

## 1 ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLE

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3 **Larch (*Larix dahurica* Turcz) Growth Response to Climate Change in the Siberian**  
4 **Permafrost Zone**  
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2627 **Abstract**28 Larch-dominant communities are the most extensive high latitude forests in Eurasia and are experiencing the  
29 strongest impacts from warming temperatures. We analyzed larch (*Larix dahurica* Turcz) growth index (GI)  
30 response to climate change. The studied larch-dominant communities are located within the permafrost zone of  
31 Northern Siberia at the northern tree limit (ca. N67°38', E99°07'). Methods included dendrochronology, analysis of  
32 climate variables, root zone moisture content, and satellite-derived gross (GPP) and net (NPP) primary productivity.  
33 It was found that larch response to warming included a period of increased annual growth increment (GI) (from the  
34 1970s to ca. 1995) with a follow on GI decline. Increase in GI correlated with summer air temperature, whereas an  
35 observed decrease in GI was caused by water stress (vapor pressure deficit and drought increase). Water stress  
36 impact on larch growth in permafrost was not observed before the onset of warming (ca. 1970). Water limitation  
37 was also indicated by GI dependence on soil moisture stored during the previous year. Water stress was especially  
38 pronounced for stands growing on rocky soils with low water holding capacity. GPP of larch communities showed  
39 an increasing trend, whereas NPP stagnated. A similar pattern of GI response to climate warming has also been  
40 observed for *Larix sibirica* Ledeb, *Pinus sibirica* Du Tour and *Abies sibirica* Ledeb in the forests of southern  
41 Siberia. Thus, warming in northern Siberia permafrost zone resulted in an initial increase in larch growth from the  
42 1970s to the mid-1990s. After that time, larch growth increment has decreased. Since ca. 1990 water stress at the

43 beginning of the vegetative period became, along with air temperature, a main factor affecting larch growth within  
44 the permafrost zone.

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46 **Keywords** *Larix dahurica* · Tree radial growth · Larch forests · Northern treeline · Tree response to warming ·  
47 Larch and permafrost · Growth index · Climate impact on trees

48

49 **Bullets**

50 Initial larch growth increase followed by depression since the mid-1990s

51 Growth decrease caused by increased water stress

52 Water stress became one of the main factors affecting larch growth

53 GPP of larch communities are increasing, whereas NPP stagnated

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## 56 Introduction

57 Larch stands, composed of *Larix dahurica* Turcz, *L. sibirica* Ledeb, and *L. cajanderi* Mayr cover about 70% of the  
 58 permafrost area in Russia (with roughly one third covered by *Larix dahurica*). The northern tree line in Siberia is  
 59 formed sequentially (from west to east) by *Larix sibirica*, *L. dahurica*, and *L. cajanderi*. On the boundary of its  
 60 southern range, larch mixes with evergreen conifers (Siberian pine, *Pinus sibirica* Du Tour, fir, *Abies sibirica*  
 61 Ledeb, spruce, *Picea obovata* Ledeb., *Pinus sylvestris* L.), and hardwoods (*Populus tremula* L., *Betula pendula*  
 62 Roth., *B. pubescence* Ehrh.). Within permafrost areas, larch competes effectively with “dark needle conifers”  
 63 (Siberian pine, fir and spruce) due to its deciduous nature and dense bark that protects against winter desiccation and  
 64 snow abrasion (Kharuk et al. 2013). Larch species are also more resistant to wildfires in comparison with “dark  
 65 needle conifers”. Moreover, larch is a pyrophytic species, i.e., wildfires promote seed germination and growth by  
 66 reducing moss and lichen groundcover. Consequently, age of larch stands regularly corresponds to the dates of  
 67 intensive (stand replacing) ground fires. Fresh burns are also occupied by *Betula pendula* and alder (*Duschekia*  
 68 *fruticosa* (Rupr.) Pouzar). Within permafrost areas, larch forms mainly open stands. Closed stands are typically  
 69 located on well-drained soils along streams and rivers.

70 Larch dominated communities are known to be a carbon sink (e.g., Schuur et al. 2015). Meanwhile,  
 71 increasing permafrost temperatures in Siberia (e.g., Romanovsky et al. 2017) are leading to increased carbon (C)  
 72 release. Vegetation and larch stands, in particular, may influence the rate of C release by carbon assimilation due  
 73 to potentially increased primary productivity as a result of longer growing seasons and soil fertilization (Schuur et  
 74 al. 2008).

75 *Larix dahurica* Turcz is a highly ecologically adaptive species with range from about 72°+ north to the  
 76 southern Siberian and Mongolian forest-steppes (~48°N). This is a fast growing, drought-resistant, salt-tolerant,  
 77 shade-intolerant species. Larch is an oligotrophic species and can grow on diverse soil types. Under favorable  
 78 conditions, larch reaches 35 m height with diameter up to 1 m. Maximum larch age may exceed 500 years (with up  
 79 to ~1000 years reported by Koropachinsky and Vstovskaya 2012). Cones open in the spring spreading seeds over  
 80 the snow cover; fertile seeds may be retained within cones up to 4 years. *L. dahurica* can also regenerate by  
 81 layering (Koropachinsky and Vstovskaya 2012). Larch growth within permafrost areas is limited by poor drainage  
 82 and a shallow root zone which is compressed within the shallow thawed permafrost layer. This layer regularly is  
 83 about 30–50 cm or less within dense moss sites, although on sunny well-drained slopes it may exceed 1.0 m.  
 84 Within sites with a dense moss cover larch forms subordinate roots. *Larix dahurica*, due to a shallow root system, is  
 85 more vulnerable to surface fires compared to *Larix sibirica*, which occupies mainly non-permafrost areas and is  
 86 more resistant to fires by forming thick bark around bole base.

87 The significant warming observed in the permafrost zone of Siberia suggests an increase in tree growth  
 88 because temperature is a primary growth-limiting parameter within high latitudes (e.g., Lloyd and Bunn 2007;  
 89 Richardson and Friedland 2009). Indeed, there are reports on larch stand densification, growth increment increase,  
 90 and regeneration advance into the tundra (Kharuk et al. 2006; Shiyatov et al. 2007; Esper et al. 2010; Kirilyanov et  
 91 al. 2013). *Larix dahurica* growth increase was also reported for the alpine permafrost zone (Zhang et al. 2016). In  
 92 addition, climate-driven “southern” species (e.g., *Pinus sibirica* du Tour, *Abies sibirica* Ledeb) invasion into larch  
 93 dominated forests was documented by Kharuk et al. (2005). These shade-tolerant species can grow under the larch  
 94 canopy and consequently with time may replace shade non-tolerant larch in the upper canopy.

95 Climate-driven growth increase was reported also for some tree species in European and North American  
 96 forests (e.g., Kullman and Kjällgren 2006; Lenoir et al. 2008; Harsch et al. 2009; McMahon et al. 2010). In addition,  
 97 the decreasing sensitivity of tree growth indices to temperature during recent decades was reported (D’Arrigo et al.  
 98 2005; Andreu-Hayles et al. 2011; Lebourgeois et al. 2012), including European larch (*Larix decidua* Mill.).

99 (Coppola et al. 2012). This effect may be attributed to increased water stress caused by elevated temperatures  
 100 (Kharuk et al. 2015). Growth increment decrease of *Larix sibirica* during “warming hiatus” (i.e., from late 1990s  
 101 until ca. 2013) was documented for semi-arid areas (Liu et al. 2013), whereas within areas of sufficient precipitation  
 102 (i.e., high elevations) a steady growth increase was observed (Kharuk et al. 2015).

103 This study aims to analyze *Larix dahurica* Turcz growth response to warming within a typical permafrost  
 104 area in Central Siberia. We hypothesize that larch growth response to warming should be sensitive to both,  
 105 temperature and water regime changes.

## 106 Study area

107 The study area was located within the Kotuy River watershed in the Putorana Plateau. This area is  
 108 underlain by permafrost soil and is at the northern larch range in Central Siberia (Fig. 1). Annual precipitation  
 109 average is 375 mm (195 mm in June, July and August (JJA)) between 1980 and 2016. Mean July and January  
 110 temperatures were +14°C and –34°C, respectively. Within this area, *Larix dahurica* forms mainly low-closure  
 111 stands on cryosols (clay permafrost soils). The mean upper tree line limit is about 500 m a.s.l. Along with larch, a  
 112 shrub form of alder (*Duschekia fruticose*; mean height about 2 m) occurs within wind-protected areas. Ground cover  
 113 is composed of sedge, lichen, and moss. Small shrubs included *Betula nana* L., *Salix* sp., and *Vaccinium* sp.  
 114 Historically, wildfire activity within the area is low (fire return intervals about 200 years) (Kharuk et al. 2016a).

## 115 Materials and methods

116 We used field studies, remote sensing (Terra/MODIS and GRACE satellite data) and dendrochronology data  
 117 for our analysis. Field measurements were taken within the Kotuy River valley within an elevation range of 270–480  
 118 m and with slopes up to 7° (see Fig. 1). We used small boats to transport personnel and supplies down the Kotuy  
 119 River between helicopter drop off and pick up points. The total covered distance was 135 km. The area was  
 120 explored along five transects (mean length 2.6 km) positioned across the river valley and covered the variety of  
 121 larch stands within the study area. In addition, samples were taken from a “hill site” (elevation 450 m with a south-  
 122 west facing steep (about 15°) slope; Fig. 1). Temporary test sites (TS; Table 1) were located along transects with  
 123 about 170 m between them (total number = 55). The TS radius ( $R = 9.8$  m or 15 m) was selected depending on stand  
 124 closure. Data collected within TS included geolocation, tree height, DBH (diameter at breast height = 1.3 m), vigor  
 125 (for trees with DBH > 3 cm), permafrost and moss and lichen cover depth, shrubs, ground cover and soil  
 126 description. Permafrost depth was measured with a metal rod. Samples for dendrochronological analysis were taken  
 127 with an increment borer at DBH height in each TS. 162 trees in total were sampled (about 32 samples per transect).

128 The reason for the “hill site” (HS) selection was there were visual signs of different trees health status in  
 129 close proximity. Thus, trees located within channels of ephemeral streams had green healthy needles (“healthy  
 130 cohort”), whereas needles of trees located between adjacent channels were chlorotic (“declining cohort”). Soils  
 131 within channels were brown-clay permafrost, whereas between channels soils were rocky with poor water holding  
 132 capacity. Twenty trees were sampled for both cohorts for comparative growth pattern analysis.

## 133 Dendrochronology analysis

134 Tree ring widths were measured using LINTAB III device (precision of 0.01 mm). Cross-dating was performed by  
 135 standard methods as described by Rinn (1996). For cross-dating statistical analysis and generalized chronologies  
 136 construction ARSTAN (v.44), COFECHA, and TSAP software were used. Individual chronologies with low  
 137 correlation with the master-chronology were deleted from further analysis. The Regional Curve Standardization  
 138 (RCS) method (ARSTAN v.44) was applied for construction of standard chronologies and elimination of growth

139 trends (Esper et al. 2003; Sullivan et al. 2016). As a result, growth indices (GI), that is relative indices of the radial  
140 growth, were obtained.

#### 141 **Climate variables and GPP/NPP data**

142 Larch growth was analyzed with respect to the main climate variables: air temperature, precipitation, drought index,  
143 vapor pressure deficit (VPD), and vegetation period length. The latter was defined as a number of days with  
144  $t > +10^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Although Rossi et al. (2008) showed that cambium of conifers is activated by temperatures within the  
145 range of  $+4 \dots +6^{\circ}\text{C}$ , we found that using  $t > +10^{\circ}\text{C}$  provides the best fit. Soil moisture content was estimated based  
146 on monthly GRACE-derived Equivalent of Water Thickness Anomalies (EWTA) data. EWTA accuracy is reported  
147 as  $10\text{--}30 \text{ mm month}^{-1}$  with spatial resolution  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  (Long et al. 2014; <http://www.grace.jpl.nasa.gov>). Climate  
148 variables were obtained from NASA's MERRA2 databases (grid  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.625^{\circ}$ ;  
149 <https://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets>), and from the nearest meteorological station (WMO 23383 "Agata",  $66.88^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  
150  $83.47^{\circ}\text{E}$ ,  $\sim 250 \text{ km}$  distance from the study site). Drought index SPEI (The Standardized Precipitation-  
151 Evapotranspiration Index) is defined as the difference ( $D_i$ ) between precipitation amount ( $P_i$ ) and potential  
152 evapotranspiration ( $PET_i$ ), where  $i$  – period, data are normalized in space and time (Vicente-Serrano et al. 2010).  
153 SPEI data were obtained from <http://sac.csic.es/spei> (grid  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ ). SPEI was considered for the growing season  
154 months of June–August within the study area. Gross Primary Productivity (GPP) and Net Primary Productivity  
155 (NPP) data were acquired from NASA's Terra/MODIS as 8-day composites products  
156 ([https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset\\_discovery/modis/modis\\_products\\_table](https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table), see tables mod17a2h and mod17a3h).

#### 157 **Results**

##### 158 **Climate variables dynamic**

159 Summer temperatures and the number of days with temperatures  $t > 0^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $t > +5^{\circ}\text{C}$  increased since 1970  
160 (Fig. 2a,f). A minor summer precipitation increase occurred during 1980–1990 along with a strong precipitation  
161 variability increase observed since the 1970s (Fig. 2c). The drought index, SPEI, showed a continuous decreasing  
162 trend (Fig. 2e) which indicates increasing impact of drought conditions since the 1950s. Seasonal SPEI pattern has  
163 also changed significantly since the 1990s, with June becoming the driest month (Fig. 2d). Vapor pressure deficit  
164 strongly increased since the year 2000 (Fig. 2e).

##### 165 **Larch growth index (GI) dynamics**

166 Growth index chronologies were highly correlated ( $r = 0.82$ ) for all five transects. In addition, the growth pattern of  
167 the "healthy cohort" within "hill site" was similar to those chronologies. Based on this, "healthy cohort" samples  
168 were combined with transect data (total sample size  $N = 182$ ). Larch GI increase has been observed since the mid-  
169 1970s followed by GI depression since the late 1990s (Fig. 3). Minimal GI values corresponded to severe droughts  
170 (e.g., 1989, 1999, and 2010) and extremely cold years (e.g., 1989). The declining trees cohort responded to warming  
171 by general GI depression without any period of GI stimulation by elevated temperature (Fig. 3).

##### 172 **Larch GI vs climate variables and GPP**

173 Larch growth index (GI) correlated with air temperature, water regime parameters (June precipitation, vapor  
174 pressure deficit VPD, drought index, and soil water anomalies of previous year), and growth period length (Fig. 4).  
175 Over recent decades (since ca. 1990) larch showed increased sensitivity to atmospheric drought (indicated by VPD  
176 and SPEI) (Fig. 4c,f; Fig. 5a,b). That is especially noticeable for declining trees cohort, which showed drought  
177 sensitivity even in winter months due to winter desiccation. GI relationship with SPEI changed from negative in

178 1980s to positive in the mid-1990s. Soil water stored during the previous year is also significant for larch growth  
 179 (Fig. 4e). GI of declining trees cohort is sensitive to prior year August precipitation ( $r = 0.33$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ).

180 Growth increment correlations with air temperatures changed from positive to non-significant for both  
 181 cohorts and even negative (April–May; Fig. 5c,d). Running correlation showed a positive correlation between GI  
 182 and air temperature until ca. 1990 with a following decrease in correlation (Fig. 6).

183 There was a good correlation of larch GI and GPP ( $r^2 = 0.64$ ), whereas correlation with NPP is poor  
 184 ( $r^2 = 0.19$ ; Fig. 7a). Notably, within the study area larch GPP showed a strong positive temporal trend, whereas  
 185 NPP values stagnated (Fig. 7b).

## 186 Discussion

187 The results show that within the study area air temperatures, since 1970, have risen  $+0.4^\circ\text{C}$  per decade in summer  
 188 ( $+0.5^\circ\text{C}$  mean annual), which is consistent with reported values for high-latitude regions ( $+0.4^\circ\text{C}$  per decade;  
 189 Hartmann et al. 2013). The general pattern of larch response to that warming was two-phased: GI increased since the  
 190 onset of warming in the 1970s, which lasts until ca. 1990 with a following growth depression. Period of GI increase  
 191 correlated with summer air temperature, whereas a depression in growth was caused by increased water stress  
 192 (vapor pressure deficit and drought increase). The phenomenon of drought impact on the tree growth within  
 193 permafrost was not observed before the onset of warming. Within Siberia, a similar two-phase pattern of growth  
 194 response to warming was found for *Larix sibirica* in semi-arid areas in southern Siberia (Kharuk et al. 2018) and for  
 195 precipitation-sensitive species (i.e., *Pinus sibirica* Du Tour, *Abies sibirica* Ledeb) in more humid southern taiga  
 196 habitat (Kharuk et al. 2016b, 2017a).

197 In earlier studies (e.g., Kirilyanov 2010), larch growth in high latitudes and high elevations was considered  
 198 to be limited by temperature. According to our study, larch growth followed temperature at the beginning of the  
 199 warming only. Further warming caused growth depression from water stress increase at the beginning of the  
 200 vegetation period. The seasonal pattern of drought index SPEI changed since the 1990s indicating a strong increase  
 201 in atmospheric drought in June. According to Novick et al. (2016), atmospheric demand limits evapotranspiration to  
 202 a greater extent than soil moisture. Changes in SPEI and especially a rapid increase in vapor pressure deficit resulted  
 203 in a negative impact on growth of both healthy and declining trees (Fig. 4c,d). The limitation of growth due to water  
 204 stress is also indicated by GI dependence on the amount of soil water acquired during the previous year (Fig. 4e).  
 205 Indeed, study stands received limited summer precipitation (195 mm received mainly during August) to go along  
 206 with increasing vapor pressure deficit and drought. Moreover, high inter-annual precipitation variability caused  
 207 periodic droughts (Fig. 2b,c). The results obtained coincided with Restaino et al. (2016) observation of forests in the  
 208 western US, where increased temperature suppressed Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco) growth  
 209 via increased vapor pressure deficit. The divergence between tree growth and elevated temperature were also  
 210 discussed for Alaskan forests (Andreu-Hayles et al. 2011). The negative effect of warming was also described for  
 211 *Larix sibirica* Ledeb and *Pinus silvestris* L. growth in semi-arid forests of Interior Asia (Liu et al. 2013).

212 The sensitivity of *Larix dahurica* growth index to temperature decreased since ca. 1990, whereas sensitivity  
 213 to drought increased (Fig. 5, 6). The loss of the temperature signal in the tree-ring chronologies was also described  
 214 for European larch (*Larix decidua* Mill.) (Coppola et al. 2012). Franceschini et al. (2013) also pointed that tree-ring  
 215 indices tracked the rising temperature up to a certain point and then began decreasing as temperatures continued  
 216 rising. A change of primary growth factor from temperature to available water was also described for *Pinus mugo*  
 217 Turra at higher elevations in the Alps Mountains (Churakova et al. 2016).

218 In our study area, the switch from growth limitation by temperature to limitation by water was primarily  
 219 observed in the declining trees cohort located on soils with low water-holding capacity (Fig. 5a). In addition,

220 elevated spring (April–May) temperatures had a negative impact on the growth of both cohorts (Fig. 5c,d). This may  
 221 be related to cambium activation caused by early spring warming followed by frost damage.

222 Further increase of drought frequency (as predicted by e.g., Pachauri et al. 2014) may lead to larch decline  
 223 and mortality in drought-prone areas (as, for example, within declining trees habitat with south facings slopes with  
 224 soils of low water holding capacity). This effect has also been reported for “dark needle” conifers (*Pinus sibirica*,  
 225 *Abies sibirica*) in southern Siberia (Kharuk et al. 2016b). At the same time water deficit may be partially mitigated  
 226 by an increased permafrost thaw depth that encourages tree growth (Sugimoto et al. 2002; Romanovsky et al. 2017).  
 227 According to Zhang et al. (2016) that effect was observed for high elevation *Larix dahurica* stands in Northern  
 228 China, where synergy of permafrost thawing and air temperature increase stimulated larch growth.

229 Meanwhile larch communities GPP within permafrost areas showed a strong positive trend in the 2000s on  
 230 the background of NPP stagnation (Fig. 7); the latter should be attributed to increased respiration demands caused  
 231 by elevated temperatures and atmospheric drought. NPP stagnation was approximated by larch GI decrease in the  
 232 21<sup>st</sup> century, which is understandable because GI is the NPP proxy. In spite of larch GI decrease since the late  
 233 1990s, mean decadal larch GI values were higher in the 21<sup>st</sup> century than in the pre-warming (1950–1970) period  
 234 ( $0.84 \pm 0.03$  and  $1.24 \pm 0.06$ , respectively).

235 Permafrost degradation simulations predicts higher carbon fluxes as the effects of increasing temperatures.  
 236 (Schoor et al. 2015) However, decomposition occurring within thawing permafrost can lead to increased soil  
 237 fertilization that can intensify plant growth and mitigate carbon losses (Koven et al. 2015). Wildfires in permafrost  
 238 forests result in thawing of permafrost and an increase in the active layer. This impact may serve as a proxy (in the  
 239 sense of thaw depth) of the impact of warming on permafrost. Thus, after wildfires, seasonal permafrost thaw depth  
 240 may increase up to 3–4 times with a 2–3 times GI increase (up to 7–8 on the drained soils; Kharuk et al. 2011). Fire  
 241 frequency itself within the study area was rather low before warming (with fire return intervals about 200 years,  
 242 Kharuk et al. 2016a). Meanwhile warming-induced fire frequency and burned area increase are being observed (and  
 243 predicted) in the larch taiga (Kharuk and Ponomarev 2017b). Increased wildfire rate should be favorable for larch  
 244 since this promotes regeneration eliminates competitive species (e.g., Siberian pine and fir). However, there are still  
 245 uncertainties. For example, warming increases larch competition with less cold-tolerant invaders such as *Pinus*  
 246 *sibirica*, *Abies sibirica*, *Picea obovata*, and *Pinus sylvestris*. The harsh environment favors frost-resistant larch  
 247 species and its domination within the permafrost zone. Thus, one of the expected consequences of warming and  
 248 permafrost thawing is decreasing the proportion of larch within the northern Siberian taiga (Kharuk et al. 2005).

## 249 Conclusions

- 250 1. Within the permafrost zone in northern Siberia climate warming caused a two-phase impact on larch trees:  
 251 growth increase from 1970s until ca. 1990 followed by a growth depression.
- 252 2. Growth increase correlated with summer temperature, whereas growth depression was caused by increased  
 253 water stress (vapor pressure deficit and drought increase). This phenomenon was not observed before onset  
 254 of warming.
- 255 3. Larch growth sensitivity to temperature decreased since ca. 1990 and increased for precipitation.
- 256 4. GPP of larch communities increased since 2000s, whereas NPP values stagnated.

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