1

Plant community borealization in the Arctic is driven by borealtundra boundary species 2

3 Running title: Tundra plant borealization

4 Authors: Mariana García Criado^{1*}, Isabel C. Barrio², James D. M. Speed³, Isla H. Myers-5 Smith^{4,1}, Anne D. Bjorkman^{5,6}, Rien Aerts⁷, Juha M. Alatalo⁸, Katlyn R. Betway-May⁹, Robert G. Björk^{10,6}, Mats P. Björkman^{5,6}, Daan Blok^{10,11}, Elisabeth J. Cooper¹², J. Hans C. Cornelissen¹³, 6 7 Sarah C. Elmendorf^{14,15}, William A. Gould⁹, Ragnhild Gya¹⁶, Greg H.R. Henry¹⁷, Luise Hermanutz¹⁸, Robert D. Hollister¹⁹, Annika K. Jägerbrand²⁰, Ingibjörg S. Jónsdóttir²¹, Elina 8 9 Kaarlejärvi²², Olga Khitun⁵, Simone I. Lang²³, Petr Macek^{24,25}, Jeremy L. May^{26,27}, Anders Michelsen²⁸, Signe Normand²⁹, Siri L. Olsen^{30,31}, Eric Post³², Riikka Rinnan²⁸, Niels Martin 10 Schmidt^{33,34}, Sofie Sjogersten³⁵, Anne Tolvanen³⁶, Joachim P. Töpper³⁷, Andrew Trant³⁸, 11 12 Vigdis Vandvik¹⁶ and Tage Vowles^{39,6}

13 Affiliations:

14	1.	School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland, UK
15	2.	Faculty of Environmental and Forest Sciences, Agricultural University of Iceland, Reykjavík,
16		Iceland
17	3.	Department of Natural History, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway
18	4.	Department of Forest & Conservation Sciences, Faculty of Forestry, University of British
19		Columbia, Canada
20	5.	Department of Biology and Environmental Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg,
21		Sweden
22	6.	Gothenburg Global Biodiversity Centre, Box 461, SE-405 30 Gothenburg, Sweden
23	7.	Amsterdam Institute for Life and Environment, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, The Netherlands
24	8.	Environmental Science Center, Qatar University, Doha, Qatar
25	9.	USDA Forest Service, Research and Development, Río Piedras, PR, USA
26	10.	Department of Earth Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Box 460, SE-40530 Gothenburg,
27		Sweden
28	11.	Dutch Research Council, Laan van Nieuw Oost-Indië 300, 2593 CE Den Haag, the Netherlands
29	12.	Department of Arctic and Marine Biology; Faculty of Biosciences, Fisheries and Economics;
30		UiT-The Arctic University of Norway, N-9037 Tromsø, Norway.
31	13.	Amsterdam Institute for Life and Environment, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, The Netherlands
32	14.	Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research (INSTAAR), University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA
33	15.	Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA
34	16.	Department of Biological Sciences, University of Bergen, Norway
35	17.	Department of Geography, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada
36	18.	Department of Biology, Memorial University, St. John's, NL, Canada
37	19.	Biology Department, Grand Valley State University, Allendale, Michigan, USA
38	20.	Department of Electrical Engineering, Mathematics and Science, Faculty of Engineering and
39		Sustainable Development, University of Gävle
40	21.	Institute of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Iceland, 102 Reykjavík, Iceland
41	22.	Organismal and Evolutionary Research Programme, Faculty of Biological and Environmental
42		Sciences, University of Helsinki, Viikinkaari 1, FI-00014 Helsingin yliopisto, Finland

43 23. Department of Arctic Biology, University Centre in Svalbard, Postboks 156, Longyearbyen, 44 Norway 45 24. Institute of Hydrobiology, Biology Centre of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Na Sadkach 7, 46 370 05 Ceske Budejovice, Czech Republic 47 25. Department of Biodiversity and Nature Tourism, Estonian University of Life Sciences, 48 Kreutzwaldi 5a, Tartu, Estonia 49 26. Department of Biology and Environmental Sciences, Marietta College, Marietta, OH, USA 50 45750 51 27. Department of Biological Sciences, Florida International University, Miami, FL, USA 33199 52 28. Department of Biology, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark 53 29. Department of Biology, Aarhus University, Denmark 54 30. Faculty of Environmental Sciences and Natural Resource Management, Norwegian University 55 of Life Sciences, Ås, Norway 56 31. Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Oslo, Norway 57 32. Department of Wildlife, Fish, and Conservation Biology, University of California, Davis, USA 58 33. Department of Ecoscience, Aarhus University, Frederiksborgvej 399, DK-4000 Roskilde, 59 Denmark 60 34. Arctic Research Centre, Ole Worms Allé 1, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark 61 35. School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK 62 36. Natural Resources Institute Finland, Paavo Havaksen tie 3, FI-90570 Finland 63 37. Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Thormøhlensgate 55, 5006 Bergen, Norway 64 38. School of Environment, Resources and Sustainability, University of Waterloo, 200 University 65 Ave W, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada N2L 3G1 66 39. Swedish Environmental Research Institute, Gothenburg, Sweden 67 *Corresponding author: mariana.garcia.criado@gmail.com

68 Keywords: plant borealization, tundra, boreal forest, climate change, boreal-tundra ecotone,

69 vascular plants

70 Acknowledgments

71 We thank all Arctic local and Indigenous communities for the opportunity to work with data 72 collected on their lands. We are grateful to those who contributed to collecting the data 73 in the ITEX+ database over the years. We thank Joe Everest for extracting the permafrost 74 data, Camila Pacheco-Riaño for help with compiling the trait database, and Henri Wallén for 75 troubleshooting help. This work was funded by the EU Horizon 2020 Research and 76 Innovations Programme through the CHARTER project (Grant #869471; MGC, ICB, JDMS, 77 IHMS), the UK-Iceland Arctic Science Partnership Scheme 2024/2025 funded by the UK 78 Department of Science Innovation and Technology and NERC (MGC, ICB), the Nordic 79 Borealization Network (NordBorN) funded by NordForsk (project number 164079; MGC, ICB, 80 JDMS, IHMS, ADB), the NERC TundraTime project (NE/W006448/1; MGC, IHMS), the 81 Norwegian Research Council under the INCLINE project (grant #274712; VV, RG, JPT, SLO), 82 and the Danish National Research Foundation (DNRF168; RR). The compilation of the ITEX+ database was supported by the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation (WAF KAW 83 84 2019.0202; ADB) and the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research (FFL21-0194; ADB).

85 Abstract

86 Following rapid climate change across the Arctic, tundra plant communities are experiencing 87 extensive compositional shifts. One of the most prevalent changes is the encroachment of 88 boreal species into the tundra ('borealization'). Borealization has been reported at individual 89 sites, but has not been systematically quantified across the tundra biome. Here, we use a 90 dataset of 1,137 plots at 113 subsites across 32 study areas resurveyed at least once 91 between 1981 and 2023 and encompassing 287 vascular plant species. We i) quantified the 92 borealization of tundra ecosystems as the colonisation and the increase in abundance of 93 boreal specialist and boreal-tundra boundary species, ii) assessed biogeographical, climatic 94 and local drivers of borealization, and iii) identified species contributing most to borealization 95 and their associated traits. Around half of the plots experienced borealization, especially at 96 sites closer to the treeline, at higher elevations (mountains), in warmer and wetter regions, 97 and at sites that had undergone the lowest magnitude of climate change. Boreal species 98 were more likely to expand in Eurasia, and at sites with lower initial abundances of boreal 99 species. Boreal species that colonised more plots were generally short, and more likely to be 100 shrubs and graminoids than forbs. Boreal specialist species colonised three times less 101 frequently than boreal-tundra boundary species, yet abundance changes were similar across 102 groups. These findings indicate that borealization is mainly driven by the spread of already 103 established species in the tundra, and suggest that future changes to Arctic ecosystems 104 might not involve rapid, widespread replacement of Arctic species by boreal species. These 105 observed and future plant community composition changes could affect land-atmosphere 106 interactions, trophic dynamics and local and Indigenous livelihoods.

107 Introduction

108 Climate change is leading to widespread vegetation change in tundra regions (Myers-Smith 109 et al. 2011; Elmendorf et al. 2012; García Criado et al. 2023a). Extensive changes to plant 110 community composition have occurred, including changes in plant abundance and species 111 range shifts (Elmendorf et al. 2012; García Criado et al. 2020) and treeline advance (Harsch 112 et al. 2009; Frost and Epstein 2014; Rees et al. 2020). In this context, a conservation concern 113 is that these shifts may include extensive encroachment of boreal species into the tundra 114 ('borealization'; Speed et al. 2021). While borealization has been extensively studied in the 115 marine realm (Fossheim et al. 2015; Pecuchet et al. 2020; Emblemsvåg et al. 2022), 116 terrestrial studies are lagging far behind (Verdonen et al. in prep). Within the tundra, range 117 expansions of boreal animals such as red fox (Vulpes vulpes), moose (Alces alces) and 118 songbirds have been reported (Tape et al. 2016; Elmhagen et al. 2017; Le Pogam et al. 119 2021), and recent modelling shows northward movement of boreal herbivore communities 120 as a result of warming temperatures (Speed et al. 2021). Despite some site-specific studies 121 in Russia, Alaska and Canada (Khitun et al. 2016; Roland et al. 2021; Timoney 2023), the 122 extent to which plant borealization (beyond treeline advance) is occurring at the tundra 123 biome scale remains unquantified.

124 Borealization is likely to be dependent on a combination of geographic, climatic and local 125 factors. Sites closest to the tundra-boreal forest ecotone might be more likely to experience 126 successful plant dispersal and establishment from the boreal forest (Ropars and Boudreau 127 2012), especially those with no dispersal barriers such as large water bodies or mountain 128 ranges (Rupp et al. 2001). Similarly, warmer conditions could favour boreal species as they 129 inhabit a warmer thermal niche than tundra species (Villén-Peréz et al. 2020; Lynn et al. 130 2021). This could result in regional differences in borealization, since for example Arctic 131 Europe (Palaearctic) is generally warmer than Arctic North America (Nearctic) and other 132 regions (Callaghan et al. 2004a). However, local conditions can influence the establishment 133 of boreal species into the tundra (Dial et al. 2022), with herbivory potentially preventing 134 further plant colonisations (Eskelinen et al. 2017) and landscape structure driving adaptation 135 and dispersal (Graae et al. 2018). Therefore, we could expect borealization to be shaped by 136 a combination of factors acting from macro- to micro- scales.

137 Certain species might contribute to borealization more than others. For instance, species with 138 large distributional ranges usually have a wider tolerance for environmental conditions 139 (Vincent et al. 2020; Lynn et al. 2021) and are more likely to expand across tundra habitats 140 (Callaghan et al. 2004b). Similarly, more competitive species such as shrubs, and species 141 with great dispersal potential and/or fast acquisition strategies (Aubin et al. 2016) could have 142 greater geographic and climatic niches (Sporbert et al. 2021) and thus become more 143 successful tundra colonisers. Hence, plant trait values such as tall height, high specific leaf 144 area (SLA), low seed mass or low leaf nitrogen concentration might be linked to successful 145 borealization (Vuorinen et al. 2017; García Criado et al. 2023b). Incoming species can re-146 shape community traits, such as tundra plant communities becoming taller as a result of 147 species turnover (Bjorkman et al. 2018a). Boreal species are generally taller than tundra

plants, and might outcompete them through shading, higher litter production, and enhanced
nutrient uptake (Pajunen et al. 2011; Kaarlejärvi et al. 2017; Thomas et al. 2020). Thus, the
trait composition of tundra plant communities is likely to shift as boreal species become more
abundant.

152 An influx of boreal species into the tundra will inevitably lead to changes in community 153 composition, resulting in the widening or displacement of the boreal forest-tundra ecotone, 154 a reduction of the tundra biome, or alternatively the creation of novel communities (Macias-155 Fauria et al. 2012). The boreal forest and the Arctic tundra are distinct in terms of ecosystem 156 functioning and service provisioning, and a loss of extent of the tundra biome would have 157 global consequences (Callaghan et al. 2002). For example, a northward advance of the 158 forest-tundra ecotone has been projected to decrease carbon capture and amplify climate 159 change (Zhang et al. 2013). A reduction in the extent of tundra can also result in decreased 160 habitat availability for tundra herbivores (Speed et al. 2021), and cascading impacts for 161 trophic chains (Fauchald et al. 2017; Mallory and Boyce 2018) and local and Indigenous 162 communities (Rees et al. 2008; Hupp et al. 2015).

Here, we quantify borealization of plant communities across multiple tundra sites at the
community and species levels over the past four decades, and address the following research
questions (RQs):

166 RQ1. How much borealization has occurred across the tundra biome?

We expect that the majority of sites will have experienced an increase in boreal species
presence and abundance, based on evidence from select intensively studied sites to date
(Khitun et al. 2016; Roland et al. 2021; Timoney 2023).

- 170 RQ2. What are the characteristics of sites that have experienced the most pronounced171 borealization?
- We hypothesise that borealization has been greater at sites closer to the treeline, at warmer sites, and where summer warming has been more pronounced, with thermal niches becoming available for warm-adapted species (Elmendorf et al. 2015; Steinbauer et al. 2018). We expect the Palaearctic to experience greater borealization relative to other Arctic regions given higher overall growing season temperatures and closer proximity of boreal ecosystems (Callaghan et al. 2004a).
- 178 RQ3. Which species are more likely to drive the borealization of tundra plant communities179 and what are their traits?
- We expect ubiquitous species to have expanded and colonised more often due to their wider tolerance and niche (Callaghan et al. 2004b; Lynn et al. 2021). Certain functional groups like shrubs and species such as mountain birch (*Betula pubescens*) might have high expansion and colonisation rates due to their high dispersal capacity (Myers-Smith et al. 2011; Behrend et al. 2024). We hypothesise that certain species traits associated with an acquisitive life strategy (e.g., high SLA), greater competitive ability (e.g., tall stature), greater dispersal ability (e.g., lighter seeds) and lower palatability for herbivores

187 (e.g., low leaf nitrogen; Aubin et al. 2016; Sporbert et al. 2021) will be associated with188 borealization.

189

190 Methods

191 Plant composition data

192 We extracted plant composition data from the database of the International Tundra 193 Experiment (ITEX+; Bjorkman et al. in prep., Henry and Molau 1997), a geographically 194 distributed experiment with a standardised study design and data collection. ITEX+ has a 195 hierarchical structure, where each study area can contain several subsites, consisting of 196 several sampling plots (Bjorkman et al. in prep). We selected ITEX+ study areas included 197 within the boreal forest and tundra biomes according to the WWF ecoregions (Olson et al. 198 2001), which included Oro-Arctic (near-Arctic alpine sites), sub-Arctic and Arctic sites. We 199 used only permanently-marked control plots (i.e., with no experimental treatments) that had 200 been surveyed at least twice over a minimum of five years, as shorter time series can 201 overestimate trends in tundra plant communities due to interannual variability (Harris et al. 202 2022; Valdez et al. 2023). Our dataset consisted of 33,388 records from 1,137 plots within 203 113 subsites in 32 study areas surveyed at least twice between 1981 and 2023, 204 encompassing 287 vascular plant species. There was an average of 10 plots per subsite 205 (range = 1-83), 3.5 subsites per study area (range = 1-31) and 15 years between samplings 206 (range = 5-28). Our replication unit for analyses was a plot, with an average size of 3.86 m^2 207 (range = 0.05 - 120).

208 We followed the same method as in García Criado et al. (2023a) to convert vascular plant 209 abundance values to relative cover (0 - 100%) within each plot in order to ensure consistency 210 across survey methods (i.e., point-intercept data and cover-equivalent data). We retained 211 only vascular plants since non-vascular plants are not recorded consistently across the ITEX+ 212 dataset, and removed abiotic records prior to cover calculations. To standardise survey effort 213 across sites, we removed plot-by-year combinations that reported >10% morphospecies (i.e., 214 plants not identified to species level). We standardised the taxonomy of all species within 215 the dataset following WorldFlora Online as of October 2024 (WFO 2024). Specifically, we 216 matched species names in our dataset with those in WFO via the 'WorldFlora' R package 217 (Kindt 2020) and aggregated subspecies and varieties to species.

218 Species classification

While there are different methods to categorise species according to their distributional range, we followed a standardised approach for consistency across species and regions. We followed the Arctic Biodiversity Assessment (Meltofte 2013) to classify vascular plant species. In particular, we followed Appendix 9.1 (Daniëls et al. 2013), which lists all Arctic vascular plant species and their distribution in the five Arctic subzones based on Elven (2007). We created groupings with all possible combinations of distribution and frequency across the Arctic and boreal zones (see **Table S1** for a detailed classification). We considered 226 a species to be present in a particular zone when it was reported as 'scattered' or 'frequent' 227 in Daniëls et al. (2013); in contrast, we considered a species to be absent in a particular zone 228 if it was described as 'rare', 'uncertain' or 'introduced' (Table S1). When several subspecies 229 or varieties per species were listed in Daniëls et al. (2013), we standardised them at the 230 species level by assigning the more frequent category for each zone. For the nine species in 231 our dataset that were not included in Daniëls et al. (2013), we checked their distribution in 232 the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF 2024) to manually assign them a class. 233 Carrying out random checks of the Daniëls et al. (2013) classification against GBIF ranges 234 resulted in comparable species classifications (not shown). Overall, we defined four classes 235 based on species' geographical ranges with respect to Arctic boundaries (Walker et al. 2005; 236 Elven 2007):

- **Boreal specialists:** species only found south of the tundra biome boundary, *n* = 16.
- Boreal-tundra boundary: species distributed in the boreal and Low Arctic tundra
 (subzones D-E), but not the High Arctic tundra (subzones A-C), n = 150.
- Arctic specialists: species found only north of the tundra biome boundary, n = 14.
- **Ubiquitous:** species found in the boreal zone, Low Arctic and High Arctic, *n* = 107.

242 Hereafter, we consider 'boreal' to include both boreal specialist species and species 243 distributed across the biome boundary but not extending into the High Arctic (i.e., boreal-244 tundra boundary species). We consider boreal-tundra boundary species to contribute to 245 borealization on the basis of their evolutionary history. In most cases, current species 246 distributions in the boreal and Low Arctic zones are the result of expansions from boreal into 247 Arctic locations that were previously glaciated (Birks 2008; Aarnes et al. 2012) and thus 248 represent long-term borealization processes. Boreal-tundra boundary species could also 249 include those that survived glaciations in refugia (Abbott et al. 2000), but these are very likely 250 a minority compared to the former (Alsos et al. 2022).

251 Borealization indices

252 We assessed borealization in each plot (i.e., at the community level) both in terms of 253 colonisations and abundance changes of boreal species. First, we defined the Borealization 254 Colonisation Index (BCI; RQ1). This metric considers the start and end time points of 255 monitoring per plot and reflects the extent of 'borealization' of a plot over time based on the influx of new boreal species. BCI reflects the proportion of colonisers that are boreal species 256 257 (boreal specialists and boreal-tundra boundary species), and is bound between 0 and 1. This 258 metric does not directly account for duration of monitoring, but we found no relationship 259 between BCI and duration (slope = 0.001, CI = -0.017 to 0.018). BCI is calculated as follows:

$$BCI = \frac{Colonising \ boreal \ species}{Total \ colonising \ species}$$

To quantify borealization per plot based on changes in abundance of boreal species, we defined the Borealization Abundance Index (BAI; RQ1). This metric reflects how 'borealized' a plot has become over time, considering the values of relative cover of boreal species (boreal specialists and boreal-tundra boundary species) at the start and end time points of 265 monitoring per plot. BAI quantifies the rate of change in proportional cover of boreal species
266 per year per plot. BAI is expressed as a rate (% cover change per year) and can be positive
267 or negative. BAI is calculated as follows, where *b* refers to boreal species:

268
$$BAI = \frac{(\Sigma b \ End \ cover \ - \ \Sigma b \ Start \ cover)}{Duration \ (years)}$$

269 We calculated both BCI and BAI as the difference between the end and start time points per 270 plot rather than fitting linear models to calculate slopes for plots for which we had multiple 271 observations over time. This is due to the fact that BCI is a colonisation index, thus the 272 starting value would always be 0 (since there are no colonisers in the first time point). In 273 practice, this means that the index could have a negative value due to fluctuations in the 274 number of boreal colonisations over the years, and thus the end-start method gives a more 275 accurate representation of colonisations. Since BAI had a strong correlation between the 276 end-start method and linear models (Pearson's r = 0.97, p < 0.001), we opted for consistency 277 by calculating both BCI and BAI in a similar manner.

278 Drivers of community-level borealization

We selected relevant drivers of community-level borealization reflecting main biogeographical (latitude, biome, distance to treeline, barriers to dispersal and biogeographic region), climatic (climatologies and climate change, see below) and local factors (herbivory intensity, dominant grazer, elevation, moisture, plot size, permafrost and initial abundance of boreal species).

284 For each subsite (i.e., the level at which geographic coordinates were available), we extracted 285 latitude and biome (Oro-Arctic or Arctic) information, as defined in Olson et al., (2001). 286 Additionally, we calculated the distance to the nearest treeline. For Arctic plots (those north 287 of the latitudinal treeline), we calculated the distance to the latitudinal treeline from the 288 Circumpolar Arctic Vegetation Map (Raynolds et al. 2019) on QGis (version 3.30.2), and for 289 Oro-Arctic plots, we calculated the distance to the elevational forest line using satellite data 290 on Google Earth (version 10.65.1.2). For Oro-Arctic plots, we corrected the distance to the 291 elevational treeline to reflect the "ground distance" by calculating the hypotenuse, 292 considering the elevation of the subsite and of the elevational forest line. Distance to treeline 293 was centred on zero by subtracting the mean to allow for model convergence. We also 294 categorised barriers to dispersal for each subsite based on the type of topographical features 295 that were found between the subsite and the latitudinal (for Arctic plots) or elevational 296 treeline (for Oro-Arctic plots) as: uninterrupted, small water body (e.g., lakes, rivers), 297 mountains, and large water bodies (e.g., seas, oceans). We also categorised each plot by 298 their biogeographic region, according to glaciation history (Ray and Adams 2001) into 299 Eastern North America, Western North America, Greenland-Iceland and Eurasia.

We extracted climatic data from CHELSA v2.1 for each subsite for the time period 1980-2019 at a resolution of 1x1 km (Karger et al. 2017). We calculated both climatologies (average value per climatic variable over time) and change over time (as slopes of climate 303 variables over the years) for the following climatic variables: summer temperature (mean of 304 the June, July and August months, to reflect growing season conditions), minimum annual 305 temperature (as the mean daily minimum air temperature, to reflect plants' capacity to 306 withstand cold) and annual precipitation (to reflect comparative water availability). We 307 removed climatic data for 1980-1983 mean annual temperature and for 2005 minimum 308 temperature since the files contained obvious data errors. The value of precipitation change 309 of 18.24mm per year at the INCLINE_SKJ subsite was removed, as it was a clear outlier. This 310 high value is likely due to the quantification of climatic values in extremely rugged terrains 311 including fjords and mountains, despite the high resolution of CHELSA at 1x1 km.

312 Finally, we included variables at the subsite level available in the ITEX+ dataset, as provided 313 by the site principal investigators, relating to biotic interactions (herbivory intensity, dominant 314 grazer), local environmental conditions (elevation, moisture) and sampling effort (plot size). 315 We extracted permafrost data for each subsite from Obu et al., (2019) as the Permafrost 316 Probability Function (100m pixel size), which was then converted into standardised 317 categories (none, sporadic, discontinuous, continuous). Initial boreal status was calculated at 318 the plot level as the number of boreal specialist and boreal-tundra boundary species present 319 at the start of the plot monitoring period for BCI models, and as the total relative cover of 320 boreal specialist and boreal-tundra boundary species at the start of the monitoring period for 321 BAI models.

322 Species trait data

323 We extracted plant trait data from TRY v6.0 (Kattge et al. 2020), which includes trait values 324 from multiple campaigns, including the Tundra Trait Team (Bjorkman et al. 2018b). For each 325 species, we extracted georeferenced records found north of 50° latitude for plant height (m), 326 specific leaf area (SLA; mm²/mg), leaf nitrogen (mg/g), leaf C:N (g/g) and seed mass (mg). 327 We also kept non-georeferenced trait data when it was evident from metadata that the 328 records had been taken at locations north of 50° latitude. We retained data for those species 329 that had a minimum of five records per trait. We removed 118 outlier records (i.e., the value 330 was greater than five standard deviations of the mean trait value per species). The final 331 dataset contained trait data for 191 species (plant height), 166 species (SLA), 83 species 332 (seed mass), 120 species (leaf N) and 54 species (leaf C:N). We calculated the mean trait 333 values for each species, which were then incorporated as fixed effects in the species-level 334 models (see below). Additionally, we included the following categorical traits: woodiness, 335 deciduousness, N-fixing capacity (by symbiosis with N_2 -fixing bacteria), berry-production, 336 taxonomic family and functional group (shrubs, forbs, graminoids). While certain shrubs in 337 our dataset could potentially reach enough height to become a tree, particularly outside of 338 the Arctic, we do not make a distinction between these and refer to them as shrubs.

339 Community-level models

To assess the drivers of community borealization, both for BCI and BAI, we fitted threeBayesian hierarchical models that reflected the effect of the different variables at different

scales (RQ2; Table S2): 1) biogeographical model, 2) climatic model, and 3) local model. We

also tried fitting a single model including all predictor variables of interest, but this modelfailed to converge.

345 In order to characterise plots with boreal expansions only (Table S2), we retained those plots 346 whose average BCI or BAI was > 0; hereafter 'positive-only models'. The plots included in 347 each dataset differ (BCI: n = 598 plots, BAI: n = 488 plots) because plots that had experienced 348 boreal colonisations did not necessarily undergo increases in abundance of boreal species on 349 average, and vice versa. To characterise the full gradient of change (Table S2), we also ran 350 models with the same fixed effects including plots without boreal colonisers (i.e., plots with 351 0 values for BCI, n = 1,137) or plots with no change or reductions in abundance of boreal 352 species (i.e., plots with negative and 0 values for BAI; n = 1,137), hereafter 'full-range 353 models'. When plots never had boreal species at the start or at the end, or they had boreal 354 species in between timepoints, but not at the start and/or end survey timepoints, they were 355 assigned a BCI and/or BAI = 0 accordingly. We interpret the BCI 'positive-only' models to 356 indicate the 'borealness' of the colonisers, while the 'full range' BCI models inform about 357 both the likelihood of borealization occurring, and the 'borealness' of those colonisations. BAI 358 'positive only' models refer to the boreal abundance increases, while BAI 'full-range' models 359 reflect the 'net borealization' of the community. Finally, to assess how well colonisations by 360 boreal species represent net borealization of the plots (i.e., an increase in the representation 361 of boreal species between the two timepoints), we calculated the net change per plot as the 362 difference between boreal colonisations and boreal losses. We found that BCI and the net 363 change values are positively correlated (Figure S1a), indicating that a high BCI value 364 generally corresponds to a net increase in the number of boreal species in a plot.

365 Prior to building the models, we assessed pairwise correlations among all the potential 366 predictor variables for each type of model (biogeographic, climatic and local) within the 367 'positive-only' dataset. Only complete pairwise observations were included, i.e., those plots 368 that had data available for all predictor variables. We calculated Spearman's rank correlation 369 indices between pairs of variables for the subsets of variables included in each of the three 370 community-level models (Figure S2). Given that pairwise correlations can only be computed 371 for continuous or ordinal data, we coded categorical variables as ordinal values (see Figure 372 S2). For strongly correlated variables (absolute Spearman's rank coefficient > 0.7), we kept 373 the variables that more closely aligned with suspected mechanisms of change, as per our 374 hypotheses. In the biogeographical models, we removed latitude and barriers to dispersal, 375 as they were strongly correlated with distance to treeline, which was our main hypothesis 376 (Figure S2a). In the dataset for BAI, biome was also removed as it was strongly correlated 377 with distance to treeline (Figure S2b). In the climatic models, we removed minimum 378 temperature climatology, which was strongly correlated with precipitation climatology, and 379 we only had one climatology variable related to precipitation but multiple related to 380 temperature (Figure S2c, d). No predictor variables were removed from the local models 381 (Figure S2e, f).

We employed a Bayesian framework for all analyses. All community models included subsiteas a random effect to account for the ITEX nested sampling design. Models had different

- error distributions depending on the structure of the response variable: Gaussian with an identity link function (for response metrics with a normal distribution, e.g., BAI models), beta with a logit link function (for values between 0.0001 and 0.9999; e.g., the BCI positive-only models, subtracting a constant of 0.0001 for BCI to fit the data into a beta distribution), and binomial models with a logit link function for integer count values (e.g., the BCI full-range models with values between 0-1). Binomial models are used to model proportions where the response variable is a count of cases that can fall into only one of two classes (Dunn and
- 391 Smyth 2018). Here, we used the binomial family to model BCI per plot as the count of boreal
- 392 colonisers out of the total number of colonisers.

393 Species-level models

394 To assess which species and species classes are more likely to drive the borealization of 395 tundra plant communities (RQ3), we calculated how many times each species had colonised 396 different plots (i.e., times colonised, expressed as number of plots), and its average 397 abundance change per year across all plots. We then modelled times colonised (only those 398 species that had colonised at least once) and average abundance change (only those that 399 had increased in abundance across plots) as a function of species class. As above, we 400 calculated the net change per species as the difference between the number of plots 401 colonised and the number of plots where the species became extinct. We found a positive 402 correlation between times colonised and the net change per species (Figure S1b), indicating 403 that more frequent colonisations per species generally correspond to a net increase across 404 plots.

405 To identify which traits are associated with species contributing to borealization (boreal 406 specialists and boreal-tundra boundary species), we retained those species that had 407 colonised at least once (for colonisation models) and that had increased in abundance on 408 average across plots (for abundance models). Then, we modelled times colonised and 409 abundance change as a function of relevant plant traits (Table S2). Continuous traits were 410 log-transformed as species differences are better characterised on a log-scale (Westoby 411 1998; Bjorkman et al. 2018a). Similar to the community-level models, we assessed pairwise 412 correlations between traits using Spearman's rank correlation indices for all trait variables 413 (Figure S3). Categorical traits were transformed to ordinal variables for investigating 414 correlations (Figure S3). We removed Leaf C:N from the species models, as this trait is 415 inherently correlated with Leaf N (Figure S3), and Leaf N had a greater number of available 416 records. Leaf C:N was also correlated with SLA and seed mass in the colonisation dataset. 417 To enable model convergence, we chose not to include the following categorical variables: 418 woodiness (because it is exclusively associated with shrubs, one of the categories of the 419 'functional group' variable), berry production (as there were only nine berry-producing 420 shrubs), deciduousness (as there were only 27 deciduous shrubs and 16 evergreen shrubs, 421 while this category was not applicable to the remaining 228 [83.8%] species), taxonomic 422 family (since 11 [30.5%] family groups had just one species), and N-fixing capacity (since 423 there were only 10 N-fixer species).

Since the trait model reduces sample size to those species with data for all traits (**Table S2**), we fitted additional univariate models to identify any potential differences when using a larger sample size. Species-level models had a negative binomial data distribution with a log link function (for count data where the variance is greater than the mean, e.g., the 'times colonised' models), and a Gaussian distribution with an identity link function (for response metrics with a normal distribution, e.g., the 'mean abundance change' models). We specified weakly informative priors for the dispersion parameter of the negative binomial family.

Further, to better understand the relationship between species-level gains and losses, we calculated the number of times that a species was lost from a plot ('times lost') and modelled its relationship with times colonised. Finally, to understand whether these traits were exclusively associated with colonisations or they reflected turnover dynamics through greater number of extinctions, we also modelled 'times lost' as a function of the different traits.

437 Software

We used the software and programming language R version 4.2.0 (R Core Team 2022). Bayesian models were fitted using the 'brms' package (Bürkner 2017). We ran four chains per model, each with 2,000 iterations, and 400 iterations of warm-up. Convergence was assessed through examination of the R_{hat} term and trace plots. Correlation plots were visualized with the 'corrplot' package (Wei and Simko 2021).

443

444 Results

445 **Community analyses**

446 Boreal species colonised 52.6% of plots, with strong variability in magnitude across plots 447 (Figure 1a, b). When considering only plots that had experienced boreal colonisations (i.e., 448 BCI > 0, n = 598), mean BCI across plots was 0.77 (range = 0.16 to 1). When including zero 449 values (n = 1,137), mean BCI was 0.4 (range = 0 to 1; Figure S4a, b). Similarly, boreal species 450 increased in abundance at 42.9% of plots, also with considerable variation across plots 451 (Figure 1c, d). For plots with BAI > 0 (n = 488), mean BAI was 0.93% increase per year (range 452 = 0.007 to 5.79). For the full range of values (i.e., 'net borealization; n = 1,137), mean BAI 453 was -0.09% per year (range = -5.82 to 5.79%, CI = -0.2 to 0.1, Figure S4c, d).



454

455 Figure 1. The magnitude of boreal plant community colonisations (BCI) and plot abundance 456 increases (BAI) varied across the tundra. a) BCI estimated as the average of the plots within 457 a study area that experienced colonisations of boreal species (BCI > 0), **b**) BCI index of those 458 plots within each study area, c) BAI estimated as the average of the plots within a study area 459 that experienced an increase in the abundance of boreal species (BAI > 0), d) BAI index for 460 those plots within each study area. Points in a) and c) are coloured according to the magnitude of increase (as BAI and BCI) as a study area average. Crosses in b) and d) indicate 461 462 the mean value of the plot borealization index at the study area level, which represent the 463 same value as coloured points in a) and c). Study areas in b) and d) are arranged by longitude. 464 Darker grey colours indicate overlap of multiple points. Note that these data show the 465 magnitude for plots that experienced increases in boreal species; for an analysis that includes 466 plots where boreal increases did not occur (BCI = 0 and BAI <= 0), see Figure S4.

Within plots that had experienced boreal colonisations (i.e., 'positive-only' BCI models), these were greater at sites in Eurasia relative to Greenland-Iceland (**Figure 2a**), that were relatively warm (**Figure 2c**), had warmed least over time (**Figure 2e**) and increased least in precipitation (**Figure 2f**). When considering the 'full-range' BCI models (i.e., including zeroes), we found that boreal colonisers were more likely to occur closer to treeline (**Figure 2b**), in warmer and wetter sites (**Figure 2c, d**), at higher elevations (**Figure 2g**) and in larger plots (not shown; slope = 0.014, CI = 0.0051 to 0.0234). The magnitudes of boreal abundance increases (i.e., 'positive-only' BAI models) were stronger in Eurasia compared to Western North America (**Figure 2h**), at sites closer to treeline (**Figure 2i**), that had increased least in precipitation (**Figure 2j**) and that had lower initial boreal abundance (**Figure 2l**). In the 'full-range' BAI models (i.e., including zeroes and negative values), net borealization was greater at higher elevations (**Figure 2i**) and where the initial abundance of boreal species was lower (**Figure 2l**). All other variables in the biogeographic, climatic and local models had credible intervals that overlapped zero.





482 Figure 2. Borealization was associated with biogeographic, climatic and local variables
483 across the tundra biome. Borealization was estimated using colonisations (BCI; a-g) and
484 abundance change (BAI; h-l). Colonisations by boreal species were more likely to occur (i.e.,

485 'full-range models') at sites closer to the treeline (b), warmer and wetter sites (c, d) and at 486 higher elevations (g), while greater magnitudes of boreal abundance increases (i.e., 'positive-487 only models') occurred at sites in Eurasia (EA) versus Greenland-Iceland (GI), while other 488 regions overlapped (WNA = Western North America, ENA = Eastern North America; a), and 489 at warmer sites (c) with the least amount of climate change (e, f). Increases in abundance of 490 boreal species were more likely (i.e., 'full-range models') at higher elevations (k) and in plots 491 with lower initial boreal status (l). The magnitudes of abundance increases (i.e., 'positive-492 only models') were stronger in Eurasia (EA) than in Western North America (WNA; h), at 493 sites closer to treeline (i), that had experienced the least increases in precipitation (j) and that 494 had lower initial boreal abundance (l). The panel shows all variables that were significant in 495 at least one of the two models (i.e., 'positive-only' and 'full-range' models). Lines and semi-496 transparent ribbons represent the model estimate and 95% credible intervals, respectively, 497 and are coloured according to model type (i.e., 'positive-only' in green and 'full-range' in 498 grey). Solid lines indicate credible intervals of fixed effects that did not overlap zero, and 499 dashed lines indicate credible intervals that overlapped zero. Each point represents a plot, 500 with darker colours indicating point overlap. Green points are included in both the 'positive-501 only' dataset (i.e., positive values only, BCI: 598 plots, BAI: 488 plots) and in the 'full-range' 502 dataset (i.e., including also zeroes and negative values, BCI and BAI: 1,137 plots). Grey points 503 indicate plots only included in the 'full-range' dataset (i.e., zeroes and negative values), in 504 addition to the positive values. Asterisks indicate when two categorical variables differed 505 significantly from each other, coloured according to model type.

506 Species analyses

507 Overall, there were 3 and 3.3 times fewer colonisations of boreal specialists than boreal-508 tundra boundary and ubiquitous species, respectively (Figure 3a). However, the magnitude 509 of species abundance increases did not differ across different classes (Figure 3b). The top 510 coloniser species were the ubiquitous shrub Empetrum nigrum (72 times), the ubiquitous forb 511 Persicaria vivipara (67 times) and the boreal-tundra boundary graminoid Carex bigelowii (62 512 times). Of all species colonising new plots, 64.4% were present within the subsite at the start 513 of monitoring. The species that increased most in abundance include the boreal-tundra 514 boundary shrub Salix arctophila (0.87% cover change per year), and the boreal-tundra 515 boundary forbs Galium verum (0.83% cover change per year) and Boykinia richardsonii 516 (0.77% cover change per year). Generally, species with greater increases in abundance were 517 those that had colonised more frequently over time (slope = 0.75, CI = -0.02 to 1.52), but 518 there was wide variation across species and rates (Table S3). Generally, species that were 519 gained more frequently were also lost more often (slope = 0.66, CI = 0.59 to 0.72).





520

528 Boreal species that colonised and increased in abundance were associated with different 529 traits. Plant height influenced boreal colonisations: shorter species colonised more plots than 530 taller species in the multivariate model (Figure 4a), although they were also likely to be lost 531 from plots more often (slope = -0.72, Cl = -1.18 to -0.25). Boreal graminoids and shrubs 532 colonised 2.4 and 5.6 times more than forbs, respectively, in the multivariate model (Figure 533 4b), while in the univariate model only shrubs colonised more often than forbs (shrub 534 estimate = 0.76, CI = 0.28 to 1.26). Graminoids and shrubs were also lost more frequently 535 from plots (graminoid estimate = 1.97, Cl = 1.11 to 2.87, shrub estimate = 2.57, Cl = 1.36 to 536 3.90). There were no other significant traits associated with times colonised in the multivariate model, but in the univariate model species that colonised more often were 537 538 associated with lower SLA (slope = -0.72, Cl = -1.22 to -0.21). Species abundance increases 539 were not associated with any of the five traits tested in either the multivariate or in the 540 univariate models. Proportions of boreal coloniser and expanding species per functional 541 group reflected those of the main dataset (i.e., including all species; z-tests, p = 0.26 for 542 colonising species and p = 0.15 for increasing boreal abundance).



543

544 Figure 4. Colonising boreal species were shorter and more likely to be shrubs or graminoids, 545 though shrub species spanned the full range of height values. a) Boreal species that were 546 shorter colonised plots more often than taller species. Each point represents a plot, coloured 547 according to the functional group. The line and ribbon represent the model estimate and 95% 548 credible intervals of the univariate model (to allow for illustration of all the available height 549 values). b) Boreal shrubs and graminoids colonised more often than forbs. Model outputs are 550 represented as the mean estimate (points) and the 95% credible intervals (error bars). 551 Sample sizes for each category in the model are: for b = 62, graminoid = 32, shrub = 28 552 species.

553

554 Discussion

555 While across all sites net borealization was limited, and 44.1% of plots experienced a decline 556 in abundance of boreal species (Figure S3), our study shows that borealization occurred in around half of the studied plots, with 52.6% and 42.9% of plots experiencing colonisations 557 558 by and increases in abundance of boreal species, respectively (Figure 1). These figures align 559 closely with Harsch et al. (2009) and Rees et al. (2020), who reported treeline advance at 560 52% of studied sites, and forest-tundra ecotone advance at 52.3% of sites, respectively. 561 Boreal expansions were more likely to occur closer to treeline, at warmer and wetter sites 562 and at higher elevations (BCI), and at higher elevation sites that had lower initial abundance 563 of boreal species (BAI). Within plots with positive rates, boreal increases were greatest at 564 warmer sites (BCI) that had experienced limited precipitation increases (BCI and BAI), and 565 temperature increases (BCI), at sites closer to the treeline and with lower initial abundance 566 of boreal species (BAI), and in Eurasia relative to Greenland-Iceland (BCI) and Western North 567 America (BAI; Figure 2). Boreal species that contributed most towards borealization were 568 those that had ranges extending into tundra species pools (i.e., boreal-tundra boundary 569 species; Figure 3). Boreal species that colonised more frequently were shorter, and were 570 more likely to be shrubs or graminoids than forbs (Figure 4).

571

572 Biogeography, climate and local conditions affected borealization

573 Our results indicate that borealization is strongly influenced by biogeoclimatic factors. 574 Increased boreal abundance and colonisations were more likely to occur at high elevations 575 (i.e., mountains) and boreal colonisations were more likely closer to treeline (Figure 2b, g, i, 576 k), highlighting the role of boreal ecosystems as a current and future species source (Lloyd 577 et al. 2002). Regionally, Eurasia experienced greater boreal increases than other regions, in 578 line with modelling studies projecting a more pronounced movement of the taiga-tundra 579 ecotone in Russia, among other regions (Tang et al. 2023). While the degree of borealization 580 was highly variable across plant communities (Figure 1, S3), plots that became more 581 'borealized' (both via species colonisations and abundance increases) tended to be situated where climate had changed least (Figure 2e, f, j). Generally, these sites would be closer to 582 583 the latitudinal treeline, although we did not find a correlation between warming and distance 584 to treeline or latitude in our dataset, potentially due to the spatial heterogeneity of Arctic 585 warming (IPCC 2021). More colonisations at warmer and wetter sites (Figure 2c, d) suggest 586 that these conditions provide more favourable conditions for boreal-tundra plant 587 establishment, as shown by experimental (Lynn et al. 2021) and observational studies 588 (García Criado et al. 2020; Roland et al. 2021; Dial et al. 2022). Further, plots that 589 experienced greater increases in boreal abundance had lower initial abundance of boreal 590 plants (Figure 2l), indicating greater available niche space for boreal species to expand 591 (Valladares et al. 2015). These findings suggest that borealization will occur not only close 592 to boreal forests, but also where environmental and local conditions are more conducive to 593 plant establishment.

594 Boreal colonisations were driven by boreal-tundra species and by shrubs and graminoids

595 We found that the boreal species contributing most to borealization were generally of short 596 stature (Figure 4a) and more likely to be shrubs or graminoids than forbs (Figure 4b). This 597 first result ran counter to our expectation that taller plants would be better colonisers, but 598 could be explained by short species generally having lower seed mass (Thomas et al. 2020) 599 and thus higher dispersal capacity. Additionally, shorter plants might be better able to cope 600 with colder conditions, including frost and high wind speed (Bliss 1962), suggesting that 601 relatively small boreal species might be able to succeed in harsher environments (Lynn et al. 602 2023). Conversely, in line with our hypothesis, shrubs and graminoids colonised 5.16 and 603 2.4 times more frequently than forbs, respectively (Figure 4b), possibly due to their inherent 604 competitive advantages (Pajunen et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2018; Bråthen et al. 2021). 605 Graminoids have deeper root networks and take up nutrients from the soil more readily, thus 606 displacing shallow-rooted forb and shrub species. However, it should be noted that these 607 traits were also associated with greater species losses, and thus reflect community turnover 608 rates. In general, boreal colonisations seem to be driven by relatively more competitive 609 species groups such as shrubs and graminoids, but also by shorter species that might be 610 better adapted to Arctic environmental conditions.

611 While abundance change was similar across species classes (**Figure 3b**), boreal specialist 612 species colonised plots 3 and 3.3 fewer times than boreal-tundra boundary and ubiquitous 613 species (Figure 3a). This could indicate that species that are already present in local Arctic 614 species pools (e.g., boreal-tundra boundary, ubiquitous) are better able to establish into new 615 areas (e.g., through propagule pressure). Widespread species might be generalists and/or 616 have broader bioclimatic envelopes, and could therefore increase in abundance and 617 ultimately expand into new areas more efficiently than boreal specialist species (Timoney 618 2023), mirroring European trends with large-range species driving turnover (Staude et al. 619 2022). Species with populations that currently exist in the tundra likely have characteristics 620 that allow them to survive in harsher environmental conditions, while boreal specialist 621 species might not survive those environmental filters towards successful dispersal and 622 establishment (Callaghan et al. 2004b). Thus, boreal specialist species might be limited in 623 their abilities to colonise new tundra ecosystems.

624 The influx of boreal species could be intertwined with 'hidden diversity' as one of the main 625 pathways of future community composition change. Hidden diversity refers to species 626 present in local species pools that have not yet reached long-term monitoring plots (Pärtel 627 2014). With 64.4% of plot colonising species being present at the subsite level at the start 628 of monitoring, many local colonisations were from species with a widespread distribution, 629 which have the greatest potential to increase their abundance and distribution under climate 630 change, rather than species migrating from the boreal forest (Callaghan et al. 2004b; 631 Timoney 2023). Overall, our results indicate that borealization will likely be driven by 632 widespread species with ranges extending into the Arctic that are present in local species 633 pools, and not by boreal specialist species alone.

634 Considerations

635 Borealization is a process with multiple interacting variables. Here, we have attempted to 636 remove correlations among variables by investigating the relationships between potential 637 drivers (Figure S2, S3). There are certain considerations associated with field methods such 638 as point-framing, where some extant species, particularly smaller ones, could be missed 639 during surveys if not hit on exactly the same point and result in artificial colonisations and/or 640 losses. However, this method has been generally considered to result in an accurate 641 representation of plant communities (May and Hollister 2012). Acknowledging that 'top 642 coloniser' species (Table S3) were also lost more frequently from plots because they are 643 locally abundant within the landscape or they have high turnover rates (Staude et al. 2022), 644 we focus here on colonisations and abundance increases to better understand the 645 borealization process.

646 While in this study we focus on the process of borealization, negative borealization rates 647 were observed at some sites (Figure S4), indicating a loss or reduced abundance of boreal 648 species. Negative, slow or lagged rates of borealization may be due to stochastic processes 649 and other factors that limit plant community change (Lenoir et al. 2020). For example, 1) 650 herbivory can dampen species turnover (Speed et al. 2012), although herbivory was not a 651 significant predictor of borealization in our analyses. This could be due to the coarse scale 652 subsite-level herbivory information of the ITEX experimental design (Barrio et al. 2022). In 653 addition, 2) some species including conifers (typically boreal species), have slow

654 establishment rates, particularly at their northern range edges (Kroiss and HilleRisLambers 655 2015). 3) Plant recruitment and survival are highly sensitive to interannual climatic variation 656 (Harsch et al. 2009), while climate-derived effects on reproduction can limit boreal treeline 657 expansion (Brown et al. 2019). 4) Since our study sites are often far from the treeline, and 658 not random in their distribution (Bjorkman et al. in prep), this could explain the low number 659 of boreal specialist species within our dataset. Thus, more standardised studies at the boreal-660 tundra ecotone boundary are needed in order to refine estimates of the rate of spatial 661 encroachment of boreal species. Future studies could characterise borealization at the 662 landscape scale rather than plot scale, which might reveal somewhat different drivers.

663 Conclusions

664 Together, our findings suggest that future changes to tundra ecosystems might not involve 665 rapid biome shifts where boreal species replace tundra species. Rather, we might expect an 666 overall increase in the presence and abundance of species with broader geographic ranges 667 that were already present within the Arctic, leading to a slower forest-tundra ecotone 668 displacement into the tundra biome. Looking forward, we might expect borealization to not 669 only occur at sites near the treeline, but also where boreal-tundra species are present in 670 Arctic species pools. This borealization of tundra plant communities will have implications 671 for wildlife habitats, trophic interactions and ecosystem functions. If tundra plant 672 communities become more boreal, this could expand habitat for boreal herbivores such as 673 beaver (Castor canadensis) and moose (Tape et al. 2018; Zhou et al. 2020), while 674 simultaneously reducing habitat quality for tundra species such as barren-ground caribou 675 (Rangifer tarandus groenlandicus; Fullman et al. 2017). Increased presence of boreal plant 676 species within the tundra could also alter nutrient cycling and reduce soil carbon storage 677 (Speed et al. 2015; Parker et al. 2021; Gustafson et al. 2021). Future research on the 678 consequences of plant borealization will shed light on the implications for ecosystem 679 functions and services over time, and ultimately the impacts for Arctic People.

680

681 References

- Aarnes I, Bjune AE, Birks HH, et al (2012) Vegetation responses to rapid climatic changes
 during the last deglaciation 13,500–8,000 years ago on southwest Andøya, arctic
 Norway. Veget Hist Archaeobot 21:17–35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00334-0110320-4
 Abbott RJ, Smith LC, Milne RI, et al (2000) Molecular Analysis of Plant Migration and
- 687 Refugia in the Arctic. Science 289:1343–1346.
- 688 https://doi.org/10.1126/science.289.5483.1343
- Alsos IG, Rijal DP, Ehrich D, et al (2022) Postglacial species arrival and diversity buildup of
 northern ecosystems took millennia. Science Advances 8:eabo7434.
- 691 https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abo7434
- Aubin I, Munson AD, Cardou F, et al (2016) Traits to stay, traits to move: a review of
 functional traits to assess sensitivity and adaptive capacity of temperate and boreal
 trees to climate change. Environmental Reviews 24:164+.

695	https://doi.org/10.1139/er-2015-0072
696	Barrio IC, Ehrich D, Soininen EM, et al (2022) Developing common protocols to measure
697	tundra herbivory across spatial scales. Arctic Science 8:638–679.
698	https://doi.org/10.1139/as-2020-0020
699	Behrend AM, Aradóttir ÁL, Svavarsdóttir K, et al (2024) Natural colonization as a means to
700	upscale restoration of subarctic woodlands in Iceland. Restoration Ecology e14332.
701	https://doi.org/10.1111/rec.14332
702	Birks HH (2008) The Late-Quaternary history of arctic and alpine plants. Plant Ecology &
703	Diversity 1:135-146. https://doi.org/10.1080/17550870802328652
704	Bjorkman AD, et al (in prep) The ITEX+ composition database: Thirty years of experimental
705	warming and monitoring of tundra plant communities.
706	Bjorkman AD, Myers-Smith IH, Elmendorf SC, et al (2018a) Plant functional trait change
707	across a warming tundra biome. Nature 562:57. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-
708	018-0563-7
709	Bjorkman AD, Myers-Smith IH, Elmendorf SC, et al (2018b) Tundra Trait Team: A database
710	of plant traits spanning the tundra biome. Global Ecology and Biogeography
711	27:1402–1411. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12821
712	Bliss LC (1962) Adaptations of Arctic and Alpine Plants to Environmental Conditions. Arctic
713	15:117–144. https://doi.org/10.14430/arctic3564
714	Bråthen KA, Pugnaire FI, Bardgett RD (2021) The paradox of forbs in grasslands and the
715	legacy of the mammoth steppe. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 19:584–
716	592. https://doi.org/10.1002/fee.2405
717	Brown CD, Dufour-Tremblay G, Jameson RG, et al (2019) Reproduction as a bottleneck to
718	treeline advance across the circumarctic forest tundra ecotone. Ecography 42:137–
719	147. https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.03733
720	Bürkner P-C (2017) brms: An R Package for Bayesian Multilevel Models Using Stan.
721	Journal of Statistical Software 80:1–28. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v080.i01
722	Callaghan TV, Björn LO, Chernov Y, et al (2004a) Synthesis of effects in four Arctic
723	subregions. Ambio 33:469–473. https://doi.org/10.1579/0044-7447-33.7.469
724	Callaghan TV, Björn LO, Chernov Y, et al (2004b) Biodiversity, Distributions and
725	Adaptations of Arctic Species in the Context of Environmental Change. AMBIO 33:
726	Callaghan TV, Werkman BR, Crawford RobertMM (2002) The Tundra-Taiga Interface and
727	Its Dynamics: Concepts and Applications. Ambio 6–14
728	Daniëls FJA, Gillespie LJ, Poulin M (2013) Chapter 9. Plants. In: Arctic Biodiversity
729	Assessment. Status and trends in Arctic biodiversity. Conservation of Arctic Flora
730	and Fauna, Akureyri, pp 311–353
731	Dial RJ, Maher CT, Hewitt RE, Sullivan PF (2022) Sufficient conditions for rapid range
732	expansion of a boreal conifer. Nature 608:546–551.
733	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-05093-2
734	Dunn PK, Smyth GK (2018) Chapter 9: Models for Proportions: Binomial GLMs. In: Dunn PK,
735	Smyth GK (eds) Generalized Linear Models With Examples in R. Springer, New York,
736	NY, pp 333–369
737	Elmendorf SC, Henry GHR, Hollister RD, et al (2012) Plot-scale evidence of tundra
738	vegetation change and links to recent summer warming. Nature Climate Change
739	2:453–457. https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1465
740	Elmendorf SC, Henry GHR, Hollister RD, et al (2015) Experiment, monitoring, and gradient

741 methods used to infer climate change effects on plant communities yield consistent 742 patterns. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of 743 America 112:448. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1410088112 744 Elmhagen B, Berteaux D, Burgess RM, et al (2017) Homage to Hersteinsson and 745 Macdonald: climate warming and resource subsidies cause red fox range expansion 746 and Arctic fox decline. Polar Research 36: 747 Elven R (2007) Checklist of the panarctic flora (PAF) vascular plants. National Centre of 748 Biosystematics, Natural History Museum, University of Oslo 749 Emblemsvåg M, Pecuchet L, Velle LG, et al (2022) Recent warming causes functional 750 borealization and diversity loss in deep fish communities east of Greenland. 751 Diversity and Distributions 28:2071–2083. https://doi.org/10.1111/ddi.13604 752 Eskelinen A, Kaarlejärvi E, Olofsson J (2017) Herbivory and nutrient limitation protect 753 warming tundra from lowland species' invasion and diversity loss. Global Change 754 Biology 23:245-255. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13397 755 Fauchald P, Park T, Tommervik H, et al (2017) Arctic greening from warming promotes 756 declines in caribou populations. Sci Adv 3:9. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1601365 757 Fossheim M, Primicerio R, Johannesen E, et al (2015) Recent warming leads to a rapid 758 borealization of fish communities in the Arctic. Nature Clim Change 5:673-677. 759 https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2647 760 Frost GV, Epstein HE (2014) Tall shrub and tree expansion in Siberian tundra ecotones 761 since the 1960s. Global Change Biology 20:1264–1277. 762 https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12406 763 Fullman TJ, Joly K, Ackerman A (2017) Effects of environmental features and sport hunting 764 on caribou migration in northwestern Alaska. Mov Ecol 5:4. 765 https://doi.org/10.1186/s40462-017-0095-z 766 García Criado M, Myers-Smith IH, Bjorkman AD, et al (2023a) Plant diversity dynamics over 767 space and time in a warming Arctic. EcoEvoRxiv. https://doi.org/10.32942/X2MS4N 768 García Criado M, Myers-Smith IH, Bjorkman AD, et al (2020) Woody plant encroachment 769 intensifies under climate change across tundra and savanna biomes. Global Ecology 770 and Biogeography 29:925–943. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13072 771 García Criado M, Myers-Smith IH, Bjorkman AD, et al (2023b) Plant traits poorly predict 772 winner and loser shrub species in a warming tundra biome. Nat Commun 14:3837. 773 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-39573-4 774 GBIF (2024) GBIF.org, GBIF Home Page 775 Graae BJ, Vandvik V, Armbruster WS, et al (2018) Stay or go – how topographic complexity 776 influences alpine plant population and community responses to climate change. 777 Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics 30:41–50. 778 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ppees.2017.09.008 779 Gustafson A, Miller PA, Björk RG, et al (2021) Nitrogen restricts future sub-arctic treeline 780 advance in an individual-based dynamic vegetation model. Biogeosciences 781 18:6329-6347. https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-18-6329-2021 782 Harris JA, Hollister RD, Botting TF, et al (2022) Understanding the climate impacts on 783 decadal vegetation change in northern Alaska. Arctic Science 8:878-898. 784 https://doi.org/10.1139/as-2020-0050 785 Harsch MA, Hulme PE, McGlone MS, Duncan RP (2009) Are treelines advancing? A global 786 meta-analysis of treeline response to climate warming. Ecology Letters 12:1040787 1049. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01355.x 788 Henry GHR, Molau U (1997) Tundra plants and climate change: the International Tundra 789 Experiment (ITEX). Global Change Biology 3:1-9. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-790 2486.1997.gcb132.x 791 Hupp J, Brubaker M, Wilkinson K, Williamson J (2015) How are your berries? Perspectives 792 of Alaska's environmental managers on trends in wild berry abundance. 793 International Journal of Circumpolar Health 74:28704. 794 https://doi.org/10.3402/ijch.v74.28704 795 IPCC (2021) Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working 796 Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate 797 Change. Cambridge University Press 798 Kaarlejärvi E, Eskelinen A, Olofsson J (2017) Herbivores rescue diversity in warming tundra 799 by modulating trait-dependent species losses and gains. Nature Communications 800 8:419. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00554-z 801 Karger DN, Conrad O, Böhner J, et al (2017) Climatologies at high resolution for the earth's 802 land surface areas. Scientific Data 4:. https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2017.122 803 Kattge J, Bönisch G, Díaz S, et al (2020) TRY plant trait database – enhanced coverage and 804 open access. Global Change Biology 26:119–188. 805 https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14904 806 Khitun OV, Koroleva TM, Chinenko SV, et al (2016) Applications of local floras for floristic 807 subdivision and monitoring vascular plant diversity in the Russian Arctic. Arctic 808 Science 2:103–126. https://doi.org/10.1139/as-2015-0010 809 Kindt R (2020) WorldFlora: An R package for exact and fuzzy matching of plant names 810 against the World Flora Online taxonomic backbone data. Applications in Plant 811 Sciences 8:e11388. https://doi.org/10.1002/aps3.11388 812 Kroiss SJ, HilleRisLambers J (2015) Recruitment limitation of long-lived conifers: 813 implications for climate change responses. Ecology 96:1286–1297. 814 https://doi.org/10.1890/14-0595.1 815 Le Pogam A, O'Connor RS, Love OP, et al (2021) Coping with the worst of both worlds: 816 Phenotypic adjustments for cold acclimatization benefit northward migration and 817 arrival in the cold in an Arctic-breeding songbird. Functional Ecology 35:1240-818 1254. https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13793 819 Lenoir J, Bertrand R, Comte L, et al (2020) Species better track climate warming in the 820 oceans than on land. Nat Ecol Evol 4:1044-1059. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-821 020-1198-2 822 Liu H, Mi Z, Lin L, et al (2018) Shifting plant species composition in response to climate 823 change stabilizes grassland primary production. PNAS 115:4051–4056. 824 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1700299114 825 Lloyd AH, Rupp TS, Fastie CL, Starfield AM (2002) Patterns and dynamics of treeline 826 advance on the Seward Peninsula, Alaska. Journal of Geophysical Research: 827 Atmospheres 107:ALT 2-1-ALT 2-15. https://doi.org/10.1029/2001JD000852 828 Lynn JS, Gya R, Klanderud K, et al (2023) Traits help explain species' performance away 829 from their climate niche centre. Diversity and Distributions 29:962–978. 830 https://doi.org/10.1111/ddi.13718 831 Lynn JS, Klanderud K, Telford RJ, et al (2021) Macroecological context predicts species' 832 responses to climate warming. Global Change Biology 27:2088–2101.

833 https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15532 834 Macias-Fauria M, Forbes BC, Zetterberg P, Kumpula T (2012) Eurasian Arctic greening 835 reveals teleconnections and the potential for novel ecosystems. 836 https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1558 837 Mallory CD, Boyce MS (2018) Observed and predicted effects of climate change on Arctic 838 caribou and reindeer. Environ Rev 26:13–25. https://doi.org/10.1139/er-2017-0032 839 May JL, Hollister RD (2012) Validation of a simplified point frame method to detect change 840 in tundra vegetation. Polar Biol 35:1815-1823. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-841 012-1224-1 842 Meltofte H (2013) Arctic Biodiversity Assessment. Status and trends in Arctic biodiversity. 843 Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna, Akureyri 844 Myers-Smith IH, Forbes BC, Wilmking M, et al (2011) Shrub expansion in tundra 845 ecosystems: dynamics, impacts and research priorities. Environ Res Lett 6:045509. 846 https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/6/4/045509 847 Obu J, Westermann S, Bartsch A, et al (2019) Northern Hemisphere permafrost map based 848 on TTOP modelling for 2000–2016 at 1 km2 scale. Earth-Science Reviews 849 193:299-316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2019.04.023 850 Olson DM, Dinerstein E, Wikramanayake ED, et al (2001) Terrestrial Ecoregions of the 851 World: A New Map of Life on Earth: A new global map of terrestrial ecoregions 852 provides an innovative tool for conserving biodiversity. BioScience 51:933–938. 853 https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-3568(2001)051[0933:TEOTWA]2.0.CO;2 854 Pajunen AM, Oksanen J, Virtanen R (2011) Impact of shrub canopies on understorey 855 vegetation in western Eurasian tundra. Journal of Vegetation Science 22:837-846 856 Parker TC, Thurston AM, Raundrup K, et al (2021) Shrub expansion in the Arctic may 857 induce large-scale carbon losses due to changes in plant-soil interactions. Plant Soil 858 463:643-651. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-021-04919-8 859 Pärtel M (2014) Community ecology of absent species: hidden and dark diversity. Journal of 860 Vegetation Science 25:1154–1159. https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12169 861 Pecuchet L, Blanchet M-A, Frainer A, et al (2020) Novel feeding interactions amplify the 862 impact of species redistribution on an Arctic food web. Global Change Biology 863 26:4894-4906. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15196 864 R Core Team (2022) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R 865 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria 866 Ray N, Adams J (2001) A GIS-based vegetation map of the world at the Last Glacial 867 Maximum (25,000-15,000 BP). Internet Archaeology 11: 868 Raynolds MK, Walker DA, Balser A, et al (2019) A raster version of the Circumpolar Arctic 869 Vegetation Map (CAVM). Remote Sensing of Environment 232:111297. 870 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2019.111297 871 Rees WG, Hofgaard A, Boudreau S, et al (2020) Is subarctic forest advance able to keep 872 pace with climate change? Global Change Biology 26:3965–3977. 873 https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15113 874 Rees WG, Stammler FM, Danks FS, Vitebsky P (2008) Vulnerability of European reindeer 875 husbandry to global change. Climatic Change 87:199-217. 876 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-007-9345-1 877 Roland C, Schmidt JH, Stehn SE, et al (2021) Borealization and its discontents: drivers of 878 regional variation in plant diversity across scales in interior Alaska. Ecosphere

879	12:e03485. https://doi.org/10.1002/ecs2.3485
880	Ropars P, Boudreau S (2012) Shrub expansion at the forest–tundra ecotone: spatial
881	heterogeneity linked to local topography. Environ Res Lett 7:015501.
882	https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/7/1/015501
883	Rupp TS, Chapin FS, Starfield AM (2001) Modeling the Influence of Topographic Barriers
884	on Treeline Advance at the Forest-Tundra Ecotone in Northwestern Alaska. Climatic
885	Change 48:399–416. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010738502596
886	Speed JDM, Austrheim G, Hester AJ, Mysterud A (2012) Elevational advance of alpine plant
887	communities is buffered by herbivory. Journal of Vegetation Science 23:617–625.
888	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2012.01391.x
889	Speed JDM, Chimal-Ballesteros JA, Martin MD, et al (2021) Will borealization of Arctic
890	tundra herbivore communities be driven by climate warming or vegetation change?
891	Global Change Biology 27:6568–6577. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15910
892	Speed JDM, Martinsen V, Hester AJ, et al (2015) Continuous and discontinuous variation in
893	ecosystem carbon stocks with elevation across a treeline ecotone. Biogeosciences
894	12:1615–1627. https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-12-1615-2015
895	Sporbert M, Welk E, Seidler G, et al (2021) Different sets of traits explain abundance and
896	distribution patterns of European plants at different spatial scales. Journal of
897	Vegetation Science 32:e13016. https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.13016
898	Staude IR, Pereira HM, Daskalova GN, et al (2022) Directional turnover towards larger-
899	ranged plants over time and across habitats. Ecology Letters 25:466–482.
900	https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13937
901	Steinbauer MJ, Grytnes J-A, Jurasinski G, et al (2018) Accelerated increase in plant species
902	richness on mountain summits is linked to warming. Nature 556:231.
903	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0005-6
904	Tang J, Zhou P, Miller PA, et al (2023) High-latitude vegetation changes will determine
905	future plant volatile impacts on atmospheric organic aerosols. npj Clim Atmos Sci
906	6:1–13. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-023-00463-7
907	Tape KD, Gustine DD, Ruess RW, et al (2016) Range Expansion of Moose in Arctic Alaska
908	Linked to Warming and Increased Shrub Habitat. PLOS ONE 11:e0152636.
909	https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0152636
910	Tape KD, Jones BM, Arp CD, et al (2018) Tundra be dammed: Beaver colonization of the
911	Arctic. Global Change Biology 24:4478–4488. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14332
912	Thomas HJD, Bjorkman AD, Myers-Smith IH, et al (2020) Global plant trait relationships
913	extend to the climatic extremes of the tundra biome. Nature Communications 11:1–
914	12. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-15014-4
915	Timoney KP (2023) No evidence of a northward biome shift of treeline in the Mackay Lake
916	region, north-central Canada. Écoscience 30:113–129.
917	https://doi.org/10.1080/11956860.2023.2231262
918	Valdez JW, Callaghan CT, Junker J, et al (2023) The undetectability of global biodiversity
919	trends using local species richness. Ecography 2023:e06604.
920	https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.06604
921	Valladares F, Bastias CC, Godoy O, et al (2015) Species coexistence in a changing world.
922	Front Plant Sci 6:. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2015.00866</u>
923	Verdonen M, et al (in prep) Borealization of tundra ecosystems with climate change.
924	Villén-Peréz S, Heikkinen J, Salemaa M, Mäkipää R (2020) Global warming will affect the

- 925 maximum potential abundance of boreal plant species. Ecography 43:801–811.
 926 https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.04720
- 927 Vincent H, Bornand CN, Kempel A, Fischer M (2020) Rare species perform worse than
 928 widespread species under changed climate. Biological Conservation 246:108586.
 929 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2020.108586
- Vuorinen KEM, Oksanen L, Oksanen T, et al (2017) Open tundra persist, but arctic features
 decline-Vegetation changes in the warming Fennoscandian tundra. Glob Change
 Biol 23:3794–3807. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13710
- Walker DA, Raynolds MK, Daniëls FJA, et al (2005) The Circumpolar Arctic vegetation map.
 Journal of Vegetation Science 16:267–282. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.16541103.2005.tb02365.x
- Wei T, Simko V (2021) R package "corrplot": Visualization of a Correlation Matrix (Version 0.92).
- Westoby M (1998) A leaf-height-seed (LHS) plant ecology strategy scheme. Plant and Soil
 199:213–227. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1004327224729
- 940 WFO (2024) World Flora Online. https://www.worldfloraonline.org/. Accessed 26 Sep941 2024
- Shang W, Miller PA, Smith B, et al (2013) Tundra shrubification and tree-line advance
 amplify arctic climate warming: results from an individual-based dynamic vegetation
 model. Environ Res Lett 8:034023. https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/8/3/034023
- 945 Zhou J, Tape KD, Prugh L, et al (2020) Enhanced shrub growth in the Arctic increases
- 946 habitat connectivity for browsing herbivores. Global Change Biology 26:3809–3820.
 947 https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15104

Plant community borealization in the Arctic is driven by borealtundra boundary species

Supplementary Information

Mariana García Criado, Isabel C. Barrio, James D. M. Speed, Isla H. Myers-Smith, Anne D. Bjorkman, Rien Aerts, Juha M. Alatalo, Katlyn R. Betway-May, Robert G. Björk, Mats P. Björkman, Daan Blok, Elisabeth J. Cooper, J. Hans C. Cornelissen, Sarah C. Elmendorf, William A. Gould, Ragnhild Gya, Greg H.R. Henry, Luise Hermanutz, Robert D. Hollister, Annika K. Jägerbrand, Ingibjörg S. Jónsdóttir, Elina Kaarlejärvi, Olga Khitun, Simone I. Lang, Petr Macek, Jeremy L. May, Anders Michelsen, Signe Normand, Siri L. Olsen, Eric Post, Riikka Rinnan, Niels Martin Schmidt, Sofie Sjogersten, Anne Tolvanen, Joachim P. Töpper, Andrew Trant, Vigdis Vandvik and Tage Vowles

Supplementary Figures.



Figure S1. There were positive correlations between BCI and net change values at the community level (**a**) and between times colonised and net change at the species level (**b**). Darker grey colours indicate overlap of multiple points. Solid lines represent the model estimate, with credible intervals that did not overlap zero. Semi-transparent ribbons represent the 95% credible intervals.



Figure S2. Correlograms with the pairwise correlations for the fixed effects in each community-level model. Colour intensity is proportional to the correlation coefficients, with blue and red tones indicating positive and negative correlations, respectively. Underlined variables indicate those that were removed in community models due to high correlation (|Spearman's r| > 0.7) with other variables (see Methods). In order to include categorical variables in the pairwise correlations, we coded them as ordinal variables as follows: moisture (dry = 0, moist = 1, mixed = 2, wet = 3), dominant grazer (none = 0, insects = 1, small mammals = 2, birds = 3, mixed = 4, large mammals = 5), grazer intensity (low = 1, medium = 2, high = 3), permafrost (none = 0, sporadic = 1, continuous = 2), interruption to treeline (uninterrupted = 0, small water bodies = 1, mountains = 2, large water bodies = 3), biome (alpine = 0, Arctic = 1), biogeographic region (Eurasia = 1, Western North America = 2, Eastern North America = 3, Greenland-Iceland = 4).



Figure S3. Correlogram with the pairwise correlations for the predictor variables in the species-level models. Colour intensity is proportional to the correlation coefficients, with blue and red tones indicating positive and negative correlations, respectively. The NA value between N_fixer and Leaf C:N is due to lack of variability in the data; all species with Leaf C:N data were non-fixers (i.e., 0 value). The underlined variable (leaf C:N) was removed in the species-level models due to high correlation with leaf N in both datasets, and with SLA and seed mass on the colonisation dataset (see Methods). Categorical traits were transformed to numerical variables for investigating correlations: berry production (not berry = 0, berry = 1), woodiness (not woody = 0, woody = 1), and N-fixer (0 = not fixer, 1 = fixer).



Figure S4. We detected wide variability in plant community borealization across the tundra when including plots that did not experience boreal colonisations (BCI = 0) and plots that experienced either no change or decreases in boreal species abundance (BAI <=0). The panel shows the distribution of the full range of change for boreal specialist and boreal-tundra boundary species across the tundra. **a)** Borealization estimated using colonisations as an average of all plots within a study area, **b)** BCI index for each plot within each study area, **c)** Borealization estimated using abundance change as an average of all plots within a study area, **ch** BAI index for each plot within each study area. Points in **a)** and **c)** are coloured according to the magnitude of increase (as BAI and BCI). Crosses indicate the mean value of the plot borealization index at the study area level in **b)** and **d)**, which represent the same value as coloured points in **a)** and **c)**. Study areas in **b)** and **d)** are arranged by longitude, and darker grey colours indicate overlap of multiple points.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Classification of species according to their presence and frequency in the different boreal and Arctic zones. We include in each column all the frequency combinations for the species in our dataset that we assigned to each class. Other possible frequency combinations for species not included in our dataset are not reflected here. The format in each row follows the following pattern: frequency in the Boreal zone ("Bor"), Zone E ("E"), Zone D ("D"), Zone C ("C"), Zone B ("B") and Zone A ("A"), as indicated in the top row (Walker et al. 2005). Frequency in the different zones is specified and colour-coded as follows: No = not present, X = present without a frequency assessment, ? = uncertain, * = stabilized introductions, ** = casual introductions, R = rare, b = borderline Arctic species only present in the southernmost part of Zone E, S = scattered and F = frequent. The frequency in each zone is extracted from the Arctic Biodiversity Assessment (Meltofte 2013), and in particular from Appendix 9.1 (Daniëls et al. 2013), which lists all Arctic vascular plant species and their distribution in the five subzones based on Elven (2007). We considered a species to be present in a particular zone when it was reported as 'scattered' or 'frequent' in Daniëls et al. (2013); in contrast, we considered a species to be absent in a particular zone if it was described as 'rare', 'uncertain' or 'introduced'.

B	ore	al s	pec	ialis	st	E	Bor bo	eal- oun	tuno dary	dra y		A	rctio	c sp	beci	alist	t		Uk	piqu	itou	IS	
Bor	E	D	с	в	A	Bor	E	D	с	в	A	Bor	E	D	С	в	Α	Bor	E	D	ç	в	A
F	R	R	No	No	No	S	F	F	R	R	No	R	R	S	F	F	S	F	F	S	F	F	s
s	R	No	No	No	No	S	S	S	R	No	No	R	s	F	F	F	R	S	F	F	F	F	s
F	R	No	No	No	No	F	s	s	R	No	No	R	s	S	S	R	No	F	F	F	F	F	s
s	b	No	No	No	No	F	F	s	R	No	No	R	F	F	F	R	No	s	F	F	F	s	R
F	b	No	No	No	No	F	F	R	R	No	No	R	F	F	s	No	No	s	F	F	F	F	R
s	*	No	No	No	No	s	F	F	R	No	No	R	F	S	R	No	No	F	F	F	F	F	R
F	R	R	?	No	No	F	F	F	R	No	No	R	F	F	R	No	No	S	F	F	F	s	No
						F	F	s	No	No	No	No	х	х	No	No	No	F	F	F	F	s	No
						s	s	R	No	No	No	R	s	F	F	F	F	s	F	F	s	R	No
						F	s	R	No	No	No	No	S	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	s	R	No
						s	F	R	No	No	No	No	R	F	F	F	F	s	F	F	F	R	No
						F	F	R	No	No	No	110						F	F	F	F	R	No
						F	s	No	No	No	No							s	F	F	s	No	No
						R	R	No	No	No	No							F	F	F	s	No	No
						F	F	No	No	No	No							F	F	F	F	No	No
						F	F	F	No	No	No							F	F	F	s	?	No
						F	s	?	No	No	No							F	F	F	F	?	No
						F	F	?	No	No	No							s	F	F	F	F	F
						F	F	s	?	No	No							F	F	F	F	F	F
						F	F	R	?	No	No							s	F	F	F	s	?
						F	F	F	?	No	No							F	F	F	F	s	?
						F	F	R	**	No	No							F	F	F	F	R	?
						F	F	F	**	No	No												,
						F	F	*	**	No	No												
						F	F	F	R	?	No												

Table S2. Model structure for community- and species-level models. Borealization was quantified using BCI and BAI in community models, and as times colonised and mean cover change in the species-level models. Model structure is similar between 'BCI' and 'BAI' community models (*except for the BAI biogeographic model where biome was not included as a predictor), and between 'times colonised' and 'mean cover change' species models. Fixed effects are the retained variables after examining pairwise correlations among variables of interest. All community models included subsite as a random effect to account for spatial autocorrelation. Sample sizes are included in square brackets, first for the 'positive-only' models (i.e., including BCI and BAI values greater than zero) and then for 'full-range' models (i.e., including zeroes for BCI, and zeroes and negative values for BAI).

Community-level models (Borealization = BCI or BAI per plot)

Model 1: Biogeographic model [*n* = BCI: 598, 1,137; BAI: 488, 1137] Borealization ~ Biogeographic region + Distance to treeline + Biome* + (1|Subsite)

Model 2: Climatic model [*n* = BCI: 597, 1,130; BAI: 487, 1,130] Borealization ~ Warmest quarter temperature change + Precipitation change + Minimum Temperature change + Warmest quarter temperature climatology + Precipitation climatology + (1|Subsite)

Model 3: Local model [*n* = BCI: 581, 1,103; BAI: 466, 1,103] Borealization ~ Moisture + Grazing intensity + Dominant grazer + Elevation + Permafrost + Plot size + Initial boreal status + (1|Subsite)

Species-level models (Borealization = times colonised or mean cover per species) [n = 29 for times colonised model, n = 24 for abundance change model]

Borealization ~ Functional group + log(Plant height) + log(SLA) + log(Seed mass) + log(Leaf N)

Table S3. Summary of change and relevant traits per species, ordered by the number of times it colonised different plots. Plant species classes (Boreal specialist [B], Boreal-tundra boundary [BTB], Arctic specialist [A] and Ubiquitous [U]) are described in **Table S1**. 95% confidence intervals are calculated per species as (standard deviation/ \sqrt{n})*1.96. Species with NA values of mean plant height did not have enough records (minimum of 5) to be retained for species-level analysis. Sample size refers to the number of plots where the species were recorded in.

Order	Species	Functional group	Class	Times colonised	Mean cover change (% per year)	Cover change confidence intervals	Mean plant height (m)	Sample size
1	Empetrum nigrum	Shrub	U	72	0.27	0.16	0.10	469
2	Persicaria vivipara	Forb	U	67	0.08	0.12	0.09	345
3	Carex bigelowii	Graminoid	BTB	62	-0.08	0.07	0.09	536
4	Betula nana	Shrub	BTB	56	0.04	0.13	0.19	381
5	Phyllodoce caerulea	Shrub	BTB	49	0.11	0.18	0.07	123
6	Vaccinium vitis-idaea	Shrub	BTB	48	0.00	0.06	0.05	559
7	Vaccinium myrtillus	Shrub	BTB	43	0.02	0.17	0.09	219
8	Silene acaulis	Forb	U	42	-0.38	0.20	0.01	155
9	Harrimanella hypnoides	Shrub	BTB	41	-0.13	0.17	0.01	110
10	Persicaria bistorta	Forb	BTB	38	-0.03	0.06	NA	143
11	Arctagrostis latifolia	Graminoid	U	36	0.00	0.08	0.26	134

12	Poa arctica	Graminoid	U	36	0.39	0.21	0.14	137
13	Stellaria longipes	Forb	U	33	-0.10	0.11	0.06	112
14	Salix arctica	Shrub	U	31	0.23	0.16	0.04	236
15	Pinguicula vulgaris	Forb	BTB	30	0.09	0.04	0.08	37
16	Pedicularis lapponica	Forb	BTB	29	-0.05	0.08	0.07	61
17	Thalictrum alpinum	Forb	BTB	29	-0.07	0.12	0.06	78
18	Cassiope tetragona	Shrub	U	27	-0.17	0.10	0.09	291
19	Rubus chamaemorus	Forb	BTB	27	-0.03	0.09	0.06	117
20	Petasites frigidus	Forb	U	26	0.13	0.14	0.15	89
21	Salix daphnoides	Shrub	BTB	26	-0.26	0.15	0.35	163
22	Salix lanata	Shrub	BTB	25	0.28	0.20	1.48	32
23	Eriophorum angustifolium	Graminoid	U	24	0.38	0.21	0.25	143
24	Vaccinium uliginosum	Shrub	U	23	0.07	0.10	0.11	188
25	Eriophorum vaginatum	Graminoid	BTB	23	0.38	0.13	0.18	222
26	Tofieldia pusilla	Forb	BTB	22	0.00	0.08	0.11	56
27	Deschampsia flexuosa	Graminoid	BTB	19	-0.15	0.14	0.12	200

28	Luzula confusa	Graminoid	U	19	-0.22	0.09	0.12	149
29	Luzula nivalis	Graminoid	А	19	-0.17	0.14	0.10	96
30	Pyrola grandiflora	Forb	U	19	-0.02	0.07	0.05	49
31	Kobresia myosuroides	Graminoid	U	19	0.11	0.17	NA	60
32	Saxifraga cernua	Forb	U	18	-0.08	0.16	0.10	60
33	Saxifraga hirculus	Forb	U	18	-0.01	0.15	0.18	52
34	Calluna vulgaris	Shrub	BTB	18	0.42	0.41	0.17	105
35	Micranthes punctata	Forb	BTB	17	0.00	0.09	NA	44
36	Tephroseris integrifolia	Forb	BTB	17	-0.03	0.06	0.15	51
37	Dupontia fisheri	Graminoid	U	17	-0.27	0.39	0.17	83
38	Saxifraga oppositifolia	Forb	U	16	-0.14	0.29	NA	65
39	Trisetum spicatum	Graminoid	U	16	0.29	0.19	0.24	46
40	Luzula spicata	Graminoid	BTB	15	0.06	0.07	0.13	25
41	Carex microcarpa	Graminoid	U	15	0.43	0.26	0.22	145
42	Rhododendron tomentosum	Shrub	BTB	15	-0.21	0.10	0.08	235
43	Salix polaris	Shrub	А	15	-0.05	0.32	0.04	117

44	Solidago virgaurea	Forb	BTB	14	0.15	0.12	0.12	74
45	Oxyria digyna	Forb	U	14	-0.10	0.08	0.17	80
46	Salix herbacea	Shrub	U	14	-0.14	0.17	0.02	214
47	Ranunculus nivalis	Forb	U	14	-0.09	0.11	0.10	27
48	Minuartia stricta	Forb	BTB	14	0.17	0.10	NA	26
49	Bartsia alpina	Forb	BTB	13	0.11	0.08	0.08	21
50	Andromeda polifolia	Shrub	BTB	13	0.01	0.17	0.05	60
51	Pedicularis hirsuta	Forb	U	13	0.03	0.10	0.08	21
52	Hierochloe pauciflora	Graminoid	U	13	0.43	0.42	0.13	27
53	Salix glauca	Shrub	BTB	12	0.22	0.20	0.46	47
54	Oreojuncus trifidus	Graminoid	BTB	12	0.01	0.06	0.09	43
55	Festuca richardsonii	Graminoid	U	12	0.00	0.29	0.31	80
56	Arctous alpina	Shrub	U	11	-0.02	0.16	0.05	43
57	Saussurea alpina	Forb	BTB	11	0.39	0.42	0.17	13
58	Pedicularis capitata	Forb	U	11	-0.03	0.07	0.08	31
59	Hierochloe alpina	Graminoid	U	11	0.12	0.14	0.24	50

60	Astragalus alpinus	Forb	BTB	10	0.23	0.26	0.08	25
61	Juniperus communis	Shrub	BTB	10	-0.77	0.85	0.60	23
62	Juncus biglumis	Graminoid	U	10	0.10	0.11	0.08	20
63	Salix rotundifolia	Shrub	BTB	10	-0.63	0.28	0.02	53
64	Saussurea angustifolia	Forb	BTB	10	0.01	0.06	0.13	24
65	Armeria maritima	Forb	BTB	10	-0.36	0.10	0.19	100
66	Sagina nivalis	Forb	А	10	0.31	0.05	0.02	10
67	Viola biflora	Forb	BTB	10	0.18	0.15	0.04	32
68	Salix reticulata	Shrub	U	9	0.32	0.16	0.05	111
69	Lysimachia europaea	Forb	BTB	9	-0.03	0.03	0.04	77
70	Diapensia lapponica	Shrub	U	9	-0.03	0.12	0.03	40
71	Sibbaldia procumbens	Forb	BTB	9	-0.01	0.16	0.03	24
72	Agrostis mertensii	Graminoid	BTB	9	-0.29	0.17	0.14	39
73	Pedicularis flammea	Forb	А	9	0.05	0.10	NA	16
74	Carex rupestris	Graminoid	U	8	-0.06	0.14	NA	30
75	Calamagrostis lapponica	Graminoid	BTB	8	-0.08	0.19	0.19	91

76	Deschampsia cespitosa	Graminoid	BTB	8	-0.08	0.29	0.60	22
77	Dryas integrifolia	Shrub	U	8	-0.12	0.10	0.06	125
78	Pedicularis lanata	Forb	U	8	0.03	0.14	0.08	28
79	Anthoxanthum odoratum	Graminoid	В	8	-0.43	0.57	0.26	19
80	Festuca ovina	Graminoid	BTB	7	0.05	0.30	0.35	36
81	Carex fuliginosa	Graminoid	U	7	-0.06	0.09	NA	24
82	Festuca rubra	Graminoid	U	7	0.11	0.36	0.31	25
83	Potentilla hyparctica	Forb	U	7	-0.10	0.09	0.07	26
84	Micranthes foliolosa	Forb	U	7	-0.26	0.22	0.09	22
85	Luzula multiflora	Graminoid	BTB	7	0.01	0.03	0.15	45
86	Rhodiola rosea	Forb	U	7	0.08	0.20	0.11	15
87	Eriophorum scheuchzeri	Graminoid	U	6	0.21	0.14	0.24	6
88	Salix phlebophylla	Shrub	BTB	6	0.06	0.26	0.02	54
89	Alopecurus alpinus	Graminoid	U	6	-0.11	0.44	0.21	24
90	Cochlearia officinalis	Forb	BTB	6	-0.03	0.13	0.15	14
91	Poa pratensis	Graminoid	U	6	-0.16	0.10	0.28	29

92	Luzula arcuata	Graminoid	BTB	6	-0.02	0.09	NA	11
93	Galium boreale	Forb	BTB	6	0.75	0.42	0.28	6
94	Dryas octopetala	Shrub	U	5	0.03	0.28	0.05	89
95	Rhododendron lapponicum	Shrub	U	5	-0.01	0.33	0.08	29
96	Cardamine bellidifolia	Forb	U	5	0.20	0.18	NA	6
97	Oreomecon radicata	Forb	В	5	-0.08	0.08	0.11	22
98	Cerastium alpinum	Forb	U	5	-0.04	0.08	NA	15
99	Oxytropis nigrescens	Forb	U	5	0.04	0.13	NA	19
100	Pedicularis sudetica	Forb	U	5	-0.14	0.21	0.08	13
101	Carex rotundata	Graminoid	BTB	5	0.08	0.82	NA	10
102	Carex capillaris	Graminoid	BTB	5	-0.05	0.12	NA	12
103	Cardamine pratensis	Forb	U	5	-0.30	0.17	0.18	25
104	Cerastium arcticum	Forb	А	5	0.03	0.14	0.11	20
105	Carex microglochin	Graminoid	BTB	5	0.14	0.10	NA	5
106	Ranunculus acris	Forb	BTB	5	0.11	0.12	0.24	14
107	Kalmia procumbens	Shrub	BTB	5	0.42	0.62	0.04	13

108	Cardamine digitalis	Forb	BTB	5	0.05	0.05	0.05	6
109	Gnaphalium supinum	Forb	BTB	5	-0.04	0.29	0.05	18
110	Vahlodea atropurpurea	Graminoid	BTB	5	0.02	0.04	NA	11
111	Euphrasia frigida	Forb	А	5	-0.05	0.08	0.08	12
112	Minuartia biflora	Forb	U	5	0.07	0.02	NA	5
113	Calamagrostis inexpansa	Graminoid	В	5	-0.09	0.15	NA	25
114	Poa glauca	Graminoid	U	4	-0.27	0.42	0.26	8
115	Calamagrostis stricta	Graminoid	U	4	0.29	0.42	0.15	13
116	Oxytropis maydelliana	Forb	U	4	-0.09	0.14	0.09	16
117	Oxytropis campestris	Forb	BTB	4	0.08	0.24	0.11	9
118	Carex rariflora	Graminoid	BTB	4	0.45	0.84	0.28	13
119	Festuca vivipara	Graminoid	BTB	4	0.17	0.30	0.14	8
120	Cerastium beeringianum	Forb	U	4	-0.46	0.37	NA	19
121	Festuca altaica	Graminoid	BTB	4	0.39	0.15	NA	7
122	Alopecurus magellanicus	Graminoid	U	4	0.50	0.86	0.13	12
123	Betula pubescens	Shrub	BTB	4	0.11	0.11	2.34	5

124	Hieracium alpinum	Forb	BTB	4	-0.04	0.04	0.13	76
125	Galium verum	Forb	BTB	4	0.83	0.78	0.15	5
126	Salix hastata	Shrub	BTB	3	0.28	0.40	NA	9
127	Salix chamissonis	Shrub	BTB	3	-0.06	0.26	NA	11
128	Linnaea borealis	Shrub	BTB	3	0.02	0.50	0.05	6
129	Festuca brachyphylla	Graminoid	U	3	-0.20	0.29	0.12	11
130	Arnica griscomii	Forb	BTB	3	0.19	0.54	NA	4
131	Hedysarum alpinum	Forb	BTB	3	0.07	0.10	NA	12
132	Antennaria friesiana	Forb	U	3	0.11	0.25	0.10	4
133	Draba lactea	Forb	U	3	0.02	0.23	0.05	11
134	Calamagrostis holmii	Graminoid	BTB	3	0.27	0.03	0.13	3
135	Micranthes hieraciifolia	Forb	U	3	0.03	0.12	NA	16
136	Stellaria crassipes	Forb	U	3	0.23	0.23	0.06	4
137	Veronica alpina	Forb	U	3	-0.01	0.09	0.07	15
138	Pyrola minor	Forb	BTB	3	0.24	0.36	0.10	9
139	Rumex acetosa	Forb	BTB	3	-0.04	0.07	0.32	18

140	Gentiana nivalis	Forb	BTB	3	0.08	0.14	0.08	4
141	Antennaria alpina	Forb	BTB	3	0.05	0.22	0.11	5
142	Festuca baffinensis	Graminoid	U	3	-0.09	0.23	0.15	6
143	Euphrasia arctica	Forb	В	3	0.37	0.25	NA	4
144	Chamorchis alpina	Forb	В	2	-0.03	0.26	NA	3
145	Gymnadenia conopsea	Forb	BTB	2	0.17	0.07	0.40	2
146	Pinguicula villosa	Forb	BTB	2	0.03	0.03	NA	5
147	Orthilia secunda	Forb	BTB	2	-0.05	0.05	0.11	12
148	Braya purpurascens	Forb	U	2	-0.04	0.14	NA	6
149	Salix planifolia	Shrub	BTB	2	0.01	0.30	0.44	44
150	Astragalus umbellatus	Forb	BTB	2	-0.47	0.28	0.09	21
151	Carex x turfosa	Graminoid	BTB	2	-0.05	0.06	0.19	6
152	Anemone parviflora	Forb	BTB	2	0.10	0.22	NA	8
153	Arctous rubra	Shrub	BTB	2	-0.01	0.20	NA	13
154	Lupinus arcticus	Forb	BTB	2	0.54	0.41	0.17	16
155	Pedicularis verticillata	Forb	BTB	2	-0.02	0.09	0.14	7

156	Salix fuscescens	Shrub	BTB	2	0.15	0.99	NA	6
157	Valeriana capitata	Forb	BTB	2	-0.06	0.10	0.19	6
158	Ranunculus pallasii	Forb	BTB	2	0.07	0.35	NA	3
159	Poa alpina	Graminoid	U	2	-0.14	0.11	0.19	19
160	Silene uralensis	Forb	U	2	0.15	0.05	0.04	2
161	Carex fimbriata	Graminoid	В	2	-0.16	0.21	0.22	9
162	Pedicularis dasyantha	Forb	А	2	0.10	0.21	NA	6
163	Silene apetala	Forb	U	2	0.16	0.37	NA	4
164	Phleum alpinum	Graminoid	BTB	2	-0.07	0.09	0.27	12
165	Pyrola rotundifolia	Forb	BTB	2	0.32	0.37	0.23	3
166	Carex lachenalii	Graminoid	U	2	-0.40	0.16	0.11	46
167	Carex brunnescens	Graminoid	BTB	2	-0.60	0.32	0.11	23
168	Salix phylicifolia	Shrub	BTB	2	0.20	0.08	2.69	2
169	Carex parallela	Graminoid	U	1	-0.59	0.52	NA	19
170	Carex vaginata	Graminoid	BTB	1	-0.43	0.24	0.09	45
171	Astragalus frigidus	Forb	BTB	1	-0.16	0.21	NA	4

172	Vaccinium microcarpum	Shrub	BTB	1	0.32	0.31	NA	6
173	Carex ericetorum	Graminoid	В	1	0.36	0.24	0.22	15
174	Kobresia simpliciuscula	Graminoid	U	1	0.18	NA	NA	1
175	Silene involucrata	Forb	U	1	0.07	NA	NA	1
176	Androsace ochotensis	Forb	А	1	0.50	NA	NA	1
177	Eutrema edwardsii	Forb	U	1	-0.20	0.18	NA	8
178	Oxytropis borealis	Forb	BTB	1	-0.11	0.16	NA	11
179	Salix niphoclada	Shrub	BTB	1	0.04	0.22	0.44	5
180	Hedysarum boreale	Forb	BTB	1	0.05	0.15	NA	2
181	Pedicularis labradorica	Forb	BTB	1	0.09	0.26	NA	2
182	Minuartia arctica	Forb	U	1	-0.12	0.42	NA	2
183	Carex chordorrhiza	Graminoid	BTB	1	0.26	NA	NA	1
184	Luzula wahlenbergii	Graminoid	U	1	-0.04	0.20	0.20	2
185	Papaver lapponicum	Forb	U	1	-0.15	0.18	0.13	5
186	Carex subspathacea	Graminoid	U	1	-1.13	1.35	0.09	7
187	Arctophila fulva	Graminoid	U	1	-0.07	0.39	NA	3

188	Ranunculus pygmaeus	Forb	U	1	-0.63	1.78	0.05	2
189	Cerastium regelii	Forb	А	1	0.71	NA	NA	1
190	Carex mackenziei	Graminoid	BTB	1	-0.09	0.23	NA	2
191	Saxifraga tricuspidata	Forb	U	1	-0.11	0.26	NA	2
192	Draba nivalis	Forb	U	1	-0.58	0.48	NA	6
193	Aconitum septentrionale	Forb	BTB	1	0.54	NA	1.00	1
194	Agrostis capillaris	Graminoid	BTB	1	-0.02	1.34	0.39	10
195	Euphrasia wettsteinii	Forb	U	1	0.06	0.13	NA	7
196	Potentilla erecta	Forb	В	1	0.28	0.61	0.20	4
197	Scorzoneroides autumnalis	Forb	BTB	1	0.16	0.23	0.16	9
198	Viola palustris	Forb	BTB	1	0.29	0.63	0.12	7
199	Dactylorhiza viridis	Forb	BTB	1	0.00	0.31	0.22	2
200	Parnassia palustris	Forb	BTB	1	0.03	0.09	0.13	3
201	Potentilla crantzii	Forb	U	1	-0.07	0.23	0.13	9
202	Cerastium cerastoides	Forb	BTB	1	0.05	0.20	0.04	5
203	Trollius europaeus	Forb	BTB	1	0.03	0.21	0.50	2

204	Taraxacum croceum	Forb	BTB	1	0.01	0.10	NA	2
205	Rumex alpestris	Forb	BTB	1	0.07	NA	0.32	1
206	Micranthes nelsoniana	Forb	U	1	-0.02	0.10	0.15	2
207	Lagotis minor	Forb	U	1	0.02	NA	0.14	1
208	Galium normanii	Forb	В	1	0.35	NA	NA	1
209	Avenella flexuosa	Graminoid	BTB	1	-0.17	0.99	NA	4
210	Koenigia islandica	Forb	U	1	0.43	NA	0.04	1
211	Thymus praecox	Shrub	BTB	1	0.09	NA	0.09	1
212	Arnica lessingii	Forb	BTB	1	0.12	NA	NA	1
213	Lagotis glauca	Forb	U	1	-0.05	0.19	0.14	3
214	Polemonium acutiflorum	Forb	BTB	1	0.08	NA	0.40	1
215	Geum glaciale	Forb	U	1	0.09	NA	NA	1
216	Ranunculus lapponicus	Forb	U	1	-0.16	0.87	NA	2
217	Epilobium latifolium	Forb	U	1	0.16	0.23	0.16	2
218	Salix uva-ursi	Shrub	BTB	1	-0.25	0.91	NA	3
219	Salix arctophila	Shrub	BTB	1	0.87	1.49	0.09	2

220	Carex supina	Graminoid	BTB	1	0.34	0.88	NA	4
221	Pseudorchis albida	Forb	В	0	-0.14	NA	0.22	1
222	Carex atrata	Graminoid	BTB	0	-0.08	0.06	0.22	7
223	Carex marina	Graminoid	А	0	-0.27	0.16	NA	7
224	Carex microchaeta	Graminoid	BTB	0	-0.20	0.32	NA	8
225	Artemisia norvegica	Forb	В	0	0.05	0.16	NA	6
226	Boykinia richardsonii	Forb	BTB	0	0.77	NA	NA	1
227	Salix alaxensis	Shrub	BTB	0	-0.30	0.33	1.65	8
228	Astragalus eucosmus	Forb	BTB	0	-0.04	0.02	NA	2
229	Cardamine digitata	Forb	BTB	0	-0.36	0.52	0.05	3
230	Doronicum grandiflorum	Forb	В	0	-0.09	0.05	NA	2
231	Senecio lugens	Forb	BTB	0	-0.03	NA	NA	1
232	Eriophorum chamissonis	Graminoid	BTB	0	-0.09	0.14	0.18	3
233	Oxytropis deflexa	Forb	BTB	0	-0.16	NA	NA	1
234	Carex scirpoidea	Graminoid	BTB	0	0.02	NA	0.12	1
235	Kobresia sibirica	Graminoid	А	0	-0.08	NA	NA	1

236	Minuartia obtusiloba	Forb	BTB	0	-0.05	0.30	NA	2
237	Draba micropetala	Forb	А	0	-0.13	0.11	0.04	2
238	Stellaria humifusa	Forb	U	0	-0.28	0.08	NA	5
239	Chrysosplenium tetrandrum	Forb	U	0	-0.31	0.13	0.02	2
240	Gentianella propinqua	Forb	BTB	0	-0.20	0.03	0.10	2
241	Potentilla fruticosa	Shrub	BTB	0	-0.05	0.08	0.48	2
242	Salix arbusculoides	Shrub	BTB	0	-0.10	NA	0.27	1
243	Saxifraga flagellaris	Forb	А	0	-0.09	NA	NA	1
244	Luzula parviflora	Graminoid	BTB	0	-0.04	NA	NA	1
245	Saxifraga cespitosa	Forb	U	0	-0.47	0.25	NA	2
246	Achillea millefolium	Forb	BTB	0	0.32	0.41	0.15	3
247	Alchemilla alpina	Forb	BTB	0	0.00	0.66	0.11	9
248	Campanula rotundifolia	Forb	BTB	0	-0.08	0.15	0.25	6
249	Carex flava	Graminoid	В	0	-0.16	0.04	0.49	2
250	Cerastium fontanum	Forb	BTB	0	-0.20	0.29	0.25	4
251	Geranium sylvaticum	Forb	BTB	0	0.22	0.68	0.41	3

252	Nardus stricta	Graminoid	BTB	0	-1.48	2.05	0.21	6
253	Rhinanthus minor	Forb	BTB	0	0.04	0.29	0.35	3
254	Sagina saginoides	Forb	BTB	0	-0.20	0.03	0.07	2
255	Omalotheca supina	Forb	BTB	0	-0.54	0.68	NA	4
256	Pilosella officinarum	Forb	В	0	-0.35	1.61	0.08	2
257	Epilobium anagallidifolium	Forb	BTB	0	-0.14	0.17	0.07	2
258	Antennaria pulchella	Forb	А	0	0.18	NA	NA	1
259	Saxifraga aizoides	Forb	U	0	-0.06	NA	0.08	1
260	Lycopodium complanatum	Forb	В	0	-0.01	0.00	0.09	2
261	Erigeron humilis	Forb	U	0	-0.31	0.28	NA	9
262	Antennaria dioica	Forb	BTB	0	-0.03	NA	0.10	1
263	Agrostis vinealis	Graminoid	BTB	0	-1.39	0.00	0.49	2
264	Micranthes nivalis	Forb	U	0	-0.16	NA	0.09	1
265	Arabidopsis lyrata	Forb	U	0	-0.06	NA	NA	1
266	Androsace chamaejasme	Forb	BTB	0	-0.27	NA	NA	1
267	Betula glandulosa	Shrub	BTB	0	0.16	1.67	0.56	5

268	Veronica wormskjoldii	Forb	BTB	0	-0.18	NA	NA	1
269	Potentilla uniflora	Forb	BTB	0	-0.12	NA	NA	1
270	Carex nardina	Graminoid	U	0	0.23	4.01	NA	2
271	Arenaria pseudofrigida	Forb	U	0	-0.91	NA	NA	1
272	Lesquerella arctica	Forb	U	0	-0.45	NA	NA	1

References

- Daniëls FJA, Gillespie LJ, Poulin M (2013) Chapter 9. Plants. In: Arctic Biodiversity Assessment. Status and trends in Arctic biodiversity. Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna, Akureyri, pp 311–353
- Elven R (2007) Checklist of the panarctic flora (PAF) vascular plants. National Centre of Biosystematics, Natural History Museum, University of Oslo
- Meltofte H (2013) Arctic Biodiversity Assessment. Status and trends in Arctic biodiversity. Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna, Akureyri
- Walker DA, Raynolds MK, Daniëls FJA, et al (2005) The Circumpolar Arctic vegetation map. Journal of Vegetation Science 16:267–282. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2005.tb02365.x