ongoing shrub dynamics, ultimately increasing our ability to estimate the implications for ecosystem functioning (yellow).



**Figure 2:** Overview of the main drivers, responses and methods used based on 82 Arctic dendrochronological studies from 2005-2022, showing: (a) the number of species, (b) the response type, (c) the number of responses, (d) the number of driver categories, (e) the driver categories, (f) the site and shrub selection method, (g) the shrub part analyzed and (h) the inclusion of drivers categorized as events or trends.



**Figure 3:** Extent of dendrochronological growth records and remotely sensed drivers. Left y-axis: Maximum extent of dendrochronological growth records from the reviewed studies (range: 1675-2018). We present the longest period covered by shrub growth in each study site, for all species combined. Right y-axis: The temporal availability of fully or partially remote sensing-based spatial datasets with global coverage that could provide direct or indirect measures for some of the drivers in the major categories identified in our review (see Table 1). The width of the bars indicates the grain size available: coarse (> 1 km), (10 m - 1 km) and fine ( $\leq 10$  m). Table S1 provides a more detailed description of the remotely sensed data included.



**Figure 4:** Location of study sites in the 82 reviewed studies in bioclimatic and geographic space. (a) The mean annual temperature and sum of annual precipitation at the study sites from 1979-2013, extracted from the CHELSA dataset v1.2.1 (Karger et al., 2017), plotted on top of 14k random locations across six Arctic bioclimate subzones to illustrate the climate space of the Arctic tundra. (b) Spatial distribution of study site locations by major driver category in the context of the tundra subzones.



**Figure 5:** Illustration of the main components of our synergetic approach for cross-scale understanding of Arctic shrub community dynamics: (c) remote sensing-based environmental stratification; (b, d, e) community-based dendroecological (CBDE) sampling, and (f) dendroanatomy. Arctic environments can be heterogeneous at both (a) landscape and (b) local scales, as exemplified with this mountainous site located on Qeqertarsuaq (Disko Island), in western Greenland (69°16 N 53°27 W). (c)The landscape was stratified based on information from remotely-sensed data sources, i.e., a moisture proxy and vegetation greenness, and was the basis for selection of sampling plots (b,c). At each plot, a systematic sampling design was applied (d) by setting up a grid of 25 circles. In each circle, the shrub closest to the center point (d) was excavated, as completely as possible, and abiotic and biotic information was recorded (e). To aid with cross-dating and to facilitate within-individual analyses, sections of wood samples were taken along the main stem (S1, S2, S3) and root (R1), including the oldest part of the plant (the root collar (RC)), with the distance between each sample and the shoot apex recorded. Additional data and samples were collected per shrub, e.g., leaves for genetic and functional trait analyses (plant height, specific leaf area). The wood samples allow for detailed inference of growth and recruitment of the collected plants (f). In addition, anatomically detected growth anomalies (e.g., year 2010 (f)) can help to understand extreme events (here defoliation caused by an insect outbreak, e.g., Prendin et al 2020).

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