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Local snowmelt and temperature – but not regional sea-ice – explain variation in spring phenology in coastal Arctic tundra

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1 **Draft Manuscript “Coastal Phenology”**

2 **Primary research article for submission to Global Change Biology**

3

4 **Title**

5 Local snowmelt and temperature – but not regional sea-ice – explain variation in spring

6 phenology in coastal Arctic tundra

7

8 **Running head**

9 Snowmelt and temp. predict tundra phenology

10

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27

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29 Phenology, Arctic Tundra, Vegetation, Spring, Snowmelt, Temperature, Sea-ice, Climate

30 Change

31

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33 Primary Research Article

34

35 **Abstract**

36 The Arctic is undergoing dramatic environmental change with rapidly rising surface
37 temperatures, accelerating sea-ice decline and changing snow regimes, all of which influence
38 tundra plant phenology. Despite these changes, no globally consistent direction of trends in
39 spring phenology has been reported across the Arctic. While spring has advanced at some
40 sites, spring has delayed or not changed at other sites, highlighting substantial unexplained
41 variation. Here, we test the relative importance of local temperatures, local snowmelt date
42 and regional spring drop in sea-ice extent as controls of variation in spring phenology across
43 different sites and species. Trends in long-term time-series of spring leaf out and flowering
44 (average span: 18 years) were highly variable for the 14 tundra species monitored at our four
45 study sites on the Arctic coasts of Alaska, Canada and Greenland, ranging from advances of
46 10.06 days per decade to delays of 1.67 days per decade. Spring temperatures and the day of
47 spring drop in sea-ice extent advanced at all sites (average 1 °C per decade and 21 days per
48 decade respectively), but only those sites with advances in snowmelt (average 5 days advance
49 per decade) also had advancing phenology. Variation in spring plant phenology was best

50 explained by snowmelt date (mean effect: 0.45 days advance in phenology per day advance
51 snowmelt) and, to a lesser extent, by mean spring temperature (mean effect: 2.39 days
52 advance in phenology per °C). In contrast to previous studies examining sea ice and
53 phenology at different spatial scales, regional spring drop in sea-ice extent did not predict
54 spring phenology for any species or site in our analysis. Our findings highlight that tundra
55 vegetation responses to global change are more complex than a direct response to warming
56 and emphasize the importance of snowmelt as a local driver of tundra spring phenology.

57

58 **Introduction**

59 *The importance of phenology and global change*

60 Changing phenology is considered one of the most apparent effects of climate change on
61 natural systems world-wide (Cleland, Chuine, Menzel, Mooney, & Schwartz, 2007; IPCC,
62 2014; Menzel et al., 2006; Parmesan & Yohe, 2003). Phenological processes control
63 ecosystem functions (Ernakovich et al., 2014; Richardson et al., 2013), are linked through
64 feedbacks to the climate system (Richardson et al., 2013) and contribute to structuring food
65 webs through trophic interactions (Kharouba et al., 2018; Visser & Both, 2005). In high-
66 latitude ecosystems, the onset of plant growth in spring and senescence in autumn are linked
67 with ecosystem net productivity (Forkel et al., 2016; Park et al., 2016; Piao et al., 2008; Xu et
68 al., 2013) and food availability for herbivores (Barboza, Van Someren, Gustine, & Bret-
69 Harte, 2018; Doiron, Gauthier, & Lévesque, 2015; Gustine et al., 2017; Kerby & Post, 2013b,
70 2013a; Post, Pedersen, Wilmers, & Forchhammer, 2008). Varying phenological responses to
71 environmental drivers among species or taxa, particularly in the highly-seasonal Arctic
72 tundra, yield a high potential for phenological mismatch (Doiron et al., 2015; Kerby & Post,
73 2013b; Post et al., 2008) and shorter flowering seasons with warming (Prevéy et al., 2018).
74 Tundra plants are temperature sensitive, especially at high latitudes (Prevéy et al., 2017), but

75 no net advance in leaf or flowering phenology has been observed across the biome
76 (Bjorkman, Elmendorf, Beamish, Vellend, & Henry, 2015; Oberbauer et al., 2013; Post,
77 Kerby, Pedersen, & Steltzer, 2016) despite Arctic surface temperatures rising at twice the
78 global average (IPCC, 2014; Winton, 2006). Instead a more complex picture is emerging,
79 highlighting a considerable amount of unexplained variation in phenology across sites,
80 species and phenological events (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Oberbauer et al., 2013; Post & Høye,
81 2013; Post et al., 2016; Prevéy et al., 2017).

82

83 *Variation in plant phenology – what controls it?*

84 A detailed understanding of which environmental variables serve as cues for Arctic spring
85 phenology is key for explaining the absence of an overall trend in phenology across sites
86 despite rapid warming, and is critical for predicting future responses of Arctic ecosystems to
87 the effects of climate and environmental change (Richardson et al., 2013). Interannual
88 variation in tundra phenology has been attributed to variation in temperature (Bjorkman et al.,
89 2015; Iler, Inouye, Schmidt, & Høye, 2017; Molau, Urban Nordenhäll, & Bente Eriksen,
90 2005; Oberbauer et al., 2013; Panchen & Gorelick, 2017; Prevéy et al., 2017; H. C. Wheeler,
91 Høye, Schmidt, Svenning, & Forchhammer, 2015), snowmelt (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Iler et
92 al., 2017; Semenchuk et al., 2016) and sea-ice (Kerby & Post, 2013a; Post et al., 2016). To
93 date, no study has combined all three environmental variables to test the degree to which
94 local snowmelt, temperature and regional sea-ice melt influence spring phenological events
95 (leaf-out and flowering time) in the Arctic tundra across multiple coastal sites.

96

97 *Temperature as a driver*

98 The environmental variable most widely used to explain variation in spring phenological
99 events across latitudes and seasons is temperature (Post, Steinman, & Mann, 2018; Thackeray

100 et al., 2016), including the phenology of both Arctic and alpine tundra plants (Bjorkman et
101 al., 2015; Huelber et al., 2006; Iler et al., 2017; Kuoo & Suzuki, 1999; Molau et al., 2005;
102 Oberbauer et al., 2013; Panchen & Gorelick, 2017; Prev y et al., 2017; Th rhallsd ttir, 1998;
103 H. C. Wheeler et al., 2015). Temperature influences phenology through increasing plant
104 metabolism and development in response to warmer ambient temperatures (Jones, 2013).
105 Average temperatures over a predefined period (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Iler et al., 2017;
106 Panchen & Gorelick, 2017; Prev y et al., 2017) as well as cumulative temperatures up to the
107 onset of a phenological event (Barrett, Hollister, Oberbauer, & Tweedie, 2015; Henry &
108 Molau, 1997; Huelber et al., 2006; Kuoo & Suzuki, 1999; Molau et al., 2005; Oberbauer et
109 al., 2013; H. C. Wheeler et al., 2015) have been shown to explain variation in Arctic and
110 alpine plant phenology. Species-specific minimum heat energy requirements for phenological
111 progress have been suggested for tundra plants (Huelber et al., 2006; Molau et al., 2005) and
112 the sensitivity of flowering to temperature has been shown to vary between sites and plots
113 within tundra plant species (H ye, Post, Schmidt, Tr jelsgaard, & Forchhammer, 2013;
114 Prev y et al., 2017). However, in highly seasonal tundra ecosystems, temperature is only one
115 factor determining spring plant phenology.

116

117 *Snowmelt as a driver*

118 Snowmelt timing has been recognised as early as the 1930s as a primary initiator of plant
119 phenological events in both Arctic and alpine tundra (Schwartz, 2013; see for example
120 S rensen, 1941; Billings & Mooney, 1968; Wipf & Rixen, 2010) and many recent studies
121 have demonstrated that snowmelt date is a key driver explaining variation in spring
122 phenology in tundra ecosystems (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Cooper, Dullinger, & Semenchuk,
123 2011; Cort s et al., 2014; Iler et al., 2017; Semenchuk et al., 2016; Sherwood, Debinski,
124 Caragea, & Germino, 2017; Molau et al., 2005; Wipf, 2009; Wipf, Stoeckli, & Bebi, 2009;

125 but see Thórhallsdóttir, 1998). During snowmelt, tundra plants experience dramatic changes
126 in their immediate environment: light availability increases and plant and soil surfaces are
127 exposed to atmospheric temperatures and CO₂ concentrations (Starr & Oberbauer, 2003),
128 which in turn stimulate plant metabolic and developmental activity (Jones, 2013). In addition,
129 snowmelt may act as an indicator for suitable growing conditions to come as the growing
130 season advances (H. C. Wheeler et al., 2015). Prior to melt, the insulation of the snow layer
131 protects the plants from frost damage, desiccation, photoinhibition (Lundell, Saarinen, &
132 Hänninen, 2010; Mølgaard & Christensen, 2003; Sherwood et al., 2017; H. C. Wheeler et al.,
133 2015; Wipf & Rixen, 2010; Wipf et al., 2009) and reduces early-season herbivory (J. A.
134 Wheeler et al., 2016), while after snowmelt the availability of soil moisture and nutrients is
135 increased (Wipf & Rixen, 2010). Plants may therefore experience strong evolutionary
136 pressure to adapt spring metabolic activity to coincide directly with the timing of snowmelt
137 (Cortés et al., 2014). In fact, some species can begin development once the snow pack is thin
138 enough to allow sufficient light and diurnal temperature variations (Larsen, Ibrom, Jonasson,
139 Michelsen, & Beier, 2007; Starr & Oberbauer, 2003). Although spring temperatures influence
140 the snowmelt process, snowmelt timing is a complex function of winter precipitation,
141 topography, prevailing wind conditions and radiative exposure across the landscape (Billings
142 & Bliss, 1959; Bjorkman et al., 2015; Molau & Mølgaard, 1996; Vaganov, Hughes,
143 Kirilyanov, Schweingruber, & Silkin, 1999; J. A. Wheeler et al., 2016), and can therefore be
144 partially decoupled from spring temperatures (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Hinkler, Hansen,
145 Tamstorf, Sigsgaard, & Petersen, 2008; H. C. Wheeler et al., 2015). Localised variation in
146 snow-cover therefore causes heterogeneity in spring plant phenology across the tundra
147 landscape with pronounced differences in timing observed between snow beds and areas with
148 sparse snow cover (Cooper et al., 2011).

149

150 *Sea ice as a driver*

151 Variation in tundra phenology and productivity has also been attributed to sea-ice conditions,
152 including the northern hemisphere annual minimum sea-ice extent and January mean extent
153 (Bhatt et al., 2010; Forchhammer, 2017; Kerby & Post, 2013a; Macias-Fauria, Karlsen, &
154 Forbes, 2017; Macias-Fauria & Post, 2018; Post et al., 2013, 2016). Macias-Fauria et al.
155 (2017) found linkages between regional sea-ice conditions and satellite derived early-season
156 vegetation productivity on eastern Svalbard and suggested that cool sea breeze off sea-ice
157 along the adjacent coast may influence land surface temperatures through cold air advection
158 (Haugen & Brown, 1980). The presence of sea ice in coastal environments could also
159 influence atmospheric humidity (Screen & Simmonds, 2010) and light availability through
160 cloud and fog formation during spring ice melt (Tjernström et al., 2015), thus providing a
161 plausible mechanism that could explain plant phenology at coastal tundra sites separately to
162 the influence of sea-ice on local temperatures via sea-breeze. Alternatively, sea ice conditions
163 could be an aggregate indicator of synoptic atmospheric circulation at regional to continental
164 scales (Kerby & Post, 2013a; Macias-Fauria & Post, 2018; Post et al., 2013) and may not
165 have a direct and localised mechanistic link as a control over tundra plant phenology.

166

167 In this study, we test the importance of temperature, snowmelt and the spring drop in regional
168 sea-ice extent as controls over variation in spring plant phenology using a dataset of plant
169 phenology observations on 14 species spanning up to 21 years at four coastal tundra sites.
170 Specifically, we address the following three questions: (1) To what extent do trends in plant
171 spring phenological events vary among sites and species? (2) How have the environmental
172 conditions changed at each site over the time-period of monitoring? (3) What is the relative
173 explanatory power of snowmelt date, spring temperatures and the date of spring drop in
174 regional sea-ice extent in a multi-predictor model of spring phenology at the study sites? Our

175 analysis therefore allows us to test the strength of the statistical relationships among the three
176 most commonly suggested cues for tundra spring plant phenology across tundra species and
177 sites: temperature, snowmelt and sea ice, and will contribute to improved predictions of the
178 response of tundra plant communities to changing growing conditions.

179

180 **Materials and methods**

181

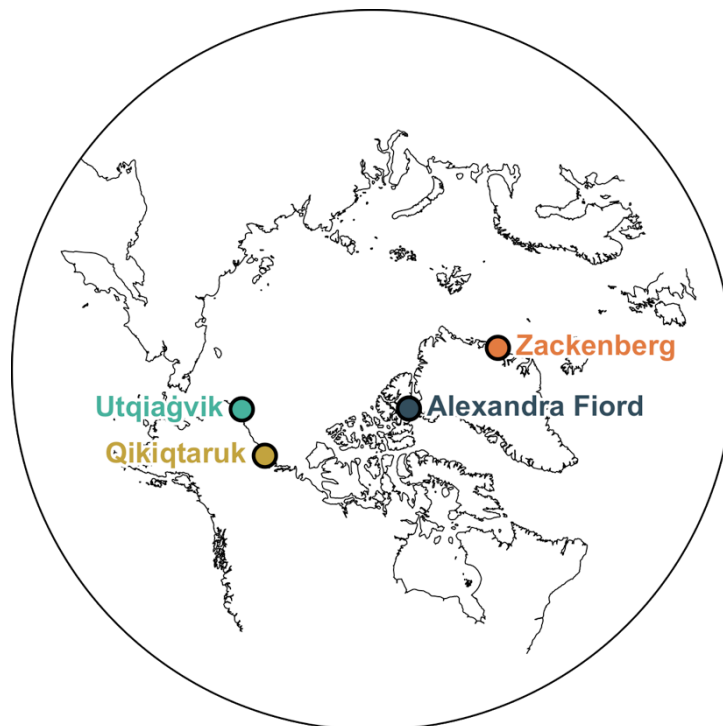
182 *Phenological Observations*

183 The observations of phenology used in this paper are a subset of the most recent version of
184 the International Tundra Experiment (ITEX) (Henry & Molau, 1997; Webber & Walker,
185 1991) phenology control dataset (Prevéy et al., 2017). The dataset is openly available via the
186 Polar Data Catalogue (CCIN Reference Number 12722,
187 www.polardata.ca/pdcsearch/PDCSearchDOI.jsp?doi_id=12722) and was originally
188 compiled by Oberbauer et al. (2013). All observations were recorded according to methods
189 outlined in the ITEX Manual (Molau & Mølgaard, 1996). See also Oberbauer et al. (2013)
190 and Prévéy et al. (2017), as well as Bjorkman et al. (2015), Cooley et al. (2012), Hollister et
191 al. (2005) and Schmidt et al. (2016) for site-specific descriptions of methods. We obtained a
192 subset of the ITEX dataset for coastal sites by exclusion based on the following criteria: a)
193 coastal proximity (less than 3 km from the sea), b) data record spanning more than 10 years,
194 and c) snowmelt timing data available. Four sites met these criteria: Alexandra Fiord (NU,
195 Canada), Qikiqtaruk – Herschel Island (YT, Canada), Utqiagvik – formerly Barrow (AK,
196 USA) and Zackenberg (Greenland). We have included additional 2016 data for the
197 Qikiqtaruk site and plot-level data for the Zackenberg site.

198

199 *Site descriptions*

200 The selected sites include mid-Arctic (Qikiqtaruk and Utqiaġvik) and high-Arctic (Alexandra
201 Fiord and Zackenberg) sites, and cover a wide geographical range (Figure 1) and diversity of
202 tundra types, climate, topography and soil properties (Table S1): Alexandra Fiord (75.92 W,
203 78.88 N) on Ellesmere Island has dwarf-shrub dominated tundra communities on glacio-
204 fluvial sediment composed of mixtures of granitic and carbonate rocks; Utqiaġvik (156.62 W,
205 71.317 N) consists of wet meadow and heath tundra on ice-rich permafrost; the vegetation at
206 Qikiqtaruk (138.91 W, 69.57 N) is dwarf shrub and forb-dominated tundra on ice-rich
207 permafrost; and the Zackenberg (20.56 W, 74.47 N) site is dwarf-shrub dominated tundra on
208 noncarbonated bedrock.



209
210 **Figure 1** Locations of the four sites included in this study: Alexandra Fiord (NU, Canada),
211 Qikiqtaruk (YT, Canada), Utqiaġvik (AK, USA) and Zackenberg (Greenland).

212








213 *Selected species and phenological event*

214 Our final subset of the ITEX data contained 14 species (*Cassiope tetragona* D. Don, *Dupontia*
215 *psilosantha* Ruprecht, *Dryas integrifolia* Vahl, *Dryas octopetala* L., *Eriophorum vaginatum*

216 L., *Luzula arctica* Blytt, *Luzula confusa* Lindeb., *Oxyria digyna* Hill, *Papaver radicum*
217 Rottb., *Poa arctica* R.Br., *Salix arctica* Pall., *Salix rotundifolia* Trautv., *Saxifraga*
218 *oppositifolia* L., *Silene acaulis* (L.) Jacq.), which represent the dominant plants in the
219 communities at the selected sites. We selected all species-phenological event combinations
220 that occurred in spring (mean phenological event occurring within 30 days of mean snowmelt
221 at each site). For Utqiagvik and Qikiqtaruk, this selection resulted in 38 and 2 species-
222 phenological event combinations, respectively. To balance the sample size across sites, we
223 narrowed down the Utqiagvik subset by selecting only species that make up at least 10% of
224 the ITEX community composition plots at the site and extended the Qikiqtaruk dataset by
225 one additional species with the next earliest mean phenological event in the record of the site.
226 The final subset contained a total of 8469 observations for 14 species and two phenological
227 events (spring green up and flowering), resulting in a total of 24 unique site-species-
228 phenological event combinations (Table 1). Phenological events were defined differently for
229 each plant species (Molau & Mølgaard, 1996), but recorded consistently over time (Prevéy et
230 al., 2017). Depending on the species, ‘green up’ was defined as the date of leaf emergence -
231 the date when the first leaf was visible or open, and ‘flowering’ was defined as the date when
232 either the first flower was open, the first pollen was visible or the first anthers were exposed
233 (Prevéy et al., 2017).

234

235 **Table 1:** Full species names, phenological event, start, end and length of time-series in years,
236 years with observations in the time-series and colours used for the site-species-phenological
237 event combinations in the dataset.

| Site Name | Species | Phenological Event | Start Year | End Year | Time-Series Length (yrs) | Years with observ. | Colour |
|-----------------|---------------------------|--------------------|------------|----------|--------------------------|--------------------|---|
| Alexandra Fiord | <i>Dryas integrifolia</i> | flowering | 1993 | 2013 | 21 | 15 |  |
| | <i>Dryas integrifolia</i> | green up | 1993 | 2013 | 21 | 14 |  |
| | <i>Luzula spp.*</i> | flowering | 1992 | 2003 | 12 | 10 |  |
| | <i>Oxyria digyna</i> | flowering | 1992 | 2013 | 22 | 18 |  |
| | <i>Oxyria digyna</i> | green up | 1992 | 2013 | 22 | 18 |  |
| | <i>Papaver radicum</i> | flowering | 1992 | 2013 | 22 | 18 |  |
| | <i>Papaver radicum</i> | green up | 1992 | 2013 | 22 | 18 |  |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------|------|------|----|----|
| | <i>Salix arctica</i> | flowering | 1995 | 2013 | 19 | 14 | |
| | <i>Cassiope tetragona</i> | green up | 1997 | 2014 | 18 | 12 | |
| | <i>Dupontia psilosantha</i> | green up | 1995 | 2014 | 20 | 14 | |
| Utqiagvik | <i>Luzula arctica</i> | flowering | 1994 | 2014 | 21 | 14 | |
| | <i>Luzula arctica</i> | green up | 1994 | 2014 | 21 | 14 | |
| | <i>Poa arctica</i> | green up | 1994 | 2014 | 21 | 15 | |
| | <i>Salix rotundifolia</i> | flowering | 1994 | 2014 | 21 | 15 | |
| | <i>Salix rotundifolia</i> | green up | 1994 | 2014 | 21 | 15 | |
| | | <i>Dryas integrifolia</i> | flowering | 2001 | 2016 | 16 | 16 |
| Qikiqtaruk | <i>Eriophorum vaginatum</i> | flowering | 2002 | 2016 | 15 | 15 | |
| | <i>Salix arctica</i> | green up | 2001 | 2016 | 16 | 16 | |
| | | | | | | | |
| Zackenberg | <i>Cassiope tetragona</i> | | | | | | |
| | <i>Dryas octopetala</i> | | | | | | |
| | <i>Papaver radiculatum</i> | flowering | 1996 | 2011 | 16 | 16 | |
| | <i>Salix arctica</i> | | | | | | |
| | <i>Saxifraga oppositifolia</i> | | | | | | |
| | <i>Silene acaulis</i> | | | | | | |

*includes *L. arctica* and *L. confusa*

238

239 *Snowmelt dates*

240 Snowmelt dates were determined at the plot or site level with site-specific protocols based on
 241 guidelines in the ITEX manual (Molau & Mølgaard, 1996). Alexandra Fiord snowmelt dates
 242 were recorded for each plot as the first day of year at which at least 90% of the plot was snow
 243 free. Twenty percent of the snowmelt dates at Alexandra Fiord were unobserved. The missing
 244 values were gap-filled as detailed in Bjorkman et al. (2015). Utqiagvik snowmelt dates were
 245 based on visual observations of when the plot was 100% snow free or soil surface
 246 temperatures when snowmelt occurred in years prior to visual estimates. Snowmelt dates on
 247 Qikiqtaruk were determined for each monitored plant individual or plot and recorded as the
 248 first date in the year when the individual or plot area was >90% snow free (Cooley et al.,
 249 2012). Zackenberg snowmelt dates were determined by multiple visits to the designated plant
 250 phenology plots across the landscape. Snowmelt dates were defined as the day at which 50%
 251 bare-ground was first visible at a given plot (Schmidt, Hansen, et al., 2016). As not all plant
 252 phenology plots at Zackenberg were included in the snowmelt observations, we used the
 253 mean snowmelt date of the monitored plots to predict spring phenology at the site. The
 254 variation in methods for recording snowmelt are due to the use of different protocols for
 255 long-term snowmelt monitoring across these sites.

256

257 *Spring Temperatures*

258 Daily average air temperatures were obtained from local weather stations (Table S2) and
259 annual ‘spring’ averages calculated for each site-species-phenological event time-series. We
260 defined spring average temperature as the mean daily temperature within a calendar year
261 from the earliest snowmelt date on record to the day at which 75% of the phenological event
262 had occurred across the whole length of the time-series. Each time-series therefore had its
263 own specific time-frame across which temperatures were averaged. The period was chosen to
264 capture a static time-window during which the plants are likely to strongly respond to
265 ambient temperatures for each given phenological event. For cross-site comparison of spring
266 temperature change, we calculated spring averages using the same approach but applied to
267 the pooled phenology time-series data for each site. These site-specific spring temperatures
268 therefore represent the yearly temperatures from the day of snowmelt to the day when 75% of
269 phenological events occurred within the community across the record of the site.

270

271 *Day of spring drop in regional sea ice extent*

272 We decided to use the date of spring drop in regional sea-ice extent as it represents the shift
273 from ice covered to ice “free” ocean (the minimum sea ice extent in a given year) in the
274 region surrounding the study site, and hence a change in microclimatic conditions that may
275 act as phenological cues to the tundra plants at our study sites. We hypothesised that, if sea-
276 ice influences plant phenology due to changing light and moisture availability, the time point
277 at which the system shifts its state would carry the highest explanatory power for spring plant
278 phenology at the sites. If air temperatures alone act as the proximate cue, any influence of
279 sea-ice on air temperatures would appear as an effect of temperature in our statistical
280 analysis. We also tested the model using average regional sea-ice extent for the period

281 including the months of May, June and July (Table S3) and found consistent results to the
282 model with spring drop in sea-ice extent.

283

284 The yearly spring drop in sea-ice extent was determined from the NOAA/NSIDC Climate
285 Data Record (CDR) v3 Passive Microwave Sea-Ice Concentrations (Meier et al., 2017; Peng,
286 Meier, Scott, & Savoie, 2013) projected in the NSIDC polar stereographic grid (NSIDC,
287 2018). We calculated daily regional sea-ice extent for each site within a bounding box of 21 x
288 21 grid cells (approximately 525 km x 525 km) centred on the cell containing the study site.
289 We used sea ice extent, rather than raw sea-ice concentrations as it provides a more reliable
290 measure during melt (Worby & Comiso, 2004). To avoid effects of land overspill (Cavalieri,
291 Parkinson, Gloersen, Comiso, & Zwally, 1999), we removed all cells that were directly
292 adjacent to the coastline, retaining only cells that were at least one cell removed from land.
293 Daily regional sea-ice extent was calculated as the total area of cells within the bounding box
294 with a sea-ice concentration of at least 15%. The day associated with the regional spring drop
295 in sea ice extent was then determined as the day of year (DOY) closest to the annual
296 minimum on which the sea-ice extent drops below 85% of the total area (Figure S4 and Table
297 S5). Our measure therefore only selects the final melt event leading up to the annual
298 minimum in the region and allows for fluctuations of the regional extent above and below
299 85% prior to the final melt event.

300

301 *Statistical analysis*

302 We estimated slope parameters for the temporal trends in plant phenological events and
303 environmental predictors using interval-censored and Gaussian-response Bayesian
304 hierarchical models (respectively) from the MCMCglmm package (Hadfield, 2010) in the R
305 Statistical Environment version 3.4.3 (R Core Team, 2018). We also used interval-censored

306 hierarchical models using to conduct variance partitioning of the environmental predictors on
307 spring phenology.

308

309 *Interval-censored phenology observations*

310 For the interval-censored models (Bjorkman et al., 2015; Hadfield, Heap, Bayer, Mittell, &
311 Crouch, 2013), we defined the upper interval bound as the day of year at which the
312 phenological event was first observed. Lower bounds were defined depending on whether
313 prior visits to the monitored individuals / plots were recorded or not. For Alexandra Fiord,
314 Utqiaġvik and Zackenberg, no record of prior visits was available and the lower bound was
315 set to the last day at which an observation was recorded at the site prior to the event. The
316 Qikiqtaruk dataset included records of all dates the plots were visited, independent of
317 whether a phenological event was observed or not. We used the last recorded visit prior to the
318 observed phenological event to define the lower bounds of the interval at this site. For
319 phenological observations at the beginning of the year, the lower bound was set as the
320 minimum snowmelt date recorded at the relevant site across the whole study period. The
321 mean interval length between observations were 3.2 days for Qikiqtaruk, 3.8 days for
322 Alexandra Fiord and Utqiaġvik, and 6.5 days for Zackenberg.

323

324 *Phenology trends*

325 Slope estimates for trends in phenological events were determined using a separate model for
326 each site-species-phenological event combination with the following structure:

327

$$328 \quad \text{unif}[y_{lo}, y_{up}] = \mu + \beta_{year} + \alpha_{plot} + \alpha_{year} + \varepsilon$$

329

330 Where y_{lo} and y_{up} are the lower and upper bounds of the interval in which the phenological
331 event occurred, with a uniform likelihood of occurrence across the interval; μ is the global
332 intercept, β_{year} is the slope parameter for the trend across years; α_{plot} and α_{year} are the
333 random intercepts for plot and year respectively, and ε is the residual error. α_{plot} , α_{year} and
334 ε were normally distributed with a mean of zero and a variance estimated from the data. We
335 included plot and year as categorical random intercepts to account for the replication of
336 phenological observations at each plot over time and at each site in each year.

337

338 *Environmental predictor trends*

339 Trends in annual mean day of snowmelt, site-specific spring temperature and spring drop in
340 regional sea-ice extent were modelled individually for each site with the following model
341 formula:

342

$$343 \quad y = \mu + \beta_{year} + \varepsilon$$

344

345 Where y is the value of the environmental predictor for a given year; μ is the global intercept
346 of the model; β_{year} is the slope parameter for the trend across years; and ε the residual error.
347 ε was distributed normally around zero with a variance estimated from the data. We did not
348 include a random intercept for year or plot, as there was no within-year replication of the site-
349 specific environmental variables.

350

351 We used weakly informative priors for all parameter estimates (inverse Wishart priors for
352 residual variances and normal priors for the fixed effects) when modelling the trends in
353 phenological events and environmental predictors (Hadfield, 2017). Convergence of these
354 models was assessed through examination of the trace plots.

355

356 *Prediction analysis*

357 We used a single global model for all site-species-phenological event combinations to
358 estimate the effect of the environmental predictors on spring phenological events. The
359 predictor variables were within-subject mean centred for each site-species-phenology event
360 combination (van de Pol & Wright, 2009) and scaled by the standard deviation to allow for
361 direct comparison between the effect sizes (Schielzeth, 2010). The model was structured as
362 follows:

363

$$\begin{aligned} \text{unif}[y_{lo,i}, y_{up,i}] = & \bar{\mu} + \bar{\beta}_{snow} + \bar{\beta}_{temp} + \bar{\beta}_{ice} + \bar{\beta}_{year} \\ & + \beta_{snow,i} + \beta_{temp,i} + \beta_{ice,i} + \beta_{year,i} \\ & + \alpha_{site} + \alpha_{plot} + \alpha_{year} + \alpha_{site:year} + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

367

368 Where $y_{lo,i}$ and $y_{up,i}$ are the upper and lower bounds of the interval in which a phenological
369 event of the site-species-phenological event combination i occurred, with a uniform
370 likelihood of occurrence across the interval; $\bar{\mu}$ the global intercept; $\bar{\beta}_{snow}$, $\bar{\beta}_{temp}$, $\bar{\beta}_{ice}$ and
371 $\bar{\beta}_{year}$ the mean slope parameters for snowmelt, spring temperature, day of spring drop in sea
372 ice extent and year respectively; $\beta_{snow,i}$, $\beta_{temp,i}$, $\beta_{ice,i}$ and $\beta_{year,i}$ the site-species-
373 phenological event specific slopes for snowmelt, spring temperature, spring drop in sea-ice
374 extent and year respectively; α_{site} , α_{plot} , α_{year} and $\alpha_{site:year}$ the random intercepts for site,
375 plot, year and site-year interaction; ε the residual error. The random intercepts and the
376 residual error were normally distributed around a mean of zero with variances estimated from
377 the data.

378

379 For each fixed effect x , the site-species-phenological event specific effects ($\beta_{x,i}$) were drawn
380 from a normal distribution with estimated variance around the mean slope $\bar{\beta}_x$ of the fixed
381 effect. We included year as a continuous predictor to account for the effects of variables that
382 have changed linearly over years and were not included in the analysis in addition to the
383 modelled fixed effects (Iler et al., 2017; Keogan et al., 2018). Furthermore, we added random
384 intercepts for plot and year to account for the nonindependence of plots measured repeatedly
385 over time as well as the nonindependence of observations conducted in the same year at a
386 given site. Finally, a year-site interaction was included to allow for the year effect to vary
387 among locations. Our model does not allow for: 1) a correlation of responses across species
388 at a site, 2) the correlation of species responses across sites, 3) the correlation of a species'
389 response across phenological events. We did not consider interactions between the
390 environmental predictors, as we had no a priori prediction of a consistent directional
391 interaction effect that would apply across species and locations.

392

393 The random slope and intercept parameters of the prediction analysis model were estimated
394 using an unstructured covariance matrix, which allowed for covariance between slopes and
395 the intercept (Hadfield, 2017). We used weakly informative priors for all coefficients
396 (parameter-expanded inverse Wishart priors for the variances and normal priors for the fixed
397 effects). The prediction analysis model was run with four chains and convergence was
398 confirmed through examination of the trace plots and Gelman-Rubin diagnostics (Gelman &
399 Rubin, 1992).

400

401 Environmental predictors were tested for multicollinearity with variance inflation factors
402 using the R package usdm (Naimi, Hamm, Groen, Skidmore, & Toxopeus, 2014) prior to
403 execution of the model runs. The variance inflation factors for all three variables were below

404 1.27, suggesting no problems with multicollinearity. The highest correlation coefficient was
405 observed between spring temperatures and drop in sea ice extent (-0.38). We also ran reduced
406 models of the global model, only containing a single environmental predictor (Table S10),
407 which allowed us to test for indirect mechanisms linking two of the environmental predictors.
408

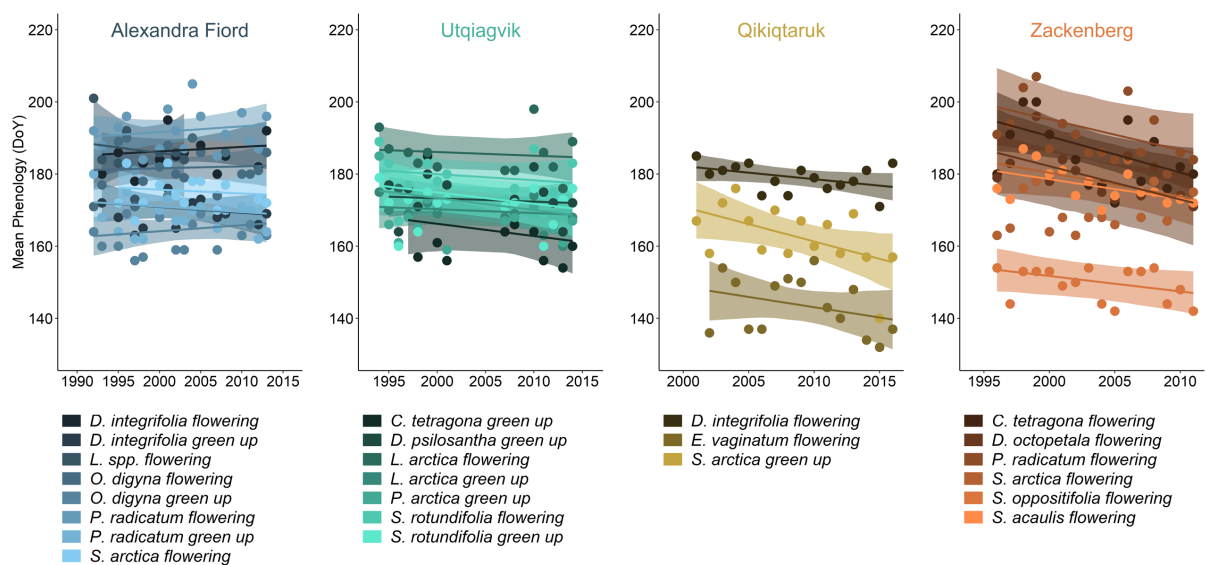
409 Due to the absence of plot-level snowmelt observations at Zackenberg the effect of snowmelt
410 at the Zackenberg site is solely due to among year variation, whereas at Alexandra Fiord,
411 Utqiagvik and Qikiqtaruk the effect of snowmelt is affected by both among year and among
412 plot variation. Hence, our modelled estimates of the day of snowmelt effect at Zackenberg
413 may be biased earlier or later due to the loss of within site variation in snowmelt date. We
414 also ran the model with average annual snowmelt values for all sites and observed
415 comparable results to the original model with a slight reduction in the explanatory power for
416 snowmelt date (Table S3). Our original model may therefore be underestimating the effect of
417 snowmelt date at the Zackenberg site.

418
419 We refer to environmental predictors and trends as ‘significant’ when the 95% credible
420 interval (CI) for the corresponding parameter of the fitted models did not overlap zero. Code
421 and data are available at the following repository:
422 <https://github.com/jakobjassmann/coastalphenology>

423 **Results**

424 We observed strong variation in both the timing of annual mean spring phenological events
 425 and their trends across the study periods for all species-phenological event combinations and
 426 sites (Figure 2). While the trends indicate that spring is advancing overall at Qikiqtaruk and
 427 Zackenberg, not all species or phenological events showed significant trends at the two sites.
 428 In addition, we found little to no evidence for changes in the onset of spring at Alexandra
 429 Fiord and Utqiagvik. Estimated rates of change varied from an advance of 10.06 days per
 430 decade (CI: -18.77 to -1.35 for *Cassiope tetragona* flowering at Zackenberg) to a delay of
 431 1.67 days per decade (CI: -2.61 to 5.86 for *Oxyria digyna* flowering at Alexandra Fiord), with
 432 five site-species-phenological event combinations advancing significantly and 19
 433 combinations showing no significant change (Table S6).

434



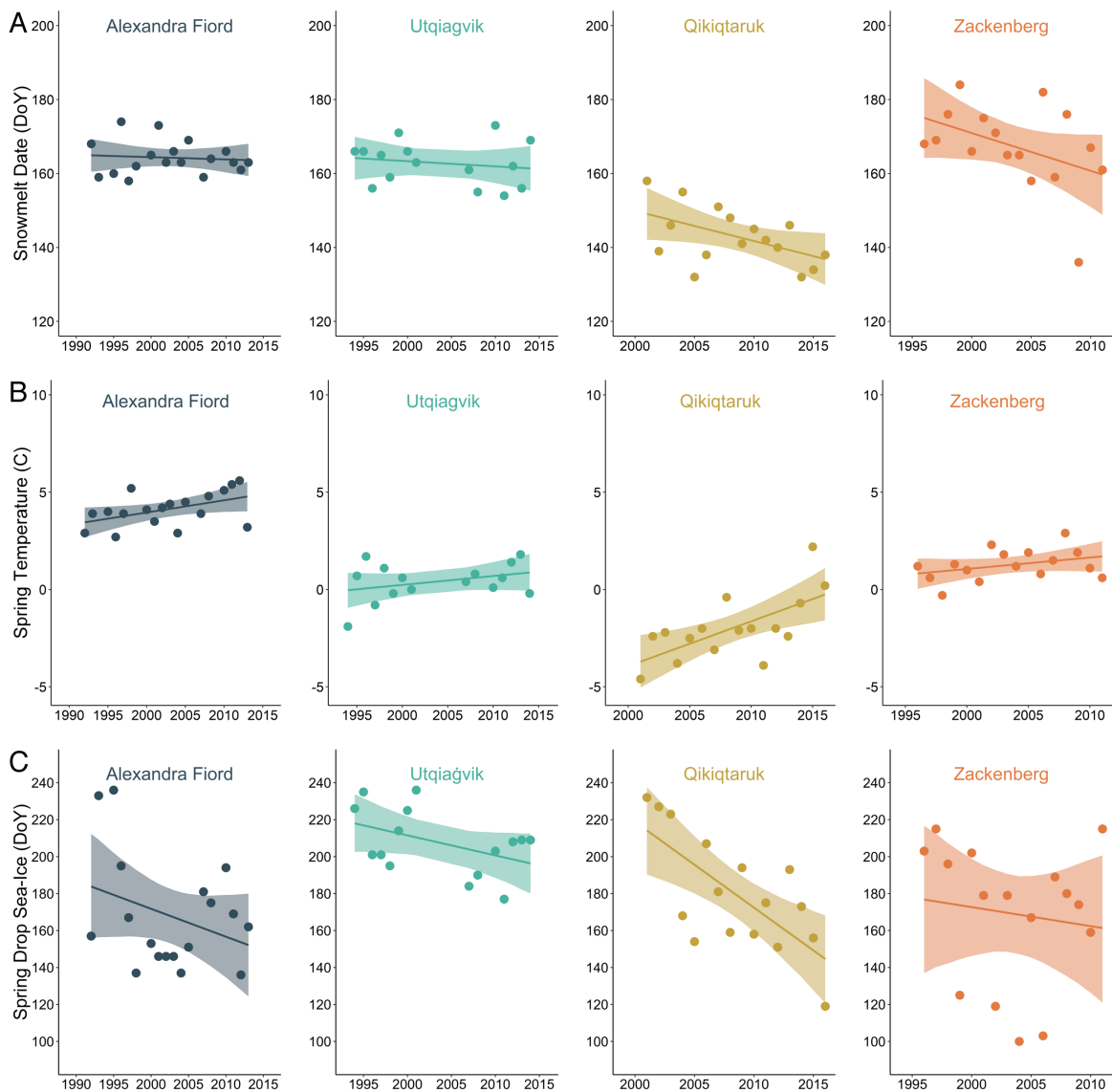
435 **Figure 2** Advancing phenology trends were observed for some but not all species and sites.
 436 Annual mean spring phenology and trends for the species-phenological event combinations at
 437 Alexandra Fiord, Utqiagvik, Qikiqtaruk and Zackenberg. Trend lines were fitted with
 438 Bayesian interval-censored models and shaded areas indicate 95% credible intervals. For a
 439 detailed list of the phenological event and species combinations monitored see Table 1. For
 440 graphical clarity, the credible intervals for the *Silene acaulis* flowering time-series at

441 Zackenberg are not shown. A low number of plot-level estimates with high variation in trends
442 resulted in high uncertainties of the model estimates for this time-series. See Figure S7 for a
443 plot including the credible intervals for the *S. acaulis* time-series.

444

445 The observed trends in environmental predictors indicate notable changes in spring climate
446 and environment at all sites across the study periods (Figure 3). Snowmelt dates advanced by
447 8.15 days per decade (CI: -16.19 to 0.31) at Qikiqtaruk and by 10.22 days per decade (CI: -
448 22.51 to 2.06) at Zackenberg, but the trends were marginally non-significant. No change was
449 observed at Alexandra Fiord (-0.61 days per decade; CI: -4.19 to 2.98) and Utqiagvik (-1.41
450 days per decade; CI: -6.24 to 3.46) (Table S8). Average spring temperatures across the site-
451 specific spring periods increased significantly at all sites during the years monitored
452 respectively, with Qikiqtaruk experiencing the strongest trend of 2.30 °C warming per decade
453 (CI: 0.78, 3.83) and Alexandra Fiord experiencing the weakest trend of 0.63 °C warming per
454 decade (CI: 0.01, 1.24) (Table S8). The date of spring drop in sea-ice advanced for all sites,
455 roughly mirroring the trends in temperature with onset dates becoming earlier by -10.28 days
456 per decade (CI: -56.07; 34.36 at Zackenberg) to -46.39 days per decade (CI: -73.21, -19.40; at
457 Qikiqtaruk) (Table S8). However, the variation in onset of sea-ice melt among years was
458 substantial for all sites and particularly high for Zackenberg, and only the declining trend at
459 Qikiqtaruk was statistically significant (Figure 3, Table S8).

460



461 **Figure 3** While spring drop in regional sea-ice extent advanced and temperatures increased
 462 across sites and study periods, snowmelt only advanced at some sites. Trends in site averages
 463 for snowmelt date (A), ‘spring’ temperature (B) and onset of regional sea-ice melt (C) for
 464 Alexandra Fiord, Utqiagvik, Qikiqtaruk and Zackenberg for the years in the phenological
 465 records. Trend lines were fitted using Bayesian linear models and shaded areas represent 95%
 466 credible intervals. ‘Spring’ temperatures represent yearly averages of daily temperatures
 467 within the site-specific time-frames from the earliest day-of-year of snowmelt on record to
 468 the day of year where 70% of the spring phenological events occurred in the pooled

469 community record of a given site. Due to these site-specific time-frames Alexandra Fiord
470 represents the ‘warmest’ spring temperatures despite being the northernmost site.

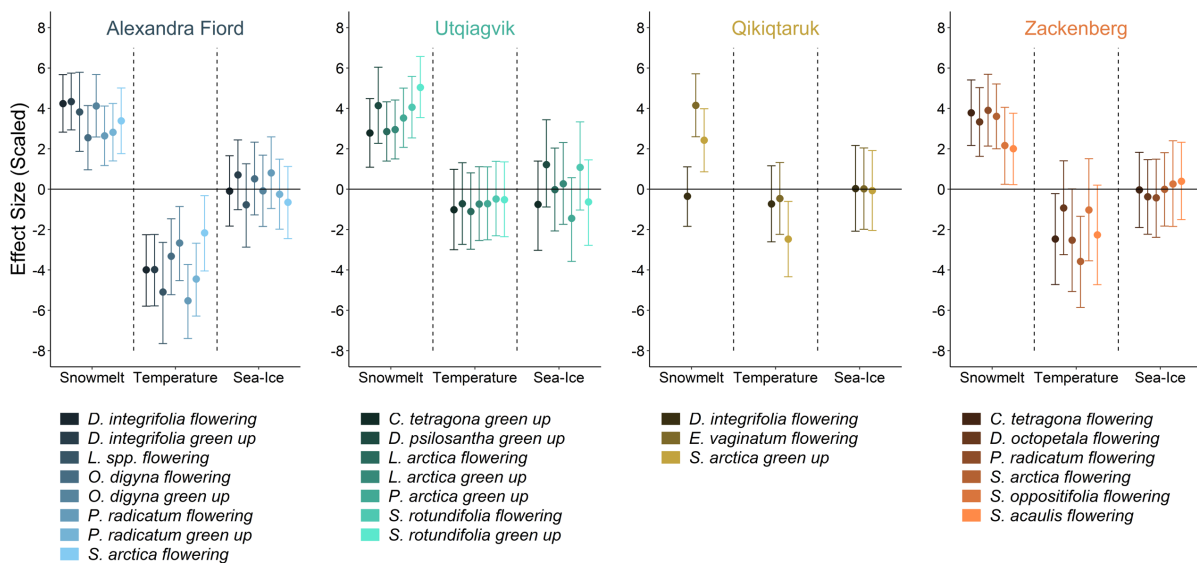
471

472 Snowmelt date consistently predicted phenology (Figure 4 and Figure S9) with a mean scaled
473 effect size of 3.26 (CI: 2.63 to 3.91), corresponding to 0.45 days advance in phenology per
474 day advance in snowmelt. The variance in snowmelt date slopes among site-species-
475 phenology event combinations was 1.82 (CI: 0.89 to 3.55), with 95% of the site-species-
476 phenology event combinations predicted to fall in the range of 0.09 to 0.82 days advance in
477 phenology per day advance in snowmelt. Temperature explained variation in spring
478 phenology for some, but not all, species-phenological event combinations with a mean scaled
479 effect size of -2.21 (CI -3.04 to -1.39) and associated slope variance of 3.15 (CI: 1.51 to
480 6.10). This result corresponds to 2.39 days advance in phenology per °C increase and 95% of
481 the site-species-phenological event combinations fell between 6.16 days advance to 1.38 days
482 delay in phenology per °C increase. The spring drop in regional sea-ice extent was a poor
483 predictor of phenological timing in all cases with a mean scaled effect size of -0.01 (CI: -0.94
484 to 0.91) and associated slope variance of 0.81 (CI: 0.28 to 1.83). This result corresponds to
485 less than 0.01 days advance per day delay in regional drop in sea ice extent and 95% of the
486 site-species-phenological event combinations fell between 0.07 days advance to 0.07 days
487 delay per day delay in regional drop in sea ice extent. These findings are in broad agreement
488 with the coefficients from the reduced models that tested each environmental predictor
489 separately (Table S10).

490

491 Variation in phenological events of only one species-phenological event combination (*Dryas*
492 *integrifolia* flowering at Qikiqtaruk) was not significantly explained by snowmelt date, with
493 the 95% confidence intervals overlapping zero for the posterior distributions for all three

494 slope parameters (Figure 4 and Table S11). Eleven out of the twenty-four species-
 495 phenological event combinations were significantly explained by temperature: all Alexandra
 496 Fiord species-phenological event combinations, *Salix arctica* green up at Qikiqtaruk,
 497 *Cassiope tetragona* and *Salix arctica* flowering at Zackenberg (Table S11). Finally, the
 498 analysis highlighted high unexplained variance among unique site-year combinations (9.40,
 499 CI: 5.58 to 14.72), which corresponds to 95% of site-year combinations being in the range of
 500 +/- 6.01 days from the predicted values.
 501



502
 503 **Figure 4** Snowmelt date and temperature, but not the spring drop in regional sea-ice
 504 explained variation in phenology across species and sites. Scaled effect sizes, grouped by the
 505 environmental predictors (date of snowmelt, average spring temperature and date of spring
 506 drop in regional sea-ice extent), for all species-phenological event combinations at Alexandra
 507 Fiord, Utqiagvik, Qikiqtaruk and Zackenberg. Error bars represent 95% credible intervals.
 508 Effect sizes and credible intervals were estimated using a Bayesian hierarchical model.
 509 Environmental predictors were within-subject mean centred and scaled by the standard

510 deviation (date of snowmelt: 7.20, spring temperature: 0.92 and spring drop in regional sea-
511 ice extent: 26.90).

512

513 The multi-predictor model indicated pronounced differences in the relative importance of the
514 environmental predictors across plant communities at the different study sites and also within
515 individual species found among different study sites. The differences were particularly
516 apparent for temperature, which predicted spring phenology for all species-phenology event
517 combinations at Alexandra Fiord, but did not explain any variation in spring phenology at
518 Utqiagvik and for some but not all species-phenology event combinations at Qikiqtaruk and
519 Zackenberg (Figure 4). For the few species-phenology event combinations that overlapped
520 across sites, some showed consistent responses to the environmental predictors, whereas
521 others showed notable differences in the relative importance of the predictors across the study
522 sites. For example, *Salix arctica* phenology events (flowering and green up) were
523 consistently predicted by snowmelt and temperature across the three sites where the species
524 was monitored (Alexandra Fiord, Qikiqtaruk and Zackenberg), whereas *Dryas integrifolia*
525 flowering showed contrasting responses between sites (Table S11). While *D. integrifolia*
526 flowering was predicted by temperature and snowmelt at Alexandra Fiord, neither of the two
527 environmental factors was a significant predictor at Qikiqtaruk. Furthermore, the closely
528 related *Dryas octopetala* at Zackenberg was predicted to respond to snowmelt only (Table
529 S11). Thus, substantial heterogeneity in controls on phenology between species and sites
530 were highlighted by our study.

531

532 **Discussion**

533 Our test of the importance of temperature, snowmelt and drop in spring sea ice extent as
534 controls over coastal Arctic tundra plant phenology highlight three main findings: 1) Trends

535 in spring phenology were highly variable among species across these four sites emphasizing
536 the substantial heterogeneity in plant phenological response across tundra plant communities.

537 2) While all sites experienced pronounced advances in spring temperatures and onset of
538 regional sea-ice melt, spring phenology did not advance for all species and at all sites. Instead
539 spring phenology advanced only at sites with advancing snowmelt (Qikiqtaruk and
540 Zackenberg) and only for some species-phenological event combinations. 3) Localised
541 snowmelt best explained variation in spring phenology among these coastal Arctic sites,
542 suggesting that it is a key cue for spring leaf-out and early season flowering in coastal tundra
543 plant communities. Our findings confirm that timing of snowmelt (Bjorkman et al., 2015;
544 Cooper et al., 2011; Cortés et al., 2014; Iler et al., 2017; Kankaanpää et al., 2018; Molau et
545 al., 2005; Semenchuk et al., 2016; Sherwood et al., 2017; Thórhallsdóttir, 1998; Wipf, 2009;
546 Wipf et al., 2009), rather than a localised influence of sea ice, has important control over
547 spring plant phenology in coastal tundra ecosystems. Furthermore, our results indicate that
548 temperature, despite being the primary driver of spring plant phenology in temperate regions
549 (Cleland et al., 2007; Thackeray et al., 2016; Wolkovich et al., 2012), holds less explanatory
550 power for predicting spring phenology than snow in coastal tundra ecosystems of the Arctic.

551

552 *Snowmelt needs to be included when studying tundra phenology in a global change context*

553 Our results highlight the importance of local snow conditions in addition to temperature for
554 the prediction of tundra plant phenological responses to global climate change. Despite snow
555 melt being long considered an important driver of tundra plant phenology (Schwartz, 2013),
556 to date, snowmelt has yet to be incorporated into syntheses investigating plant phenology in
557 response to global change across the tundra biome (Oberbauer et al., 2013; Prevéy et al.,
558 2017) nor in cross-biome studies that include phenological observations from both tundra and
559 temperate regions (Post et al., 2018; Wolkovich et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2013). Considering

560 just spring temperature as predictor for tundra plant phenology will not capture key tundra
561 ecosystem dynamics. Even though temperature is a primary driver of snowmelt (Hinkler et
562 al., 2008; Rango & Martinec, 1995), the timing of when Arctic and alpine tundra become
563 snow free is a complex function of winter and spring atmospheric temperatures, precipitation,
564 topography, solar radiation, wind velocity and the water vapour deficit that drives
565 sublimation (Billings & Bliss, 1959; Cortés et al., 2014; Liston, Mcfadden, Sturm, & Pielke,
566 2008; MacDonald, Pomeroy, & Pietroniro, 2010; Molau et al., 2005; Pomeroy, Marsh, &
567 Gray, 1997; Sturm et al., 2001; Vaganov et al., 1999; H. C. Wheeler et al., 2015). See also
568 Hinkler et al. (2008) and Bjorkman et al. (2015) who discuss this partial decoupling of
569 snowmelt timing from temperature at the Zackenberg and Alexandra Fiord in more detail. It
570 follows that excluding snowmelt timing from any analysis that includes tundra spring plant
571 phenology, may therefore lead to unreliable predictions of phenological responses to global
572 change in tundra ecosystems.

573

574 *Influence of snowmelt highlights importance of landscape-level heterogeneity in phenology*

575 The high explanatory power of snowmelt date in this study and its inherently high spatial
576 variability highlight the need to consider landscape heterogeneity in tundra phenology
577 analyses (Kankaanpää et al., 2018). Landscape heterogeneity in phenology integrates a
578 diversity of plant phenological responses and environmental controls (Armstrong, Takimoto,
579 Schindler, Hayes, & Kauffman, 2016). Different plant species, populations and individuals
580 differ in their phenology, and as communities change across the landscape, so too does
581 community-level phenology (CaraDonna, Iler, & Inouye, 2014; Cleland et al., 2007; Høye et
582 al., 2013; Klosterman et al., 2018; Prevéy et al., 2019; Wolkovich, Cook, & Davies, 2014).
583 The environmental controls on phenology may vary substantially across the landscape with
584 topography and microclimate and so may the phenological responses of the plants to climate

585 (Høye et al., 2013). In particular, snowmelt timing can vary at plot and even sub-plot scales
586 due to the localised interplay of micro-topography, radiation and wind (Cortés et al., 2014;
587 Sturm et al., 2001). The multitude of effects of melting snow cover on plant phenology
588 through frost protection (Sherwood, Debinski, Caragea, & Germino, 2017; Wheeler, Høye,
589 Schmidt, Svenning, & Forchhammer, 2015; Wipf & Rixen, 2010), modification of water
590 availability (Wipf & Rixen, 2010) and temperature in the microclimate (Starr & Oberbauer,
591 2003) likely further contributes to landscape dynamics in tundra spring phenology. These
592 localised dynamic effects may hold the key to understanding the high relative importance of
593 snowmelt as a driver of tundra spring phenology.

594

595 Individuals and populations of the same species may not only experience differences in the
596 localised environmental cues, but may also show variation in the relative strength of their
597 phenological responses to these cues, adding to the variation in phenology across the
598 landscape (Høye, Post, Schmidt, Trøjelsgaard, & Forchhammer, 2013; Post et al., 2009). The
599 locality and distribution of phenological monitoring plots and observations of environmental
600 variables therefore need to encompass landscape-level variation, to obtain representative
601 estimates of species and community spring phenological events and drivers at any given site.
602 Emerging technologies such as phenocams (Andresen, Tweedie, & Loughheed, 2018;
603 Linkosalmi et al., 2016; Richardson et al., 2018), fine-scale aerial imagery from drones
604 (Klosterman et al., 2018) and spatiotemporal modelling of snow properties (Pedersen, Liston,
605 Tamstorf, Westergaard-Nielsen, & Schmidt, 2015) may help facilitate phenological and
606 snowmelt monitoring at the spatial grains, temporal frequencies and extents required to
607 understand landscape and community-level phenological change.

608

609 *Site-specific importance of temperature*

610 Our findings suggest that the relative importance of the environmental predictors for coastal
611 spring phenology can differ between sites, plant communities and species. Cross-site level
612 differences were particularly evident for temperature. The Alexandra Fiord site was the only
613 site where phenology was consistently predicted by temperature. Prev y et al (2017) found
614 that temperature explained tundra phenology better at sites with colder versus warmer
615 summers and suggested that this might be due to different evolutionary strategies required at
616 colder sites. For example, a higher temperature sensitivity might be beneficial in optimising
617 rapid flower and seed development to facilitate the colonisation of bare ground at higher
618 latitude sites, where bare ground is often more common (Prev y et al., 2017). On the other
619 hand, CaraDonna et al. (2015) found no evidence for a phylogenetic signal for the strength in
620 the responses of flowering to snowmelt and temperature in a subalpine plant community.
621 H ye et al. (2013) observed plot-specific responses of flowering to temperature within
622 individual species at the Zackenberg site and proposed that variation in localised snow depth
623 and below-ground conditions such as soil moisture and soil temperature could modify the
624 plant’s responses to air temperatures in contrast to evolutionary processes. As Alexandra
625 Fiord is the northernmost site and a “warm oasis” in an otherwise harshly cold polar desert
626 (Freedman, Svoboda, & Henry, 1994), the effects of climate interactions may be reduced
627 compared to warmer and wetter sites further south. However, the low number of sites in our
628 study does not provide the statistical power to test the importance of cross-site differences.
629 Therefore, further investigation is required to test whether localised adaptation or interactions
630 with additional environmental factors are the cause of the variation in the relative importance
631 of the environmental predictors of tundra spring plant phenology across the tundra biome.

632

633 *Spring drop in sea ice extent did not explain variation in phenology*

634 The spring drop in sea ice extent did not explain spring phenology at the coastal tundra sites
635 in our analysis. This was the case for the models that included spring drop in sea-ice as the
636 only environmental predictor (Table S10) as well as for the model containing all three
637 environmental predictors. Thus, our findings suggest that there is neither a direct or indirect
638 regional mechanism linking spring drop in sea-ice to spring phenology at our study sites apart
639 from via temperatures. Due to limited localised data availability, we were not able to directly
640 test whether the sea-breeze mechanism proposed by Haugen & Brown (1980) and observed
641 by Macias-Fauria et al. (2017) or other indirect sea ice drivers have a significant impact on
642 plant spring phenology across our study sites. Thus, our study alone was not able to capture
643 all of the potential complexities suggested by other studies of sea ice at regional to
644 continental scales (Kerby & Post, 2013a; Macias-Fauria et al., 2017; Post et al., 2016).

645

646 The majority of previous studies that have attributed spring phenology variation and plant
647 productivity to sea-ice used large-scale integrative measures such as annual minimum global
648 sea-ice extent (Bhatt et al., 2010; Forchhammer, 2017; Kerby & Post, 2013a; Post et al.,
649 2013, 2016). Phenology has previously also been linked to other integrative global measures
650 such as ENSO or the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) (Chmielewski & Rötzer, 2001;
651 D'Odorico, Yoo, & Jaeger, 2002; Forchhammer, Post, & Stenseth, 1998; Scheifinger,
652 Menzel, Koch, Peter, & Ahas, 2002). Although the integrative measures may correlate well
653 with plant phenology, our findings highlight the value of directly testing interannual variation
654 of localised ecological mechanisms. New datasets of winds, fog, and other variables (Macias-
655 Fauria et al., 2017; Tjernström et al., 2015) and analyses that can incorporate additional direct
656 and indirect interactions among drivers will contribute to disentangling the complexity of
657 patterns and trends in plant phenology observed in the tundra biome and beyond.

658

659 *The challenges of measuring localised sea ice conditions*

660 Determining regional and interannual variation in the onset of sea ice melt can be challenging
661 due to the lack of locally collected data. Globally available satellite products such as the
662 passive microwave data set used in this study (Peng et al., 2013) struggle to detect the ice
663 edge during the melt period (Comiso & Nishio, 2008; Worby & Comiso, 2004) and suffer
664 from land spill-over in cells adjacent to the coast-line (Cavalieri et al., 1999). More accurate
665 manually interpreted datasets based on a mixture of data sources (including optical satellite
666 data) such as those developed by national agencies for navigational purposes could be used,
667 but are often available only for recent years (Canadian Ice Service, 2009) and/or are limited
668 to specific geographic regions (<http://polarview.met.no>). We chose the passive microwave
669 satellite data to estimate the timing of drop in spring sea-ice extent as no other data were
670 available for the entire time-period and geographical extent of our study at a daily resolution.
671 Due to our cautious pre-processing procedure, our measure of onset of sea-ice melt from the
672 NOAA/NSIDC climate data record likely is a conservative estimate and might mask out
673 some of the fine-scale temporal and spatial variation in the sea-ice conditions in the different
674 study regions. Thus, we caution that the interannual variation in regional sea-ice extent may
675 not be entirely comparable to higher-resolution temperature (site level) and snowmelt
676 estimates (site to plot level) used in this study. With advances in technology and growing
677 interest in the northern maritime regions, higher quality sea-ice data are becoming
678 increasingly available in certain geographic regions (see for example Macias-Fauria et al.,
679 2017), and we encourage future studies to repeat our analyses using these data products when
680 available.

681

682 *Photoperiod as a control on spring phenology*

683 Our study was not able to address the separate effect of photoperiod as a control on spring
684 phenology because of the lack of temporal variation required for an analysis such as we have
685 employed here. Arctic and alpine plant phenology can be sensitive to photoperiod as
686 suggested by common garden experiments (Bennington et al., 2012; Bjorkman, Vellend, Frei,
687 & Henry, 2017; Parker, Tang, Clark, Moody, & Fetcher, 2017) and demonstrated in growth
688 chamber experiments (Heide, 1989, 1992; Keller & Körner, 2003). Keller and Körner (2003)
689 found day-length cues for flowering in 54% of the 20 studied alpine plant species and
690 estimated a minimum day length requirement of about 15 h for plants adapted to their study
691 site in the central Alps in Europe. It is therefore likely that minimum daylight requirements
692 were met at all our study sites prior to snowmelt: Alexandra Fiord, Barrow and Zackenberg
693 already experienced 24 hours of daylight two weeks prior to the minimum snowmelt date on
694 record, and Qikiqtaruk experienced 14.5 hours of daylight with no night and only
695 astronomical twilight during spring. However, increases in day length beyond the minimum
696 requirement may accelerate development and phenology of Arctic and alpine plants (Keller
697 & Körner, 2003) and dual requirements based on interactions of temperature and photoperiod
698 have been documented in other studies (Heide, 1989). Thus, understanding the interactive
699 nature of photoperiod and environmental cues on phenology, particularly in the context of
700 lengthening growing seasons and range expansions with warming from lower latitudes with
701 stronger diurnal light variation to high latitudes, remains a future challenge for tundra plant
702 ecology.

703

704 *Phenology, trophic interactions and ecosystem change*

705 Tundra plant phenology impacts ecosystem functions such as net primary productivity
706 (Forkel et al., 2016; Piao et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2013) thereby creating feedbacks to the
707 global climate system (Richardson et al., 2013). Our study underlines the importance of

708 localised snowmelt dates for spring plant phenology in coastal tundra ecosystems. Snow
709 cover is projected to decrease across the Arctic (AMAP, 2017), but predicted changes in
710 snow conditions differ in direction and magnitude amongst regions and seasons (AMAP,
711 2017). While high declines in snow cover are expected for warmer coastal areas and during
712 spring, high Arctic sites, such as Alexandra Fiord, are predicted to experience increases in the
713 annual accumulation of snow (AMAP, 2017). Locally reduced spring snow cover could
714 increase the susceptibility of plants to freezing events and damage due to photoinhibition
715 (Lundell et al., 2010), affecting plant productivity, community composition and evolution
716 through plant health and mortality (Bokhorst, Bjerke, Street, Callaghan, & Phoenix, 2011;
717 Cortés et al., 2014; Jonas, Rixen, Sturm, & Stoeckli, 2008; Phoenix & Bjerke, 2016; J. A.
718 Wheeler et al., 2016; Wipf & Rixen, 2010). Thus, quantifying the impact of plant phenology
719 on productivity change over time is a key element to improved projections of tundra carbon
720 storage and energy flux feedbacks to the global climate system (Park et al., 2016).

721

722 Tundra plant phenology influences resource availability for secondary consumers (Barboza et
723 al., 2018; Doiron et al., 2015; Gustine et al., 2017; Kerby & Post, 2013b) and asynchronous
724 shifts between interacting species due to climate change could result in trophic mismatches
725 (Doiron et al., 2015; Kerby & Post, 2013b, 2013a; Schmidt, Mosbacher, et al., 2016). Locally
726 reduced spring snow cover could decrease spatial variation in snowmelt timing and thus
727 lessen the extent of landscape-scale heterogeneity in plant phenology and shorten flowering
728 duration (Prevéy et al., 2018), with potentially detrimental impacts on consumers, as these
729 may rely on temporal and spatial variation in their food sources to maximise energy intake
730 across the season (Armstrong et al., 2016; Moorter et al., 2013). This interaction between
731 spatial and temporal patterning and trends in trophic mismatches has only rarely been
732 explored in the tundra and other ecosystems (Bischof et al., 2012; Burgess et al., 2018;

733 Sawyer & Kauffman, 2011). A comprehensive understanding of the mechanistic drivers of
734 plant phenology, and how these drivers are changing over time, is therefore key to our ability
735 to predict and manage the consequences of future environmental change in tundra ecosystems
736 and beyond (Kharouba et al., 2018; Richardson et al., 2013; Thackeray, 2016; Thackeray et
737 al., 2016; Wolkovich et al., 2014)

738

739 *Conclusions*

740 The Arctic is warming more rapidly than any other region of the planet (IPCC, 2014), with
741 well documented consequences for tundra plant communities, including changes in
742 community composition (Elmendorf, Henry, Hollister, Björk, Bjorkman, et al., 2012;
743 Elmendorf, Henry, Hollister, Björk, Boulanger-Lapointe, et al., 2012; Elmendorf et al., 2015;
744 Ernakovich et al., 2014), trophic mismatch (Doiron et al., 2015; Gustine et al., 2017; Kerby
745 & Post, 2013b, 2013a; Post et al., 2008) and altered plant phenology (Høye, Post, Meltofte,
746 Schmidt, & Forchhammer, 2007; Post et al., 2018). Our findings suggest that snowmelt and
747 temperature, but not spring drop in sea-ice extent are the dominant cues for spring phenology
748 in coastal Arctic plant communities that experience short growing seasons and persistent
749 snow cover. Later snowmelt therefore can delay phenology, even when air temperatures are
750 warming over time. Our findings further suggest that the relative importance of snowmelt
751 timing and temperature as predictors of tundra spring plant phenology may differ among
752 communities, species and populations across the tundra biome. Together, these results
753 highlight the growing evidence that tundra vegetation responses to rapid environmental
754 change are more complex than a simple response to increasing temperatures and help explain
755 the variation in phenological trends seen among tundra sites. Thus, to understand and better
756 predict future tundra vegetation change and associated feedbacks on the global climate
757 system, we require localised tests of the specific influences of mechanistic drivers of change.

758 Our study illustrates the value of long-term monitoring programmes (sensu Post & Høye,
759 2013; Hobbie et al., 2017; Schmidt, Christensen, & Roslin, 2017; Myers-Smith et al., 2019)
760 and cross-site data syntheses for quantifying site- and species-specific responses to
761 environmental change. Only with quantitative tests carried out on comprehensive cross-site
762 datasets, can we attribute variation in plant phenology to localised environmental cues and
763 improve our predictions of tundra ecosystem responses to global change.

764

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