1	Persistent reduction of segment growth and photosynthesis in a
2	widespread and important sub-Arctic moss species after three
3	years of experimental winter warming
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19 20	Summary
21	1. Winter is a period of dormancy for plants of cold environments. However, winter
22	climate is changing, leading to an increasing frequency of stochastic warm periods
23	(winter warming events) and concomitant reductions in snow cover. These conditions
24	can break dormancy for some plants and expose them to freeze-and-thaw stress.

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Mosses are a major component of high latitude ecosystems, yet the longer-term
impacts of such winter warming events on mosses remain unknown.

2. In order to determine the longer-term legacy effects of winter warming events on 27 mosses, we undertook a simulation of these events over three consecutive winters in a 28 sub-Arctic dwarf shrub-dominated open woodland. The mat-forming feathermoss 29 Hylocomium splendens (the most abundant cryptogam in this system), is one of the 30 most widespread Arctic and boreal mosses and plays a key functional role in 31 ecosystems. We studied the ecophysiological performance of this moss during the 32 summers of the experimental period (2007-2009) and in the following years (2010-33 2013). 34

3. We show that the previously reported warming-induced reduction in segment growth 35 and photosynthesis during the experimental years was persistent. Four years after the 36 last event, photosynthesis and segment growth were still 30 and 36 % lower than 37 control levels, which was only a slight improvement from 44 and 43 % four years 38 39 earlier. Winter warming did not affect segment symmetry. During the years after the last simulated event, in both warmed and control plots, chlorophyll fluorescence and 40 segment growth, but not net photosynthesis, increased slightly. The increases were 41 probably driven by increased summer rainfall over the study years, highlighting the 42 sensitivity of this moss to rainfall change. 43

44 4. Overall, the legacy effects shown here demonstrate that this widespread and important
45 moss is likely to be significantly disadvantaged in a future sub-Arctic climate where
46 frequent winter warming events may become the norm. Given the key importance of
47 mosses for soil insulation, shelter and carbon sequestration in high-latitude regions,
48 such persistent impacts may ultimately affect important ecosystem functions.

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50 Key-words: Arctic, bryophyte, climate change, extreme events, feathermoss, *Hylocomium*,
51 snowmelt, warmer winters

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53 Introduction

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Understanding the impacts of climate change on ecosystems is complex for many reasons.
Firstly, there are many drivers of change and each driver, for example increasing temperature,
has numerous interacting facets such as diurnal, seasonal and extremes. Secondly, there are
practical issues that hinder research, such as difficult species groups and winter research. In
this paper, we focus on a cryptogam (an understudied group), the winter period (underrepresented in field studies) and extreme warming events, that are both difficult to observe
and even more difficult to predict (Bokhorst *et al.* 2016; Phoenix & Bjerke 2016).

Climate in northern ecosystems is changing more than the global average and more
abruptly during winter than during summer (Walsh *et al.* 2011). Despite this, there are far
fewer reports on moss responses to winter climate change than to summer warming. A recent
literature search and review of ecosystem responses to winter climate change (Cooper 2014)
found only four reports related to cryptogams, only two of these (Dorrepaal *et al.* 2004;
Bjerke *et al.* 2011) dealt with mosses, and only the latter treated effects of stochastic warm

68 periods (winter warming events).

Warm winters are often characterized by one or several warming events of variable
duration preceded and followed by naturally cold, freezing periods (Putkonen & Roe 2003;
Bokhorst *et al.* 2008; Bjerke *et al.* 2014; Hansen *et al.* 2014). During warming events, snow
cover melts completely or partly, exposing the ground vegetation to ambient temperatures,
which may be 15-30 degrees below freezing and fluctuate much more than in the subnivean
environment (Pauli *et al.* 2013). The dehardening of vascular plants during such events leads

to increased susceptibility to freezing on the return of ambient sub-zero winter temperatures.
Therefore, many vascular plants are severely damaged after winter warming events, as shown
both by analyses of natural events and field experiments (Bokhorst *et al.* 2009, 2010, 2012a;
Bjerke *et al.* 2014; Cooper 2014).

The clonal mat-forming feathermoss Hylocomium splendens (Hedw.) Schimp. is the 79 only moss that has been studied in relation to winter warming events (Bjerke et al. 2011). It is 80 one of the most common and widespread mosses of the circumboreal forest and Arctic tundra, 81 and it has scattered occurrences elsewhere, for instance at high altitudes close to the Equator 82 (Rohrer 2004; GBIF 2015). It is probably one of the most abundant moss species in the world. 83 84 As other mat-forming mosses, it plays a crucial functional role in its ecosystems. It contributes to soil insulation and stability, preservation of permafrost, sheltering for small 85 organisms, carbon balance, nitrogen fixation, and ecosystem conservation through hampering 86 87 of seed establishment (Chapin & Bledsoe 1992; Hörnberg, Ohlson & Zackrisson 1997; Beringer et al. 2001; Heijmans, Arp & Chapin 2004; Cornelissen et al. 2007; Bjerke et al. 88 89 2011, 2013; Yoshikawa et al. 2002; Lang et al. 2012; Bokhorst et al. 2014). It is therefore of 90 major functional importance in its ecosystems.

Segment growth and photosynthetic activity of *H. splendens* was severely reduced (up 91 92 to 52 %) after three consecutive winters with short-lasting warming events that exposed the moss to ambient temperatures (Bjerke et al. 2011, 2013). Negative effects were evident 93 already during the summer following the first winter warming event. Photosynthetic rates and 94 segment growth rates of previously winter-warmed mosses were 48 % to 52 % lower than in 95 control plots. During the winter warming events, photosynthetic rates were at optimal rates, 96 viz. similar to or higher than the rates achieved in summer. This clearly shows that the moss 97 was activated during the winter warming events. Hylocomium splendens and other mosses 98 initiate the growth of young, freeze-susceptible shoot apices in the early growing season 99

(Clausen 1964; Hudson & Brustkern 1965). Temperatures at -7.6 °C within 24 h after 100 warming was ceased in the winter warming study, followed by temperatures as low as -18 °C 101 two weeks later (Bokhorst et al. 2008, 2009, 2010) probably caused freezing damage to the 102 103 moss shoot apices, which resulted in reductions in growing season photosynthesis and segment growth far beyond the year-to-year variation found in populations with stable winter 104 climates (Bjerke et al. 2011). Death of apices promotes the sympodial growth form over the 105 monopodial form. Although the two growth forms are genetically determined to some extent, 106 107 they are both found in the same area and respond to environmental cues (Ross et al. 2001). This shows that mosses are under threat from winter warming events. However, impacts of 108 109 winter warming beyond the immediate short-term responses reported above (Bjerke et al., 2011) remain unknown. 110

111 Here, we follow up on the short-term responses in the experimental period reported in 112 Bjerke et al. (2011) with a longer-term assessment of the moss growth and photosynthesis responses in the four years after the warming simulations, to determine the persistence of the 113 114 observed negative effects arising from the events. We also studied in more detail the 115 morphology of moss segments by resurveying all moss samples taken from the experimental years and following years to test whether declining vitality is associated with developmental 116 instability. Fluctuating asymmetry (FA), as a measure of developmental instability, is widely 117 used as a symptom of stress in vascular plant leaves and animals (Palmer & Strobeck 1992, 118 2003; Kozlov et al. 1996). However, FA in mosses is a poorly studied subject; to our 119 knowledge, the applicability of FA as a stress signal in mosses has not been assessed 120 previously. 121

We hypothesized that surviving individuals of *H. splendens* from three consecutive winter warming events (Bjerke et al. 2011) would increase photosynthetic and segment growth rates and reach the same level as in control plots within the first years after the last

winter warming event. Furthermore, we hypothesized that retarded growth also would be
associated with increasing FA of moss segments, and that this trait would disappear during
recovery of normal segment growth rates.

During the recovery years of 2012 and 2013, our study site and the entire Abisko region 128 (Swedish sub-Arctic) was affected by a caterpillar outbreak of the geometrid moth Epiritta 129 autumnata (Bjerke et al. 2014; Bokhorst et al. 2015). The caterpillars defoliated many 130 vascular plants, and this led to a decline in the cover of dwarf shrubs and an increase of moss 131 cover in the years of 2012 and 2013 (Bokhorst et al. 2015). These summers were also much 132 wetter than the summers during the experimental period (Table 1; see also Bokhorst et al. 133 134 2015). Since these environmental changes took place after the study was initiated, we did not phrase any *a priori* hypotheses of their impacts on the ecophysiology of *H. splendens*. 135 However, knowing that summer rainfall stimulates moss growth (Potter et al. 1995, Sonesson 136 137 et al. 2002), that more space would be available for horizontal growth due to vascular plant damage, and that more throughfall of nutrients would reach the cryptogam layer (Bokhorst et 138 139 al. 2015); we hypothesized a posteriori that the ecophysiological performance of H. 140 *splendens* would benefit from the caterpillar outbreak and the increasing precipitation rates. 141 142

143 Material and methods

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145 FIELD SITE AND EXPERIMENTAL SIMULATIONS

Simulations of winter warming events in the field were conducted on a sub-Arctic heathland in open mountain birch (*Betula pubescens*) forest close to the Abisko Scientific Research Station (ANS) in northern Sweden (68° 21' N, 18° 49' E) during March 2007, 2008 and 2009. Details of the research site and experimental design are described in Bokhorst *et al.* (2008, 2009) and Bjerke *et al.* (2011). In brief, the experiment consisted of 18 plots ($2.1 \text{ m} \times 1.0 \text{ m}$), consisting

of 6 control plots that remained under their natural snow cover throughout the winter; 6 that 151 were exposed to a week-long winter warming event called 'canopy warming', using infrared 152 heating lamps (800 W emitting at 3 µm; HS 2408, Kalglo Electronics Co., Bethlehem, USA); 153 154 and 6 where warming from infrared heating lamps was combined with soil warming from cables at 5 cm soil depth called 'canopy and soil warming'. Soil warming cables (LS-TXLP, Nexans, 155 Norway, producing 120 W m⁻²) were switched on two days after the lamps to simulate the delay 156 in soil thaw during a real event. Complete snow melt and exposure of the vegetation was 157 158 achieved within two to three days.

Temperature was monitored with thermistors placed in each plot at canopy height and at 159 the soil surface, with logging at 6-h intervals recorded on a data logger (CR10 X, Campbell 160 Scientific, UK). Details on the temperature effects of the treatments are provided in Bokhorst 161 et al. (2011, 2012b). In summary, temperatures rose on average to 5 °C during the events, while 162 163 for the remainder of winter, temperatures fluctuated concurrently with the ambient conditions (ranging from -17 °C to 4 °C) due to the reduced snow cover (initially none, and then thin 164 165 coverage as new snow covered the exposed vegetation), meaning there was little to no 166 insulation from air temperatures. In contrast, control plots remained well insulated under snow and experienced temperatures between -7 °C and 0 °C until snowmelt. Weather data presented 167 are from the meteorological station at ANS, ca. 200 m from our study site. 168

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170 PHOTOSYNTHESIS AND CHLOROPHYLL FLUORESCENCE

Gas exchange (CO₂) was measured in June or July during the summers following the experimental years from 2007 to 2009 and during the summers of 2012 and 2013. Measurements were made with a portable gas exchange fluorescence system (GFS-3000, Heinz Walz GmbH, Effeltrich, Germany) using moss segments with optimal water content, as described in Bjerke *et al.* (2011). Only first-year and second-year segments of *H. splendens*

were used, as older segments have reduced photosynthetic rates (Callaghan *et al.* 1978, 1997). Each moss sample consisted of *c*. 5 cut shoots. Assimilation rates were calculated on a per-dryweight basis. One sample was analysed from each plot at each occasion. A saturating photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) of 800 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ was used during measurements of net photosynthesis. CO₂ concentration was set to 380 ppm and cuvette humidity to 9000 ppm H₂O. Cuvette temperatures were adjusted to ambient noon temperatures at the time of measurement.

Using the PAM-fluorometer of the GFS-3000, chlorophyll fluorescence, as maximal quantum efficiency of photosystem II, i.e. F_v/F_m (Maxwell & Johnson 2000), was measured on dark-adapted, naturally moist or wetted samples consisting of first- and second-year segments.

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188 SEGMENT GROWTH AND ASYMMETRY

Segments were collected at one point in time during the growing seasons following the winter 189 warming events of 2007, 2008 and 2009, and also during the growing seasons of 2010, 2011 190 and 2013. These were air-dried, and lengths of second-year segments were measured with 191 192 digital callipers along the main stem. Total width, i.e. left (L) plus right (R) sides of the segment, was measured on the same second-year segments at the place where the shoot 193 segment was widest, typically near the segment base, perpendicular to the stem. Samples were 194 195 collected in June or early July, except for in 2010, when they were collected in late August. Width of each side (i.e. R and L separately) was subsequently measured on samples 196 from 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2011. This latter dataset was first tested for directional 197 198 asymmetry, i.e. when one side is consistently larger than the other in the same direction (Palmer & Strobeck 2003). Thereafter, we tested for treatment effects on fluctuating 199 asymmetry (FA). As FA has not been tested on mosses previously, we screened the utility of 200

various FA indices. The most commonly used indices all rendered similar results, and we here present results for the index for trait difference divided by trait mean [|R-L|/((R+L)/2)].

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204 DATA PUBLISHED PREVIOUSLY

The ecophysiological data from the experimental years and the shoot segment lengths from the years 2008-2010 were first reported in Bjerke *et al.* (2011), there with separate values for the two types of warming treatment data, while we here pool these data (see below). The following data have not been reported previously: the ecophysiological data from 2012 to 2013, segment lengths from 2011 and 2013, all data on segment width, length-to-width ratios and FA.

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212 DATA ANALYSES

All tests were run with SPSS Statistics 22 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA).

214 Differences between the two warming treatments were first tested with a series of Student's t-215 tests. For most of the measured parameters (except FA), there were no significant differences between the two treatments, and the two types of warming treatment data could be pooled 216 (canopy warming, and canopy and soil warming), here called 'winter warming'. Time 217 218 differences, overall treatment differences and their interactions, and pairwise comparisons of specific years were tested with the repeated-measures ANOVA procedure of SPSS. The 219 220 Tukey HSD test was used for multiple comparisons of treatment effects. Year-to-year comparisons from the repeated-measures ANOVA were also checked with paired student's t-221 tests, and these two tests rendered almost identical results. Student's t-tests were also applied 222 to test for differences between left and right segment widths. 223 Data sets containing more than one randomly chosen data point per replicate (plot) were 224

first surveyed using a nested ANOVA design in order to check whether the variation within
the replicates was larger than between replicates. As the variation within plots in all cases was

227	very low as compared to the variation between plots, the mean value per replicate was used in
228	further ANOVA analyses. Data were tested for normality and heterogeneity of variance in
229	prior to ANOVAs and correlations. No transformation of data was necessary.
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232	Results
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234	Negative effects of the simulated winter warming events on net photosynthesis (NP) were still
235	evident in <i>Hylocomium splendens</i> in the summers 3-4 years after the last simulated event, i.e.
236	in 2012 and 2013 (Fig. 1a). The average reduction from controls was 32 $\%$ in 2012 and 30 $\%$
237	in 2013, whilst in 2009, the summer after the last winter warming event, the reduction was 44
238	%.
239	Even if NP of both treatments (warming and control) reached minimum rates in 2009
240	(Fig. 1a), pairwise comparisons show that NP in controls did not vary in time, except for the
241	pair 2009 and 2012 ($P = 0.010$). The only between-year differences for NP in warmed plots
242	were that 2009 had lower values than the other years ($P < 0.033$).
243	The warming events did not affect chlorophyll fluorescence in any of the years, but
244	fluorescence increased steadily with time ($P < 0.001$) and was 26 % higher in 2013 than in
245	2007 (Fig. 1b).
246	In the years following the experimental period, second-year segments of the warmed
247	plots were significantly smaller than segments from the controls (Fig. 2). In 2013, segments
248	from the warmed plots were 36 % shorter (Fig. 2a) and 25 % narrower (Fig. 2b) than the
249	control samples. The highest relative reduction was found in 2009 after the third winter
250	warming event when segments were 43 % shorter and 38 % narrower.

251	Segment length in the warmed plots increased by 27-52 % from the two last years of
252	manipulation (2008-2009) to the recovery years of 2011 and 2013 and became more similar to
253	the length of controls (Fig. 2a). However, segments were still 25 % shorter in the last recovery
254	year than in the first year of manipulation (2007 vs. 2013: $P = 0.001$). Segment size also
255	varied in control plots, but with few significant between-year differences (Fig. 2).
256	The length-to-width ratio varied much between years (Fig. 2c). Treatment effects on this
257	ratio were minor and only significant in two of the six years (2008 and 2013). Width and
258	length were correlated both for controls and warmed plot samples, and regression lines have
259	almost identical slopes and intercepts, but many samples deviated much from the general
260	trend, rendering relatively low correlations (Fig. 3).
261	The right sides of segments were 3.8 % narrower than the left sides (paired samples
262	from all years and treatments: $t = 3.65$, $P < 0.001$). There was no treatment effect on R–L
263	(repeated-measures ANOVA: treatment: $F = 1.26$, $P = 0.280$; time: $F = 0.37$, $P = 0.772$; time
264	× treatment: $F = 0.43$, $P = 0.733$; data not shown).
265	The FA index varied between years and treatments (Fig. 4). The canopy and
266	canopy+soil warming treatments showed contrasting trends and were therefore not pooled. In
267	2007, moss segments from the canopy warming treatment had higher asymmetry than from
268	the soil and canopy warming treatment, but none of those differed from controls. The only
269	time when one of the warming treatments differed from controls was in 2009 when mosses
270	from the soil and canopy warming treatment were 44 % more asymmetric than mosses from
271	the controls.
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275 **Discussion**

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This is the first study to determine the effects of winter warming events on a common and 277 278 important moss species, both immediately after the events and in the recovery years that followed. We did not find support for the hypothesis that the negative effects of the warming 279 280 treatment would disappear in the years following the experimental period, as photosynthesis 281 and segment growth rates remained lower compared to control plots even four years after the final winter warming event simulation. These persistent impacts on physiology and segment 282 growth following the extreme winter warming events suggest that H. splendens may be 283 284 disadvantaged in a future sub-Arctic climate where high frequency of winter warming events 285 may become the norm. More broadly, this suggests the potential for large consequences for 286 high-latitude systems where bryophytes are often a major component and where the greatest increases in extreme winter events may be expected (Bjerke et al. 2014), and where they can 287 288 have a strong influence on ground temperature and moisture, evapotranspiration, cycling of 289 nutrients and water, permafrost thaw and ecosystem carbon balance (Turetsky et al. 2012). 290 Size of new clonal shoots and segments of *H. splendens* is strongly size-dependent (Økland 1995); viz. developing shoots and segments receive limited nutrients from small 291 292 mother individuals. Hence, new shoots and segments have limited abilities to grow larger than their mother shoots/segments. This may be a primary reason for the persistent difference 293 294 between size and photosynthetic rates of previously damaged shoots in warmed plots and

undamaged shoots in control plots.

High chlorophyll fluorescence rates in the warmed plots during all study years show
that intact photosynthesizing cells were highly active, even in shoots with retarded growth and
reduced photosynthesis. The decoupling of photosynthesis and chlorophyll fluorescence
indicates that only certain parts of the segments were stressed, and that the unaffected parts

continued to photosynthesize at normal rates. This suggests an on-or-off mechanism whereby 300 301 in affected cells, the photosynthetic apparatus is badly damaged and turned off thereby not emitting any chlorophyll signal, while in unaffected cells, photosynthesis continues as normal 302 303 and makes up the entire chlorophyll signal detected by the fluorometer. The observed decoupling of photosynthesis and fluorescence rates has been seen in other stress studies, 304 though these are not well understood (e.g. Taulavuori et al. 2000; Nabe et al. 2007; Granath, 305 Wiedermann & Strengbom 2009). Chlorophyll fluorescence imaging (Chen et al. 2015) could 306 307 render further insight into this decoupling.

We did not find support for the hypothesis that retarded segment growth would be 308 309 associated with increasing asymmetry, as even the most stressed shoots of *H. splendens* showed only modest developmental instability, as measured by the FA index. This may 310 largely be due to the directional asymmetry of segment width, with left sides being inherently 311 312 wider than right sides. Instead of increasing asymmetry with increasing stress, both width and length were equally reduced in stressed shoots. It may be that FA indices developed for 313 314 vascular plant leaves and other organisms (Palmer & Strobeck 1992, 2003; Kozlov et al. 315 1996) do not work well for mosses. More moss species under variable stress regimes should be studied to test if FA is a useful indicator of stress for mosses. It is unknown if different 316 types of moss meristem result in contrasting symmetry responses to stress. Traits not showing 317 directional asymmetry should in such case be searched for (Palmer & Strobeck 2003). In 318 addition, the ratio of monopodial to sympodial segments could be studied to detect the 319 environmental effects on these two contrasting growth forms that co-occur but vary in ratios 320 321 between sub- and high-Arctic areas (Ross et al. 2001).

Despite the adverse effects of experimental winter warming, the abundance of *H. splendens* did not change during the years of manipulations (Bokhorst *et al.* 2011), but increased during the recovery years by 50 % compared to the starting conditions of 2007

(Bokhorst et al. 2015). The increase in moss cover was assumed to be driven by optimal 325 326 moisture conditions due to increased rainfall during the growing seasons, nutrient input from frass from the large caterpillar outbreak and increasing open space following the severe 327 328 caterpillar-induced dieback of dwarf shrubs (Bokhorst et al. 2015). Chlorophyll fluorescence and segment length in both warmed and control plots increased from the years of 329 manipulation (2008-2009) to the last recovery year (2013). Although the difference between 330 331 NP of controls and warmed plots was high in all years, absolute values varied much between years, which probably was caused by variation in moisture and temperature in the days prior 332 to analysis (Bjerke et al. 2011, 2013). NP measured once per season may therefore not be a 333 334 good trait for between-year comparisons, but still, it is likely that the increase from 2009 to 2012 for both treatments was driven by increasing precipitation rates. We conclude that our a 335 *posteriori* hypothesis that *H. splendens* would benefit from the caterpillar outbreaks and the 336 337 increasing precipitation rates was partly supported. It is also noted though, that while the shrub damage from E. autumnata should create conditions conducive to H. splendens 338 339 recovery, the recovery in segment growth was relatively modest and may well have been even 340 weaker had the shrub canopy not been removed by the caterpillar outbreak.

Other multi-year studies also report on recent increases in H. splendens, and these 341 studies may contribute to elucidate the drivers of increasing cover, chlorophyll fluorescence 342 and segment length. At another birch forest site near our field study, H. splendens showed 343 some indications of increases in cover from 1991 to 2009 (Callaghan et al. 2013), while mat-344 forming mosses show an increasing trend at Norwegian forest monitoring sites (Aarrestad et 345 al. 2014; Framstad 2015). This has been assumed to be due to delayed onset of snow season, 346 which provides opportunity for moss growth in autumn after vascular plant growth has ceased 347 (Framstad 2015). Hylocomium splendens shows high photosynthetic activity at temperatures 348 between 0 and 5 °C at relatively low light intensities (Sonesson, Gehrke & Tjus 1992; Bjerke 349

et al. 2013). Other cryptogams also take advantage of mild autumns (Bjerke et al. 2013; Lund 350 351 et al. 2014). Thus, warmer and longer autumns may in fact stimulate cryptogams more than vascular plants, and this may drive vegetation changes that contrast to what is expected based 352 353 on the results of summer warming simulations that do not extend into the autumn. In Abisko, September was 1.5 °C warmer during the years from 2011 to 2013 than during the 354 experimental years. Thus, it may be that autumn weather in the years after the simulated 355 356 winter warming events also contributed to the increases in segment growth, chlorophyll 357 fluorescence and cover.

Framstad (2015) also hypothesizes that rodent outbreaks facilitate moss growth through thinning of the vascular plant cover and denudation of soil. Near our experimental field site, there have been recent outbreaks of rodents (Callaghan *et al.* 2013). However, we have not observed rodent activity within our field plots, thus rodents do not seem to have played a role in the increase of cryptogams there.

Overall, this study has demonstrated that the widespread and important moss *H. splendens* is likely to be significantly impacted by winter warming events. Moreover, it is of concern that the damage to photosynthesis and segment growth persisted even four years after the last event and that these legacy effects remained of similar magnitude to the responses immediately after the events. Such impacts may ultimately affect important ecosystem functions given the importance of mosses for these, including ecosystem carbon balance, in high-latitude regions.

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384	
385	Data accessibility
386	All data used in this manuscript are present here.
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539 **Tables and Figures**

540

541 Legends

542

Table 1. Monthly precipitation rates (mm) of summers (June-July) during the experimental
period (2007-2009) and during the following years (2010-2013).

545

Fig. 1. Ecophysiological performance of *Hylocomium splendens* in the growing seasons 546 following the simulated winter warming events (2007-2009) and during the summers 3-4 547 years after the last winter warming event (2012-2013). (a) Net photosynthetic rates at optimal 548 water content (treatment: F = 38.08, P < 0.001, time: F = 3.75, P = 0.008, treatment × time: F 549 = 0.45, P = 0.771; (b) photosystem II efficiency of dark-adapted samples (treatment: F =550 551 3.66, P = 0.077, time: F = 26.56, P < 0.001, treatment × time: F = 0.225, P = 0.923), n = 4-6per treatment and time combination (some plots with low abundance and hence not sampled 552 553 in all occasions). Treatment years are left and recovery years right of the dashed vertical line. Error bars are ± 1 SE. Asterisks indicate treatment effects: * = P < 0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = 554 P < 0.001. Letters placed on bars reflect time differences within the control (black letters) and 555 warming (white letters) treatments, respectively. Bars sharing the same letter are not 556 significantly different. 557

558

Fig. 2. Size of second-year shoot segments of *Hylocomium splendens* measured in the growing seasons following the winter warming events (2007-2009) and during the summers 1, 2 and 4 years after the last winter warming event (2010, 2011 and 2013). (a) Segment length (treatment: F = 53.78, P < 0.001, time: F = 11.98, P < 0.001, treatment × time: F = 3.23, P =0.011). (b) Segment width (treatment: F = 51.42, P < 0.001, time: F = 7.77, P < 0.001,

treatment × time: F = 2.30, P = 0.052). (c) Length-to-width ratio (treatment: F = 0.51, P =564 0.485, time: F = 8.69, P < 0.001, treatment × time: F = 1.67, P = 0.151). n = 4-6 per 565 treatment and time combination (some plots with low abundance and hence not sampled in all 566 occasions). Treatment years are left and recovery years right of the dashed vertical line. Error 567 bars are ± 1 SE. Asterisks indicate treatment effects: * = P < 0.05; ** = P < 0.01; *** = P < 0.01; 568 0.001. Letters placed on bars reflect time differences within the control (black letters) and 569 warming (white letters) treatments, respectively. Bars sharing the same letter are not 570 571 significantly different. 572

Fig. 3. Relationship between length and width of second-year shoot segments. Shoots from (a) control plots ($r^2 = 0.38$, P < 0.001), and (b) winter warming simulation plots ($r^2 = 0.37$, P< 0.001).

576

Fig. 4. Fluctuating asymmetry of second-year shoot segments of *Hylocomium splendens* measured on dried samples from the growing seasons following the winter warming events (2007-2009) and from the growing season 2 years after the last winter warming event (2011) (treatment F = 2.20, P = 0.150, time: F = 1.27, P = 0.297, time × treatment: F = 2.59, P =0.033). n = 6 for each treatment. Treatment years are left and recovery years right of the dashed vertical line. Error bars are ±1 SE. Different letters indicate significant differences (P< 0.05) between treatments. n.s. = not significant.

Table 1.

Period	June	July	June-July
2007	14	47	60
2008	55	33	88
2009	16	18	34
Mean 2007-2009	28	33	60
2010	45	52	96
2011	62	46	108
2012	30	94	123
2013	40	76	116
Mean 2011-2013	44	76	116
Increase from 2007-2009 to 2011-2013 (%)	55	121	91

Fig. 1.

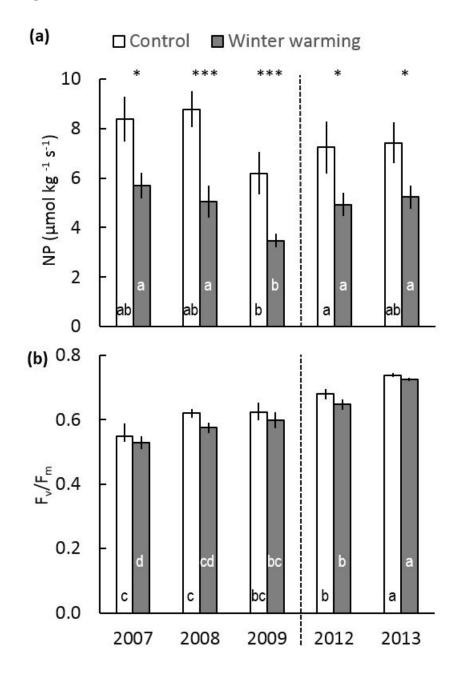


Fig. 2

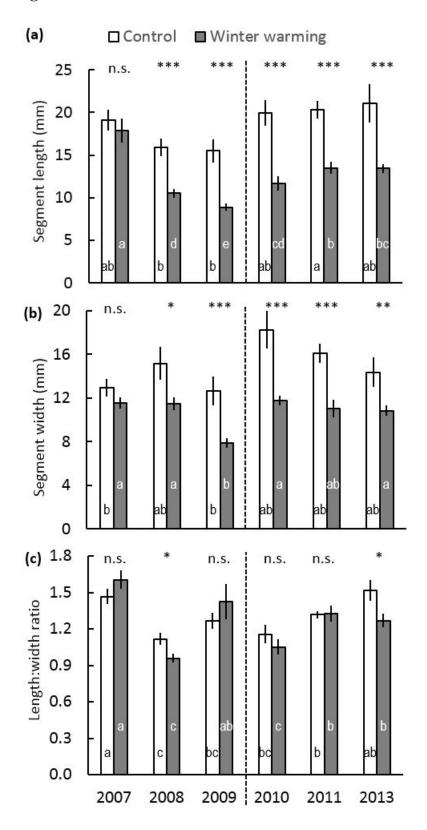
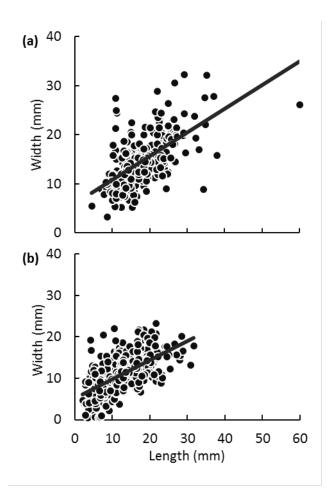
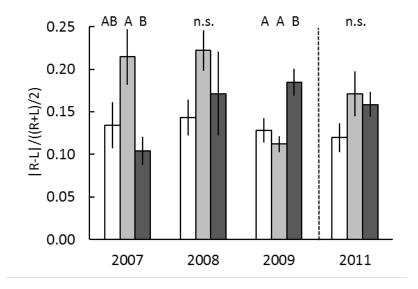


Fig. 3





 \square Control \blacksquare Canopy warming \blacksquare Soil and Canopy warming