| 1 | Biodegradability of dissolved organic carbon in permafrost soils and aquatic |
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| 2 | systems: a meta-analysis. |
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22 ABSTRACT

23 As Arctic regions warm and frozen soils thaw, the large organic carbon pool stored in 24 permafrost becomes increasingly vulnerable to decomposition or transport. The transfer of newly mobilized carbon to the atmosphere and its potential influence upon 25 climate change will largely depend on the degradability of carbon delivered to aquatic 26 27 ecosystems. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is a key regulator of aquatic metabolism, yet knowledge of the mechanistic controls on DOC biodegradability is 28 currently poor due to a scarcity of long-term data sets, limited spatial coverage of 29 30 available data, and methodological diversity. Here, we performed parallel biodegradable DOC (BDOC) experiments at six Arctic sites (16 experiments) using a 31 32 standardized incubation protocol to examine the effect of methodological differences commonly used in the literature. We also synthesized results from 14 aquatic and soil 33 leachate BDOC studies from across the circum-arctic permafrost region to examine 34 35 pan-Arctic trends in BDOC.

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37 An increasing extent of permafrost across the landscape resulted in higher DOC losses in both soil and aquatic systems. We hypothesize that the unique composition 38 of (yedoma) permafrost-derived DOC combined with limited prior microbial 39 40 processing due to low soil temperature and relatively short flow path lengths and transport times, contributed to a higher overall terrestrial and freshwater DOC loss. 41 Additionally, we found that the fraction of BDOC decreased moving down the fluvial 42 network in continuous permafrost regions, i.e. from streams to large rivers, suggesting 43 that highly biodegradable DOC is lost in headwater streams. We also observed a 44 seasonal (Jan - Dec) decrease in BDOC in large streams and rivers, but saw no 45 apparent change in smaller streams or soil leachates. We attribute this seasonal 46 change to a combination of factors including shifts in carbon source, changing DOC 47 48 residence time related to increasing thaw-depth, increasing water temperatures later in 49 the summer, as well as decreasing hydrologic connectivity between soils and surface water as the thaw season progresses. Our results suggest that future, climate warming-50 induced shifts of continuous permafrost into discontinuous permafrost regions could 51 affect the degradation potential of thaw-released DOC, the amount of BDOC, as well 52 53 as its variability throughout the Arctic summer. We lastly recommend a standardized 54 BDOC protocol to facilitate the comparison of future work and improve our knowledge of processing and transport of DOC in a changing Arctic. 55

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59 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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61 Boreal and Arctic ecosystems contain more than half of global terrestrial organic carbon (Tarnocai et al., 2009; Hugelius et al., 2014), part of which will be vulnerable 62 to microbial processing and release to the atmosphere by the end of the century 63 (Slater et al., 2013; Schaefer et al., 2014; IPCC 2013). At high latitudes, ecosystem 64 65 carbon balance depends largely on aquatic processes (Kling et al., 1992; Striegl et al., 2012; Vonk and Gustafsson, 2013) with lakes, wetlands, rivers, and streams covering 66 more than half of the land surface in many regions (McGuire et al., 2009; Loveland et 67 al., 2000; Lammers et al., 2001; Aufdenkampe et al., 2011; Avis et al., 2011). 68 69 However, little is known about mechanistic controls on persistence or processing of 70 organic carbon currently flowing through Arctic watersheds (Mann et al., 2012, Wickland et al., 2012), and even less is known about the behavior of permafrost-71 72 derived organic carbon that is delivered to arctic freshwater and marine ecosystems (Cory et al., 2013, Vonk and Gustafsson 2013). 73

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Arctic watersheds transport an average of 34 Tg C yr⁻¹ of dissolved organic carbon 75 (DOC) and 6 Tg C yr⁻¹ of particulate organic carbon (POC) to the Arctic Ocean 76 (Holmes et al., 2012; McGuire et al., 2009), not including fluxes from coastal erosion. 77 78 Though no model projections of future circum-arctic hydrologic carbon flux exist, a 79 few recent studies predict that organic carbon loading to the circum-arctic watershed may increase in the future (Abbott et al., in review; Laudon et al., 2012; Kicklighter et 80 al., 2013). However, observed patterns of changes in hydrological carbon loading in 81 82 permafrost regions are inconsistent, with increases in DOC export from areas with 83 extensive peat deposits (Frey and McClelland, 2009), but decreases in dischargenormalized DOC export in other regions, due to increasing flow path lengths, and 84 85 increased mineralization in soils (McClelland et al., 2007; Petrone et al., 2006; Striegl et al., 2005; Tank et al., 2012). Furthermore, conflicting patterns of DOC 86 biodegradability exist with respect to seasonality and permafrost extent (Kawahigashi 87 et al., 2004; Striegl et al., 2005; Holmes et al., 2008; Balcarczyk et al., 2009; Frey and 88 McClelland 2009; Vonk et al., 2013b; Abbott et al., 2014; Larouche et al., 2015). The 89 90 scarcity of long-term data as well as a lack of conceptualization of the processes 91 controlling DOC transport and processing represent an important source of uncertainty in the permafrost-regional carbon balance. 92

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94 In both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, much of the overall carbon mineralization takes place in the dissolved form, since part of the DOC is composed of lower 95 molecular weight compounds that can be directly transported across microbial cell 96 97 membranes (Battin et al., 2008), though particulate matter provides surface area for bacterial attachment in aquatic ecosystems (del Giorgio and Pace, 2008). 98 99 Biodegradable DOC (BDOC), therefore, is a key regulator of ecosystem metabolism in general and the rate of permafrost carbon release to the atmosphere specifically 100 (Holmes et al., 2008; Mann et al., 2012; Wickland et al., 2012; Abbott et al., 2014). 101

While promising proxies of BDOC have been identified, including optical signatures, 102 molecular characteristics and nutrient concentrations (Balcarczyk et al., 2009, 103 Wickland et al., 2012; Abbott et al., 2014), BDOC is typically assessed through 104 incubation experiments, representing a simple metric of microbial uptake and 105 mineralization. Throughout this study we will use BDOC as a measure of DOC 106 biodegradability. While incubation experiments carried out in the laboratory do not 107 necessarily reflect in situ DOC biodegradability due to many differences including 108 109 temperature, light, and microbial community, they provide a useful relative measure 110 of the reactivity of different types of DOC. Most studies measure BDOC through: (i) production of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), (ii) consumption of DOC, or (iii) 111 consumption of O₂ (McDowell et al., 2006). While these methods can give 112 comparable results, differences in experimental factors can directly influence the 113 quantification of BDOC, including duration of incubation, temperature, light 114 exposure, type of filtration, and the addition of bacterial inoculum. While this 115 methodological diversity complicates direct comparison of BDOC measurements 116 from across the Arctic permafrost-region, it also represents an opportunity to identify 117 fundamental controls on DOC processing. 118

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We synthesized results from 14 BDOC studies within the Arctic Ocean watershed 120 representing a total of 551 individual incubations to identify controls and patterns of 121 122 DOC biodegradability across spatial and temporal scales (section 2.1). Based on 123 findings from these studies we developed a standard incubation method, which we tested on water from soils, streams, and rivers from throughout the permafrost region 124 and across seasons (section 2.2). We examined the role of seasonality, permafrost 125 extent, and incubation design (effect of inoculation) on metrics of BDOC and 126 127 recommend a protocol for future BDOC incubations. A meta-analysis of the combined results of our standardized circum-arctic incubations and literature 128 synthesis allowed us to identify temporal and landscape-scale patterns in BDOC 129 across Arctic regions. This study represents the first to include both soils (soil 130 131 leachates) and aquatic systems (streams, lakes, rivers) to explore geographical and seasonal patterns of BDOC in the Arctic. 132

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134 2. METHODS

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136 **<u>2.1</u>** Literature synthesis

We gathered and analyzed data from permafrost-region BDOC studies that met the following criteria: 1. Located in the Arctic Ocean watershed (including the Yukon River watershed); 2. Used DIC production (CO₂ evasion) or DOC loss over time to assess biodegradability (we excluded studies based on O₂ loss due to complicating factors such as respiratory coefficients); and 3. Incubation was performed in the dark to avoid autotrophic effects or photodegradation.

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A total of 14 studies with experimental data on BDOC were found (Michaelson et al., 144 1998; Kawahigashi et al., 2004; Wickland et al., 2007; 2012; Holmes et al., 2008; 145 Balcarczyk et al., 2009; Roehm et al., 2009; Kiikkilä et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2012; 146 Olefeldt et al., 2013a and 2013b; Vonk et al., 2013a and 2013b; Abbott et al., 2014). 147 All time steps from the incubations were treated as single data points, thus not just the 148 final DOC loss (e.g. if DOC concentration was measured at days 2, 7, and 14, we 149 included the three points individually). We categorized the data (Table 1 and Fig. 2) 150 by permafrost zone (no permafrost, discontinuous, or continuous), seasonality (day of 151 152 year), filter pore size (0.22, 0.45, or 0.7 μ m), BDOC method (DIC production or DOC loss), incubation time/duration (days), incubation temperature, use of inorganic 153 nutrient additions (yes or no), sample agitation during the incubation (yes or no), 154 incubation bottle size (ranging from 40 to 3000 mL), inoculum addition at start of 155 experiment (yes or no), and oxygen availability (for soil incubations: oxic or anoxic; 156 all aquatic incubations were performed oxic). When an incubation was performed at 157 "room temperature" we assumed 20°C. For watersheds crossing permafrost 158 boundaries we chose the spatially-dominant permafrost type. We sorted the data into 159 soil leachate and aquatic incubations, with subclasses (for our categorical purposes) 160 for the aquatic data: "lakes", "streams" (<250 km²), "large streams" (250 km² to 161 25,000 km²), "rivers" (25,000 km² to 500,000 km²) and "large rivers" (>500,000 km²). 162

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2.2 Circum-arctic standardized incubation experiment

In June to September of 2013 we performed BDOC experiments with leachates from 165 three soil cores (from near Toolik Field Station, Alaska), water from two streams 166 (Richardson Creek, Alaska; Y3, Siberia), and water from three major Arctic rivers 167 (Yukon, Mackenzie and Kolyma Rivers; Fig. 1). Soil leachates were performed by 168 adding 500 mL DI water to soil volumes of ca. 2 L, letting this stand for 24 hours, and 169 170 extracting using a pore water sampler measuring total leachate volume extracted. Water samples were collected from the surface in pre-cleaned, pre-rinsed containers 171 and transported (dark and cool) to filtration facilities within 12 hours. We developed 172 173 an incubation methodology adapted for implementation at remote field sites to assure applicability to future work. 174

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We measured DOC loss over time rather than O₂ loss or DIC production, as it did not 176 require specialized supplies or instrumentation in the field. All samples were filtered 177 178 through pre-combusted Whatman GF/F filters (nominal pore size 0.7 µm), which are commonly used throughout the literature and can be pre-cleaned through combustion 179 $(450^{\circ}\text{C} > 4\text{hrs})$. We set up triplicate incubations with three different treatments to test 180 the effects of bacterial inoculation: (1) no inoculum, (2) 1% inoculum by volume, (3) 181 182 10% inoculum by volume. Inocula consisted of 1.2 µm filtered water (using precombusted ($450^{\circ}C > 4hrs$) Whatman GF/C filters, 1.2 µm nominal pore size) that was 183 added to sample waters (filtered at 0.7 µm) to the specified ratio. 184

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We added 30 ml aliquots of sample into pre-combusted ($550^{\circ}C > 4hrs$) 40 mL glass incubation vials and stored them at 20°C in the dark, with no nutrient amendment. To

ensure oxic conditions we left vial caps loose and shook samples once a day. The 188 incubated samples were re-filtered through 0.7 µm filters (using pre-combusted glass 189 filter tower units with 25 mm GF/F filters or a cleaned syringe filter assembly) to 190 remove flocculation after 0, 2, 7, 14 and 28 days (using separate vials, in triplicate, for 191 each time step). Re-filtration removes the majority of the microbial biomass, resulting 192 in a measured DOC loss including both DOC mineralization and assimilation. 193 194 Samples were immediately acidified with 30µL of concentrated HCl (high quality grade; to pH \leq 2). Acidified sample vials were capped and stored refrigerated in the 195 196 dark until analysis within three months. At the time of analysis, acidified samples 197 were sparged with CO₂ free air for 8 minutes at 75 mL/min and run as non-purgable organic carbon (NPOC) on either a Shimadzu TOC-V or TOC-L analyzer. DOC was 198 199 calculated as the mean of between three and seven injections and the coefficient of 200 variance was always <2%. BDOC is reported in percent loss at time point x (2, 7, 14) or 28 days) according to: 201

(1)

 $BDOC(\%)_{T=x} = ((DOC_{T=0} - DOC_{T=x}) / DOC_{T=0}) * 100\%$

202 203

204 2.3 Statistical analyses

205 We combined the literature meta-analysis of 14 papers (n=551) with data from our circum-arctic incubation experiment (n=192). Each of the studies identified used 206 different methods for assessing BDOC, complicating and limiting possible analyses. 207 To examine trends across the total dataset (n = 743) we performed categorical 208 209 principle component analysis (CATPCA) via optimal scaling. This approach allowed us to compare the effect of multiple variables with mixed measurement levels (scalar, 210 nominal, ordinal). We then performed a standard principle component analysis (PCA) 211 using the optimally-scaled results to aid in data interpretation. Data normality was 212 assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test (p > 0.05). The data were normal and did not 213 require transformation. Separate CATPCA and PCA analyses were performed on the 214 aquatic and soil leachate datasets, as well as for methodological and environmental 215 parameters (Table 1). Validity of each PCA was tested using the Barlett tests of 216 217 sphericity (p < 0.001) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy. Direct oblimin rotation was applied and rotated scores used throughout, allowing for 218 correlation between scores (Manisera et al., 2010). CATPCA runs assigned measures 219 from scalar data (initial DOC, BDOC (%), latitude, longitude, Julian day, bottle size, 220 incubation time, and incubation temperature), nominal data (method of C loss, 221 222 shaking, nutrient addition, inoculum, oxygen availability, location in fluvial network) 223 and ordinal data (filter pore size, and permafrost extent). We considered final rotated PCA correlations of >0.7 as strong, between 0.5 and 0.7 as moderate, and <0.5 as 224 225 weak or absent (Quinn and Keough, 2002). Although this approach has drawbacks, in 226 our opinion it proved the most representative methodology given the diverse dataset which included repeated measures (i.e. multiple time points) of BDOC (Bradlow et 227 al., 2002). Additionally, we combined data from all studies carried out with 228 incubation temperatures between 15-25°C and with incubation durations between 28-229 230 34 days, which represented the most common temperature and duration in the metaanalysis, to test for environmental trends (Fig. 3, 4, 5). Here we tested for differences 231

among means using analysis of variance (ANOVA). All ANOVA, CATPCA, andPCA analyses were conducted in SPSS 22.

234

235 **3. Results**

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237 <u>3.1 Literature synthesis</u>

238 The 14 literature studies comprised a total of 551 data points of which 418 were aquatic. Most studies were located in North America (242 data points in Alaska, USA 239 and 227 in Canada; Fig. 2a), and from regions either without permafrost (234), or 240 with continuous permafrost (230; Fig. 2c). The most common incubation 241 temperatures were 17.5 or 20°C (41% and 36% of the data, respectively; Fig. 2d). The 242 majority of studies (60% of data) used 0.7 µm glass fiber filters to determine DOC 243 244 (Fig. 2f). Half of the BDOC assays were incubated for between 14 and 40 days (Fig. 2e). Furthermore, most incubations in our synthesis were started after addition of an 245 inoculum as described in the individual studies (80% of aquatic incubations, 97% of 246 247 soil leachate incubations).

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249 **<u>3.2</u>** Methodological factors affecting BDOC

250 To examine the effects of inoculum addition and inoculum concentration on BDOC, we compared mean BDOC across our circum-arctic standardized incubation 251 experiment (no inoculum, 1% and 10% inoculum; n = 40 per treatment). Amount of 252 253 inoculum (1% or 10%) had no effect on the proportion of BDOC (ANOVA, p > 0.9). As the degree of inoculation had no clear systematic effect on BDOC loss (see also 254 methodological PCA results; 3.2.1) we grouped all inoculated data (independent of 255 256 concentration), and all non-inoculated data during our ANOVA and environmental PCA analyses. In the sections below we examine the patterns present in the combined 257 258 analysis of aquatic and soil literature results, including our circum-arctic incubation 259 experiments.

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261 <u>3.2.1 Aquatic BDOC</u>

262 Three principle components together explained 81% of the variance among all aquatic incubation samples (PC1 = 46%, PC2 = 23%, PC3 = 12%; Table 2). The first 263 component did not correlate with BDOC but correlated positively with shaking during 264 incubation (r = 0.97), the method used to measure DOC loss (r = 0.91), incubation 265 temperature (r = 0.84), and correlated negatively with bottle size (r = -0.77) and 266 presence of inoculum (r = -0.51). Component 2 also did not explain much variation in 267 BDOC, but correlated with filter pore size (r = 0.90), nutrient addition (r = 0.90), and 268 269 the use of inoculum (r = 0.64). Component 3 explained the greatest proportion of 270 BDOC variance (r = -0.83). Component 3 also closely correlated with incubation time (r = -0.85) and displayed a negative correlation with bottle size (r = 0.54). Effect of 271 272 oxygen availability was not examined in aquatic incubations, as all previously published experiments were conducted under oxic conditions. 273

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275 <u>3.2.2 Soil leachate BDOC</u>

Three principle components explained 72% of the variance across all soil incubation 276 samples (PC1 = 34%, PC2 = 21%, PC3 = 16%; Table 2). Component 1 was strongly 277 correlated with BDOC loss (r = 0.75), as well as the availability of oxygen in 278 incubations (r = 0.94), the method used to measure carbon loss (r = 0.87) and whether 279 samples were shaken during incubation (r = 0.73). Neither component 2 nor 3 closely 280 correlated with BDOC, but component 2 correlated positively with incubation time (r281 = 0.88), filter pore size (r = 0.74) and temperature (r = 0.54), and component 3 was 282 283 positively correlated to bottle size (r = 0.74), and inoculum (r = 0.57) and negatively related to temperature (r = -0.66) and shaking (r = -0.57). 284

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286 **<u>3.3 Environmental factors affecting BDOC</u>**

Similar to section 3.2, here we present the statistical results of the fully grouped dataset (i.e. inoculated and non-inoculated literature synthesis data, combined with the circum-arctic incubation experiment data), concentrating on how environmental variables co-vary with BDOC losses.

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292 <u>3.3.1 Aquatic BDOC</u>

Three components explained 82% of the total variance among environmental 293 parameters from all aquatic incubations (PC1 = 52%, PC2 = 18%, PC3 = 13%; Table 294 3). The first component was moderately correlated with BDOC (r = 0.51) and 295 296 strongly correlated with location within the fluvial network (r = 0.95), dominant permafrost type (r = 0.94; greater BDOC in continuous permafrost regions, see also 297 Fig. 3a), sample latitude (r = 0.93), and initial DOC (r = -0.70). The second 298 component was strongly negatively correlated with BDOC (r = -0.71), and was 299 explained by sample longitude (r = 0.78). The third component did not correlate to 300 BDOC but showed a strong correlation with sampling period (Julian day; r = 0.95). 301

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303 <u>3.3.2 Soil leachate BDOC</u>

Two components explained 77% of the variance in environmental parameters across soil leachate incubations (PC1 = 55%, PC2 = 22%; Table 3). BDOC was most closely correlated to component 1 (r = 0.81), which was associated with latitude (r = 0.97) and dominant permafrost type (r = 0.96; greater BDOC in continuous permafrost regions; see also Fig. 3b), and initial DOC (r = -0.83). The second component did not correlate with BDOC but was positively correlated to longitude (r = 0.79) and sampling period (Julian day; r = 0.78).

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312 **4. DISCUSSION**

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314 4.1 Methodological factors influencing BDOC

Aquatic BDOC losses only showed a strong correlation with incubation time, with higher total BDOC observed in longer experiments (Table 2). This is not surprising yet does point out that the length of the incubation set-up will ultimately be a primary factor determining the BDOC (%), and thus the importance of this consideration for comparison among studies. Despite total DOC loss increasing with longer incubation time, the rate of DOC loss decreases over time.

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Soil leachate BDOC was not clearly affected by incubation time across experiments 322 (Table 2). We suggest that the effects of incubation time may have been masked by 323 multiple additional methodological factors significantly influencing the soil BDOC 324 experiments in particular. For example, the presence of O₂ within incubations or 325 326 regular bottle shaking appeared to play a crucial role in soil BDOC losses (Table 2). As soil extractions typically have higher initial DOC concentrations (despite some 327 degree of dilution applied in the experiment), they may be more susceptible to oxygen 328 drawdown, increasing the importance of regular bottle shaking. Also, the method of 329 assessing carbon loss appeared to play a critical role in the amount of BDOC 330 measured during soil incubations, but not so clearly in aquatic experiments. This 331 332 finding contradicts with the finding of McDowell et al. (2006) that found largely 333 comparable results between available methods. We compared different methods conducted on different samples, which may explain our contrasting findings. 334

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4.2 Environmental factors influencing BDOC

338 4.2.1 Permafrost extent and longitude

339 Aquatic and soil BDOC losses were significantly lower in regions without permafrost than in discontinuous or continuous permafrost regions (Fig. 3). This could be 340 explained by shallower hydrologic flow paths in permafrost-affected regions, which 341 would constrain water flow, and DOC origin, to relatively shallow soils. Or, 342 alternatively, the unique dissolved organic matter (DOM) composition of yedoma 343 permafrost (Abbott et al., 2014; Spencer et al., 2015), containing high levels of 344 aliphatics and carbohydrates, could allow for more rapid degradation after thaw. 345 Yedoma permafrost occupies a part of the continuous permafrost domain and its 346 347 unique composition will therefore contribute to the composition of the DOC release from continuous permafrost. Furthermore, permafrost DOM is relatively well-348 preserved due to limited processing of organic carbon in soils under long-term frozen 349 conditions (Khvorostyanov et al., 2008; Schuur et al., 2008), though permafrost-350 derived DOC still shows signs of processing (Wickland et al., 2012; Abbott et al., 351 352 2014). Continuous permafrost regions thus seem to receive relatively well-preserved, unique DOC into soil leachates and aquatic systems leading to higher losses, whereas 353 discontinuous permafrost regions and regions without permafrost receive DOC that 354 355 has already been subject to some degree of degradation. The presence of permafrost 356 also impacts hydrological flowpaths and transport times, which may result in more efficient delivery of relatively less-processed terrestrial DOC to aquatic systems 357 (Striegl et al., 2005; Walvoord et al., 2012). Alternatively, preferential sorption of 358 specific compounds, freeze-thaw effects, or sub-zero metabolism in permafrost could 359 increase DOC biodegradability (Abbott et al., 2014 and references therein). The 360 difference in BDOC with permafrost extent is stronger in soils than in aquatic systems 361

(Table 3, Fig. 3), likely attributable to a fresher, less altered permafrost DOC
signature in soils compared to aquatic DOC that has already undergone some
processing. Newly leached DOC from yedoma permafrost soils, representing part of
our continuous permafrost soil data (Fig. 1), will be subject to more rapid degradation
(Spencer et al., 2015).

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Aquatic BDOC was negatively correlated with longitude. Judging from the prevailing 368 geographical regions in the dataset (Fig. 1) this suggests that aquatic BDOC in Alaska 369 370 and Canada was on average higher than in Eastern Siberia. This could be related to a combination of the spatial spread in our dataset with the distribution of yedoma. 371 Yedoma is Pleistocene-aged permafrost (Zimov et al., 2006) predominantly present in 372 northeast Siberia, but also in Alaska and NW Canada (Kanevskiy et al., 2011) that 373 releases extremely biolabile DOC upon thaw (BDOC between 40-65% after 30-40 374 days of incubation, Vonk et al., 2013b; Abbott et al., 2014). In our meta-analysis, 375 most of the aquatic BDOC incubations with yedoma-derived DOC are located in 376 377 Alaska, which could explain the longitudinal pattern.

378

379 <u>4.2.2 Patterns within the fluvial network</u>

In continuous permafrost regions, aquatic BDOC changes within the fluvial network 380 (Fig. 4). Here, large rivers (defined as watersheds larger than 500,000 km²) showed 381 significantly lower BDOC than streams, large streams, and rivers. We should note 382 here that streams (<250km², n=149) and large rivers (>500,000 km², n=60) are 383 overrepresented in the continuous permafrost dataset, when compared to large streams 384 $(250 - 25,000 \text{km}^2, n=46)$ and rivers $(25,000-500,000 \text{km}^2, n=18)$. Nevertheless, this 385 suggests that continuous permafrost regions may release DOC that degrades more 386 rapidly with the movement from headwaters to larger rivers in the fluvial network 387 than DOC that is released from discontinuous permafrost regions or regions without 388 permafrost. Pleistocene yedoma could be such a source, as its strong degradation 389 potential (Vonk et al., 2013a: 2013b; Abbott et al., 2014) leads to preferential 390 391 utilization in headwater streams (Mann et al., 2015; Spencer et al., 2015).

- 392
- 393 <u>4.2.3 Seasonality</u>

BDOC decreased with Julian day for large streams, rivers and large rivers (Fig. 5c) in 394 both continuous and discontinuous permafrost regions, whereas streams (Fig. 5b) and 395 396 soil leachates (Fig. 5a) showed no seasonal pattern. This pattern may be associated 397 with shifts in carbon source (winter and spring DOC in several Arctic rivers is more biolabile than in summer; Wickland et al., 2012; Mann et al., 2012; Holmes et al., 398 399 2008) but it is likely more related to a changing hydrologic residence time. In boreal 400 and Arctic systems soil thaw-depth increases throughout the summer, resulting in longer water residence times in soils and headwater streams (Harms and Jones, 2012; 401 Jones and Rinehart, 2010; Koch et al., 2013). This allows more time for 402 biodegradable carbon compounds to be mineralized before reaching the river late in 403 404 the season, effectively reducing measured BDOC in higher-order streams and rivers 405 later in the season. Increasing water temperature through the season could magnify

406 this effect with little mineralization early in the year when soils and streams are cold but accelerating biolabile carbon removal in summer. Hydrologic connectivity 407 between soils and surface waters is generally weaker later in summer (Striegl et al., 408 409 2005; Spencer et al., 2008; Koch et al., 2013), which could explain the absence of seasonal trends for soils and streams (Fig. 5a, b). Furthermore, soil core leachates 410 from a near-surface core that developed fresh plant growth during the growing season 411 showed higher BDOC than cores without fresh plant growth (Fig. 6). These local 412 plant growth-induced spikes in BDOC, likely induced by root exudates (Marschner 413 414 and Kalbitz, 2003) could also mask seasonal trends in soil leachate BDOC and instead highlight spatial variability. 415

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417 <u>4.2.4 Other factors affecting BDOC</u>

There are multiple factors that affect in situ BDOC that neither we nor the 418 investigated literature studies have considered. One of these factors is the effect of 419 420 light. Photochemical processes can lead to rapid DOC losses (up to 30% in 14 days; Mann et al., 2012) and may alter the DOC composition so that it is more susceptible 421 to microbial degradation (Cory et al., 2013; Laurion and Mladenov, 2013). The 422 423 presence of clay minerals can affect photochemical decomposition of DOC (Tietjen et al., 2005). Furthermore, POC also serves as an important catalyst in DOC biolability 424 (Battin et al., 2008), . In this study we do not investigate any potential co-425 metabolizing effects of POC degradation, or for the biodegradability of POC itself, 426 427 which could be substantial (Sánchez-García et al., 2011; Richardson et al., 2013).

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Something we could not directly address in our synthesis was the effect of DOM 429 composition, which can be related to the depth of the active layer and the associated 430 431 retention of certain fractions of the DOC pool. For example, sugars and microbially-432 derived organic matter appear more biolabile than plant-derived organic matter (Balcarczyk et al., 2009; Mann et al., 2012). Also, permafrost DOM appears to be 433 enriched in hydrogen-rich, aliphatic compounds that are preferentially degraded in 434 435 incubation experiments (Spencer et al., 2015). The preferential degradation of biolabile components of the bulk DOC results in an enrichment of more recalcitrant 436 components in soil pore waters (Wickland et al., 2007) and in larger rivers 437 downstream (Spencer et al., 2015). 438

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Another factor that could affect BDOC is nitrogen release from thawing permafrost
(Harden et al., 2012; Keuper et al., 2012; Harms et al., 2014). High nitrogen levels
have been found to correlate with high BDOC (Holmes et al., 2008; Wickland et al.,
2012), although we do not find a strong correlation in our meta-analysis and other
studies show little response of BDOC to inorganic nutrient additions (Abbott et al.,
2014; Mann et al., 2015).

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447 **4.3 Circum-arctic patterns in BDOC**

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449 <u>4.3.1 Geographical and seasonal patterns in BDOC</u>

We identified distinct large-scale patterns in the biodegradability of DOC, which we 450 illustrate in a conceptual diagram (Fig. 7). The percentage BDOC in both soil and 451 aquatic systems increased from regions without permafrost to regions with continuous 452 permafrost. We attribute this increase to better preservation of DOC in permafrost 453 regions where frozen storage has limited processing of the soil organic matter, and to 454 stronger hydrologic connectivity between terrestrial and aquatic systems. 455 Furthermore, within aquatic networks, BDOC was lower in large river systems 456 457 compared with streams, and this pattern was most pronounced in continuous 458 permafrost regions. This suggests that continuous permafrost regions release DOC 459 sources such as Pleistocene yedoma that degrade rapidly in the fluvial network (Vonk et al., 2013b; Abbott et al., 2014; Mann et al., 2015; Spencer et al., 2015). 460

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Aquatic BDOC in large streams and rivers decreased as the Arctic summer 462 progressed. This pattern was absent for soils and streams. This could be related to a 463 variety of factors such as seasonal shifts in carbon sources, changing DOC residence 464 time related to increasing thaw-depth, increasing water temperatures later in the 465 summer, as well as decreasing hydrologic connectivity between soils and surface 466 waters when the season progresses. Alternatively, the integrating character of rivers 467 and larger streams could mask local-scale heterogeneity that is more apparent in small 468 streams and soil leachates. 469

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- 471 <u>4.3.2 Circum-arctic fluxes of BDOC</u>

Evaluating aquatic DOC export fluxes through sampling at river mouth locations near 472 the Arctic Ocean underestimates the importance of the fluvial network for processing 473 DOM. Literature estimates of watershed-scale aquatic C gas fluxes vary widely 474 between 0.5 and 10 gC/m²/vr (all normalized to catchment area: Striegl et al., 2012: 475 Lundin et al., 2013; Denfeld et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 2013). When extrapolated to 476 the Arctic Ocean watershed ($20.5 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$; Holmes et al., 2013) this could result in 477 a total gaseous C emission between 10 and 200 Tg C/yr. These estimates seem 478 479 reasonable compared to an annual Arctic Ocean watershed DOC flux of 34 Tg (Holmes et al., 2012), where 34 Tg is based on river mouth monitoring and ignores 480 processing within the watershed prior to arriving at the river mouth. Also, a 481 482 significant fraction of the emitted flux originates from weathering and soil respiration 483 sources (Striegl et al., 2005; Humborg et al., 2009).

484

Wickland et al., (2012) estimated that the combined BDOC exported by the six largest 485 Arctic rivers to the Arctic Ocean is 2.3 Tg C/yr, based on empirical relations between 486 487 BDOC and DOC:DIN (dissolved inorganic nitrogen) ratios. Importantly, these 488 watershed-scale estimates exclude processing and retention of DOC in soils, prior to delivery to aquatic networks. As we have seen in this study, soil BDOC is on average 489 higher than aquatic BDOC. By using the % permafrost extent in the Arctic Ocean 490 watershed from Holmes et al., (2013), 45% continuous, 31% discontinuous (including 491 sporadic and isolated) and 26% without permafrost, and average soil BDOC values 492 493 for each permafrost zone (20, 15 and 8 BDOC for continuous, discontinuous and no 494 permafrost regions, respectively; mean values from Fig. 3b) we can calculate the permafrost-normalized average soil BDOC to be 16%. Inclusion of DOC processing 495 within soils is likely to significantly raise the 2.3 Tg C/yr estimate for aquatic 496 497 networks alone (Wickland et al., 2012). However, questions about the linkages between soil and stream BDOC with deepening active layer depths remain. Changes 498 in hydrological flow paths associated with deepening active layers could reduce the 499 inputs of DOC due to mineral sorption and additional processing during transport 500 (MacLean et al., 1999; Striegl et al., 2005; O'Donnell et al., 2010) but the net effects 501 502 of permafrost thaw on BDOC inputs to streams are not yet well characterized.

503 504

4.4 Method considerations and recommendations

In order to compare BDOC losses across Arctic, and alternate systems, it is crucial to 505 506 standardize the methods with which biodegradability is assessed. Our meta-analysis highlighted the significant variability in incubation design across the currently 507 available literature making robust comparisons of BDOC across studies challenging. 508 We suggest the following DOC incubation method, which is intentionally kept simple 509 to be feasible at more remote field sites (a more detailed protocol is available in the 510 supplementary information). Additionally, we suggest a few optional protocol steps 511 that could be used to assess further environmental controls on BDOC. 512

513

514 <u>Standardized DOC incubation protocol</u>

- As soon as possible after collection, filter water samples through pre-combusted 516 $(450^{\circ}C > 4hrs) 0.7 \mu m$ glass fiber filters and chill (ca. 4°C) until ready to incubate.
- 517 ⇒ Rapid incubation setup is strongly recommended since many biolabile DOC
 518 compounds have turnover times of hours. We advocate against freezing
 519 samples due to DOC flocculation, compositional and structural changes in the
 520 DOC, and bacterial viability (Fellman et al., 2008)
- 521 Decant filtrate into triplicate sets of 40 mL pre-combusted (550°C >4hrs) glass • vials, and fill each vial with 30 mL filtrate. Use a triplicate glass vial set for each 522 time point in your incubation. We recommend five time points at which one 523 triplicate set will be consecutively removed from incubation: T = 0, T = 2, T = 7, T 524 525 = 14 and T = 28 days. Use clean caps with silicone or teflon septa (avoid rubber which can leach DOC). Potentially, a longer time step (T=90; e.g. Holmes et al., 526 2008) can be added to assess less labile DOC. In that case, we also recommend 527 assessing DIC production (see additional protocol steps, below) as this method is 528 more sensitive in detecting small changes. We want to point out, however, that the 529 majority of the incubations will respond within 28 days, and longer incubations 530 will introduce issues such as bottle effects. 531
- 532 \Rightarrow Our reasons for recommending 40mL glass vials are several; they are 533 commonly available, they can be cleaned through pre-ashing, the required 534 total volume per incubation is relatively small but sufficient for analysis, and 535 our analyses suggest that variation in bottle size may affect BDOC results.

Inoculation of samples is not needed as filtration through 0.7μm allows for a sufficient amount of bacteria to pass the filter.

- Incubate the vials in the dark (to avoid autotrophic respiration and photodegradation), with loose caps and regular shaking to avoid oxygen-depletion.
- We recommend performing sample incubation at room temperature (20°C), as this is most common, relatively easy to maintain, and allows comparison between studies. This will provide the potential BDOC as 20°C is generally above ambient temperature. Document the temperature throughout the experiment precisely.

544 \Rightarrow If possible, the incubations should be carried out at a stable temperature for 545 example by using an oven or incubator.

- Re-filter the incubated samples through pre-combusted (450°C >4hrs) 0.7 μm
 filters (to avoid problems with flocculation and remove most microbial biomass)
 for each time step. Store the filtered samples in pre-combusted (550°C >4hrs)
 40mL glass vials, acidify to pH 2 with 30μL concentrated HCl. Cap tightly and
 store dark and chilled until analysis.
- For logistical reasons, we recommend assessment of BDOC through DOC loss (see equation 1).
- For details regarding DOC analysis, see the supplementary information. Note that samples with low initial DOC concentrations may approach the detection limit of OC analyzers.
- 556

557 <u>Additional protocol steps:</u>

- Ambient incubation temperature: Incubate at the ambient temperature of the water or soil from where the sample was collected to allow for application of results to ambient conditions. Run control incubations at 20°C.
- Nutrient amendment: Because the effect of nutrients on DOC processing is unclear, we recommend running experiments both with and without added nutrients. Amount of added nutrients should be adapted in relation to initial nutrient concentration according to the Redfield ratio, but in general an amendment of NO₃⁻ (to a concentration of 80µm), NH₄⁺ (80µm) and PO₄³⁻ (10µm; Holmes et al., 2008) is appropriate for aquatic and soil leachates. Run control incubations without nutrient amendment.
- DIC production: If field and laboratory settings allow we recommend also 568 assessing C loss through DIC production, to provide BDOC estimates through two 569 570 independent methods. We suggest to measure the CO₂ concentration in the headspace of the incubation flask and calculate the change in DIC (headspace CO₂ 571 572 plus dissolved CO₂, carbonate, and bicarbonate in the aqueous phase). This method 573 is detailed in Kalbitz et al., (2003). Keep all other parameters (such as filter pore 574 size, incubation temperature, and approximate sample volume) similar to the control incubation that measures DOC loss. 575
- Light incubation: Dark incubations eliminate effects of autotrophic respiration
 and photodegradation; however to simulate realistic DOC drawdown, light is a
 critical factor (Mann et al., 2012; Cory et al., 2013).

DOC 'quality' (composition) measurements: If possible, we recommend 579 ٠ assessing DOM compositional information for, at least, initial water samples or 580 soil leachates and, if possible, also on incubated waters and soil leachates (i.e., 581 582 post-incubation). These measures may include optical properties (specific ultraviolet absorbance, fluorescence excitation-emission matrices), and compound-583 specific analyses (carbohydrates, amino acids, lignin phenols, Fourier transform 584 ion cyclotron resonance mass spectrometry, etc.). Note that short sample storage 585 586 times are desirable for most analyses.

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590

589 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

591 Half of the global belowground soil OC pool is stored in circum-arctic permafrost but 592 little is known about the processes controlling transport and degradation of DOC, a 593 key regulator of the rate of permafrost carbon release from the Arctic watershed to the atmosphere. We synthesized results from 14 BDOC studies from the permafrost 594 region and complemented this with novel BDOC data determined using a 595 standardized method from across the Arctic. We observed a large variability in soil 596 and aquatic BDOC, even under uniform conditions. Despite the significant 597 heterogeneity, we found that both soil and aquatic DOC is more biodegradable in 598 regions with continuous permafrost compared to regions without permafrost. Within 599 600 continuous permafrost regions, the degradability of DOC decreased from headwater streams to larger river systems, suggesting that permafrost DOC is preferentially 601 utilized within the network. Furthermore, we discovered that aquatic BDOC in large 602 603 streams and rivers decreased as the Arctic summer progressed, whereas this pattern 604 was absent for soils and small streams.

605

Based on our synthesis of BDOC studies and additional measurements, we predict 606 that slow future transformation of continuous permafrost into discontinuous 607 permafrost regions could release an initial, relatively short-term, pulse of 608 609 biodegradable DOC but will on longer timescales possibly lead to the release of DOC that is more recalcitrant. The total gaseous watershed C flux may, however, increase 610 as more DOC could be processed within soils prior to release into aquatic networks 611 due to deeper thaw depths and increasing residence time (Striegl et al., 2005). 612 613 Furthermore, a lengthening of the arctic summer thaw period could result in lower 614 DOC biodegradability in large streams and rivers, but higher biodegradability in small 615 streams and soils.

616

617 The Arctic is changing, and so is the coupling between its carbon and hydrologic 618 cycles. There still are large uncertainties related to processing and transport of DOC, 619 and little data are available from northern Canada and Russia, from discontinuous 620 permafrost regions, and across all seasons. We strongly recommend that future studies 621 of DOC degradability assess BDOC by means of our standardized DOC incubation 622 protocol, to facilitate optimal use and integration of future datasets with existing623 knowledge.

624

625 Supplementary information

- 626 Incubation protocol
- Table S1: Site characteristics and BDOC results from our standardized circum arctic incubation experiments
- 629

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Table 1List of methodological and environmental parameters we included in our meta-analysis. Variables are classified as scalar (nosymbol), nominal (*) and ordinal (**). For scalar parameters we have listed the data range, for categorical (nominal and ordinal) data we havelisted the number of categories along with their definition.

| Parameter | Unit | t Type of data and range or categories | | | | |
|------------------------------|------|--|----------------------|--|---|--|
| | | Scalar | | Categorical | | |
| | | Data range | Number of categories | Definition of categories (PCA value assigned) | Comments | |
| BDOC | % | 0 - 67 | | | | |
| Methodological | | | | | | |
| Nutrients* | | | 2 | No nutrients (1) - nutrients added (2) | | |
| Filter pore size** | μm | | 3 | 0.7 (1) - 0.45 (2) - 0.2 (3) | | |
| Inoculation* | | | 2 | Not inoculated (1) - inoculated (2) | For experimental data, we identified not inoculated - 1% inoculated - 10% inoculated | |
| Shaking* | | | 2 | No shaking (1) - shaking (2) | | |
| Oxygen* | | | 2 | Anoxic (1) - oxic (2) | All aquatic incubations were assumed to be performed under oxic conditions | |
| Bottle size | mL | 40 - 3000 | | | | |
| Method of analysis* | | | 2 | DIC production (1) - DOC loss (2) | | |
| Incubation temperature | °C | 3.5 - 25 | | | In the literature synthesis, we assumed "room temperature" was 20°C. | |
| Incubation time | days | 1 - 97 | | | | |
| Environmental | | | | | | |
| Permafrost** | | | 3 | No permafrost (1) discontinuous (2) - continuous (3) | Dominant permafrost type in each catchment was used. | |
| Location in aquatic network* | | | 6 | Soil leachate (1) - lake (2) - stream (3) - large stream (4) - river (5)- large river (6) | Based on watershed size: streams <250km ² ; large streams 250- 25,000 km ² ; rivers 25,000-500,000km ² ; large rivers >500,000km ² | |
| Cail ar aquatia* | | 1 | 1 | $A \operatorname{quatia} (1) \operatorname{qail} (2)$ | | |
| Latitude | °N | 55.82 - 70.33 | | | | |

Table 2 Correlations between methodological variables and BDOC principle component axis (1, 2, 3) in a structure matrix for aquatic incuba data points) and soil incubations (202 data points). Correlations above 0.7 are considered strong, and correlations above 0.5 (italic) as moderate. *A* samples were incubated under oxic conditions and so this was excluded PCA. Similarly, none of the soil incubations were nutrient-amended sc excluded from PCA. The parameters are ordered based upon their imp explaining axis 1. Variables are classified as scalar (no symbol), nomin ordinal (**).

| | | Aquatic | 2 |
|----------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Shaking* | 0.97 | 0.07 | -0.46 |
| Method C loss* | 0.91 | 0.09 | -0.30 |
| Temperature | 0.84 | 0.11 | -0.18 |
| Bottle size | -0.77 | 0.08 | 0.54 |
| Filter pore size** | 0.34 | 0.90 | -0.44 |
| Nutrient addition* | 0.37 | 0.90 | -0.45 |
| Inoculum* | -0.51 | 0.64 | 0.32 |
| Incubation time | 0.34 | 0.12 | -0.85 |
| BDOC | 0.23 | 0.26 | -0.83 |
| % variance explained | 46 | 23 | 12 |

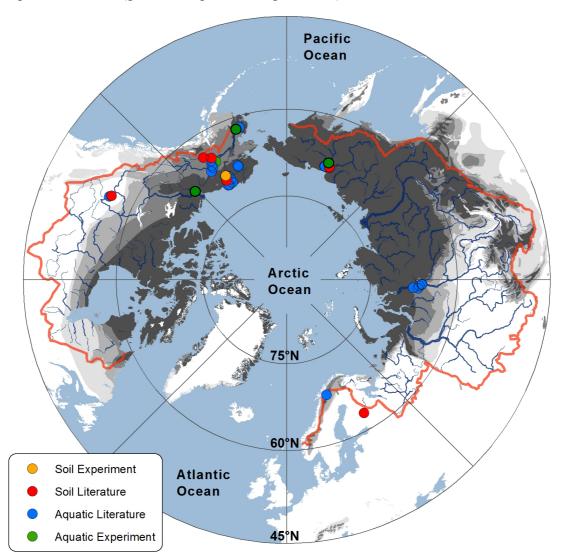
| | | Soil | |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| O ₂ availability* | 0.94 | -0.16 | -0.06 |
| Method C loss* | 0.87 | -0.30 | 0.02 |
| BDOC | 0.75 | 0.37 | -0.02 |
| Shaking* | 0.73 | -0.05 | -0.57 |
| Incubation time | 0.06 | 0.88 | -0.13 |
| Filter pore size** | -0.25 | 0.74 | 0.25 |
| Bottle size | 0.06 | 0.10 | 0.74 |
| Temperature | -0.05 | 0.54 | -0.66 |
| Inoculum* | -0.44 | 0.08 | 0.57 |
| % variance explained | 34 | 21 | 16 |

Table 3 Correlations between environmental variables and BDOC for each principle component axis in a structural matrix for aquatic incubations (505 data points) and soil incubations (165 data points). Correlations above 0.7 (in bold) are considered strong, and correlations above 0.5 (italic) as moderate. The parameters are ordered based upon their importance to explaining factor 1. Variables are classified as scalar (no symbol), nominal (*) and ordinal (**). Location in stream network, i.e. streams, large streams, rivers and large rivers, is indicated as 'network'.

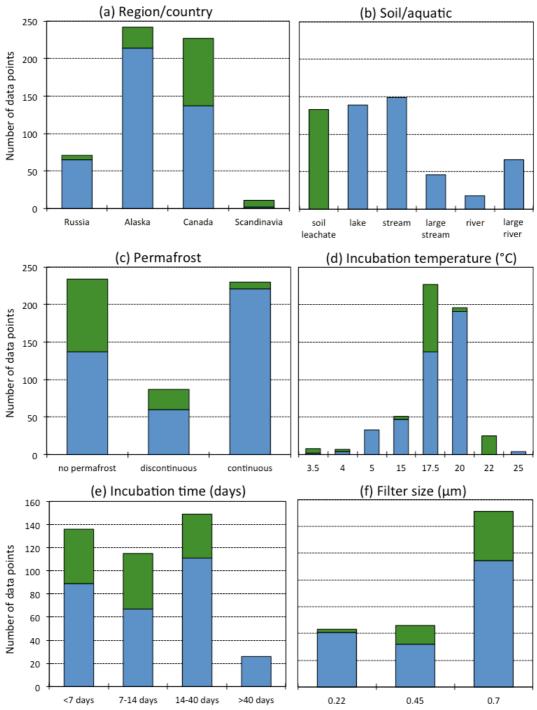
| | Aquatic | | |
|----------------------|---------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Network* | 0.95 | -0.05 | -0.21 |
| Permafrost** | 0.94 | 0.05 | -0.06 |
| Latitude | 0.93 | 0.06 | -0.07 |
| DOC initial | -0.70 | -0.11 | 0.47 |
| Longitude | 0.41 | 0.78 | 0.12 |
| BDOC | 0.51 | -0.71 | -0.05 |
| Julian day | -0.14 | 0.11 | 0.95 |
| % variance explained | 52 | 18 | 13 |

| | Soil | |
|----------------------|-------|-------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| Latitude | 0.97 | -0.08 |
| Permafrost** | 0.96 | -0.13 |
| DOC initial | -0.83 | 0.30 |
| BDOC | 0.81 | 0.15 |
| Longitude | -0.22 | 0.79 |
| Julian day | 0.06 | 0.78 |
| % variance explained | 55 | 22 |

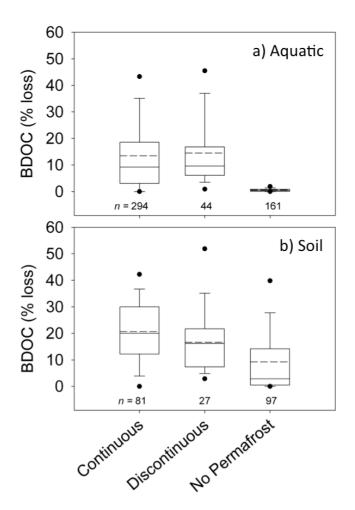
Map of the hydrological network (blue) in the Arctic Ocean watershed (boundary in red) with points showing literature data (blue for aquatic, red for soil) and experimental data (green for aquatic, orange for soil).



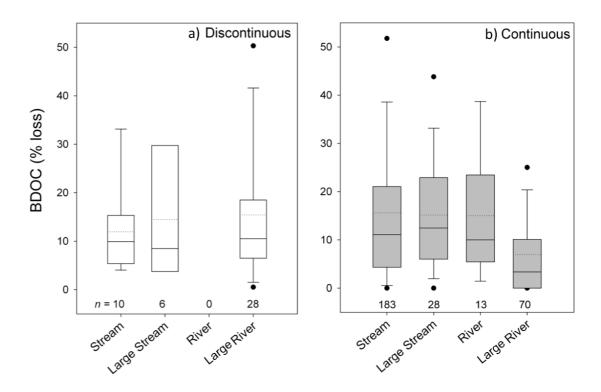
Histograms of environmental and methodological variety reported in the synthesized literature (n=426, see section 2.3), with (a) region/country, (b) soil leachate and type of aquatic study (categorized as streams (<250km²), large streams (>250km² and <25,000km²), rivers (>25,000km² and <500,000km²) and large rivers (>500,000km²)), (c) permafrost zonation, (d) incubation temperature in °C, (e) incubation time (categorized in <7 days, 7-14 days, 14-40 days, and >40 days, and (f) filtration pore size (µm). Green represents soil leachate data, blue represents aquatic data. The y-axis shows number of data points.



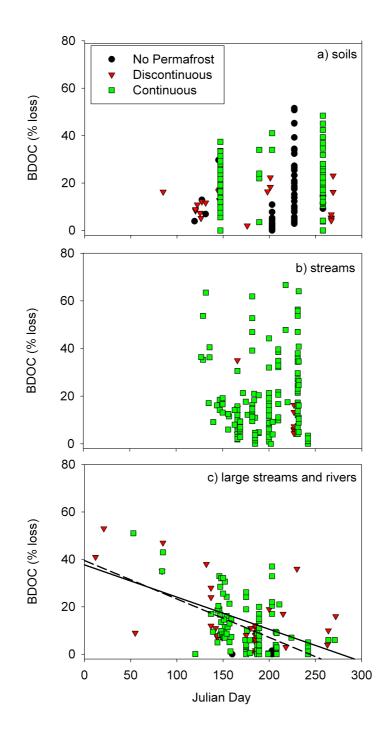
(a) Aquatic and (b) soil leachate BDOC data (15-25°C, n=205) after 28-34 days incubation across dominant permafrost type from literature-synthesis and our circumarctic experiment. The data are shown as 5^{th} to 95^{th} percentiles (points), 25^{th} , 50^{th} , and 75^{th} percentiles (lines), median value (bold line) and mean value (dashed line). The number of data points used are listed below the box plots.



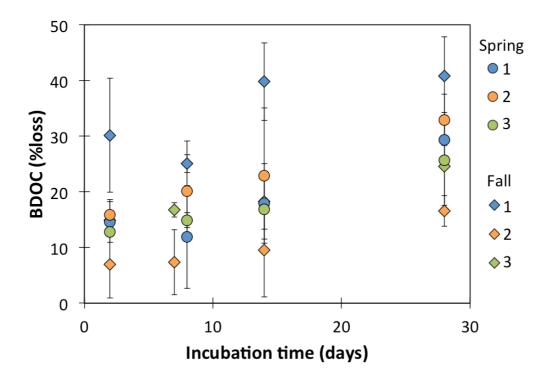
Aquatic BDOC data for 15-25°C after 28-34 days incubation for streams (<250 km²), large streams (>250 km², <25,000 km²), rivers (>25,000 km², <500,000 km²), and large rivers (>500,000 km²) clustered for (a) discontinuous and (b) continuous permafrost zones. Symbology as in Fig. 3. A plot for 'no permafrost regions' is not shown as here only BDOC data for rivers were available (median BDOC = 0.44 %, mean BDOC = 0.69 %; n = 25). The number of data points used are listed below the box plots.



Seasonal BDOC losses (shown against Julian day) at 15-25°C after 28-34 days incubation for (a) soil leachates, (b) streams and (c) clustered large streams, rivers and large rivers for regions without permafrost, discontinuous permafrost and continuous permafrost. Trend lines denote significant relationships where present. Solid line represents linear fit in discontinuous permafrost ($r^2 = 0.33$, p = 0.0003) and dashed line continuous permafrost ($r^2 = 0.29$, p < 0.0001).



BDOC losses (at 20°C) after 28 day incubation for soil leachates from three cores collected near Toolik, Alaska, as part of our circum-arctic incubation experiment (see section 2.1). Soil leachates were collected and incubated both in spring (circles) and fall (diamonds). In core 1 we observed active plant growth during the spring and fall incubations.



Conceptual graph of landscape-scale and seasonal trends in % BDOC where the upper blue box represents aquatic systems, and the lower brown box represents soils. Aquatic BDOC increases with decreasing catchment area, and aquatic and soil BDOC increase with increasing permafrost extent in the landscape. Aquatic BDOC in watersheds varies temporally, with more BDOC found in winter and spring than late summer.

