1 **Title**

2 Hydrological regime and plant functional traits jointly mediate the influence of *Salix* spp. on
3 soil organic carbon stocks in a High Arctic tundra

4 Title shortened version

5 Plant and environmental drivers of soil carbon stocks

6 Authors

- 7 Laurent J. Lamarque^{1,2,*}, Jim Félix-Faure¹, Lucas Deschamps¹, Esther Lévesque^{1,2}, Pier-Olivier
- 8 Cusson^{1,3}, Daniel Fortier^{2,4}, Matteo Giacomazzo⁵, François Guillemette¹, Jennifer Paillassa^{1,2},
- 9 Maxime Tremblay¹, Vincent Maire^{1,2}
- 10 ¹Département des Sciences de l'environnement, Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières, Trois-
- 11 Rivières, QC, Canada; ²Centre d'études nordiques, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada;
- ³Département de biologie, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, QC, Canada; ⁴Département
- 13 de géographie, Université de Montréal, Montréal, QC, Canada; ⁵Department of biology,
- 14 University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, NB, Canada
- 15 *Corresponding author: Laurent J. Lamarque. E-mail: llamarqueab@gmail.com

16 Author contributions

17 LJL, EL and VM conceived and designed the research. LJL, EL and MT collected the material.

18 LJL and P-OC processed soil samples prior to analyses. LJL, EL, FG and VM supervised soil

- 19 analyses. LJL, JFF, LD, VM and MG analyzed data. LJL and VM led the writing of the
- 20 manuscript, with contributions of all co-authors.

21 Abstract

22 Evidence points out that increasing plant productivity associated with greater erect shrub 23 abundance alters soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks in the Arctic. However, the underlying plant 24 economic traits remain poorly examined, which limits our understanding of plant-environment 25 interactions driving tundra carbon cycling. We explored how erect shrub abundance leads to SOC variation in a High Arctic tundra (Bylot Island, Nunavut, Canada), where the only erect 26 27 shrub, Salix richardsonii, has settled along currently active and abandoned channel zones of alluvial fans. The effects of vegetation and local environmental changes on SOC were evaluated 28 29 through a paired sampling of soil materials and plant aboveground functional traits associated with plant carbon supply and nutrient demand processes. The occurrence of S. richardsonii, 30 31 characterized by a 10-fold increase in aboveground biomass, induced a 28% increase in SOC 32 compared to adjacent plots dominated by prostrate shrubs and graminoids. Yet, this vegetation 33 effect was solely observed along active channels, where higher SOC was associated with 34 greater leaf and stem biomass. A path analysis showed that shrub leaf area index and total leaf 35 nutrient content best represented plant carbon supply and nutrient demand dynamics, respectively, and jointly regulated SOC variation. This study underscores that vegetation 36 37 structural changes associated with increasing erect shrub abundance in the Arctic can promote soil organic carbon storage, but that this pattern may be mediated by strong plant-environment 38 interactions. Accounting for changes in functional traits driving plant carbon supply and 39 40 nitrogen demand proves important for a better mechanistic understanding of how shrubification 41 impacts tundra carbon cycling.

42 Key words

Alluvial fan; Carbon supply; Leaf area index; Nutrient demand; Plant-enhanced mineralization;
Shrubification.

45 Manuscript highlights

46 - Increasing erect shrub abundance along High Arctic alluvial fan channels can lead to
47 increasing soil organic carbon stocks

48 - Fine-scale interactions between hydrological regime and vegetation conditions regulate
49 changes in soil organic carbon stocks

Plant traits associated with carbon supply and nutrient demand may provide new insights on
carbon cycling variation with vegetation shifts

52 Introduction

The greening of tundra ecosystems, mainly driven by the significant increase in erect shrub 53 54 height (Bjorkman and others 2018), biomass and canopy cover (Myers-Smith and others 2011; 55 Elmendorf and others 2012), has been a major component of the vegetation changes observed 56 in the Arctic over the past few decades of global warming (Epstein and others 2013; Myers-Smith and others 2020). Rapid erect shrub expansion (c.f. shrubification) at the expense of non-57 58 vascular and herbaceous vegetation has been initially expected to increase soil organic carbon 59 (SOC) stocks (Myers-Smith and others 2011), as plant carbon supply to soils is proportional to primary productivity (Metcalfe and others 2018; Chen and others 2021), and decomposition of 60 61 shrub leaf litter is slower than that of forbs and grasses (Cornelissen and others 2007). Models developed to estimate variation in ecosystem carbon balance with vegetation changes in 62 63 northern latitudes have notably pointed towards this scenario (Qian and others 2010; Mekonnen 64 and others 2018). Yet, greater erect shrub abundance has not necessarily increased soil organic carbon stocks (Parker and others 2021), which in various sites have even been lower beneath 65 shrub-dominated communities than beneath adjacent heaths, meadows or tussock tundra 66 67 (Wilmking and others 2006; Sørensen and others 2018). A better understanding of the common 68 mechanisms driving the fate of assimilated carbon in the wake of Arctic vegetation changes is69 thus needed, especially to bolster estimation of future Arctic ecosystem carbon storage.

Changes in tundra carbon stocks and cycling with greater erect shrub abundance can first be 70 71 associated with shifts in plant-regulated soil microclimate and microbial community 72 (Wallenstein and others 2007; Myers-Smith and Hik 2013; Kemppinen and others 2021; 73 relation 1 in Figure 1). Two plant-induced processes can also occur concurrently: a significant 74 increase in fresh energy-rich carbon supply (referred hereafter as plant carbon supply) with 75 increasing litter quality and quantity (DeMarco and others 2014; Liang and others 2018; 76 relation 2 in Figure 1), and a loss of recalcitrant energy-poor soil organic matter (SOM) to the 77 atmosphere following plant-enhanced mineralization (c.f. positive priming; Fontaine and others 78 2011; relation 3 in Figure 1). Thus, the long-term plant regulation of the net SOC balance is 79 linked to the maintenance of the carbon-nutrient stoichiometry required for optimal plant 80 metabolism (Zhen 2009; Maire and others 2013; relation 4 in Figure 1).

81 Plant-enhanced mineralization (i.e. positive priming) is a key process to determine longterm sequestration of carbon (C) and nutrient (N) in SOM (c.f. 'bank mechanism'; Fontaine 82 and Barot 2005; Perveen and others 2014). This process is regulated by the availability of 83 84 nutrients in soil solution, and ultimately by plant N uptake (Fontaine and Barot 2005; Perveen and others 2014). Under conditions where plant N demand is lower than soil N supply, soil 85 86 microbes are prone to sequester N in SOM through microbial immobilization (Martel and Paul 87 1974), and plant-enhanced mineralization is rather low. This eventually leads to new SOM 88 humification and strong soil C gain (Loya and others 2002; Kallenbach and others 2016). The 89 fate of carbon stored in the soil then depends on how plant-derived C is efficiently fragmented 90 and/or incorporated into microbial products and stabilized on minerals (Cotrufo and others 2015). 91

92 In contrast, under conditions where plant N demand overcomes soil N supply, plant litter 93 and photosynthate-C allocation to the rhizosphere enhance respiration of C-limited microbial communities, which in turn promote the degradation of recalcitrant nutrient-rich SOM and the 94 95 release of mineral nutrients that become available for plants (Dijkstra and others 2009, 2013; 96 Huo and others 2017). SOM microbial mining is thus related to plant N demand (Perveen and 97 others 2014; Henneron and others 2020b), which is closely linked to plant nutrient uptake (Kou 98 and others 2022). This process can at times be so important that it exceeds the formation of 99 new SOM through humification of fresh C (Fontaine and others 2004; Terrer and others 2021), 100 leading to soil C loss. To date, studies on soil functioning in tundra ecosystems, where plant 101 growth is generally limited by low nutrient availability (e.g. phosphorus and nitrogen in Elser 102 and others 2007), have highlighted both microbial N-limitation on SOC decomposition rates 103 (Sistla and others 2012) and SOM degradation of N-rich SOM in many sites (Keuper and others 104 2020). However, the extent to which particular functional traits associated with plant 105 physiology and/or size drive plant N demand and SOM microbial mining has received less 106 attention. This currently limits our understanding of how plant-environment interactions shape 107 tundra carbon cycling, especially in the context of Arctic shrubification.

108 Meanwhile, other investigations have indicated also that plant species identity (Lynch and 109 others 2018; Street and others 2020; Gavazov and others 2022), therefore different N-110 acquisition strategies, are key drivers of tundra soil organic carbon dynamics (Hewitt and others 111 2019; Clemmensen and others 2021). Rates of plant nutrient demand and carbon supply are 112 tightly linked to the leaf economics spectrum, contrasting resource acquisitive with 113 conservative species (Henneron and others 2020a, b). Acquisitive species characterized by high 114 leaf N content and high metabolic activity are more prone to stimulate SOM mining, whereas 115 conservative species with low leaf N and low metabolic activity are more likely to induce new 116 SOM humification (Henneron and others 2020b; Clemmensen and others 2021). Across the 117 tundra biome, plant communities have been subjected to a strong turnover of species marked 118 by the arrival of acquisitive species such as erect shrubs exhibiting high leaf nitrogen and high 119 specific leaf area (Bjorkman and others 2018). This pattern has nonetheless been strongly 120 associated with wetter habitats, as erect shrub expansion appears to be constrained by limited 121 soil moisture availability (Myers-Smith and others 2015). Conservative species would thus be 122 expected to dominate in drier habitats. However, tundra vegetation has also the potential to 123 respond plastically to environmental changes (Bret-Harte and others 2001; Hudson and others 124 2011), and acquisitive species might be able to colonize a wide range of environments. Within-125 species variation in organic carbon stored in shrub biomass across environments has not yet 126 been comprehensively quantified (relations 7 & 8 in Figure 1). This hampers our understanding 127 of the extent of shrub control over soil organic carbon stocks across environmental conditions 128 and how it would evolve if growing conditions improve.

129 This study aimed at determining the extent to which erect shrub abundance and 130 environmental changes modulate long-term soil organic carbon stock dynamics in Arctic tundra 131 ecosystems. Our work centered around Salix richardsonii Hook. at the northern edge of its 132 distribution range, in a High Arctic alluvial fan landscape where it is the only erect shrub 133 species encountered. The influence of environmental changes was examined by contrasting 134 zones with different hydrological regime and sediment input intensity, where S. richardsonii 135 occurs in patches and is expected to display variation in traits associated with C supply and N 136 demand. Specifically, we used an observational approach to evaluate how SOC stocks vary as 137 a function of vegetation (i.e. presence/absence of *S. richardsonii*) and hydrological regime (i.e. 138 active vs. abandoned channels).

- 139 Materials and methods
- 140 Study area

141 The study took place in the Qarlikturvik valley of Bylot Island, Nunavut, Canada (73°09'N, 142 79°57'W; Figure 2a). At the altitude of 20 m a.s.l, the mean total annual precipitation is 220 143 mm (snow and rain), while the mean annual temperature and mean temperature of the warmest month (July) are -15°C and 6.1°C, respectively (Gauthier and others 2013). This 122 km² valley 144 145 connects C-79 and C-93 glaciers to the Navy Board Inlet sea via a proglacial river (Coulombe 146 and others 2022). It is mainly characterized by a low-centered polygon landscape (Fortier and 147 Allard 2004) that is composed of wetlands dominated by grasses and sedges, and mesic 148 environments that harbour a greater species richness including prostrate shrubs like Salix 149 arctica, Salix reticulata and Salix herbacea (Gauthier and others 2013; Perreault and others 150 2016). The valley is bounded to the North and South by plateaus of ~400 m made of poorly-151 consolidated shale and sandstone (Miall and others 1980). After deglaciation, stream incision 152 and gullying in the plateaus formed alluvial fans at the base of the valley walls (Fig. 2a; Blair 153 and McPherson 2009). These alluvial fans are grossly conical in shape, with a narrow apex, an 154 arcuate frontal section, and a convex cross-section. They correspond to aggradational 155 sedimentary deposits gradually widening with time, and comprise surface channels which 156 receive sediment and nutrients from upslope throughout the plant growing season, migrate 157 laterally with sedimentation, and can become temporarily or permanently abandoned (Rioux 2021). 158

159 Study design

Fieldwork was carried out on 4-6 July 2015 along two alluvial fans located at the foot of the valley southern plateau (Figure 2a), and that were randomly selected from the fifteen fans along which *Salix richardsonii* occurs. Observations along each fan were conducted in two zones with contrasting hydrological regime and sediment input intensity: (i) active channels, where water flows yearly and sediment input is greater, and (ii) abandoned (i.e. inactive) channels, where water doesn't flow anymore and vegetation colonizes the bed of these channels (Figure 166 2b). Along each channel, a paired sampling was carried out in two vegetation conditions, that 167 were ca. 3-5 m apart and defined by the absence or dominance of Salix richardsonii (c.f. 'outside/beneath SR' in Figure 2c). Three pairs of quadrats were randomly chosen along each 168 169 channel, leading to a total of 24 experimental units (i.e. 2 alluvial fans x 2 channels x 3 paired 170 replicas). At these locations, the height of S. richardsonii individuals averaged 35 ± 2 cm, with no difference in height between channels (F = 1.0, P = 0.99). A preliminary 171 dendrochronological study of largest branches showed that these individuals are at least 100-172 173 year-old (Bisson 2016).

174 Vegetation characterization and woody plant trait measurements

175 Species richness and abundance were determined in each randomly deployed pair of 0.7 m x 176 0.7 m quadrats. Abundance of woody and graminoid species, lichens and mosses were 177 quantified using Daubenmire cover abundance classes (Daubenmire 1959). Aboveground biomass of woody and graminoid species was also measured, within a 0.2 m x 0.2 m quadrat 178 179 set up at the bottom left corner of each 0.7 m x 0.7 m quadrat. Leaves were separated from 180 stems for each of the three woody species encountered in these sites, namely Salix richardsonii, 181 S. arctica and S. reticulata. Biomass samples were oven-dried at 65°C for a minimum of 72 182 hours and weighed after drying.

183 Prior to plant collection, a picture was taken at a height of 1.50 m above each 0.2 m x 0.2 m 184 quadrat to determine the total number of leaves of each of the three Salix species. A subsample of 3-20 leaves per Salix species per quadrat was additionally separated and stored in a plastic 185 bag at 4°C until leaf area (cm²) was estimated back at the camp facilities using WinFOLIA 186 187 software (Regent Instruments Inc, Quebec City, QC, Canada). These leaf samples were also 188 oven-dried at 65°C for a minimum of 72 hours and weighed after drying. The following leaf traits were measured per Salix species per quadrat: leaf size (cm² leaf), leaf dry mass (DM, g), 189 and leaf composition in C, N, P, K, Ca, Mg, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. Elementary chemical analyses (leaf 190

191 C, N, P, K, Ca, Mg content) were performed using inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission 192 spectroscopy (Plasma Model 40, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) following a Mehlich-3 193 acid extraction method. Leaf δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N isotopic composition was determined using an 194 elemental analyzer coupled with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (EA-IRMS, Agilent 195 technology, Santa Clara, CA, USA).

For each *Salix* species, specific leaf area (SLA, $cm^2 leaf g^{-1} DM$) was calculated as the ratio of leaf area to leaf dry mass; leaf area index (LAI_w, m² leaf m⁻² soil), as the ratio of total leaf area (i.e. leaf size x total number of leaves in the quadrat) to corresponding quadrat area; total leaf nutrient content (TLN_w, kg m⁻² soil), as the product of leaf nutrient content (LNuC_w; i.e. the cumulative leaf content in N, P, K, Ca and Mg) and leaf biomass. Community-weighted trait means (that is, the mean trait value of *Salix* species weighted by the abundance of each species) were calculated per quadrat for each functional trait aforementioned.

203 Soil sampling and analyses

204 Within each quadrat, three soil cores were collected using a 15-cm long and 6-cm diameter 205 corer. When present, the moss layer (0-5.8 cm deep) was immediately separated and stored in 206 a paper bag. Moss biomass was oven-dried at 65°C for a minimum of 72 hours and weighed 207 after drying. Soil cores were extracted down to the thaw front depth at the date of sampling. 208 They systematically exceeded the root front and had a total depth (i.e. depth of the thawed 209 portion of soil) ranging between 6.7 and 9.2 cm without moss layer. Upon soil core extraction, 210 two soil horizons were distinguished visually using the Canadian System of Soil Classification, 211 and immediately separated: A₁, which corresponded to the upper 1.8 ± 0.3 cm (mean \pm SE), 212 and contained the majority of fine roots; and A₂, corresponding to the next 5.8 ± 0.2 cm, and 213 that was weakly colonized by roots (Figure 1c). For each quadrat, the three soil core replicates 214 were pooled per soil horizon, and stored in plastic bags at 4°C.

215 Back in the laboratory, fresh soil samples were weighed, and air-dried at 25°C. They were 216 then sieved at 2 mm to separate roots from coarse organic material (> 2 mm), and fine earth (<217 $2 \text{ mm}, M_t$). Coarse organic material and fine earth were then weighed separately. Root biomass 218 was oven-dried at 65°C for a minimum of 72 hours, and weighed after drying. A first aliquot 219 of ~10 g of fine earth was oven-dried at 105°C to determine water content (in %) as follows: 220 ((fresh weight-dry weight)/dry weight)*100. A second aliquot of ~30 g of fine earth was oven-221 dried at 60°C until constant weight (M_{od}), and the following parameters were measured: pH in 222 soil water; particle-size distribution, using a laser particle-size analyser (Laser Particle Sizer 223 Analysette 22 MicroTec Plus, Fritsch, Idar-Oberstein, Germany); soil organic C and N content, after decarbonation by HCl fumigation; soil δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N isotopic composition, using the same 224 225 methodology than for leaf δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N (see above).

226 The remainder of fine earth (12.8-33.5 g of soil air-dried at 25°C, and < 2 mm) was 227 successively wet-sieved for two minutes at 1 mm, 250 µm and 63 µm to differentiate the 228 particulate organic matter compartments (POM) as follows: coarse organic matter (cPOM, 2 229 mm to 1 mm), medium organic matter (mPOM, 1 mm to 250 µm) and fine organic matter 230 (fPOM, 250 µm to 63 µm), respectively. Each of the sieved fractions was dried in an oven at 60°C until a constant weight was obtained, weighed with a precision of \pm 0.0001 g ($M_{\rm ad}$ 231 232 compartments: Mad cPOM, Mad mPOM, Mad fPOM), and then analyzed to obtain total soil organic C and total N content, as well as soil ¹³C and ¹⁵N isotopic composition. The C content of the 233 234 mineral-associated OM (MAOM; Lavallee and others 2020) was subsequently estimated as the 235 difference between SOC_{tot} and the C contained in the three measured POM compartments.

Finally, composite samples of cPOM, mPOM and fPOM from the A_2 horizon were used for all sites (12 samples in total) to analyze radiocarbon (¹⁴C) composition at the A.E. Lalonde AMS laboratory (University of Ottawa, Canada), following protocols detailed in Crann and others (2017). The fraction modern carbon, $F^{14}C$, was calculated as the ratio of the sample ¹⁴C/¹²C to the standard ¹⁴C/¹²C ratio (here Ox-II) measured in the same data block, and the result was normalized to δ^{13} C (PDB) following correction for spectrometer and preparation fractionation. The D¹⁴C was calculated as (F¹⁴C-1)*1000, and the Δ^{14} C as (F¹⁴C*e(1950y)/8267)-1)*1000 (Crann and others 2017).

244 Quantifying soil organic carbon stocks

The volumetric carbon content C_{vol} (gC m⁻³ soil) of fine earth and POM compartments was first calculated per quadrat as follows:

247
$$C_{vol} = \frac{M_t}{M_{ad}} \cdot M_{od} \cdot C \cdot \frac{1}{V}$$
 Eq. 1

where M_{od} (g) refers to the weight of the oven-dried aliquot of fine earth (see above), C (g g⁻ 248 ¹ soil) is the total organic carbon content of the corresponding soil sample, and $V(m^{-3})$ is the 249 250 soil bulk volume that was calculated from the diameter of the corer and the length of each of the three soil cores sampled per quadrat and pooled per soil horizon. The ratio M_t/M_{ad} was used 251 to account for the weight of POM compartments (M_{ad}) compared to the total air-dried weight 252 253 of fine earth (M_t) . Soil bulk volume included coarse elements which contributed marginally to soil C content. Coarse elements were present in 64% of the soil samples, and when present 254 255 accounted for only 2% of soil bulk volume, with no difference between vegetation conditions 256 and channel zones (P > 0.33 in both cases).

257 The surfacic (i.e. area based) carbon content C_{surf} (gC m⁻² soil) of fine earth and POM 258 compartments was calculated as follows:

259
$$C_{surf} = \frac{M_t}{M_{ad}} \cdot M_{od} \cdot C \cdot \frac{1}{s}$$
 Eq. 2

260 where $S(m^2)$ is the soil surface that was obtained from the diameter of the corer.

261 Soil temperature monitoring

262 Soil temperature was assessed with HOBO Pendant 64K data loggers (Onset Computer 263 Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA; accuracy of ± 0.53 °C from 0° to 50°C, resolution of 0.14°C 264 at 25°C), that were deployed in three paired vegetation conditions (outside and beneath S. 265 richardsonii) along one of the two alluvial fans studied (1 fan x 2 channels x 3 paired replicas 266 = 12 loggers). Each logger recorded soil temperature at 6 cm depth hourly during one year 267 between July 2017 and July 2018. Freezing degree-days (FDD) were calculated as the 268 cumulative sum of daily average negative temperatures between summer 2017 and summer 269 2018, while thawing degree-days (TDD) were calculated as the cumulative sum of daily 270 average positive temperatures for the years 2017 and 2018.

271 Statistical analyses

272 Testing the effect of hydrological regime and Salix richardsonii occurrence on plant 273 communities and soil conditions - We first ran linear mixed models (MIXED procedure with 274 REML method in SAS 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary, NC) to explain variation in plant traits, soil 275 conditions and SOC with changes in hydrological regime and occurrence of S. richardsonii . 276 Channel (active vs abandoned), vegetation condition (outside vs beneath S. richardsonii), and 277 the interaction between channel and vegetation condition were treated as fixed factors, with 278 random effects structured as pairs of quadrats nested within channels within fans. We checked 279 prior to analyses that the random effects were normally distributed. Evaluation of significant effects was based on an alpha of 0.05. As multiple comparisons were performed, the 280 281 significance of results was further assessed using the False Discovery Rate procedure 282 (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995; but see Pike 2011 for the method applied in ecology and 283 evolution). In addition, we quantified (i) the association between plant community and soil 284 conditions with a multivariate canonical correspondence analysis (CCA; ter Braak and Verdonschot 1995), and (ii) the association between channel, vegetation conditions, and leaf 285

nutrients of *Salix* spp. with a principal component analysis (PCA), using the *vegan* package in
R version 4.0.4 (R Development Core Team 2021).

288 *Testing the influence of plant carbon supply and nutrient demand on soil organic carbon stocks* 289 - This analysis was conducted using a two-step approach. First, we selected the measured 290 community-weighted traits (i.e. variables) that were associated with C supply and N demand, 291 and could best represent the influence of the two processes on soil organic carbon stock 292 variation. Specifically, we used (i) SLA_w, LAI_w, and moss biomass as proxies of plant C supply, 293 considering in particular that SLA_w and LAI_w are associated with plant fast resource acquisition 294 and rapid growth (Wright and others 2004; Sterck and others 2011), and with gross and net 295 primary productivity (Shaver and others 2013); (ii) leaf nutrient content (LNuC_w), 296 leaf/stem/root biomass, and TLN_w as proxies of plant nutrient demand, considering that the 297 biomass of leaves, stems and roots is directly related to the cost of tissue maintenance that 298 requires soil nutrients (Givnish and others 2014). A multi-model inference that included the 299 eight aforementioned explicative variables was performed to investigate the sources of 300 variation in soil organic carbon stocks. We used the MuMIn package in R, and a linear mixed 301 regression model with random effects structured as pairs of quadrats nested within channels 302 within fans. We used model weights to estimate the relative importance of each variable under 303 consideration (*dredge* function). We checked for model convergence (*nloptwrap* function), and 304 used AICc as the ranking-based index. Then, we selected the most important variable for each 305 of the carbon supply and nutrient demand process (importance function). The two selected 306 variables were included in a path analysis that was performed based on the series of mixed 307 regressions identified in Figure 1, using the *piecewiseSEM* package in R (Lefcheck 2016). 308 Variation in SOC stocks was modelled with multiple linear mixed regression models (n = 24309 experimental units; *nlme* package in R), using plant carbon supply, plant nutrient demand, 310 hydrological regime and occurrence of S. richardsonii as fixed factors. Pairs of quadrats nested

within channels within fans were considered as random factors. Implied directed separations
were tested, and associated *P*-values used to compute the model goodness-of-fit.

313 Testing the influence of plant carbon supply and nutrient demand on soil organic carbon *quality* - Signatures of soil δ^{13} C, ¹⁴C and δ^{15} N were used to estimate the change in SOC quality 314 315 that has resulted from variation in soil carbon gain and OM degradation associated with 316 vegetation change (i.e. occurrence of S. richardsonii). Given that SOC stocks in the Arctic 317 mainly come from large plant residues with relatively little microbial processing (see e.g. Prater 318 and others 2020), differences in soil bulk δ^{13} C observed between vegetation conditions were expected to result from the input of newly formed plant litter that is depleted in $\delta^{13}C$ as a 319 320 consequence of the Suess CO₂ fertilization effect (Ehleringer and others 2000; Camino-Serrano 321 and others 2019). Thus, the abundance of S. richardsonii and related additional carbon supply were assumed to decrease soil bulk δ^{13} C (i.e. leading to more negative values). We used soil 322 bulk ¹⁴C to visually test how vegetation conditions modified the average age of SOC, with more 323 positive values indicating more recent SOC. 324

325 Conversely to carbon isotopes, there is a significant microbial discrimination against ¹⁵N 326 during OM mineralization when microbial growth is C-limited (Dijkstra and others 2009). This leads to excretion of depleted mineral N and accumulation of δ^{15} N in microbial biomass, which 327 ultimately increases soil bulk δ^{15} N values (Dijkstra 2009; Craine and others 2015). 328 Theoretically, enrichment of soil δ^{15} N might also originate from N losses through volatilization, 329 denitrification and N leaching; however, the effect of these N losses on soil δ^{15} N signature is 330 331 likely marginal as the substantial increase in plant biomass related to the occurrence of S. 332 *richardsonii* is expected to reduce these N losses. Soil bulk δ^{15} N values might also be modified by (i) N fixation - in this case, while N-fixing leguminous species such as Astragalus alpinus 333 were rare in our sampling plots, δ^{15} N might tend to zero due to N fixation by diazotrophs present 334 335 on mosses (Rousk and others 2017); and (ii) arbuscular and ectomycorrhizal associations

established by *Salix* spp. (Dhillion 1994) - in this case, there may be a ¹⁵N depletion in plants and ¹⁵N enrichment in mycorrhizal fungi (Hobbie and Hobbie 2009), likely leading to a zerosum for bulk soil δ^{15} N.

The effects of plant carbon supply and nutrient demand on soil bulk δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N across soil horizons and OM compartments were tested with generalized linear mixed models, where soil horizons and OM compartments as well as their interaction terms with plant carbon supply and nutrient demand were treated as fixed factors, and pairs of quadrats as well as fans nested within channel as random factors.

344 **Results**

345 Variation in plant communities

There was no significant difference between active and abandoned channels in *S. richardsonii* abundance (non-significant channel effect; P = 0.08), plant species richness (P = 0.72), and plant community (Supplementary materials 1-3).

As expected, abundance of *S. richardsonii* was significantly greater in plots sampled beneath 349 350 (> 50% cover) than in plots sampled outside (< 0.5%) the species' patches (significant vegetation effect; P < 0.001; Supplementary material 1). The difference in S. richardsonii 351 352 abundance between vegetation conditions did not translate into a difference in plant species 353 richness, which remained low (5-7 species) both beneath and outside the species' patches (P =354 0.08; Supplementary material 1). However, we observed a change in plant community 355 composition, with living mosses and vascular plant species such as Astragalus alpinus, 356 Arctagrostis latifolia, Dryas integrifolia, Salix artica and S. reticulata occurring in plots 357 located outside S. richardsonii patches (Supplementary material 3).

The CCA testing the association between plant community and soil conditions further showed that soil variables (i.e. thaw front depth, bulk density, water content, pH, FDD, TDD, 360 C:N ratio, and total N content), hydrological regime and vegetation conditions together 361 explained 57% of the total variation in species abundance, with the first two axes retaining 32% 362 and 9% of the total variation, respectively (Supplementary material 4).

363 Variation in plant traits

364 No differences in plant biomass-related traits were found between active and abandoned 365 channels (non-significant channel effect; P > 0.07 in all cases), with the exception of moss 366 biomass that was significantly greater in abandoned channel zones (Table 1).

367 Regardless of the hydrological regime, significant differences in plant traits were observed 368 between vegetation conditions, with the exception of root and moss biomass (Table 1, 369 Supplementary material 1). For instance, plant aboveground biomass ranged from 112 gDW m⁻² soil in plots outside Salix richardsonii to 1416 gDW m⁻² soil beneath the species' patches 370 371 (significant vegetation effect; P < 0.001; Table 1, Supplementary material 5), and was driven by a 10 to 30 times greater aboveground biomass of S. richardsonii in plots beneath the species' 372 373 patches (P < 0.001; Table 1). Aboveground biomass of graminoids was 2 to 5 times greater in 374 plots outside S. richardsonii patches. Stem and leaf biomass of S. richardsonii were 375 respectively 95% and 70% greater than that of *Salix arctica* and *S. reticulata* (P < 0.001 and P376 = 0.009, respectively; Table 1). S. richardsonii exhibited significantly more leaves, larger leaves, and lower SLA than the other two *Salix* species (P < 0.001 in all cases; Supplementary 377 378 material 1). Thus, LAIw and TLNw beneath Salix richardsonii were respectively twice and three 379 times as big as in plots outside S. richardsonii patches (P < 0.001 and P = 0.006, respectively; 380 Table 1).

The interaction between hydrological regime and occurrence of *S. richardsonii* led to significant differences in LAI_w ($r^2 = 0.73$, P < 0.01 for all additive and interactive terms). The difference was particularly strong between vegetation conditions along active channels, where LAI_w values were very low in plots outside *S. richardsonii* patches (Table 1).

16

385 The PCA testing the association between channel, vegetation conditions and leaf nutrients 386 of Salix spp. showed that Salix leaves also discriminated strongly against plots differing in the 387 S. richardsonii occurrence (Table 1, Supplementary materials 1 and 4). For instance, leaves of 388 S. richardsonii exhibited significantly 4% lower C, 14% higher N, 16% lower C:N ratio, and 389 16% higher nutrient content (LNuC_w) compared to leaves of other Salix species found in plots 390 outside S. richardsonii patches (Supplementary material 1). No difference in leaf biochemistry 391 was observed between active and abandoned channels (P > 0.16 in all cases; Table 1, 392 Supplementary material 1).

393 Variation in soil conditions

At the time of sampling in early summer, some differences in soil conditions arose between 394 395 hydrological regimes, i.e. between active and abandoned channels. While thaw front depth, 396 depth of each soil horizon, and soil bulk density were similar between hydrological regimes, 397 soils along active channels exhibited significantly 6% higher pH and 30% lower total water 398 content than those sampled along abandoned channels (Table 1, Supplementary material 5). Active and abandoned channels also differed significantly in soil temperature (P = 0.001 and 399 400 P = 0.02 for FDD and TDD, respectively; Table 1), with abandoned channels showing 26% 401 higher FDD and 44% lower TDD than active channels (Supplementary material 5). No 402 difference in soil C:N ratio and soil total N content emerged between channel zones (P = 0.15403 and P = 0.64, respectively; Table 1).

Patches of *S. richardsonii* along active and abandoned channels were not associated with changes in thaw front depth and soil bulk density compared to plots dominated by prostrate shrubs and graminoids (non-significant vegetation effect, P > 0.19 in both cases; Table 1). Soil total water content and pH measured beneath *S. richardsonii* averaged 3.9% and 7.4, respectively, i.e. within the range of values measured in plots outside *S. richardsonii* patches (P > 0.43 in both cases; Supplementary material 5). Patches of *S. richardsonii* were not 410 associated either with variation in soil freezing and thawing degrees-days measured across two 411 seasons (P > 0.26 in both cases), which respectively averaged 5700°C and 240°C in both 412 vegetation conditions (Table 1, Supplementary material 5). There was no difference in soil C:N 413 ratio and soil total N content between vegetation conditions (P = 0.33 and P = 0.28, 414 respectively; Table 1). Yet, along active channels soil total N content increased by 37% beneath 415 *S. richardsonii* compared to plots dominated by prostrate shrubs and graminoids (P = 0.05).

416 Variation in total soil organic carbon stocks

Total soil organic carbon stocks (SOC_{tot}) averaged 18.0 ± 0.6 kgC m⁻³ (equivalent to 1.4 ± 0.1 417 418 kgC m⁻²) across all plots (volumetric SOC data are presented in the main text; see 419 Supplementary materials 1 and 6 for surfacic SOC data). There was no significant difference in SOC_{tot} between hydrological regimes, nor between vegetation conditions. While no 420 421 difference in SOCtot arose between vegetation conditions located along abandoned channels (P 422 > 0.60), SOC_{tot} differed between vegetation conditions along active channels, with a 18-28% 423 increase in organic C in soils sampled beneath S. richardsonii compared to those sampled outside the species' patches ($r^2 = 0.15$ and P = 0.08 for volumetric content, $r^2 = 0.46$ and P =424 425 0.02 for surfacic content; Figure 3a, Supplementary material 6).

426 Drivers of soil organic carbon stocks

The model selection indicated that LAI_w and TLN_w were the variables that best represented the influence of plant C supply and N demand on SOC_{tot} variation, respectively (Figure 4a). The path analysis revealed that SOC_{tot} was related positively to LAI_w and negatively to TLN_w ($\rho =$ 0.86, P < 0.01 and $\rho = -0.64$, P < 0.05, respectively; Figure 4b,c), and that together these relations increased the amount of SOC_{tot} variation explained ($r^2 = 0.47$; Table 2, Figure 4d), when compared with the categorical model ($r^2 = 0.15$, see earlier paragraph). The path analysis also retained the covariation between LAI_w and TLN_w (P = 0.054), the positive effect of *S*. 434 *richardsonii* occurrence on LAI_w and TLN_w ($\rho = 0.79$, P < 0.001, and $\rho = 0.55$, P < 0.01, 435 respectively), as well as the positive effect of hydrological regime on LAI_w and TLN_w, although 436 the latter two relations were not significant ($\rho = 0.12$ and $\rho = 0.40$, respectively; Figure 4d). In 437 contrast, the path analysis did not retain the direct effects of hydrological regime and *S*. 438 *richardsonii* occurrence on SOC_{tot}, indicating that there was no residual effect of vegetation 439 and environmental changes on total soil organic carbon stock.

440 Variation in soil organic carbon stocks across soil horizons and OM compartments

441 A significant difference in soil organic carbon stocks was observed between soil horizons, with 442 stocks being consistently higher in the top soil horizon A₁ than in the soil horizon A₂ (30.0 vs 15.2 kgC m⁻³, respectively; P < 0.001; Table 1, Figure 3b). There was no difference in SOC-443 444 A_1 and SOC- A_2 between hydrological regimes (P > 0.40 in both cases), nor between vegetation 445 conditions (Table 1). SOC contained in horizons A1 and A2 did not differ between vegetation 446 conditions along abandoned channels (P = 0.27 in the two cases; Table 1, Figure 3b). Yet, 447 differences arose between vegetation conditions along active channels, with SOC-A1 beneath 448 S. richardsonii decreasing significantly by 21% compared to plots located outside the species' patches (27.3 vs 34.6 kgC m⁻³; P = 0.04; Table 1, Figure 3b). SOC-A₂ also showed a 25% 449 450 increase beneath S. richardsonii (16.7 vs 12.4 kgC m⁻³), but the difference between vegetation 451 conditions was not statistically significant (P = 0.14; Table 1, Figure 3b).

452 Analyses of SOC per OM compartment showed that soil organic carbon was consistently 453 higher in OM compartments beneath *S. richardsonii*, the difference between vegetation 454 conditions being particularly marked for mPOM and fPOM compartments (Table 1, 455 Supplementary material 1). This pattern was driven by significant differences in C-mPOM and 456 C-fPOM of the soil horizon A₂ along active channels, where both C-mPOM and C-fPOM were 457 > 85% higher beneath than outside *S. richardsonii* patches (*P* = 0.03 in both cases; Table 1, 458 Figure 3c). Contrastingly, no significant difference between vegetation conditions was found 459 in C-cPOM regardless of the hydrological regime and soil horizon, nor in C-mPOM and C-460 fPOM along abandoned channels (P > 0.21 in all cases; Figure 3c). The C content of the 461 mineral-associated OM (MAOM) did not exhibit overall differences between vegetation 462 conditions and channels (P > 0.12 in all cases). Yet, C-MAOM of the soil horizon A₁ was lower 463 beneath *S. richardsonii* along active channels (P = 0.05; Figure 3c).

464 Quality of soil organic carbon

465 Across all plots, the increase in soil organic carbon associated with greater plant carbon supply was characterized by a change in the OM ${}^{13}C$ and ${}^{14}C$ isotopic signature. Soil bulk $\delta^{13}C$ was 466 467 strongly and negatively associated with LAI_w ($r^2 = 0.58$, P < 0.001; Figure 5a). This effect was particularly noticeable in the horizon A₁ compared to A₂ ($r^2 = 0.50$, P < 0.001 and $r^2 = 0.33$, P 468 = 0.001 for A₁ and A₂, respectively; Figure 5b), and in each OM compartment ($r^2 > 0.35$ and P 469 470 < 0.001 in the three cases; Figure 5c). The lowest soil δ^{13} C values were found under high net 471 carbon supply conditions, i.e. in plots sampled beneath S. richardsonii regardless of the hydrological regime, and were closer to leaf δ^{13} C signature compared to δ^{13} C of soils sampled 472 473 outside S. richardsonii patches (Table 1, Supplementary material 7). Variation in SOM isotopes with vegetation change was also captured when analyzing OM Δ^{14} C values of soil horizon A₂. 474 475 Values of Δ^{14} C, which were lower in active than in abandoned channels for each POM 476 compartment considered, were always higher (i.e. less negative) in plots beneath S. richardsonii than in plots dominated by herbaceous and other *Salix* spp. (Figure 6). The difference in Δ^{14} C 477 between vegetation conditions was particularly marked when considering the A2-fPOM 478 479 compartment sampled along active channels (94.26‰). By contrast, the difference in the A2-480 fPOM Δ^{14} C between vegetation conditions along abandoned channels was of 14.88‰.

481 Plant N demand was positively but weakly related to soil bulk δ^{15} N ($r^2 = 0.13$, P = 0.07; 482 Figure 5d). The same pattern was observed in the soil horizon A₂ ($r^2 = 0.11$, P = 0.09; Figure 483 5e) and in the A₂-cPOM compartment ($r^2 = 0.09$, P = 0.15; Figure 5f). Soil δ^{15} N values were

- 484 generally less negative than the leaf δ^{15} N signature (Table 1, Supplementary material 7). The
- 485 highest (i.e. less negative) soil δ^{15} N values were found under high nutrient demand, i.e. in plots
- 486 beneath *S. richardsonii* regardless of the hydrological regime (Figure 5d).

487 **Discussion**

488 This study aimed at exploring how tundra shrubification and environmental changes affect soil 489 organic carbon stock dynamics in the High Arctic. We used the occurrence of Salix richardsonii 490 patches along channels differing in water and nutrient availability to investigate the extent to 491 which changes in soil organic carbon stocks were associated with a shift in plant economic 492 strategies. Our observational approach suggested that increasing plant productivity associated 493 with greater erect shrub abundance can lead to an increase in soil organic carbon stock 494 compared to adjacent plant communities dominated by prostrate shrubs and graminoids. 495 However, the greater soil organic carbon stocks beneath S. richardsonii patches were not linked 496 to direct effects of plant taxa composition or environmental changes (relations 1 and 9 in Figure 497 1), but rather to variation in plant aboveground functional traits associated with greater carbon 498 supply and nutrient demand (relations 2 and 3 in Figure 1).

499 S. richardsonii increased total soil organic carbon stocks along active channels of alluvial 500 fans

We found that total soil organic carbon stocks beneath *S. richardsonii* patches ranged from 1.05 to 2.00 kg m⁻² (14.76 to 22.68 kg m⁻³). Conducted at a latitude of 73°N in comparison with the 62°-68°N latitudinal range of previous work (e.g. Wilmking and others 2006; Hartley and others 2012; Sørensen and others 2018; Street and others 2018; Parker and others 2021), this study represents so far the northernmost evaluation of soil organic carbon stocks in the context of increasing erect deciduous shrub abundance in tundra ecosystems. The stocks we found are within the range of soil organic carbon pools that have been reported to date in the handful of

other erect shrub-dominated tundra sites, going from 0.93 kg m⁻² under Salix glauca L. and 508 Salix lapponum L. in Dovre Mountain alpine tundra, Norway (Sørensen and others 2018) and 509 1.66-2.79 kg m⁻² under Betula nana L. and Salix pulchra Cham. in low Arctic tundra near 510 Toolik Lake, AK, USA (DeMarco and others 2011; Lynch and others 2018) to 3.00 ± 0.50 kg 511 m⁻² under Betula nana L. and Salix spp. thickets in low Arctic tundra near Abisko, Sweden 512 (Parker and others 2015; Parker and others 2020), 3.64 ± 1.40 kg m⁻² under *Alnus viridis* 513 (Chaix) DC. in low Arctic tundra near Inuvik, NWT, Canada (Street and others 2018) and 6.00 514 kg m⁻² under Betula glandulosa Michx. in subarctic tundra near Umiujaq, QC, Canada (Gagnon 515 516 and others 2019).

517 Our observations underscore the potential of S. richardsonii to increase soil organic carbon 518 stocks compared to neighboring prostrate tundra when local environmental conditions are 519 suitable. This plant-environment interaction observed from a fine-scale paired sampling is 520 particularly striking considering that changes in soil organic carbon stocks are usually difficult 521 to detect due to their large pool size, slow turnover rate and substantial spatial heterogeneity 522 (van Groenigen and others 2014). As S. richardsonii in the studied sites are probably older than 523 100 years (Bisson 2016), further analyses are now required using root collars, which might be 524 buried deep considering the sedimentation process occurring in this system, to determine the 525 period of time over which such shrub-mediated increase in soil organic carbon stocks has 526 occurred. In addition, a recent evaluation of soil carbon stocks of dominant geomorphological 527 terrain units conducted in the same valley as our study sites showed that alluvial fans can store up to 25 kgC m⁻³ within the first 5 cm of soil (Ola and others 2022), which is in the same order 528 of magnitude as the SOC values we found. It now remains to be seen how variation in 529 530 catchment size, channel slope, run off, and sedimentation rates among alluvial fans of the valley 531 influence these findings.

532 The increase in soil organic carbon stocks beneath S. richardsonii along active channels of 533 alluvial fans differs from the majority of carbon cycle studies that were carried out among low 534 arctic and subarctic tundra ecotones, and that reported either no change (Lynch and others 2018) 535 or a depletion in soil organic carbon pools in erect shrub sites compared to adjacent heath and 536 meadow systems (e.g. Wilmking and others 2006; Hartley and others 2012; Sørensen and 537 others 2018). The discrepancy among studies may be in part explained by the fact that they 538 primarily linked soil carbon storage to changes in plant community composition, regardless of 539 the functional mechanisms of soil carbon stock variation. This is also illustrated by the results 540 of Kemppinen and others (2021), who found that soil organic carbon stocks were positively 541 related to overall plant coverage and woody plant height, and negatively to woody plant 542 dominance. Accounting only for changes in plant taxa composition or plant functional groups 543 might thus limit our mechanistic understanding of the effects of increasing erect shrub 544 abundance on soil carbon storage. Alternatively, we found that the magnitude of variation in 545 soil organic carbon stocks can be affected by the depth of soil horizons considered. While most 546 studies have to date reported soil carbon stocks per unit surface (Parker and others 2021), also 547 providing estimates of soil carbon stocks per unit volume might further inform about how 548 organic carbon is distributed along soil profiles.

549 Biological drivers of soil organic carbon stock variation

550 Soil conditions such as total water content, thermal status and thaw front depth were similar 551 beneath and outside *S. richardsonii* patches, and are thus unlikely to explain the contrasting 552 soil organic carbon stocks between vegetation conditions (relation 1 in Figure 1). In the active 553 channel zones characterized by regular water flows and nutrient inputs, the higher carbon stocks 554 beneath *S. richardsonii* may rather be a consequence of the response of plant resource 555 acquisition traits to favorable growing conditions. Indeed, *S. richardsonii* exhibited higher LAI 556 and greater leaf and stem biomass compared to adjacent vegetation dominated by prostrate 557 Salix arctica and S. reticulata, leading to higher plant carbon supply that outweighed potential 558 carbon losses from soil respiration (relation 5 in Figure 1). Comparatively, the increase in soil organic carbon stocks beneath S. richardsonii patches did not hold true in the abandoned 559 560 channel zones. In these habitats with more limited water flows and nutrient inputs, the reduction 561 in LAI compared to active channel zones may be responsible for the lack of influence of S. 562 richardsonii dominance on soil organic carbon stocks. Such trait variation along abiotic 563 gradients supports observations throughout the tundra that plant trait attributes strongly respond 564 to local variability in environmental conditions (Bret-Harte and others 2001; Bjorkman and 565 others 2018).

566 Irrespective of channel zones and vegetation conditions, soil organic carbon decreased for a 567 given LAI with increasing TLN (relation 3 in Figure 1). This suggests that increasing nutrient 568 demand has likely led to a N-limiting situation, which has stimulated plant-enhanced 569 mineralization, in turn inducing a decrease in SOC. In line with all other studies showing that 570 tundra is particularly limited by nutrients (Chapin and others 1995; Elser and others 2007; 571 Keuper et al. 2020), our result highlighted the importance of considering plant nutrient demand 572 when quantifying the influence of vegetation changes and plant-enhanced mineralization on 573 soil carbon content. They support observations by Henneron and others (2020b), who found 574 that differences in soil organic carbon mineralization among temperate grassland species were 575 related to interspecific variation in economic strategies that sustain nutrition. Specifically, soil 576 under fast-growing species with higher photosynthetic rates and greater aboveground biomass 577 exhibited higher carbon mineralization than soil under slow-growing conservative species 578 (Henneron and others 2020b). While photosynthetic rates have yet to be measured at our study 579 sites, we still found that soil carbon content beneath S. richardsonii was associated with high 580 leaf biomass and related high total nutrient demand. This further indicates that biomass-related 581 traits such as LAI are key features to consider when studying how plant nutrition controls soil

C dynamics, in addition to the traits captured within the leaf economics spectrum (LES; Henneron and others 2020a; Terrer and others 2021). For instance, leaf N content, which belongs to the LES, does not necessarily correlate with plant N demand, which belongs to the plant height-biomass spectrum (Maire and others 2009).

586 According to our assumption, we showed that a functional trait-based approach is beneficial 587 to provide new insights into how vegetation changes regulate tundra carbon cycling. Through 588 the path analysis, we showed that only traits were required to explain SOC variation in the 589 studied system, whereas all the other vegetation conditions such as moss and root biomass were 590 not. Our study agrees with the findings of Happonen and others (2022), who showed that 591 aboveground plant traits had strong relationships with either aboveground or soil carbon stocks. 592 It also highlights the relevance of using LAI to characterize vegetation effects on carbon cycling 593 in the tundra (Shaver and others 2007; Street and others 2007; Parker and others 2020). The 594 fact that in the study of Happonen and others (2022) soil carbon stocks were significantly 595 related to SLA and LDMC instead of plant height further suggests that measuring leaf economic 596 traits, that integrate plant investment in carbon and nutrients (Wright and others 2004), are key 597 for a better mechanistic understanding of vegetation-carbon interactions. The strong and 598 negative relationship between soil organic carbon stocks and TLN demonstrates that 599 considering functional traits related to plant nutrient demand in parallel of those associated with 600 carbon supply is important to better characterize plant-soil linkages that shape the fate of soil 601 carbon stocks in tundra landscapes.

The explanatory power of our models was relatively high even if we only considered a few plant aboveground traits as proxies of carbon supply and nutrient demand dynamics. Particularly, all the other vegetation conditions not associated with traits were not required in our path analysis model (relation 1 in Figure 1). Yet, vegetation changes also induce significant shifts in plant-mycorrhizal associations and microbial community (Deslippe and others 2011;

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607 Clemmensen and others 2021). Shifts in soil carbon storage between vegetation conditions are 608 likely to be also driven by rhizosphere microbiome and fine rooting traits involved in plant-soil 609 feedbacks (Parker and others 2021; Spitzer and others 2022). Further attention on belowground 610 processes will thus be required, especially in sites where increasing erect shrub abundance is 611 associated with changes in woody plant taxa.

612 Regulation of soil isotopic signatures

Differences between vegetation conditions in soil stable $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ and radioactive ${}^{14}C$ 613 614 isotopes illustrated that S. richardsonii has strongly influenced soil chemistry and stability of 615 SOM stocks, in accordance with the well documented effects of plant economic traits on soil 616 biogeochemistry (Zhu and others 2016; Henneron and others 2020a). These results also align 617 with changes in soil carbon supply and nutrient demand dynamics. Greater LAI_w (i.e. greater 618 carbon supply) was associated with more negative $\delta^{13}C$ in all soil horizons and OM 619 compartments (Supplementary material 7), suggesting that new plant-derived carbon, depleted 620 in ¹³C because of the Suess effect (Ehleringer and others 2000), has been incorporated into all 621 soil compartments (Figure 5, Supplementary material 7). The steeper slope of the δ^{13} C-LAI_w 622 relationship for the top soil horizon A₁ compared to the soil horizon A₂ (Figure 5b) indicates 623 that the input of new carbon may be greater in the first two centimeters of soils, where we found 624 the vast majority of roots. However, the amount of new carbon in the soil horizon A₂ along 625 active channels was significant enough to increase soil organic carbon stocks and rejuvenate 626 the Δ^{14} C signature of the fPOM compartment from -291‰ to -197‰ (Figure 6), which is 627 equivalent to a mean age shift from 2809 ± 86 to 1619 ± 80 years (based on Crann and others 628 2017). We also observed a higher elevation of the δ^{13} C-LAI_w relationship for the fPOM 629 compartment (Figure 5c). It is likely that the fPOM compartment incorporated minerals 630 associated with less-depleted carbon compounds such as carbohydrate, sugar, proteins and

microbial product (Lavallee and others 2020), whereas cPOM and mPOM compartments were
mostly constituted by highly-depleted lignin (Camino-Serrano and others 2019).

Finally, the lower SOC-A₁ beneath S. richardsonii, in conjunction with the higher soil bulk 633 634 δ^{15} N with greater TLN_w in the soil horizon A₂ (Figure 5e), suggests that rhizosphere priming 635 might also contribute to the soil organic carbon dynamics in our sites. The increase in OM 636 mineralization and related positive priming have been observed in many places across the 637 Arctic (Hartley and others 2012; Keuper and others 2020). However, we did not quantify 638 priming per se, and therefore additional field studies are now required to ascertain the link 639 between plant nutrient demand traits and priming-driven soil carbon loss. In addition, analyses 640 of carbon isotopes can involve potential sources of error, and we are aware that this study has 641 some limitations that should be considered when placing the results in the geomorphological 642 context of the valley. The studied sites are located along alluvial fans that allow for running 643 water and deposition of sediments and carbon coming from the bordering plateau (Fortier and others 2006). Additional ¹⁴C measurements across additional fluxes and pools would fine-tune 644 645 the temporal dynamics of active and abandoned channels, and consequently that of S. 646 richardsonii colonization.

647 Conclusion

648 Structural changes related to greater erect shrub abundance in the Arctic are strong regulators 649 of soil organic carbon stocks through optimization of aboveground functional traits associated 650 with carbon and nutrient acquisition dynamics. This study first highlights that the use of plant 651 economic strategies instead of vegetation composition or plant functional groups may provide 652 new insights on carbon cycling variation with vegetation changes. It remains to be tested to 653 what extent other plant compartments such as roots and leaf litter contribute to differences in soil organic carbon stocks between vegetation conditions. Moreover, we evaluated soil organic 654 655 carbon stocks along alluvial fans specifically, and complement in that way the handful of studies that so far have provided soil carbon contents by accounting for the specificity of geomorphological terrain units in the Arctic. Lastly, fine-scale plant-environment interactions suggest that estimating soil organic carbon stocks locally may be difficult to extrapolate over larger areas, illustrating the need for carbon cycle studies in many more sites across the Arctic. In that context, establishing common functional trait-based methodologies that are easily applicable globally has the potential to foster our understanding of the consequences of vegetation changes on Arctic ecosystem carbon storage.

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961 **Table legends**

Table 1. Mean values (\pm 1 SE) of response variables measured in plots outside and beneath 962 Salix richardsonii (SR) patches along active and abandoned channels. n = 6 per vegetation 963 condition per channel, except for soil total water content (n = 12) and soil temperature (n = 3). 964 Test statistics are for fixed effects from linear mixed models. F-values in bold indicate 965 966 significant effects, which were adjusted with the FDR procedure (see Supplementary Material 2). Measurement units are as follows: biomass in gDW m⁻² soil, LAI_w in m² leaf m⁻² soil, TLN_w 967 in g m⁻² soil, leaf δ^{13} C/ δ^{15} N in ‰, thaw front depth in cm, soil bulk density in cm³, soil total 968 water content in %, soil temperature (FDD/TDD) in °C, soil total N content in kgN m⁻³ soil, 969 and volumetric soil organic carbon stocks (SOC) in kgC m⁻³ soil. 970

Table 2. Results of linear mixed models testing the effect of leaf area index (LAI_w) and total leaf nutrient content (TLN_w) of woody plants (*Salix* spp.) on soil organic carbon stock. LAI_w and TLN_w were used as a proxy of plant carbon supply and nutrient demand, respectively. Predictors were scaled in the regression analysis. See Figure 4b,c for corresponding illustrations. Note that the difference between marginal and conditional r^2 corresponds to random effects (pairs of quadrats nested within channels within fans).

Table 1.

	Active channel		Abandoned chanr			Channel			Vegetation			Channel x veg.		
	Outside SR	Beneath SR		Outside SR	Beneath SR		df	F		df	F		df	F
Plant traits														
Total biomass	351.0 ± 93.2	1392.2 ± 250.4		308.1 ± 70.5	1504.4 ± 281.5		1	0.03		1	32.19		1	0.15
Aboveground biomass	112.5 ± 46.2	1007.2 ± 199.5		252.5 ± 61.5	1416.3 ± 207.5		1	3.15		1	51.75		1	0.88
Root biomass	481.5 ± 181.5	780.1 ± 121.4		538.7 ± 133.4	670.5 ± 172.7		1	0.02		1	2.63		1	0.39
Shrub aboveground biomass	99.6 ± 45.6	1004.8 ± 200.0		41.1 ± 7.2	1240.2 ± 223.6		1	0.33		1	48.57		1	0.97
Graminoid aboveground biomass	12.9 ± 6.6	2.4 ± 1.3		3.2 ± 1.7	1.4 ± 1.2		1	1.66		1	4.88		1	2.41
Moss biomass	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0		211.4 ± 57.4	174.7 ± 44.0		1	28.66		1	0.26		1	0.26
Shrub leaf biomass	35.6 ± 13.0	120.7 ± 23.1		20.7 ± 3.8	58.2 ± 25.0		1	4.14		1	10.36		1	1.56
Shrub stem biomass	64.0 ± 20.7	884.1 ± 185.9		17.2 ± 5.7	1182.0 ± 207.3		1	0.80		1	50.64		1	1.53
Leaf area index (LAI _w)	0.3 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1		0.4 ± 0.1	0.7 ± 0.1		1	1.31		1	52.89		1	9.51
Total leaf nutrient content (TLN _w)	13.3 ± 5.8	51.3 ± 10.0		6.7 ± 1.7	26.3 ± 11.6		1	3.63		1	12.17		1	1.24
Leaf δ^{13} C	-28.9 ± 0.3	-29.6 ± 0.3		-28.7 ± 0.1	-29.1 ± 0.3		1	1.90		1	2.98		1	0.18
Leaf $\delta^{15}N$	-6.7 ± 0.7	-5.5 ± 0.7		-6.1 ± 0.4	-6.0 ± 0.4		1	0.01		1	3.82		1	2.57
Soil conditions														
Thaw front depth	6.9 ± 0.1	7.6 ± 0.5		8.8 ± 0.8	8.7 ± 0.6		1	3.10		1	198.00		1	2.99
Horizon A ₁ depth	1.1 ± 0.3	1.7 ± 0.4		2.2 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.3		1	5.70		1	3.70		1	1.03
Horizon A ₂ depth	5.8 ± 0.2	5.9 ± 0.1		5.9 ± 0.2	5.6 ± 0.3		1	0.30		1	0.25		1	2.13
Soil bulk density	0.9 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1		0.8 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1		1	0.43		1	0.09		1	0.07
Total water content	3.2 ± 0.3	3.1 ± 0.2		4.5 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.5		1	9.10		1	0.12		1	0.03
pН	7.6 ± 0.1	7.5 ± 0.1		7.1 ± 0.1	7.2 ± 0.1		1	9.57		1	0.67		1	5.16
Freezing degree-days (FDD)	5114.6 ± 220.6	4968.9 ± 114.9		6080.8 ± 174.6	6637.1 ± 428.2		1	25.17		1	0.61		1	1.79
Thawing degree-days (TDD)	298.0 ± 53.4	285.3 ± 67.5		223.9 ± 48.4	112.6 ± 31.3		1	5.30		1	1.34		1	0.85
Soil C:N ratio	9.0 ± 0.7	8.6 ± 0.3		9.0 ± 0.6	10.4 ± 0.5		1	2.36		1	1.06		1	3.23
Soil total N content	1.4 ± 0.2	2.2 ± 0.2		2.0 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.1		1	0.23		1	1.33		1	7.16
Soil organic carbon stocks														
Volumetric SOC _{tot}	15.62 ± 1.22	19.04 ± 1.12		18.82 ± 0.86	18.49 ± 1.03		1	1.17		1	3.09		1	4.55
Volumetric SOC-A ₁	34.58 ± 4.69	27.30 ± 2.70		30.59 ± 2.15	27.37 ± 2.10		1	0.25		1	7.43		1	1.11
Volumetric SOC-A ₂	12.40 ± 1.60	16.68 ± 1.87		16.24 ± 1.28	15.51 ± 0.96		1	0.65		1	1.99		1	3.98
Volumetric C-cPOM	0.73 ± 0.22	1.06 ± 0.05		1.15 ± 0.24	1.41 ± 0.31		1	2.29		1	2.43		1	0.04
Volumetric C-mPOM	0.75 ± 0.19	1.57 ± 0.31		1.38 ± 0.18	1.44 ± 0.31		1	0.85		1	3.53		1	2.71
Volumetric C-fPOM	0.61 ± 0.11	1.52 ± 0.27		1.06 ± 0.17	1.28 ± 0.26		1	0.26		1	7.26		1	2.70
Volumetric C-cPOM-A ₁	3.03 ± 0.72	3.60 ± 0.76		3.08 ± 0.39	3.63 ± 0.82		1	0.00		1	0.75		1	0.00
Volumetric C-cPOM-A ₂	0.40 ± 0.21	0.58 ± 0.07		0.54 ± 0.22	0.41 ± 0.07		1	0.01		1	0.03		1	1.11
Volumetric C-mPOM-A ₁	5.94 ± 1.58	5.55 ± 0.58		5.51 ± 0.85	5.11 ± 1.03		1	0.14		1	0.17		1	0.00
Volumetric C-mPOM-A ₂	0.05 ± 0.01	0.55 ± 0.16		0.12 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.01		1	6.12		1	7.49		1	10.64
Volumetric C-fPOM-A ₁	4.79 ± 1.32	4.59 ± 0.48		3.91 ± 0.81	4.42 ± 0.98		1	0.26		1	0.03		1	0.17
Volumetric C-fPOM-A ₂	0.08 ± 0.02	0.53 ± 0.17		0.22 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.02		1	1.69		1	5.45		1	9.93

Table 2.

_	Soil organic carbon stock (kg C m ⁻³ soil)						
	Estimate	CI	Р				
Predictors							
Intercept	18.0	(16.5, 19.5)	< 0.001				
LAI _w	2.44	(1.36, 3.52)	< 0.001				
TLN_w	-1.79	(-2.95, -0.64)	0.002				
Random effects							
σ2	3.93						
τ00 pair:(channel:fan)	0.00						
τ00 channel :fan	0.71						
τ00 fan	0.42						
Marginal r^2 / Conditional r^2			0.47 / 0.51				

Figure legends

Figure 1. Conceptual model showing the direction of the expected interactions between variables in the studied system. The following paths were considered: (1) *Salix richardsonii* increases directly soil organic carbon stock, independently from plant traits. (2) Plants supply organic carbon to the soil, which increases soil organic carbon (SOC) stock. (3) Plants enhance N-rich SOC mineralization for their nutritional requirements, which not only releases mineral nutrients in the soil but also reduces SOC stock. (4) Plant C:N stoichiometry is maintained via a strong coordination between plant carbon supply and nutrient demand. The occurrence of the erect shrub *S. richardsonii* increases (5) carbon supply and (6) nutrient demand, compared to adjacent plots dominated by graminoid and prostrate shrub species. (7) Active channels provide water and nutrients to the surrounding vegetation, which stimulates plant growth and increases plant carbon supply to the soil; but they may also disturb plant standing biomass, which would decrease plant carbon supply. (8) Active channels provide water to the surrounding vegetation, which stimulates transpiration and nutrient mass-flow uptake, thus decreasing plant nutrient demand; (9) A shift in hydrological regime influence directly soil organic carbon stock, with higher organic carbon stored in soils with higher fertility, i.e. located along active channels.

Figure 2. Study location and experimental design. (a) The study was conducted in the Qarlikturvik valley of Bylot Island, Nunavut (blue circle and red rectangle in the left panel, respectively), along two alluvial fans (white rectangle in the middle panel). The white arrows in the right panel indicate the water flow going down from the plateau to the valley floor. (b) Along each fan, plant and soil materials were sampled in two hydrological regimes corresponding to active and abandoned channels (full and dotted white arrows, respectively), and where *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) has settled. (c) In each channel zone, a paired sampling was carried out using plots where *S. richardsonii* was either present (beneath *SR*) or absent (outside

SR). Soil cores, that were on average 8 cm deep, were sampled within 0.7 m x 0.7 m quadrats. A_1 and A_2 refer to the soil horizons sampled.

Figure 3. Volumetric soil organic carbon (SOC, kg m⁻³) outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches located along active and abandoned channels. Horizontal lines refer to medians. Panel (a) refers to total SOC (SOC_{tot}), while panels (b) and (c) represent SOC content per horizon and OM compartment (n = 6 per vegetation condition per channel). The particulate organic matter compartments were discriminated as follows: coarse organic matter (cPOM, 2 mm to 1 mm), medium organic matter (mPOM, 1 mm to 250 µm) and fine organic matter (fPOM, 250 µm to 63 µm). The mineral-associated OM compartment (MAOM), estimated as the difference between SOC_{tot} and SOC of the three measured POM compartments, is represented for information purposes only. See Table 1 for corresponding statistics. †P < 0.1.

Figure 4. Influence of vegetation on total soil organic carbon stock (SOC_{tot}, kg m⁻³ soil). (a) Importance of woody plant (*Salix* spp.; c.f. subscript 'w') traits and moss biomass on SOC_{tot} variation, issued from an automated model selection analysis where the following explicative variables were considered: leaf area index (LAI_w), specific leaf area (SLA_w), total leaf nutrient (TLN_w), leaf biomass (Leaf_w), stem biomass (Stem_w), leaf nutrient content (LNuC_w), moss biomass, and root biomass (Root_w). (b,c) Conditional relationships of the mixed regression model testing the impact of (c) leaf area index (LAI_w) and (b) total leaf nutrient (TLN_w) of woody plants (*Salix* spp.) on soil organic carbon stock (i.e. volumetric SOC content; see Table 2 for model statistics). Each panel considered the effect of the variation of one explicative variable, while the second variable was considered fixed at its median value; the y-axes refer to residual values of conditional relationships. (d) Best fitted path analysis model showing the pathways that were retained from the conceptual model (Figure 1). Blue and red arrows refer to positive and negative relations, respectively. Numbers refer to the coefficients of

relationships between the predictor and response variables. Solid and dashed lines refer to significant and non-significant relations, respectively. LAI_w and TLN_w were considered as a proxy of plant net carbon supply and nutrient demand, respectively.

Figure 5. Influence of leaf area index (LAI_w) and total leaf nutrient content (TLN_w) of woody plants (*Salix* spp.) on soil organic carbon quality. LAI_w and TLN_w represent plant carbon supply and nutrient demand, respectively (see Figure 4). (a-c) Relationships between soil bulk δ^{13} C and LAI_w, determined according to (a) vegetation conditions and channel zones, (b) soil horizons, and (c) particulate OM compartments. (d-f) Relationships between soil bulk δ^{15} N and TLN_w, determined according to (d) vegetation conditions and channel zones, (e) soil horizons, and (c) particulate OM compartments of the soil horizon A₂. Relationships per OM compartments of the top soil horizon A₁ were not drawn given that no relationship was previously observed for this given horizon (see panel e).

Figure 6. Total soil organic carbon stocks (SOC_{tot}, kg m⁻³), as quantified per vegetation condition (outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches) and particulate organic matter compartments (cPOM, mPOM and fPOM) of soil horizon A₂, in relation to soil bulk ¹⁴C (composite samples from all repetitions). The particulate organic matter compartments were discriminated as follows: coarse organic matter (cPOM, 2 mm to 1 mm), medium organic matter (mPOM, 1 mm to 250 µm) and fine organic matter (fPOM, 250 µm to 63 µm).

























Supplementary material 1. Mean (\pm 1 SE) values of response variables in plots located outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches along active and abandoned channels. *n* = 6 per vegetation condition per channel for each response variable. Test statistics are for fixed effects from linear mixed models. *F*-values in bold indicate significant effects, adjusted with the FDR procedure (see Supplementary Material 2). Measurement units are as follows: plant abundance in % cover, plant species richness in # species, leaf number in # leaves m⁻², leaf size in cm² leaf⁻¹, SLA_w in m² gDW⁻¹ leaf, leaf nutrient content in 10⁻² gN gDW⁻¹, surfacic (i.e. area based) soil organic carbon stocks (SOC) in kgC m⁻² soil.

		Active channels	Aba		Channel	Vegetation			Channel x veg		
	Outside SR	Beneath SR	Outside SR	Beneath SR	df	F	df	F		df	F
Plant community											
Salix richardsonii abundance	0.1 ± 0.1	54.2 ± 5.3	0.5 ± 0.4	66.3 ± 3.8	1	3.72	1	341.79		1	3.24
Graminoid abundance	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0	0.1 ± 0.1	0.0 ± 0.0	1	0.96	1	1.04		1	0.96
Moss abundance	26.8 ± 15.6	9.6 ± 5.7	53.0 ± 14.8	32.5 ± 5.0	1	3.90	1	3.36		1	0.03
Species richness	5.5 ± 0.8	5.0 ± 1.0	6.5 ± 0.5	4.7 ± 0.7	1	0.14	1	3.68		1	1.20
Plant traits											
Leaf number	1313 ± 200	2821 ± 200	1546 ± 183	2475 ± 308	1	0.06	1	28.58		1	1.61
Leaf size	2.3 ± 0.0	3.5 ± 0.0	2.8 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.0	1	0.94	1	90.63		1	79.11
Specific leaf area (SLA _w)	75.7 ± 0.5	67.2 ± 0.2	71.1 ± 1.3	66.7 ± 0.0	1	12.26	1	84.57		1	8.05
Leaf C content	45.9 ± 0.2	44.5 ± 0.4	46.2 ± 0.3	44.3 ± 0.3	1	0.02	1	76.93		1	2.14
Leaf N content	2.8 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	1	1.53	1	18.57		1	0.65
Leaf P content	4.1 ± 0.3	5.5 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 0.5	6.1 ± 0.5	1	2.28	1	11.44		1	0.03
Leaf K content	16.3 ± 0.7	17.2 ± 0.7	16.0 ± 1.0	17.2 ± 1.1	1	0.03	1	1.24		1	0.03
Leaf Ca content	10.8 ± 0.8	12.7 ± 0.6	9.3 ± 0.6	12.7 ± 0.7	1	0.76	1	38.66		1	3.14
Leaf Mg content	3.7 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.1	3.8 ± 0.1	4.4 ± 0.4	1	0.25	1	9.18		1	0.08
Leaf nutrient content (LNuC _w)	37.8 ± 1.4	42.7 ± 1.4	36.5 ± 1.4	43.4 ± 1.4	1	0.05	1	17.58		1	0.48
Leaf C:N ratio	16.4 ± 0.7	14.2 ± 0.5	17.6 ± 0.3	14.3 ± 0.5	1	1.63	1	27.89		1	1.17
Root N content	1.3 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.1	1	1.02	1	1.57		1	3.89
Soil organic carbon stocks											
Surfacic SOC _{tot}	1.07 ± 0.08	1.48 ± 0.15	1.64 ± 0.06	1.55 ± 0.03	1	9.37	1	4.62		1	11.36
Surfacic SOC-A ₁	0.31 ± 0.02	0.44 ± 0.11	0.66 ± 0.06	0.63 ± 0.05	1	12.47	1	0.85		1	1.77
Surfacic SOC-A ₂	0.73 ± 0.10	0.99 ± 0.12	0.95 ± 0.07	0.87 ± 0.07	1	0.22	1	1.46		1	4.55
Surfacic C-cPOM	0.05 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.03	1	4.98	1	2.13		1	0.11
Surfacic C-mPOM	0.05 ± 0.01	0.13 ± 0.03	0.12 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.03	1	1.79	1	4.15		1	2.57
Surfacic C-fPOM	0.04 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.03	1	0.84	1	6.18		1	2.47
Surfacic C-cPOM-A ₁	0.03 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.03	1	6.45	1	3.05		1	0.04
Surfacic C-cPOM-A ₂	0.02 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	1	0.07	1	0.04		1	1.02
Surfacic C-mPOM-A ₁	0.05 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.03	1	3.18	1	2.54		1	0.88
Surfacic C-mPOM-A ₂	0.00 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	1	6.27	1	7.37		1	10.61
Surfacic C-fPOM-A ₁	0.04 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.03	0.08 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.03	1	1.79	1	3.44		1	0.47
Surfacic C-fPOM-A ₂	$\overline{0.00\pm0.00}$	0.03 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	1	1.92	1	5.25		1	9.39

Supplementary material 2. False Discovery Rate (FDR) procedure applied on variables used in linear mixed models testing the effect of hydrological regime and *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) occurrence on plant communities and soil conditions (c.f. Table 1 and Supplementary material 1). The procedure was applied separately for each of the fixed factors, i.e. channel (active vs abandoned), vegetation condition (outside vs beneath *S. richardsonii*), and the interaction between channel and vegetation condition. Values in bold indicate significant effects after the FDR procedure was applied. In the FDR procedure, the significant threshold is set at the highest *P*-value at which the inequality $P \le q$ holds true, with this and all smaller *P*-values corresponding to significant comparisons (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995; but see Pike 2011 for the method applied in ecology and evolution). Here, q = (Prank/number of tests)*0.05.

Channel			Channel	Vegetation					Channel x vegetation			
	Р	rank	q		Р	rank	q			Р	rank	q
Plant community				Plant community					Plant community			
SR abundance	0.083	1	0.013	SR abundance	<.0001	1	0.013		SR abundance	0.102	1	0.013
Moss abundance	0.077	2	0.025	Species richness	0.084	2	0.025		Species richness	0.298	2	0.025
Graminoid abundance	0.350	3	0.038	Moss abundance	0.097	3	0.038		Graminoid abundance	0.350	3	0.038
Species richness	0.718	4	0.050	Graminoid abundance	0.332	4	0.050		Moss abundance	0.874	4	0.050
Plant traits				Plant traits					Plant traits			
Moss biomass	0.0003	1	0.002	Total abg biomass	<.0001	1	0.002		Leaf size	<.0001	1	0.002
SLAw	0.006	2	0.004	Shrub abg biomass	<.0001	2	0.004		LAI _w	0.001	2	0.004
Shrub leaf biomass	0.069	3	0.006	Shrub shoot biomass	<.0001	3	0.006		SLA_w	0.018	3	0.006
TLNw	0.086	4	0.008	LAI _w	<.0001	4	0.008		Root N content	0.077	4	0.008
Total abg biomass	0.106	5	0.010	Leaf size	<.0001	5	0.010		Leaf Ca content	0.107	5	0.010
Leaf P content	0.162	6	0.013	SLAw	<.0001	6	0.013		Leaf $\delta^{15}N$	0.140	6	0.013
Leaf δ^{13} C	0.198	7	0.015	Leaf C content	<.0001	7	0.015		Graminoid abg biomass	0.152	7	0.015
Graminoid abg biomass	0.227	8	0.017	Leaf Ca content	<.0001	8	0.017		Leaf C content	0.174	8	0.017
Leaf C:N ratio	0.231	9	0.019	Total plant biomass	0.0002	9	0.019		Leaf number	0.233	9	0.019
Leaf N content	0.244	10	0.021	Leaf number	0.0003	10	0.021		Shrub leaf biomass	0.240	10	0.021
LAIw	0.278	11	0.023	Leaf C:N ratio	0.0004	11	0.023		Shrub shoot biomass	0.245	11	0.023
Root N content	0.336	12	0.025	Leaf N content	0.002	12	0.025		TLNw	0.291	12	0.025
Leaf size	0.355	13	0.027	LNuCw	0.002	13	0.027		Leaf C:N ratio	0.306	13	0.027
Shrub shoot biomass	0.393	14	0.029	TLNw	0.006	14	0.029		Shrub abg biomass	0.349	14	0.029
Leaf Ca content	0.403	15	0.031	Leaf P content	0.007	15	0.031		Total abg biomass	0.369	15	0.031
Shrub abg biomass	0.581	16	0.033	Shrub leaf biomass	0.009	16	0.033		Leaf N content	0.438	16	0.033
Leaf Mg content	0.625	17	0.035	Leaf Mg content	0.013	17	0.035		LNuCw	0.506	17	0.035
Leaf number	0.811	18	0.038	Graminoid abg biomass	0.052	18	0.038		Root biomass	0.544	18	0.038
LNuCw	0.834	19	0.040	Leaf $\delta^{15}N$	0.079	19	0.040		Moss biomass	0.621	19	0.040
Leaf K content	0.857	20	0.042	Leaf $\delta^{13}C$	0.115	20	0.042		Leaf $\delta^{13}C$	0.679	20	0.042
Total plant biomass	0.864	21	0.044	Root biomass	0.136	21	0.044		Total plant biomass	0.702	21	0.044
Root biomass	0.883	22	0.046	Root N content	0.239	22	0.046		Leaf Mg content	0.780	22	0.046
Leaf C content	0.901	23	0.048	Leaf K content	0.292	23	0.048		Leaf K content	0.857	23	0.048

Leaf $\delta^{15}N$	0.939	24	0.050	Moss biomass	0.621	24	0.050	Leaf P content	0.864	24	0.050
Soil conditions	Soil conditions Soil conditions					Soil conditions					
FDD	0.001	1	0.005	Horizon A ₁ depth	0.083	1	0.005	Soil total N content	0.023	1	0.005
рН	0.011	2	0.010	Thaw front depth	0.190	2	0.010	pH	0.047	2	0.010
Total water content	0.013	3	0.015	TDD	0.262	3	0.015	Soil C:N ratio	0.102	3	0.015
TDD	0.020	4	0.020	Soil total N content	0.276	4	0.020	Thaw front depth	0.115	4	0.020
Horizon A1 depth	0.038	5	0.025	Soil C:N ratio	0.327	5	0.025	Horizon A ₂ depth	0.175	5	0.025
Thaw front depth	0.109	6	0.030	pH	0.433	6	0.030	FDD	0.218	6	0.030
Soil C:N ratio	0.155	7	0.035	FDD	0.457	7	0.035	Horizon A ₁ depth	0.335	7	0.035
Soil bulk density	0.527	8	0.040	Horizon A ₂ depth	0.626	8	0.040	TDD	0.369	8	0.040
Horizon A ₂ depth	0.595	9	0.045	Total water content	0.733	9	0.045	Soil bulk density	0.801	9	0.045
Soil total N content	0.642	10	0.050	Soil bulk density	0.774	10	0.050	Total water content	0.857	10	0.050
Volumetric SOC stocks				Volumetric SOC stocks				Volumetric SOC stocks			
C-mPOM-A ₂	0.033	1	0.004	C-mPOM-A ₂	0.021	1	0.004	C-mPOM-A ₂	0.009	1	0.004
C-cPOM	0.161	2	0.008	SOC-A ₁	0.021	2	0.008	C-fPOM-A ₂	0.010	2	0.008
C-fPOM-A ₂	0.223	3	0.013	C-fPOM	0.023	3	0.013	SOC _{tot}	0.059	3	0.013
SOC _{tot}	0.305	4	0.017	C-fPOM-A ₂	0.042	4	0.017	SOC-A ₂	0.074	4	0.017
C-mPOM	0.378	5	0.021	C-mPOM	0.090	5	0.021	C-mPOM	0.131	5	0.021
SOC-A ₂	0.437	6	0.025	SOC _{tot}	0.110	6	0.025	C-fPOM	0.131	6	0.025
C-fPOM	0.623	7	0.029	C-cPOM	0.150	7	0.029	SOC-A ₁	0.317	7	0.029
C-fPOM-A ₁	0.624	8	0.033	SOC-A ₂	0.189	8	0.033	C-cPOM-A ₂	0.341	8	0.033
SOC-A ₁	0.628	9	0.038	C-cPOM-A ₁	0.406	9	0.038	C-fPOM-A1	0.686	9	0.038
C-mPOM-A ₁	0.725	10	0.042	C-mPOM-A ₁	0.688	10	0.042	C-cPOM	0.843	10	0.042
C-cPOM-A ₂	0.931	11	0.046	C-fPOM-A ₁	0.860	11	0.046	C-cPOM-A ₁	0.990	11	0.046
C-cPOM-A ₁	0.953	12	0.050	C-cPOM-A ₂	0.871	12	0.050	C-mPOM-A ₁	0.997	12	0.050
Surfacic SOC stocks				Surfacic SOC stocks				Surfacic SOC stocks			
SOC-A ₁	0.005	1	0.004	C-mPOM-A ₂	0.022	1	0.004	SOC _{tot}	0.007	1	0.004
SOC _{tot}	0.012	2	0.008	C-fPOM	0.032	2	0.008	C-mPOM-A ₂	0.009	2	0.008
C-cPOM-A ₁	0.029	3	0.013	C-fPOM-A ₂	0.045	3	0.013	C-fPOM-A ₂	0.012	3	0.013
C-mPOM-A ₂	0.031	4	0.017	SOC _{tot}	0.057	4	0.017	SOC-A ₂	0.059	4	0.017
C-cPOM	0.050	5	0.021	C-mPOM	0.069	5	0.021	C-mPOM	0.140	5	0.021
C-mPOM-A1	0.105	6	0.025	C-fPOM-A ₁	0.093	6	0.025	C-fPOM	0.147	6	0.025
C-fPOM-A ₂	0.196	7	0.029	C-cPOM-A ₁	0.111	7	0.029	SOC-A ₁	0.213	7	0.029
C-mPOM	0.210	8	0.033	C-mPOM-A1	0.142	8	0.033	C-cPOM-A ₂	0.336	8	0.033
C-fPOM-A ₁	0.211	9	0.038	C-cPOM	0.175	9	0.038	C-mPOM-A ₁	0.371	9	0.038
C-fPOM	0.380	10	0.042	SOC-A ₂	0.255	10	0.042	C-fPOM-A ₁	0.508	10	0.042
SOC-A ₂	0.648	11	0.046	SOC-A ₁	0.378	11	0.046	C-cPOM	0.747	11	0.046
C-cPOM-A ₂	0.793	12	0.050	C-cPOM-A ₂	0.842	12	0.050	C-cPOM-A ₁	0.844	12	0.050

Reference

Pike N. 2011. Using false discovery rates for multiple comparisons in ecology and evolution. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 2: 278-282.

Supplementary material 3. Mean species richness and mean species cover of vascular and non-vascular taxa found in plots located outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches along active and abandoned channels. Species richness and species abundance were estimated within a 0.7 m x 0.7 m quadrat arranged in each of the 24 sampled vegetation plots. < for cover < 0.1% and << for cover < 0.01%. Species names are reported according to the Database of Vascular Plants of Canada (VASCAN; https://data.canadensys.net/vascan/search).

	Α	ctive channels	Abandoned channels				
	Outside SR	Beneath SR	Outside SR	Beneath SR			
Mean species richness	6	5	7	5			
Plant species cover (%)							
Caryophyllaceae							
Stellaria longipes Goldie	<<	0	0	0			
Equisetaceae							
Equisetum arvense L.	0.6	<<	<	<<			
Fabaceae							
Astragalus alpinus L.	0.4	<<	1.8	<<			
Juncaceae							
Luzula nivalis Spreng.	<<	0	0.4	0			
Poaceae							
Alopecurus magellanicus Lam.	<	0	0	0			
Arctagrostis latifolia (R. Br.) Griseb.	0.5	<	0.2	<			
Poa arctica R. Br.	<<	0	0	0			
Other spp.	<<	0	<	0			
Polygonaceae							
Bistorta vivipara (L.) Delarbre	<<	<	<<	<<			
Rosaceae							
Dryas integrifolia Vahl	0.5	<	0.9	0			
Salicaceae							
Salix richardsonii Hooker	<	54.2	0.5	66.3			
Salix arctica Pall.	3.3	<<	5.8	0.2			
Salix reticulata L.	0.6	0	2.2	<			
Lichens							
Peltigera spp.	0	0.4	0	0.4			
Stereocaulon spp.	0	0.4	0	1.2			
Other spp.	0	0	0.5	0			
Mosses	26.8	9.6	53.0	32.5			
Cryptogamic crust cover (%)	64.6	6.3	25.0	0			
Litter cover (%)	3.1	41.7	5.8	45.8			
Standing dead cover (%)	0.5	0	0.6	0			

Supplementary material 4. (a) Canonical correspondence analysis testing the association between plant community and soil conditions (i.e. thaw front depth, bulk density, water content, pH, freezing degree-days, thawing degree-days, C:N ratio, and total N content). (b) Principal component analysis of plots located outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches in active and abandoned channels, relative to leaf nutrients (i.e. C/N/P/K/Ca/Mg content, C:N ratio, ¹³C and ¹⁵N composition) of *Salix* spp.



Supplementary material 5. Plant biomass (a,b) and soil conditions (c-f) in plots located outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches along active and abandoned channels. n = 6 per vegetation condition per channel for each response variable, except for soil total water content (n = 12) and soil freezing/thawing degree-days (FDD/TDD; n = 3).



Supplementary material 6. Surfacic (i.e. area based) soil organic carbon (SOC, kg m⁻²) outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches located along active and abandoned channels. Panel (a) refers to total SOC (SOC_{tot}), while panels (b) and (c) represent SOC content per horizon and OM compartment (n = 6 per vegetation condition per channel). The particulate organic matter compartments were discriminated as follows: coarse organic matter (cPOM, 2 mm to 1 mm), medium organic matter (mPOM, 1 mm to 250 µm) and fine organic matter (fPOM, 250 µm to 63 µm). The mineral-associated OM compartment (MAOM), estimated as the difference between SOC_{tot} and SOC of the three measured POM compartments, is also represented. See Supplementary material 1 for corresponding statistics. *P < 0.05, †P < 0.1.



Supplementary material 7. δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and C:N ratio of plant leaves, plant roots and OM compartments found in soil horizons A₁ and A₂ sampled in plots located outside and beneath *Salix richardsonii* (*SR*) patches along active and abandoned channels. The particulate organic matter compartments were discriminated as follows: coarse organic matter (cPOM, 2 mm to 1 mm), medium organic matter (mPOM, 1 mm to 250 µm) and fine organic matter (fPOM, 250 µm to 63 µm).

