

1 **Paws for thought: Impacts of animal husbandry on tundra**
2 **greening in High Arctic Svalbard**

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46 **Abstract:**

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48 Dog sledding in High Arctic Svalbard is a key tourist attraction, and the keeping of animals and
49 livestock has historically been in practice in the settlements of the archipelago. The resulting waste
50 disposal practices - particularly those involving the disposal of animal faeces and fodder - hugely
51 enrich soils with excess nutrients. Here, we explore how animal husbandry affected changes in tundra
52 vegetation greenness from 1985 to 2021 using Landsat satellite observations from 31 sites in
53 Svalbard. In particular, we assessed changes in annual maximum vegetation greenness at
54 contemporary and historical animal husbandry sites using the Normalized Difference Vegetation
55 Index (NDVI) to extract dates of peak-season greenness, green-up, and plant senescence. We found
56 that while peak-season greenness increased across all of our study sites, the greening signal was
57 enhanced at active dog-yards and historic animal husbandry sites. In addition, the greening signal
58 was stronger at all animal husbandry sites compared to reference 'non-disturbed' tundra sites. Across
59 sites, the date of tundra vegetation greening shifted up to 0.81 days earlier, and the date of plant
60 senescence shifted slightly later from 1985 to 2021. Our analysis shows nutrient enrichment from
61 animal husbandry can stimulate long-term increases in tundra vegetation productivity, with a lasting
62 impact of nutrient enrichment at abandoned animal husbandry sites.

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65 **Keywords:** *remote sensing, polar biology, tundra greening, animal husbandry, tourist impact,*
66 *ecosystem change*

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83 **1. Introduction:**

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85 The first permanent settlements in Svalbard were established in the late 1800s in the central Isfjorden
86 region (Arlov 1994), where the main settlements on the archipelago are still found today, including
87 Longyearbyen, Barentsburg and Pyramiden. In this historical period dominated by hunting, trapping
88 and mining, sled dogs (*Canis lupus familiaris*) were an important mode of transportation (Umbreit,
89 2009). Today, dog sledding is a popular tourist attraction in Svalbard, one that is often packaged as
90 a group activity by tour companies, and largely clustered in the Adventdalen valley with road access
91 to Longyearbyen (Meyer 2016). In addition to dog sledding, animal husbandry in Svalbard also
92 includes pony trekking and historically included the keeping of livestock in the settlements of the
93 archipelago. Historic pig and cattle farms were disbanded during the late 20th century in
94 Longyearbyen, Barentsburg, Pyramiden and Ny-Ålesund, but are known hotspots for both non-native
95 invertebrates and vascular plants due to imported soils, the seed import pathway provided by
96 livestock fodder, intensive human activity and soil disturbance, all of which provide routes for, and
97 facilitate, non-native species establishment (Alsos et al., 2015; Bartlett et al., 2021; Coulson et al.,
98 2013; Liška & Soldán, 2004). Animal husbandry and associated waste disposal practices can hugely
99 enrich soils with excess nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorus (Steinfeld & Wassenaar, 2007;
100 Xu et al., 2019). As yet, there has been no research into the ecological impact of these activities on
101 the nutrient-poor Arctic tundra ecosystem. Here, we explore impacts of historic and contemporary
102 animal husbandry on tundra vegetation in Svalbard using long-term satellite measurements of
103 vegetation greenness.

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105 Satellite measurements have often been used to track long-term changes in vegetation greenness
106 across high latitude regions (Berner & Goetz, 2022; Bhatt et al., 2013; Forbes et al., 2010; Myers-
107 Smith et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2016). Vegetation greenness is typically characterised using spectral
108 indices such as the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), with a positive trend in spectral
109 greenness termed “greening” and a negative trend termed “browning”. Greening trends often
110 correspond to climate warming and potentially accelerated soil development (Doetterl et al., 2022;

111 Forbes et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2016), while browning trends have been associated with extreme local
112 events, such as drought and extreme winter temperatures (Bjerke, 2011; Bjerke et al., 2017; Bokhorst
113 et al., 2008). Satellite-derived greenness indices such as NDVI are useful proxies of plant
114 productivity and aboveground biomass (Berner et al., 2020; Forbes et al., 2010; Myers-Smith et al.,
115 2020; Reynolds et al., 2006), but their applications in High Arctic regions such as Svalbard are often
116 complicated by high cloud cover, long-lasting snow cover, and low solar zenith angles (Karlsen et
117 al., 2021; Macias-Fauria et al., 2017). Previous research indicates that between 1985 - 2015,
118 NDVImax (or annual peak greenness) increased 29% across vegetated parts of Svalbard, a trend that
119 was positively correlated with increased summer temperatures (Vickers et al., 2016). As yet, there
120 has been no research into the correspondence between nutrient enrichment and satellite-derived
121 greening trends in Svalbard, despite bird-cliff vegetation being naturally nutrient-enriched due to
122 high prevalence of bird guano (Odasz, 1994; Solheim et al., 1996; Zwolicki et al., 2013).

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124 Over the last three decades, many tundra plants have exhibited earlier reproductive phenology in
125 response to warmer summer temperatures, and at a rate of change faster than the planet's more
126 temperate regions (Høye et al., 2007; Panchen & Gorelick, 2017; Prevéy et al., 2019; Wookey et al.,
127 1993). Likewise, late-season senescence phenophases have shifted later across many Arctic sites
128 (Collins et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2016; Marchand et al., 2004). In High Arctic regions, such as
129 Svalbard, the transition between vegetation phenophases (e.g. bud burst to flowering, or leaf-out to
130 senescence) often occurs at lower thermal thresholds than observed in low- or sub-Arctic regions
131 (Oberbauer et al., 2013; J. Prevéy et al., 2017). Utilising NDVI data derived from MODIS, Karlsen
132 et al., (2014) found no clear trend in the timing of the onset of plant growth across Svalbard between
133 2000 and 2013. Furthermore, the detection of early season phenology from satellite-derived imagery
134 corresponds well to *in-situ* observations from timelapse cameras (Karlsen et al., 2021). There is
135 evidence to suggest that nutrient-enriched tundra vegetation exhibits higher - and earlier - peak-
136 season greenness (Andresen et al., 2018), but as yet no research into the plant phenology at animal
137 husbandry sites in the Arctic.

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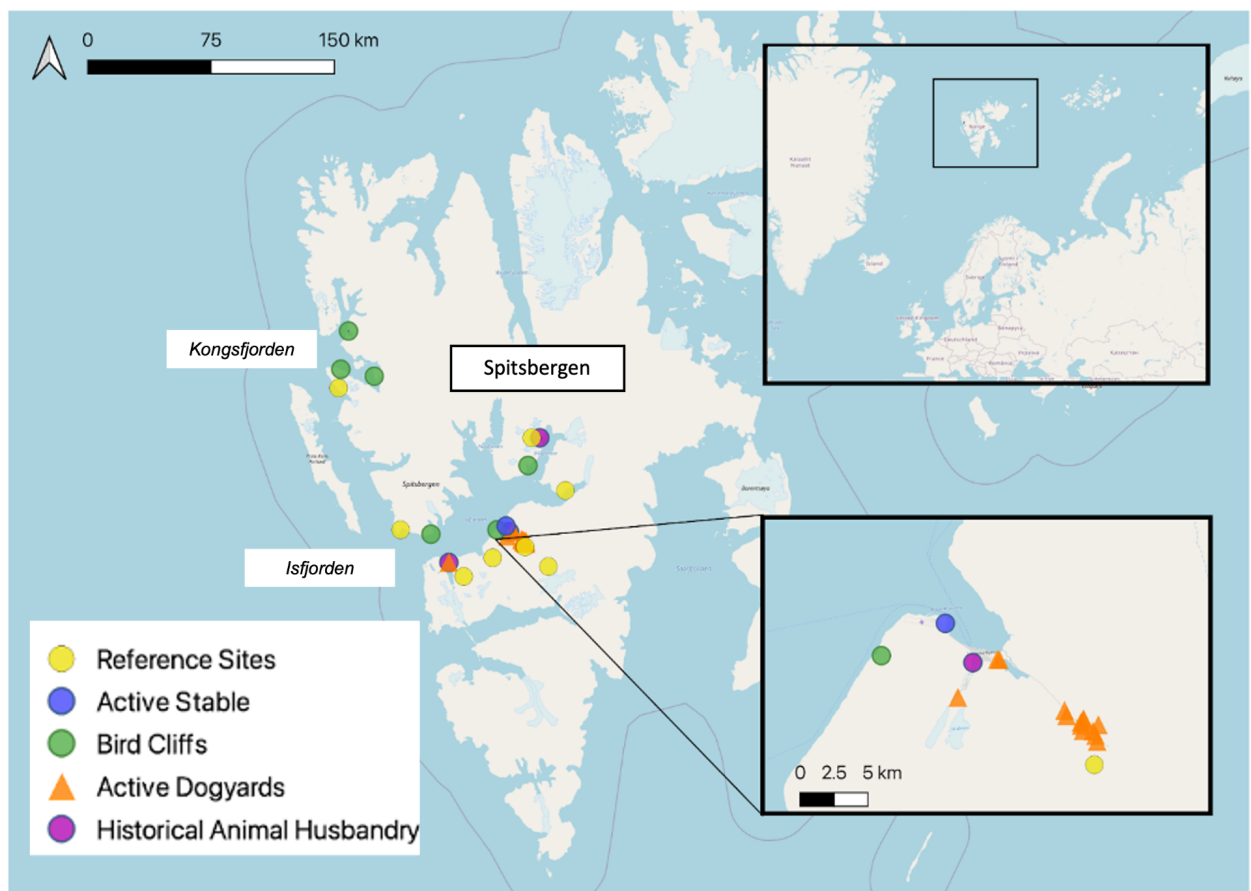
139 Considering the diversity of animal husbandry practises across the archipelago, and recent
140 development of novel methods to harness and process moderate-resolution Landsat imagery (Berner
141 et al., 2023), we intended to quantify the extent to which tundra greening is being enhanced by human
142 management of dogs and livestock in the High Arctic. The main objective of this study was to
143 **investigate the impact of historical and contemporary animal husbandry associated**
144 **disturbance on the tundra vegetation in Svalbard.** We examined satellite time series of vegetation
145 greenness immediately surrounding animal husbandry sites, and reference sites across the central and
146 western regions of Svalbard. Our key research questions were **(1) are animal husbandry sites**
147 **experiencing more tundra greening than non-disturbed tundra vegetation?**, and **(2) is the**
148 **timing of the growing season different at animal husbandry sites in comparison to non-**
149 **disturbed tundra vegetation?** We hypothesised that nutrient enrichment at contemporary and
150 historic animal husbandry sites would lead to higher average NDVI and more rapid greening in
151 comparison to areas where no livestock or sled dogs have been kept. We also hypothesised that the
152 growing season would begin earlier and end later at animal husbandry sites in comparison to the non-
153 disturbed sites.

154 2. Methods:

155 2.1. Study Sites

156 For this analysis, we selected 31 sites across Svalbard at the location of historical or contemporary
157 dog, pony, pig, or cattle husbandry, in addition to sites with active seabird-cliffs, plus sites of
158 undisturbed vegetation. Sites were classified into five different land use types: historic animal
159 husbandry; active stable; active dog yards; seabird cliff vegetation; and reference sites (Figure 1).
160 We included 12 active dog yards, one Icelandic pony stable that remains active as of 2022, and four
161 historical husbandry sites, including abandoned pig farms, dog yards, and cattle-sheds. To compare
162 vegetation greening trends between animal husbandry sites and in areas without human disturbance,
163 we included six seabird-cliff vegetation sites and eight reference tundra sites. We selected locations
164 for the seabird-cliff vegetation based on the greenest visible points on summer satellite imagery at

165 each site, and selected reference points to cover a range of underlying geological and climatic
166 conditions across the Isfjorden and Kongsfjorden coastlines of Spitsbergen. We used QGIS software
167 (QGIS Team, 2022) to draw polygons around the extent of the animal husbandry locations (yards
168 hereafter), and used the *terra* package in *R* (Hijmans, 2022) to create a 50m radius ‘doughnut’ around
169 the yard perimeter, with a void space representing the location of the yard to include the surrounding
170 vegetation, but exclude the non-vegetated dog yard. For the seabird-cliff and reference sites, we
171 generated circular polygons using a 50 m buffer radius from each selected location.
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174 **Figure 1:** Location of active and historical animal husbandry sites, reference sites and seabird
175 cliffs. Inset 1: Location of Svalbard. Inset 2: Location of sites in the Longyearbyen area.

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177 **2.2. Landsat satellite data processing**

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179 For each study site, we generated a time series of vegetation greenness from 1985-2021, using surface
180 reflectance measurements from the Landsat satellites. To generate these vegetation greenness time
181 series, we used the newly developed *LandsatTS* software package (Berner et al., 2023) for R (R Core
182 Team 2022). This software package enables users to easily extract Landsat data archived on Google
183 Earth Engine (GEE; Gorelick et al. 2017) and then conduct quality screening, cross-sensor
184 calibration, and phenological modelling. Specifically, we first identified all 30 x 30 m Landsat grid
185 cells that overlapped with each study site polygon and then extracted all Landsat 5, 7, and 8 surface
186 reflectance measurements that were made from May through late September between 1985 and 2021.
187 To ensure the subsequent analysis used high-quality measurements acquired under clear-sky
188 conditions, we filtered out measurements affected by snow, surface water, clouds, or shadows, as
189 well as measurements taken at low solar zenith angles. We derived NDVI using the surface
190 reflectance measurements and because there are systematic differences in NDVI among Landsat
191 sensors (Ju and Masek 2016; Berner et al. 2020), we then further cross-calibrated this metric using
192 random forests that adjusted Landsat 5 and 8 NDVI to match Landsat 7 NDVI based on relationships
193 built from years with overlapping observations. Lastly, we fit phenological models to the NDVI time
194 series at each site, which allowed us to estimate the magnitude and timing of annual maximum NDVI
195 (NDVImax). A prior study showed similar estimates of Landsat NDVImax were positively correlated
196 with field measurements of annual shrub growth, sedge productivity, and ecosystem productivity at
197 sites across the Arctic (Berner et al. 2020).

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199 ***2.3. Extracting NDVImax values and phenophase dates***

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201 Using our daily cross-calibrated NDVI observations generated using the *LandsatTS* package, we
202 extracted key phenophase dates to summarise growing season characteristics across each study site.
203 First, we calculated NDVImax (highest NDVI value for each pixel per year) across the dataset. We
204 then calculated first occurrence of 50% of NDVImax, or ‘green-up’ (amplification in greenness -
205 NDVImax: 100%, NDVImin: 0%), and last occurrence of 50% of NDVImax, or ‘senescence’
206 (reduction in greenness - NDVImax: 100%, NDVImin: 0%), averaged between pixels for each site

207 and for each year. We did not calculate any earlier or later phenophases (e.g. spring snowmelt or
208 autumn snow return) due to lack of data in these periods due to the filtering out of cloudy data, or
209 data where the solar zenith is too low. Using these data, we evaluated the change over time of key
210 phenophases for each of the animal husbandry and reference sites.

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212 **2.4. Statistical Analysis**

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214 We used linear mixed effects methods to run three regression models: one to model the change in
215 NDVImax over time across the land use types, one to model the change in green-up date over time
216 across land use types, and one to model the change in senescence date across land use types. For the
217 NDVImax model, we used NDVImax as the response variable, with year (1985-2021) and the
218 classification for land use types (stable, dog yard, historical site, reference site, or bird cliffs) as
219 interacting fixed effects (year*type). This interaction was designed to allow us to compare different
220 greening trends across the land use types included in this study. Similarly, for our phenology models,
221 the timing of either green-up or senescence was used as the response variable, with year and land use
222 type as interacting fixed effects (year*type). For each of our models, we included both “site” and
223 “year” as random effects, because many of the sites are geographically close to one another, and we
224 intended to account for similar conditions across neighbouring sites in the same years. We ran the
225 model using the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015) in R version 3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2013). All of
226 the code and data used in this research study can be downloaded here:
227 <https://github.com/EliseGallois/SvalbardDogHub/tree/main> .

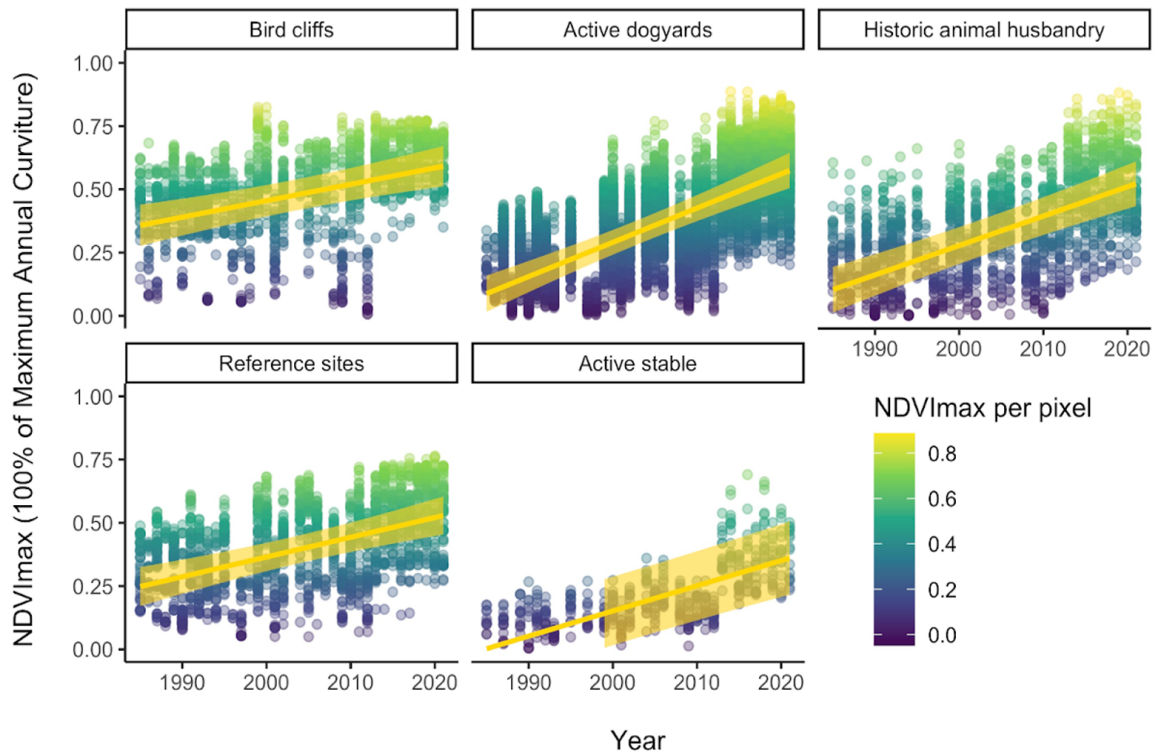
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229 **3. Results:**

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231 Although NDVImax increased from 1985-2021 across all sites, there were significantly greater
232 changes in NDVImax at the historic and contemporary animal husbandry sites compared to the
233 seabird-cliff and reference sites (Figure 2; Table S1). Over these 36 years, NDVImax significantly
234 ($p < 0.001$) increased $44\% \pm 0.99\%$ at the dog yards and $39\% \pm 1.24\%$ at the historical husbandry

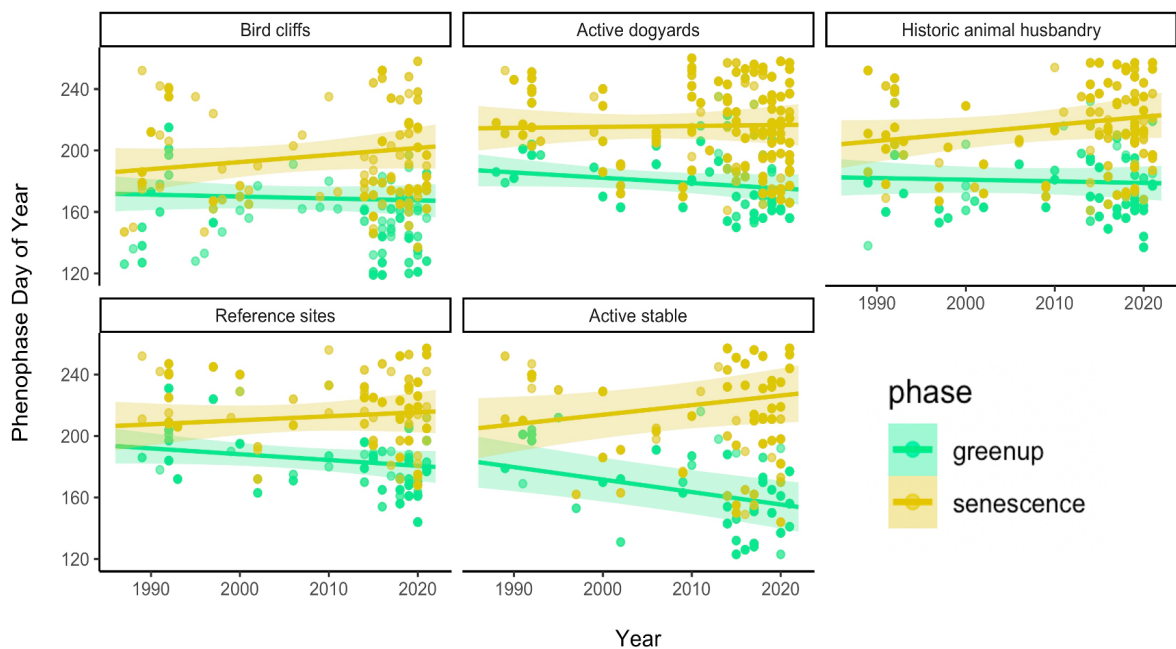
235 sites, but only $22\% \pm 4.96\%$ at the bird cliffs and $26\% \pm 1.19\%$ at the reference sites, which had
 236 higher initial greenness in the 1980s. As such, NDVImax at the dog yards increased 18% more, and
 237 the historical sites increased 13% more than the reference sites. In contrast to other animal husbandry
 238 sites, the active pony stable has the lowest overall NDVImax (0.22) and the smallest long-term
 239 increase in NDVImax ($33\% \pm 1.2\%$), although there appears to be a jump to higher NDVImax post-
 240 2012.



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 242 **Figure 2:** Changes in Landsat NDVImax from 1985 to 2021 for each of the five land use categories.
 243 The most pronounced increases occurred at the active dog yards and the historical husbandry sites,
 244 which both have much lower intercepts than the bird cliffs and reference sites. Each point represents
 245 the annual NDVImax value for each pixel for each year ($n = 11,919$). The yellow ribbon represents
 246 95% confidence intervals. Full outputs can be found in Supplementary materials (Table S1).
 247 Marginal $R^2 = 0.407$, conditional $R^2 = 0.714$.
 248
 249 The green-up date (first annual occurrence 50% of NDVImax at each site) shifted earlier at each site
 250 - although at different magnitudes (Figure 3, Table S2). Green-up at the active stable site shifted the
 251 earliest of all the sites, despite showing relatively limited greening overall (Figure 2; Figure 3) -

252 green-up here is taking place 0.81 days earlier per year (± 0.09 , $p = <0.001$). Meanwhile, the date of
 253 senescence appears to occur slightly later in the growing season across all sites (Table S3). At the
 254 active dog yards, the date of senescence has remained fairly static between 1985-2021, only
 255 occurring 0.06 days later per year (± 0.12 , $p = 0.001$). Green-up appears to be occurring earlier across
 256 all land use types, and senescence appears to be occurring slightly later across all land use types -
 257 indicating a gradual lengthening of the growing seasons regardless of animal husbandry practises or
 258 seabird activity, though this lengthening is especially pronounced at the low-NDVI active stable site
 259 (Figure 3).

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261

262 **Figure 3:** Earlier green-up across all land use types, and slightly delayed senescence over the time
 263 period 1985-2021. The active stable is experiencing a lengthening growing season. Each point
 264 represents the green-up (green) or senescence (gold) date of occurrence value averaged across pixels
 265 for each site for each year ($n = 5,217$). The gold and green ribbons represent 95% confidence
 266 intervals. Full outputs can be found in Supplementary materials (Tables S2 and S3). Greenup Model
 267 Marginal $R^2 = 0.134$, conditional $R^2 = 0.596$. Senescence Model Marginal $R^2 = 0.048$, conditional
 268 $R^2 = 0.464$.

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270 **4. Discussion:**

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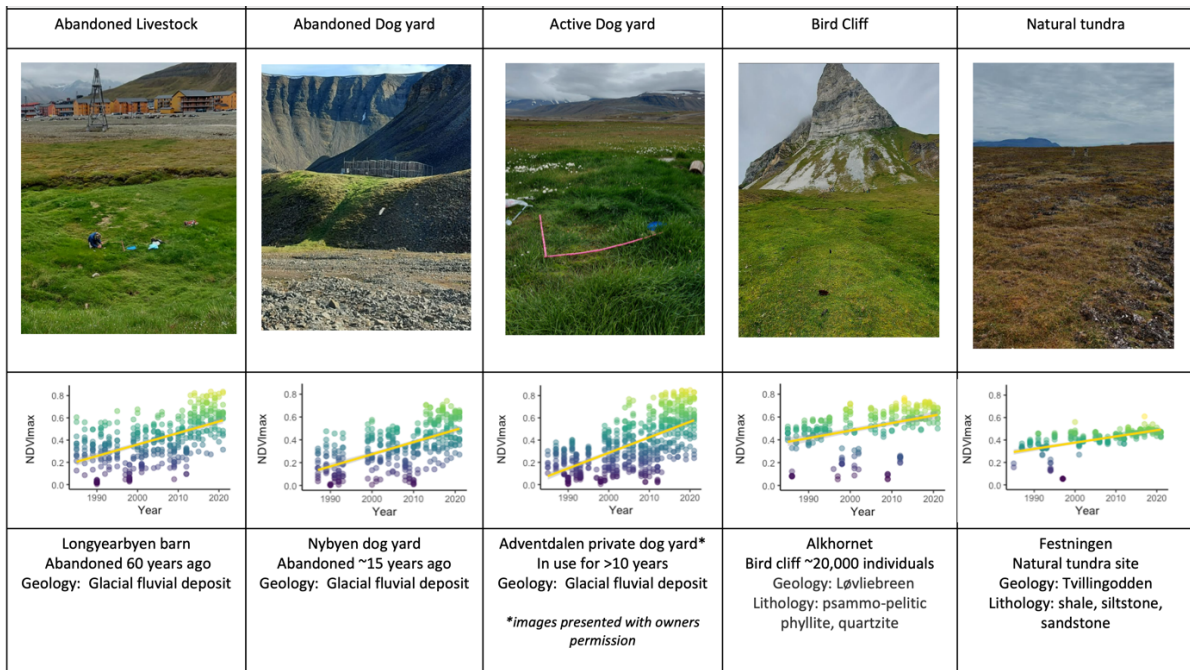
272 Nutrient availability is a key limitation on vegetation productivity both globally and within Arctic
273 tundra (Andresen & Lougheed, 2021; Atiyeh et al., 2002; Boelman et al., 2003; Amara & Mourad,
274 2013; Jónsdóttir et al., 2005), yet nutrient inputs from animal husbandry could alleviate these
275 limitations thereby increasing vegetation productivity. Our analysis revealed that during the past four
276 decades the largest increases in vegetation greenness (i.e. productivity) occurred at the dog yards
277 (+44%) and other animal husbandry (+39%) sites, whereas changes in vegetation greenness were
278 less pronounced at the reference sites (+22%). More rapid increases in vegetation greenness at the
279 animal husbandry sites likely reflects the fact that vegetation has greater access to N and P due to
280 nutrient inputs from faeces, urine, and fodder. Increased access to nutrients could then enable
281 vegetation to grow larger, leafier, and more productively, especially as in many areas, growing
282 seasons have become longer with warming in recent decades (e.g. Zeng et al., 2013). These patterns
283 are broadly consistent with prior research showing that soil nutrient availability mediates the effects
284 of climate warming on vegetation productivity in northern ecosystems (Berner & Goetz, 2022;
285 Gignac et al., 2022; Sullivan et al., 2015). Furthermore, additional nutrient leaching from poor waste
286 management at animal husbandry sites into surrounding tundra are highly likely to be driving
287 enhanced greening.

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289 While the comparison between the active stable, active dog yards, and historic husbandry sites
290 provides an imperfect space-for-time comparison, it must be considered whether the enhanced
291 greening trend at the dog yards may be a result of continual generation of animal waste at the site
292 versus remnant nutrients from previous waste management at the historic husbandry sites. It is also
293 likely that the low-NDVI values and minimal greening trend at the stable site is a result of continual
294 activity including extensive trampling, and refuse dumping at this site, both of which limit direct
295 vegetation growth. In future analyses, it would be beneficial to work with the proprietors of the active
296 yards to compare interannual NDVI variability to site-specific developments such as the expansion
297 of yards and the digging of waste trenches.

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Meanwhile, vegetation greenness steadily increased at the seabird cliffs and tundra reference sites during recent decades, but not as rapidly as at the animal husbandry sites. The “baseline” greening trend at the reference sites is consistent with previous research on Svalbard. For example, NDVImax was reported to have increased by 29% across parts of Svalbard from 1985 to 2015 - a trend that was found to be positively correlated with increased mean summer temperatures (Vickers et al., 2016). Meanwhile, seabird cliffs experienced a 22% increase in NDVImax over the study period, but had a higher “baseline” productivity in the 1980s than the other sites. These sea bird cliffs have colonies of little auks (*Alle alle*), guillemots (*Uria lomvia*) and kittiwakes (*Rissa tridactyla*), and the soils below the cliffs contains high levels of nutrients enriched by bird guano (Odasz, 1994; Solheim et al., 1996; Zwolicki et al., 2013). Bird guano has been previously identified as a key nutrient source in the otherwise low-nutrient polar tundra of Svalbard (Solheim et al., 1996). The bird cliff vegetation is classified as ‘Near Threatened’ on the Norwegian Red List for nature (Arnesen et al., 2018) and has been described as “luxuriant communities” and “the only true meadows on Svalbard” (Elvebakk, 1994). A key unknown is whether greening trends will continue or stagnate at the nutrient-rich bird cliffs, animal husbandry sites, and other locations across Svalbard. Future changes in vegetation greenness may depend on the relative influence of enhanced nutrients as a source of fertilisation and the introduction and establishment of non-native plant species versus negative feedbacks such as increased drought stress, rain-on-snow events, changing marine food resources for shore birds, increased bare ground cover due to permafrost thaw, or a non-linear link between climate warming and photosynthesis (Bjerke, 2011; Bjerke et al., 2017; Myers-Smith et al., 2020; Piao et al., 2014). See Fig. 4 for individual case studies across each land-use type.



321

322 **Figure 4:** Case studies of individual sites used for each land-use type, each showing an increase in
323 NDVI_{max} over 36 years. Photographs taken by Kristine Bakke Westergaard and Jesamine Bartlett.
324 See Figure S1 for a scatterplot for each site included in the study.

325

326 We observed a shift toward earlier green-up across all sites along with a slight shift towards later
327 senescence. Studies using NDVI as a proxy of phenology are common in the Arctic (Assmann et al.,
328 2020; Zeng et al., 2013), but sparse in High Arctic Svalbard, where low solar zenith angles, cloud
329 and snow cover make it difficult to harness adequate spring and autumn data. An analysis of MODIS
330 NDVI found no clear trend in the timing of the onset of plant growth across Svalbard between 2000
331 and 2013 (Karlsen et al., 2014). Using the much shorter Sentinel time series, Karlsen et al. (2021)
332 found close correspondence between NDVI time series and *in-situ* timelapse camera data - although
333 the results of these two studies are not easily comparable with ours as their threshold for greenup
334 was 70% of NDVI_{max}, whereas we had enough filtered Landsat data to extract 50% greenup, which
335 we believe to be more representative of spring plant phenophases. Growing season ‘greening’ curves
336 of Svalbard reveal varying growing season characteristics dependent on the community composition
337 of the landscape - for example graminoid-dominated plots (similar to many of the sites included in
338 this study) exhibiting a clear and sharp greenness peak (Anderson et al., 2016), which can be seen in

339 many of the dog yard sites (see Fig. S2). Semenchuk et al. (2016) argue that while the timing of the
340 Svalbard growing season onset can be influenced by abiotic factors, the timing between each
341 phenophase among native species may be ‘fixed’, while non-native species may exhibit
342 ‘aperiodicity’, allowing for uncoupled timing of early- and late-season phenophases. This idea merits
343 further analysis. Future vegetation surveys at these sites such as those undertaken focussing on non-
344 native plant species across settlements and selected seabird cliffs in Svalbard by the Norwegian Polar
345 Institute, could characterise the presence and abundance of native versus non-native species to further
346 understand factors that affect changes in growing season length, community composition, and
347 vegetation greenness (see active stable in Fig. 3).

348

349 Enhanced greening at animal husbandry sites could lead to cascading ecosystem impacts in the
350 surrounding tundra. Pink-footed geese (*Anser brachyrhynchus*) arrive in Svalbard during spring and
351 preferentially grub at wetter, low-lying, vegetated tundra sites, such as those around Adventdalen
352 (Speed et al., 2009). Geese and other migratory bird species are common in the vicinity of dog yards
353 around Longyearbyen, where many observers speculate that the presence of the sled dogs scare away
354 native predators such as the Arctic fox (*Vulpes lagopus*). Shifting phenologies can also impact animal
355 movements and behaviour in the region. Svalbard reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus platyrhynchus*)
356 preferentially select grazing grounds in areas with high plant biomass (Van der Wal et al., 2000) -
357 for example in the lush meadows as observed in the proximity of animal husbandry sites (personal
358 observations - J. Bartlett and K.B. Westergaard). Plant biomass quantity and seasonal availability
359 may vary due to different nutrient enrichment levels and presence of alien species across the tundra.
360 Across the Arctic, herbivore species richness is positively associated with plant productivity (Barrio
361 et al., 2016). Additionally, plant-pollinator visitations may also be vulnerable to change as a result
362 of phenological mismatches (Gillespie et al., 2016; Hegland et al., 2009; Memmott et al., 2007).
363 Animal husbandry sites act as hotspots for the introduction and establishment of non-native plants
364 (Bartlett et al., 2021) and activities such as importing feed for the animals in addition to increased
365 footfall from increased human activity can promote repeated dispersal events to the tundra
366 surrounding these husbandry sites. For example, *Ranunculus aris* and *Veronica longifolia*, both non-

367 native species, have been observed growing metres away from their original hotspots near animal
368 husbandry sites in Barentsburg (personal observation by K.B. Westergaard). There is scope,
369 therefore, for future analysis on changing conditions at animal husbandry sites, and the various
370 interacting environmental and interspecies processes in the surrounding tundra landscape.

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372 As the number of tourists continues to grow in Svalbard (Meyer, 2016), it is likely that the demand
373 for activities such as dog sledding will remain high. Currently, no regulations or guidance for waste
374 management exist, therefore it may be prudent to consider implementing a waste management policy
375 that reduces, or manages, the level of nutrient run-off from these animal husbandry sites into the
376 surrounding tundra landscape. Our analysis indicates significantly enhanced tundra greening where
377 sled dogs or livestock are actively or were historically kept. Sites with disturbed soil are known
378 hotspots for establishment of non-native plant species in cold regions (Alsos et al., 2015; Bartlett et
379 al., 2021; Lembrechts et al., 2016), therefore our results could be used to inform a future updated
380 action plan on non-native species on Svalbard. For example further raising the profile of public facing
381 biosecurity information schemes / tourist outreach such as ‘Stop Arctic Aliens’
382 (<https://www.stoparcticaliens.com/>) can reduce the introduction of further non-native species, and
383 by assessing the origin, use and disposal of hay and fodder used in animal husbandry on the island a
384 potentially large propagule pressure could be minimised. Further research should incorporate nutrient
385 content and soil chemistry analysis from collected samples across contemporary and historic animal
386 husbandry sites, bird cliffs, and undisturbed tundra sites. Given the potential of animal waste, and in
387 particular that of *Canids*, microbiome pollution and the risk of pathogen exposure to the native
388 mammalian population (especially from the Arctic fox), should also be included when considering
389 the environmental impact of a growing dog population (Elmore et al., 2013; Mandarino-Pereira et
390 al., 2010; Skirnisson et al., 1993; Tamponi et al., 2020). It would also be prudent to examine the
391 influence of local topography and hydrology on nutrient movement at these sites, and quantify the
392 scale and influence of excess nutrient runoff on the surrounding tundra ecosystem. It will be
393 increasingly important to monitor and manage the mounting impacts of tourism and animal
394 husbandry not only in Svalbard, but also more broadly across the rapidly warming Arctic.

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5. Conclusion:

We found that peak-season vegetation greenness increased over the past four decades across all of the study sites in Svalbard, yet the rate of greening was much higher at the active dog yards and historic animal husbandry sites. These sites are known hotspots for non-native plants (Bartlett et al., 2021), which can form lush meadows around sites of active and abandoned animal husbandry. Furthermore, the date of green-up has shifted earlier, while the date of senescence has shifted slightly later over this period, with little difference across land use types. We were able to harness moderate resolution Landsat satellite observations to characterise long-term changes in vegetation greenness in an area that has previously been relatively understudied. The *LandsatTS* approach allowed us to strategically analyse time series data for hundreds of individual pixels across Svalbard with relative ease, and can be applied to future analyses of anthropogenic impacts on tundra ecosystems.

Our analysis showed animal husbandry increases surrounding tundra productivity, with lasting impacts even at historic animal husbandry sites. Overall, if the number of sled dogs continues to increase in Svalbard, and both the number of tourists and demand for activities such as dog sledding increase ('This Is Svalbard 2016. What the Figures Say', n.d.), then we should expect to see further enhanced greening across the easily-accessible central fjord region of Spitsbergen if waste management and biosecurity strategies are not established to control excess nutrient enrichment or reduce the spread of non-native plants. We recommend further research at these sites to disentangle the interactions between nutrient enrichment, runoff, non-native species, vegetation greening, and faunal interactions.

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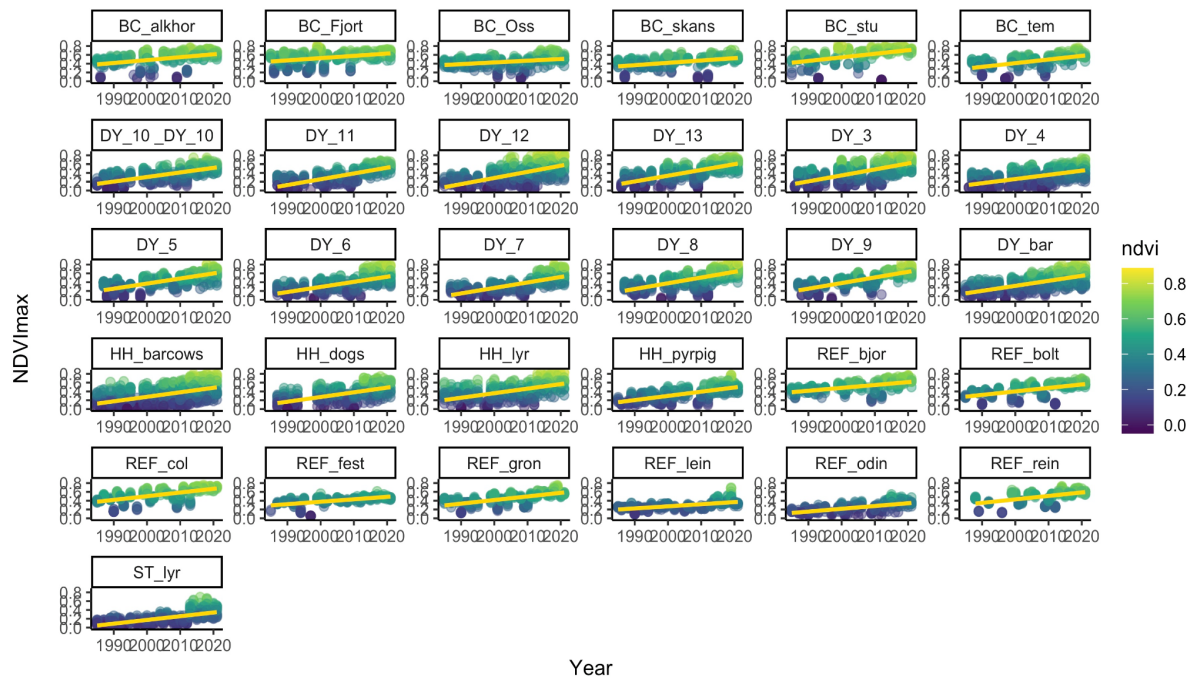
676 **Supplementary Materials**

677

678 **Supplementary Table 1:** Statistical results for the hierarchical linear mixed models quantifying
 679 NDVI_{max} trends across time across land use types across Svalbard. To account for variance within
 680 sites and within years, these models included ‘Site’ and ‘Year’ as a random effect. We included an
 681 interactive term between land use type and year to account for varying trends between land use types.
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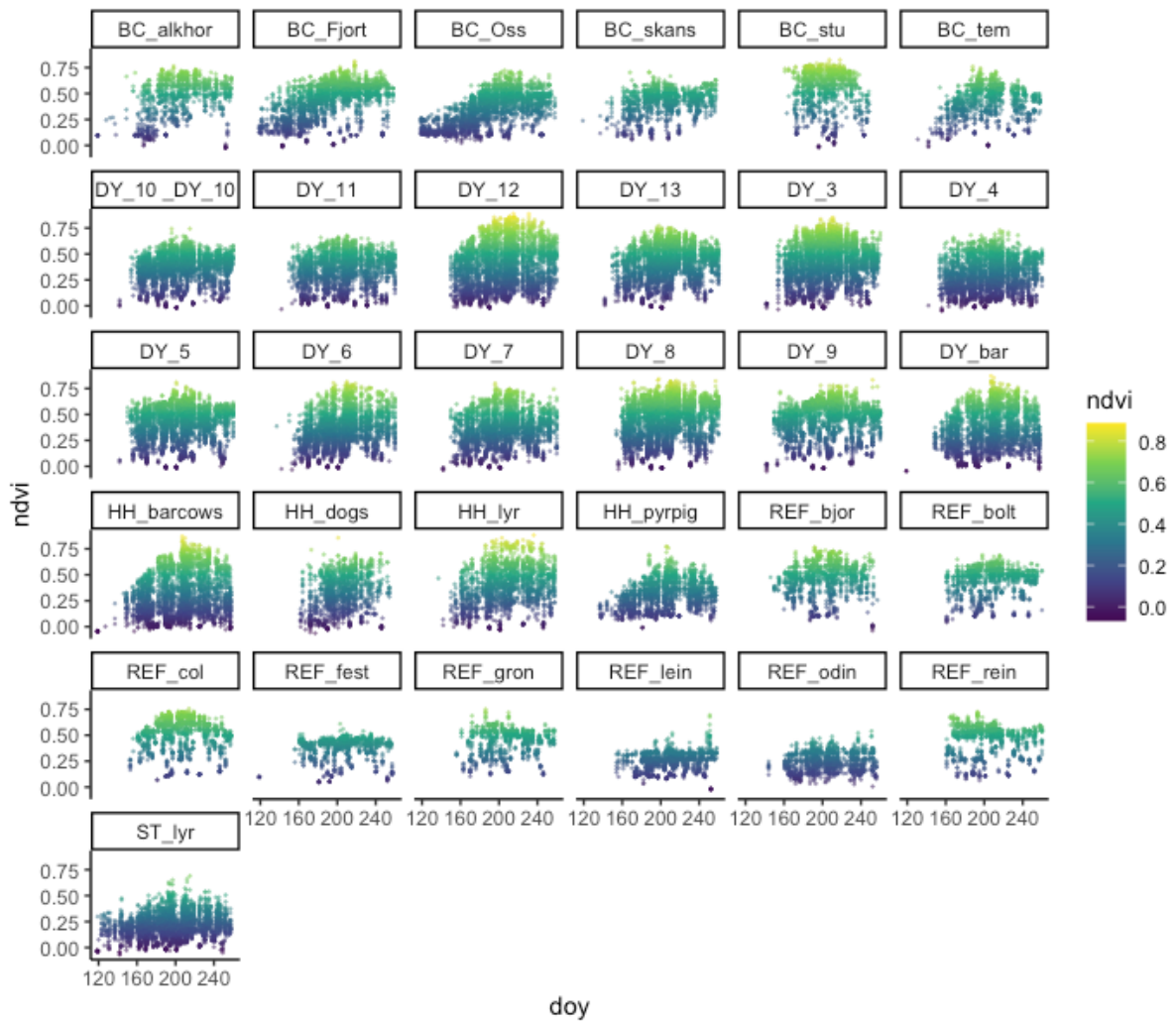
<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>95% Confidence Intervals</i>	<i>p-value</i>
year scaled (1 unit change = 1 year = 0.0924746)	0.064891	0.035684 – 0.094097	<0.001
type [Bird Cliffs]	0.487597	0.426219 – 0.548975	<0.001
type [Dog Yard]	0.358316	0.310325 – 0.406307	<0.001
type [Historical Husbandry]	0.336175	0.263978 – 0.408371	<0.001
type [Reference Site]	0.403992	0.348848 – 0.459135	<0.001
type [Active Stable]	0.201522	0.066297 – 0.336748	0.003
year scaled * type [Dog Yards]	0.070355	0.064493 – 0.076217	<0.001
year scaled * type [Historical Husbandry]	0.051280	0.044005 – 0.058554	<0.001
year scaled * type [Reference Site]	0.013073	0.006051 – 0.020095	<0.001
year scaled * type [Active Stable]	0.034627	0.023318 – 0.045936	<0.001
Random Effects			
σ^2	0.01		

T00_yearfactor	0.01
T00_site	0.00
ICC	0.52
N_site	31
N_yearfactor	36
<hr/>	
Observations	11919
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.407 / 0.714



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Supplementary Figure 1: NDVI_{max} trends over time for each of the individual animal husbandry, bird cliff and reference sites (1985-2021). Yellow lines represent linear model trends across time.



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Supplementary Figure 2: ‘Greening curves’ showing NDVI values per day per pixel for each site between 1985-2021.

713 **Supplementary Table 2:** Statistical results for the hierarchical linear mixed models quantifying
714 green-up (first annual occurrence of 50% NDVI) trends across time across land use types across
715 Svalbard. To account for variance within sites and within years, these models included ‘Site’ and
716 ‘Year’ as a random effect. We included an interactive term between land use type and year to account
717 for varying trends between land use types.
718

50% Green-up Day of Year			
<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>95% Confidence Intervals</i>	<i>p-value</i>
year	-0.12	-0.58 – 0.33	0.590
type [Bird Cliffs]	172.01	159.97 – 184.05	<0.001
type [Dog Yards]	187.75	176.64 – 198.86	<0.001
type [Historical Husbandry]	182.68	170.22 – 195.14	<0.001
type [Reference Site]	194.21	182.20 – 206.22	<0.001
type [Active Stable]	184.64	167.58 – 201.69	<0.001
year * type [Dog Yards]	-0.22	-0.37 – -0.07	0.003
year * type [Historical Husbandry]	0.02	-0.14 – 0.18	0.816
year * type [Reference Site]	-0.25	-0.44 – -0.07	0.007
year * type [Active Stable]	-0.69	-0.86 – -0.51	<0.001
Random Effects			
σ^2	183.72		

T00 site 45.36

T00 yearfactor 164.17

ICC 0.53

N site 31

N yearfactor 30

Observations 5217

Marginal R² / Conditional R² 0.134 / 0.596

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751 **Supplementary Table 3:** Statistical results for the hierarchical linear mixed models quantifying
 752 senescence (last annual occurrence of 50% NDVI) trends across time across land use types across
 753 Svalbard. To account for variance within sites and within years, these models included ‘Site’ and
 754 ‘Year’ as a random effect. We included an interactive term between land use type and year to account
 755 for varying trends between land use types.
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50% Senescence Day of Year			
<i>Predictors</i>	<i>Estimates</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval</i>	<i>p-value</i>
year	0.46	-0.19 – 1.11	0.168
type [Bird Cliffs]	185.12	168.59 – 201.65	<0.001
type [Dog Yards]	214.33	198.80 – 229.86	<0.001
type [Historical Husbandry]	203.07	186.44 – 219.69	<0.001
type [Reference Site]	206.06	189.25 – 222.88	<0.001
type [Active Stables]	203.89	183.50 – 224.27	<0.001
year * type [Dog Yards]	-0.40	-0.63 – -0.16	0.001
year * type [Historical Husbandry]	0.06	-0.19 – 0.32	0.626
year * type [Reference Site]	-0.20	-0.50 – 0.10	0.192
year * type [Active Stables]	0.16	-0.11 – 0.44	0.248
Random Effects			

σ^2 483.70

T00 site 43.79

T00 yearfactor 332.35

ICC 0.44

N site 31

N yearfactor 30

Observations 5217

Marginal R² / Conditional R² 0.048 / 0.464

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782 **Supplementary List 1:** List of each of the sites included in this study, and their geographical
783 coordinates, including their designated land use type category (reference site, sea bird cliff, active
784 stable, active dog yard, and historical husbandry site).

Site ID	Longitude	Latitude	Land Use Type
SE_pyr	16.33809271	78.65861545	Reference Site
SE_bar	14.2072914	78.06545415	Reference Site
SE_lyr	15.64337532	78.21747757	Reference Site
SE_nya	11.93143419	78.92367236	Reference Site
BC_skans	16.05061449	78.5258734	Sea Bird Cliff
BC_bjorn	15.32445865	78.22608728	Sea Bird Cliff
BC_calk	13.78241852	78.2056042	Sea Bird Cliff
BC_coss	12.45798379	78.92939156	Sea Bird Cliff
BC_stu	11.67673827	78.96031893	Sea Bird Cliff
BC_fjort	11.85716114	79.12837728	Sea Bird Cliff
ST_lyr	15.52843196	78.2424	Active stable
DY_1	15.69634743	78.21836971	Active Dog Yard
DY_2	15.70280232	78.2178983	Active Dog Yard
DY_3	15.90621984	78.17850048	Active Dog Yard
DY_4	15.95978545	78.17572034	Active Dog Yard
DY_5	15.96003272	78.17482093	Active Dog Yard
DY_6	15.95069815	78.17162812	Active Dog Yard
DY_7	15.95097373	78.17363025	Active Dog Yard
DY_8	15.95589884	78.16810729	Active Dog Yard
DY_9	15.99475465	78.16436267	Active Dog Yard
DY_10	16.00623253	78.17115013	Active Dog Yard
DY_11	15.98770585	78.16724173	Active Dog Yard
DY_12	15.99865591	78.1602709	Active Dog Yard
DY_13	15.90074366	78.18198852	Active Dog Yard
DY_bar	14.20289478	78.07163141	Active Dog Yard
HH_lyr	15.61673116	78.21734448	Historical Husbandry
HH_barrows	14.20228343	78.07089356	Historical Husbandry
HH_pyrpigs	16.32663414	78.65267579	Historical Husbandry

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HH_dogs	15.56085995	78.19546309	Historical Husbandry
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