

## Dissolved organic matter biodegradation along a hydrological continuum in permafrost peatlands

Daheydrey Payandi-Rolland, Liudmila Shirokova, Marwa Tesfa, Pascale Benezeth, Artyom Lim, Daria Kuzmina, Jan Karlsson, Reiner Giesler, Oleg S Pokrovsky

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1	Dissolved organic matter biodegradation along a hydrological
2	continuum in permafrost peatlands
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4	D. Payandi-Rolland <sup>1*</sup> , L.S. Shirokova <sup>1,2</sup> , M. Tesfa <sup>1</sup> , P. Bénézeth <sup>1</sup> , A.G. Lim <sup>3</sup> , D. Kuzmina <sup>3</sup> ,
5	J. Karlsson <sup>4</sup> , R. Giesler <sup>4</sup> , O.S. Pokrovsky <sup>1,2,3</sup>
6	
7	<sup>1</sup> Geoscience and Environment Toulouse, GET-CNRS-IRD-OMP, University of Toulouse, 14,
8	Avenue Edouard Belin, 31400 Toulouse, France
9	<sup>2</sup> Institute of Ecological Problems of the North, N. Laverov Federal Center for Integrated Arctic
10	Research, Arkhangelsk, Russia
11	<sup>3</sup> BIO-GEO-CLIM Laboratory, Tomsk State University, 35 Lenina Pr., Tomsk, Russia
12	<sup>4</sup> Climate Impacts Research Centre (CIRC), Department of Ecology and Environmental
13	Science, Umeå University, SE-981 07 Abisko, Sweden
14	*corresponding author email: <u>dahedrey.payandi-rolland@get.omp.eu</u>
15	
16	Keywords: river, stream, thermokarst lake, supra-permafrost water, carbon dioxide emission,
17	low molecular weight organic acids
18	
19	Key sentences:
20	• We compared surface waters of two hydrological continuums (HC) in northern Sweden
21	and western Siberia
22	• Large spatial heterogeneity of dissolved organic carbon concentration and
23	biodegradability along HC.
24	• Along the HC from supra-permafrost waters, fens, and ponds to lakes, streams and
25	rivers, the DOC removal rate decreased and the BDOC increased.

- BDOC ranged from 0 to 20% and could at the most account for 10% of  $CO_2$  emissions
- 27 from surface waters of these permafrost peatlands

#### Abstract

31 Arctic regions contain large amounts of organic carbon (OC) trapped in soil and wetland 32 permafrost. With climate warming, part of this OC is released to aquatic systems and degraded 33 by microorganisms, thus resulting in positive feedback due to carbon (C) emission. In wetland areas, water bodies are spatially heterogenic and separated by landscape position and water 34 35 residence time. This represents a hydrological continuum, from depressions, smaller water 36 bodies and lakes to the receiving streams and rivers. Yet, the effect of this heterogeneity on the 37 OC release from the soil and its processing in waters is largely unknown and not accounted for 38 in C cycle models of Arctic regions. Here we investigated the dissolved OC (DOC) 39 biodegradation of aquatic systems along a hydrological continuum located in two discontinuous 40 permafrost sites: in western Siberia and northern Sweden. The biodegradable dissolved OC 41 (BDOC<sub>15</sub>; % DOC lost relative to the initial DOC concentration after 15 days incubation at 42 20°C) ranged from 0 to 20% for small water bodies located at the beginning of the continuum 43 (soil solutions, small ponds, fen and lakes) and from 10 to 20% for streams and rivers. While 44 the BDOC<sub>15</sub> increased, the removal rate of DOC decreased along the hydrological continuum. 45 The potential maximum CO<sub>2</sub> production from DOC biodegradation was estimated to account 46 for only a small part of *in-situ* CO<sub>2</sub> emissions measured in peatland aquatic systems of northern 47 Sweden and western Siberia. This suggests that other sources, such as sediment respiration and 48 soil input, largely contribute to  $CO_2$  emissions from small surface waters of permafrost 49 peatlands. Our results highlight the need to account for large heterogeneity of dissolved OC 50 concentration and biodegradability in order to quantify C cycling in arctic water bodies 51 susceptible to permafrost thaw.

#### 1. Introduction

54 The carbon (C) released from thawing permafrost is biotically and abiotically processed in aquatic systems (Abbott et al., 2016; Cory and Kling, 2018; Mann et al., 2015). However, the 55 56 degree and intensity of this processing are strongly variable both in space (local to global scale) and time (day/night to season) and not explicitly accounted for in global modelling of 57 58 permafrost-carbon-climate feedback. The spatial variability includes the various types of water 59 bodies of those regions, all belonging to the hydrological continuum (Figure 1). Globally, the concept of 'hydrological continuum' (Creed et al., 2015; Palmer et al., 2016) includes the 60 61 movement of water from sources (soil and supra-permafrost waters) to intermediate reservoirs 62 (lakes and streams) and finally into terminal reservoirs (large rivers and their estuaries). In 63 Arctic regions, the hydrological continuum (HC) is highly dependent on the maturation cycle 64 of water bodies. All steps of HC are especially important as they can influence the biochemical 65 properties, photo- (Panneer Selvam et al., 2019) and bio-degradability (Liu et al., 2019; Vonk et al., 2015) of dissolved organic matter (DOM). Since the transport of thawed permafrost 66 67 organic C can spatially relocate the emissions of greenhouses gases (Vonk and Gustafsson, 68 2013), the heterogeneity of waterbodies observed along a hydrological continuum is a key point 69 to understand the C cycle in these regions.

70 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is the main form of terrestrial organic carbon (OC) exported 71 to soil solution, rivers, wetlands and lakes (Chapin et al., 2006; Cole et al., 2007). This is 72 especially true in the case of discontinuous permafrost regions, where the hydrologic flow paths 73 have longer residence times and allow a greater degree of DOC processing during lateral 74 transport (Olefeldt and Roulet, 2014, 2012; Tang et al., 2018; Walvoord and Striegl, 2007). For 75 these reasons, coupled aquatic-soil studies of organic matter (OM) in continuous-discontinuous 76 permafrost regions are needed (Vonk et al., 2019). The importance of surface waters from 77 frozen peatlands in DOC processing and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions motivated numerous studies of aquatic 78 DOM (Hulatt et al., 2014; Manasypov et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2015, 2012; Peura et al., 2020; 79 Pokrovsky et al., 2016; Shirokova et al., 2019). The latter study in NE European tundra 80 peatlands demonstrated weak biodegradation of DOM along a hydrological continuum from 81 peatland subsidence to a large river (Pechora) and suggested that CO<sub>2</sub> emission from surface waters could be explained either by sediment respiration or by fast processing of fresh supra-82 83 permafrost flow delivered from peat pore water and thawing soil ice. As such, to quantify 84 overall DOM biodegradation potential in Arctic peatland waters, it is necessary to study the full 85 continuum of surface fluids, from the soil and supra-permafrost waters to large lakes or river 86 systems using universal techniques over large geographic coverage (Ma et al., 2019).

87 This study aimed to quantify the magnitude and controlling factors of DOM biodegradation 88 potential along a hydrological continuum from soil water to medium-sized rivers and lakes 89 located in a discontinuous permafrost area in western Siberia and northern Sweden. Strong 90 seasonal variability in the high latitude C cycle is well known (Gao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019). Yet, this study was carried out during baseflow period (July to October) when the quality and 91 92 quantity of the DOC in waters are most stable (Chupakov et al., 2020; Holmes et al., 2012; 93 Manasypov et al., 2015; Neff et al., 2006; Olefeldt and Roulet, 2012; Tang et al., 2018). Our 94 working hypothesis is that the BDOC decreases along the HC (with the preferential degradation 95 of easily biodegradable C molecules) and that the amplitude of this decrease depends on 96 landscape context and the DOM origin. To test this hypothesis, we carried out aerobic 97 biodegradation experiments (following Vonk et al. (2015)) and monitored resulting changes in 98 DOM quantity and quality. We further compared the possible contribution of DOM 99 biodegradation along the HC to published CO<sub>2</sub> emission from the surface waters representative 100 of the study regions.

## 2. Materials and methods

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## 2.1. Geographical, climatic and hydrological setting of sampling sites

104 In high latitude continental planes, the permafrost thaw leads to the formation of 105 "thermokarst" (thaw) lakes resulting from the soil ice melt and the permafrost subsidence in 106 frozen wetlands. The formation and development of thermokarst lakes appeared to follow a 107 cycle (Kirpotin et al., 2009; Pokrovsky et al., 2011) and is an important part of the hydrological 108 continuum of the region (Figure 1). The cycle starts with the subsidence of thawing soil forming 109 a depression and filled by high molecular weight OM rich thaw water. The size of the depression 110 grows due to the ongoing subsidence of peat soil and the active abrasion of edges until it reaches 111 a lake size (thermokarst lake) with stable edges, that can be eventually drained into another lake 112 or streams and rivers. The vegetation can then colonize the drained lake bottom and gradually 113 the permafrost will be renewed, and the cycle can start over again by the formation of a wet 114 depression. Lichens mostly dominate in mounds, while sphagnum type colonizes depressions, 115 and graminoïds can be found in fens and drained lakes.

116 The two selected study sites are located in the artic/subarctic region, within a discontinuous 117 permafrost area. Their detailed description can be found elsewhere (Åkerman and Johansson, 118 2008; Brown et al., 1997; Raudina et al., 2018). The Siberian study site (referred to as 119 Khanymey, Figure S1 A in supplementary), is located near the town of Khanymey (63°47' N; 120 75°32' E) in a northern taiga, with a mean annual temperature of -5.6 °C and precipitation of 121 540 mm. The palsa peat bogs have a peat thickness of 0.1 to 1.4 m and the active (unfrozen) 122 layer thickness (ALT) is around 90 and 215 cm under the surface of mounds and hollows, 123 respectively. The vegetation on the mounds is dominated by dwarf shrubs (Ledum ssp., Betula nana, Andromeda polifolia, Vaccinium ssp., Empetrum nigrum), lichens (Cladonia ssp., 124 125 Cetraria, Ochrolechia) and mosses, while the hollows are covered by moss-sedge associates 126 (grasses Eriophorum russeolum, E. vaginatum, Carex rotundata, C. limosa, Menvanthes

trifoliate, Comarum palustre; mosses Sphagnum. balticum, S. majus, S. lindbergii, S. 127 128 warnstorfii) and dwarf shrubs, such as Oxycoccus palustris (Raudina et al., 2018). In 129 Khanymey, we have chosen seven locations that belonged to a HC. They were sampled in July 130 2018 and used as substrates for incubation. We sampled two supra-permafrost waters from 131 peatland, one on a mound and one on a hollow (see sampling details in Raudina et al., 2018); 132 two lakes: organic-rich Chernoe and organic-poor Trisino; two streams: the one close to the 133 outlet of the lake and another one located far from this outlet (Lymbydyakha); and finally one 134 medium-size river Pyakopur that flows through peatland and forest (Ala-aho et al., 2018). 135 Localization, surface, depth and physicochemical parameters of the seven sampled locations 136 are presented in the supplementary Table S1.

The second site is the Stordalen mire (68°21' N and 19°02' E) located in the vicinity of 137 138 Abisko in Northern Sweden (Figure S1 B). The ALT in the mire is approximately 0.5 to 1 m 139 thick (Åkerman and Johansson, 2008; Klaminder et al., 2008) and composed of 0.5 m of peat 140 (Malmer et al., 2005) that overlays silty lacustrine sediment that has a glacial origin at depth 141 (Klaminder et al., 2008). The mean annual temperature is -0.7 °C (Kohler et al., 2006) and the 142 annual precipitation is 299 mm (Petrescu et al., 2007). The Stordalen mire is an ombrotrophic 143 palsa that rises above semi-wet and wet minerotrophic fens, streams and shallow lakes (Wik et 144 al., 2013). The hummock (*i.e.* the equivalent of mound structure in the Khanymey site) 145 vegetation is dominated by lichens (Cladonia spp. and Cetraria spp. and mosses, such as Sphagnum balticum (Russ.) C. Jens.) in the bottom layer while Eriophorum vaginatum and 146 147 Empetrum hermaphroditum dominated in the field layer. In the hollows, the field layer is 148 dominated by graminoids such as Carex rotundata, E. vaginatum and E. angustifolium while 149 the bottom layer consists of mosses, such as S. balticum, S. fuscum and carpet Bryatae (Malmer 150 et al., 2005). Seven locations were sampled in the Stordalen mire in October 2018, before 151 snowfall and ice-on: the soil solution of a hummock, the water from a crack at the edge of a small pond, the small pond itself, a fen, a lake (Villasjön, Wik et al. (2013)) and two streams, a proximal one, near the outlet of the lake and a distal one located at the border of the mire. Localization, surface, depth and physicochemical parameters of the seven sampled locations are presented in Table S1. In the case of soil solution samples, a pit was made on hummock (/mound) or hollow. After a few minutes, gravitational (supra-permafrost) water from the surrounding soils was accumulated in the pit. This supra-permafrost water has been used for the experiment and named "soil solution" in the rest of this study.

- 159
- 160 2.2. Experimental setup

Each water sample was collected directly in a MilliQ-rinsed Nalgene® bottle and 161 162 processed in less than 12 h after sampling following the protocol of Vonk et al. (2015) and 163 Shirokova et al. (2019), employing the same filter units and membranes. All the manipulations 164 were performed under sterile conditions. Waters collected in the field were first filtered through 165 pre-combusted (4 hours at 450°C) GF/F filters (Whatman, nominal pore diameters: 0.7 µm, 166 diameter 47 mm) using sterile filtration units (Millipore, 250 mL) and then incubated in sterile 167 60 mL amber glass bottles at  $20 \pm 2$  °C, without light exposure. To keep oxygenic conditions 168 in incubation bottles, bottle caps were not completely tightened and bottles were manually 169 shaken at least every two days. Each sampling included filtration through pre-combusted GF/F 170 filters mounted on a Sartorius filter unit (25 mm diameter). The duration of incubation depended 171 on field logistics and ranged from 30 days in Siberian waters to 15 days in Northern Sweden. 172 Information on sampling date, replicate and the type of conducted analyses are listed in Table 173 S2.

174

175 *2.3. Analyses* 

176 The pH (uncertainty of  $\pm 0.01$  pH units), conductivity ( $\pm 0.1 \ \mu S \ cm^{-1}$ ) and absorbance 177 (250 to 500 nm, 1 nm step; SpectraMax M5e Molecular Devices in Stordalen, and Eppendorf

178 BioSpectrometer® basic in Khanymey) were measured within 1 h after the sampling. Fixation 179 and/or storage methods for each type of delayed analysis are listed in Table S2. Water samples 180 for DOC and fluorescence analyses were adjusted around pH = 2 using HCl, which removed 181 the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and minimize the quenching of fluorescence caused by 182 metal complexation (McKnight et al., 2001). Fluorescence was measured according to Roehm 183 et al. (2009) on a SpectraMax M5e. DOC and DIC were measured by a high-temperature 184 thermic oxidation method using a Shimadzu TOC-VSCN analyzer, with an uncertainty of 2%. 185 Organic acids and anions were measured by high-performance ionic chromatography (Dionex 186 Ics-5000<sup>+</sup>). Total bacterial cells (TBC) concentration was measured by flow cytometry (Guava® EasyCyte<sup>TM</sup> systems, Merck) using 1 µL of 10 times diluted SYBR GREEN (Merck) 187 188 marker, added to 250 µL of each sample before analysis. The typical uncertainty on these 189 measurements was between 10 and 20%.

190

## 191 2.4. Data treatment

192 The biodegradability of DOC (BDOC) was determined using commonly used equations 193 proposed by Vonk et al. (2015) (Table S3). This gives the relative proportion of the 194 biodegradable DOC in relation to the initial DOC concentration (Table S3). The apparent 195 removal rate of DOC (RDOC) was calculated as the slope of linear regression for the incubation 196 time (RDOC, Table S3). As the biodegradation of Khanymey and Stordalen did not last the 197 same amount of time (respectively 30 and 15 days), in the rest of the article the RDOC and 198 BDOC values were calculated at 15 days of incubations to allow a direct comparison between 199 the two sites (*i.e.* BDOC<sub>15</sub> and RDOC<sub>15</sub>). Absorbance data (Peacock et al., 2014; Weishaar et 200 al., 2003) were used to assess the (i) the molecular weight of the DOC by the weight average 201 molecular weight index (WAMW), (ii) the humification of DOM by the E2:E4 ratio and (iii) 202 the relative amount of aromatic components by the specific UV absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA<sub>254</sub>) (Table S3). The Fluorescence index (FI) (McKnight et al., 2001), was calculated to
separate DOC from a terrestrial origin (FI<1.4) than DOC from a microbial origin (FI > 1.4,
Cory et al., 2010; Roehm et al., 2009) as detailed in Table S3.

206 Statistical treatment of the data included least-square linear regression and Pearson 207 correlation to assess the evolution of parameters during incubation. To compare the 208 biodegradation in waters within and between each HC principal component analysis (PCA) was 209 used. Input data included initial chemical and biological parameters of waters that are 210 hypothesized to contribute to the variation of BDOC<sub>15</sub> and RDOC<sub>15</sub> of waters: DOC, TBC, 211 WAMW, E2:E4 ratio, pH, PO4-P, SUVA254, conductivity and some organic acids 212 concentrations (acetate, lactate and formate). The statistics were performed using R software 213 (version 3.6.1) with "FactoMineR" and "factoextra" packages. All measured incubation 214 parameters are provided in the Mendeley Data Repository (Payandi-Rolland, 2020).

215

## 216 **3. Results**

## 217

## 3.1 Inorganic water chemistry at the beginning of incubation

218 In Khanymey water at day 0 of incubation, the pH increased along the HC (from soil solution - mound at 4.2 to the Pyakopur river at 6.0). Specific conductivity ranged from 15 to 219 47 µS cm<sup>-1</sup> in the proximal stream and in the soil solution sampled at the mound, respectively. 220 221 The DIC concentration of all waters was lower than 1.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (supplementary Table S1). In 222 Stordalen, the pH of waters increased along the HC (from 4.1 at the crack to 7.2 at the distal 223 stream and Villasjön Lake). The specific conductivity ranged from 26 to 100  $\mu$ S cm<sup>-1</sup> in the fen 224 and in the soil solution from the hummock, respectively. The DIC concentrations ranged from 1.7 (small pond) to 4.6 mg  $L^{-1}$  (proximal stream; supplementary Table S1). 225

#### 3.2 Biodegradation of DOC

228 The DOC concentration of the Khanymey site showed high initial DOC values for 229 waters located at the beginning of the HC (i.e. soil solution at the mound and hollow, and the 230 Lake Chernoe, Figure 2 A.1). The DOC concentrations at the end of HC (i.e. lake Trisino, 231 proximal and distal stream, and the Pyakopur River) were much lower and ranged between 14.5 and 16.7 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. The DOC concentrations showed a significant linear decrease (p < 0.05,  $R^2$ 232 ranging between 0.45 to 0.69) in all incubations, except for the soil solution from the hollow 233 234 and both thermokarst lakes (Figure 2 A.1). The corresponding BDOC value increased in all incubations from day 0 to 30 (Figure 2 B.1). After 15 days of the experiment, the lowest 235 236 BDOC<sub>15</sub> value was -0.4  $\pm$  2.3% for the soil solution from the mound and the highest was 21.9  $\pm$  4.9% for the Trisino Lake (Figure 3). The rates of DOC removal over 15 days (RDOC<sub>15</sub>) with 237 the highest rates in the soil solution from the hollow  $(0.61 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1})$ , and the lowest in 238 lake Chernoe (-0.11  $\pm$  0.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 3 and Table S5). Soil solution from the mound 239 240 exhibited the highest concentration of low molecular weight organic acids (LMWOA), i.e. 241 formate, lactate and acetate (Table S4). Initial values of bacterial cell numbers (TBC) ranged from  $2.89 \times 10^5$  (Trisino Lake) to  $1.43 \times 10^6$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> (distal stream) (Table S1). During the 242 incubation, the bacterial concentration increased by 30% of the initial amount in the soil 243 244 solution from the mound to 72% in the incubation of the distal stream (data not shown).

The DOC concentrations in the Stordalen waters were high at the beginning of the continuum (soil solution, hummock and crack), then decreased in the small pond, and became lower at the end of the continuum (fen, Villasjön Lake, proximal and distal stream) (Figure 2 A.2). The DOC concentrations significantly decreased during incubations. The corresponding BDOC values increased in all incubations from day 0 to 15 (Figure 2 B.2). The BDOC<sub>15</sub> ranged between 10.5 - 19.9% with the lowest values in the proximal stream and the crack, and the highest in the distal stream (Figure 3). The waters located at the beginning of the continuum

252	exhibited the highest RDOC <sub>15</sub> while the lower RDOC <sub>15</sub> values were observed for end-members
253	of the HC (Figure 3 and Table S5). As for the Khanymey continuum, soil solution from the
254	hummock contained much higher initial concentrations of acetate and formate compared with
255	other incubated waters (Table S4). During incubation, only the soil solution from the hummock
256	showed a decrease (78%) in acetate concentrations. The initial TBC ranged from $2.26 \times 10^3$
257	(distal stream) to $3.76 \times 10^4$ cells mL <sup>-1</sup> (crack) (Table S1). During the incubation period, the
258	lowest increase in TBC was obtained for the Villasjön Lake (49%) and the highest increase was
259	measured for the distal stream (by a factor of 25, data not shown).

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## 3.3 DOM optical properties

In the Khanymey continuum, the SUVA<sub>254</sub> ranged between 3.4 L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for the 262 proximal stream to 4.2 L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> for the river (Figure 2 C.1). The SUVA<sub>254</sub> increased in all 263 264 samples during the incubations, with the lowest increase for the soil solution – mound (14%) 265 and highest for the proximal stream (60%). The ratio E2:E4 increased with incubation time at 266 the beginning of the continuum (both soil solutions and the Chernoe Lake) and decreased with 267 time in waters located at the end of HC (from the Trisino lake to the Pyakopur River) (Figure S2 A.1). Normalized molecular weight (WAMW) allowed distinguishing 2 groups of samples 268 269 (Figure S2 B.1). The first one included soil solutions from the mound and hollow and the 270 Chernoe Lake, with stable values ranging between 516 - 526 and 526 - 540 Da from the beginning to the end of the incubation, respectively. The second group comprised all other water 271 types of the continuum, with WAMW values increasing from 558 - 586 Da to 590 - 679 Da 272 273 during the incubations.

In the Stordalen hydrological continuum, the SUVA<sub>254</sub> ranged between 2.9 and 4.9 L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> at the beginning to 3.3 and 5.1 L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> at the end of the experiment (Figure 2 C.2). An increase in SUVA<sub>254</sub> of 12, 19 and 22% was observed during the incubation of the soil 277 solution – hummock, proximal and distal stream. For the remaining samples of the Stordalen 278 continuum, the increase in SUVA<sub>254</sub> was below 10%. The evolution of the ratio E2:E4 during 279 incubations separated the systems in two groups (Figure S2 A.2), i.e. one with stable values at 280 the beginning of the HC (*i.e.* crack, small pond, fen, and soil solution), and one with oscillating 281 values at the end of the HC (*i.e.* both streams and the lake). The lowest WAMW values were 282 recorded for soil solution - hummock and crack with the initial and final values of 506-511 and 283 513-515 Da, respectively (Figure S2 B.2). The highest values of WAMW were obtained for the 284 small pond and the proximal stream (initial: 625 to 716 Da, final: 662 to 779 Da). The fluorescence index (FI) of waters in the Stordalen HC ranged between 1.52 and 2.23 at the 285 286 beginning of incubation for the crack and the distal stream, respectively (Figure 2 D). FI values 287 decreased for all waters during incubation, with values < 1.40 for the crack, the small pond and 288 the fen and slightly higher values for the proximal stream  $(1.67 \pm 0.2)$  after 5 days of incubation.

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## *3.4 PCA results*

291 The principal component analysis (PCA) performed on data from both hydrological continuums (Figure 4 and Table S6) showed that the component number 1 (PC1) explained 292 293 34.0% of the variation, with an important contribution of conductivity, DOC concentration, 294 RDOC<sub>15</sub> and organic acids concentrations (acetate and formate). The PC2 explained 26.9% of 295 the variations, with the largest contribution coming from E2:E4 ratio, SUVA254, pH and 296 LMWOA concentration. The BDOC<sub>15</sub> appeared to be grouped with the pH and the E2:E4 ratio, 297 whereas lactate, DOC, and SUVA<sub>254</sub> were on the opposite side of the plot. Acetate and formate 298 concentrations and specific conductivity were grouped tight. No clear visual separation by study 299 site could be seen. However, the end-member waters of both continuums were clustered in the 300 upper left quadrant of the plot, while other waters, except the soil solution from the mound of 301 Khanymey, were mostly located in the lower right quadrant.

## 4. Discussion

304 4.1 Evolution of the DOC removal rate and biodegradability along the hydrological
 305 continuum

306 The decreasing trend of RDOC<sub>15</sub> values observed along the HC, and the inverse trend 307 for BDOC<sub>15</sub> values (Figure 3) suggest that the soil waters located at the beginning of the 308 continuum contain rapidly processed DOC, while the lake and river waters, at the end of HC, 309 contain slowly processed DOC. Drastic differences in RDOC<sub>15</sub> between the beginning and the 310 end of the HC suggest that these changes across pore waters, supra-permafrost waters, surface 311 small ponds and depressions of frozen peatlands, are primarily controlled by water residence 312 time (Catalán et al., 2016; Obernosterer and Benner, 2004). Indeed, when the residence time of 313 water is short, the decay rate of OC is believed to be governed by photo-degradation and 314 flocculation of OC (Catalán et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2017). Moreover, the labile parts of the 315 DOM are likely to be firstly processed during the transition because the fresher DOC is 316 delivered into the early stages of the HC.

317 The BDOC<sub>15</sub> of streams and rivers in both continuums ranged between 10 to 20% 318 (Figure 3) which is generally consistent with the values obtained for Arctic riverine systems 319 (typically 10 to 40%, Holmes et al., 2008; Mann et al., 2012; Wickland et al., 2012) and for 320 waters of thawing and collapsing permafrost (10 to 40%, Abbott et al., 2014). Soil solutions, 321 crack, small pond, fen and lake waters had a BDOC<sub>15</sub> ranging between 0 and 20%, which is 322 consistent with the biodegradability of lake waters from the Stordalen mire (10 to 20%, Roehm 323 et al., 2009). However, the biodegradability of fen leachate in the latter study ranged between 324 50 and 60%, which is 4 times higher than our values for the fen (~15%). Presumably, the fresh 325 leachate used by Roehm et al. (2009) contained a higher concentration of bioavailable OM 326 compared with natural, partially processed, fen waters used in this and other studies (i.e. 327 Michaelson et al., 1998; Spencer et al., 2015; Wickland et al., 2007). The BDOC<sub>15</sub> values across the two continuums of this study are at the highest range of those reported in the HC of frozen peatlands of Northern Eurasia (between 0 to 10% for depression, thermokarst lake, river and stream, Shirokova et al., 2019) and also slightly higher than the BDOC of waters from discontinuous permafrost (5 to 15%, mean 14%) (Vonk et al., 2015).

332 The PCA analysis allowed distinguishing two trends of biodegradability behavior linked 333 to LMWOA: i) the BDOC<sub>15</sub>, which negatively correlated with lactate but was not linked to 334 acetate and formate, and *ii*) the RDOC<sub>15</sub>; positively correlated to acetate and formate but which 335 did not correlate with lactate. This could suggest that the initial concentration of acetate and 336 formate influences the removal rate of DOC, because their presence triggers intensive microbial 337 metabolism as it was also observed by Cappenberg et al. (1982). In contrast, the overall 338 biodegradability of waters may be linked to the pattern of lactate which dominated in 339 concentrations of LMWOA of both continuums.

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## 4.2 Evolution of the DOC quality along the hydrological continuum

342 The positive and negative correlation between E2:E4 spectral ratio and SUVA254 343 respectively, with BDOC<sub>15</sub> observed by the PCA analysis (Figure 4), implies that an increase 344 in the humification of DOM and a decrease in the concentration of aromatic components 345 increase the biodegradable potential of DOM. The grouping of individuals waters located at the 346 end of both continuums in the upper left quadrant of the PCA biplot suggests that they are 347 influenced by the same variables (WAMW, TBC, pH and E2:E4 ratio). This is not observed for 348 waters at the beginning of continuums, whose signals were widely spread on the biplot. Such a 349 grouping of waters can be due to the mixing of large water bodies, receiving mostly lateral 350 surface flow due to precipitation, while smaller water bodies are mainly supplied by lateral 351 surface and supra-permafrost flow from thawing permafrost (Figure 1).

352 For the Stordalen continuum, a decreasing trend of FI in the course of incubation of 353 each water of the HC (Figure 2 D) indicates either i) an increase in the terrestrially-derived OM 354 or *ii*) a decrease in the microbially-derived OM (Cory et al., 2010; Mann et al., 2012). As no 355 fresh vegetation leachate was added in our incubations, the observed decrease of FI values 356 during the incubation of Stordalen waters corresponds to a relative decrease in the amount of 357 microbially-derived OM compared to the overall amount of OM. This is at odds with the 358 reported resistance of the bacterially-derived OM to the microbial degradation in freshwater 359 (Kawasaki et al., 2013). We, therefore, hypothesize that the relative decrease of the microbially-360 derived OM occurred due to a lack of easily biodegradable terrestrial OM and the persistence 361 of the most recalcitrant part of terrestrial OM, which is consistent with an increase in SUVA<sub>254</sub> 362 and WAMW with the incubation time. Moreover, a recent study on the evolution of the DOM 363 along a soil-stream-river continuum (Hutchins et al., 2017) demonstrated that soil-stream 364 waters were a hot spot of DOM degradation, with selective removal of low molecular weight 365 (LMW) components, whereas stream-river waters were more dominated by the degradation of 366 humic-like aromatic components. This trend is also observed in our study, particularly for the 367 Khanymey continuum in which the E2:E4 ratio (a proxy for humification degree) increased 368 during incubation of waters located at the beginning of the HC and decreased with time for the 369 waters at the end of the HC (Figure S2 A.1). This is also in agreement with the rapid uptake of 370 LMWOA observed during incubation (Table S4). SUVA<sub>254</sub> of the Khanymey and Stordalen HC (up to 6.3 and 5.5 L mg  $C^{-1}$  m<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) are greater than most of the previously 371 372 reported data of waters from depressions, lakes and river of discontinuous permafrost area (3.3 to 4.4 L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> (Roehm et al., 2009; Shirokova et al., 2019), but comparable to the values 373 of permafrost leachate ( $6.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ Lmg C}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$ , Roehm et al.; 2009). Such high SUVA values 374 375 reflect the dominance of allochthonous DOM of peat, providing the majority of DOC input to 376 the water bodies.

378

## 4.3 Comparison between the hydrological continuum of Khanymey and Stordalen

379 We note that there are somewhat higher levels of BDOC<sub>15</sub> in waters from the Stordalen 380 peat mire compared with the Khanymey peatlands (10 to 20% and 0 to 20%, respectively, 381 Figure 3). This difference cannot be attributed to the difference in seasons of sampling (July in 382 Khanymey and October in Stordalen) because, even if seasons are known to play an import role 383 in the BDOC, it has been shown that BDOC generally decreases as the Arctic summer progress 384 (Holmes et al., 2008; Mann et al., 2012; Vonk et al., 2015; Wickland et al., 2012). Therefore, 385 the effect of seasons would produce an opposite effect to that observed in this study. Moreover, 386 the PCA revealed that the  $BDOC_{15}$  is not correlated to the TBC (Figure 4). Thus, given the 387 higher values of BDOC<sub>15</sub> and the lower values of TBC in Stordalen compared with Khanymey, 388 we hypothesize that the biodiversity of microorganisms in the experiment, rather than the 389 microbial number (TBC) impact the final BDOC of waters. It has been shown that the microbial 390 community drastically and rapidly changes between summer and winter period with a 391 syntrophic winter community having a higher potential for mobilizing and converting complex 392 organic matter to more labile C sources (Vigneron et al., 2019). Consistent with this 393 observation, our results show a smaller increase in the SUVA<sub>254</sub> (reflecting the presence of 394 aromatic components, Hood et al. (2005); Neff et al. (2006)) during incubation of waters from 395 Stordalen (12 to 22% increase) compared to Khanymey (14 to 58% increase) (Figure 2 C). In 396 comparison, the biodegradation of peat water from the European boreal zone using the 397 experimental approach similar to that of the present study, produced an increase in SUVA<sub>254</sub> 398 by 7.4 ± 4.2 % (Hulatt et al., 2014).

401 *based fluxes estimates* 

The findings of this study and widely reported dominance of low-biodegradable DOC (0-15% BDOC) in large rivers and streams of the discontinuous permafrost zone (Frey et al., 2016; Vonk et al., 2015) suggest that 1) the majority of DOC is degraded before its arrival to large aquatic reservoirs (Striegl et al., 2005), and 2) the CO<sub>2</sub> supersaturation and emission of surface waters of frozen peatlands can be largely a result of soil, soil pore water and sediment respiration rather than an aerobic bio- and photo-degradation of DOM in the water column (Audry et al., 2011; Deshpande et al., 2017; Rocher-Ros et al., 2020; Shirokova et al., 2019).

409 In order to quantify the potential importance of biodegradation of DOC to the 410 atmospheric  $CO_2$  fluxes from the study systems, we assumed that the entire consumed DOC 411 was converted into CO<sub>2</sub>. This assumption allows to determine the maximal CO<sub>2</sub> emission 412 possible due to the biodegradation, keeping in mind that the true value is likely lower. Thus, to 413 assess the amount of CO<sub>2</sub>, potentially emitted due to the total mineralization of OC via 414 biodegradation (RCO<sub>2</sub>) in each water body, we multiplied RDOC<sub>15</sub> (Table S5) by the mean 415 depth of the water columns (Table S1). This calculation assumes 1) negligible uptake of C for 416 bacterial biomass growth, 2) constant biodegradation intensity over the full depth of the water 417 column, and that 3) the entire DOC pool is available for degradation. The obtained RCO<sub>2</sub> values 418 decreased for both HC from headwaters to streams and rivers of both Khanymey (range:  $-33 \pm$ 45 to  $241 \pm 72 \text{ mg C-CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) and the Stordalen (9 ± 3 to  $359 \pm 63 \text{ mg C-CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) HC 419 420 (Figure 5). The median ( $\pm$  IQR) RCO<sub>2</sub> values of thaw ponds and lakes of the Khanymey site  $(169 \pm 72 \text{ mg C-CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ , data not shown) are sizably lower than the median CO<sub>2</sub> emissions 421 422 from the western Siberia lowland (WSL) thermokarst lakes measured by floating chambers 423  $(1,101 \pm 4,150 \text{ mg C-CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ , Serikova et al. (2019)). The RCO<sub>2</sub> of the Khanymey streams and river (49  $\pm$  68 mg C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, data not shown) are also much lower than the median 424

425 values of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the WSL rivers (6,000  $\pm$  3,900 mg C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, Serikova et al. 426 (2018)). Similarly, the median RCO<sub>2</sub> of pond, fen and lake of the Stordalen site (38  $\pm$  62 mg 427 C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, data not shown) are much lower than the median CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from small (4-428 150 m<sup>2</sup>) thaw ponds of this mire (3,348  $\pm$  1,392 mg C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, Kuhn et al. (2018)). This 429 comparison clearly demonstrates that the potential contribution of DOC biodegradation to the 430 field-measured CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from inland waters of permafrost peatlands is typically below 431 10 % (Figure 5).

432 Therefore, the DOC biodegradation rates obtained in this study for the water column appear to be insufficient to support the observed CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the water surface to the atmosphere. 433 434 Several factors can contribute to this disparity. First, aerobic and anaerobic respiration of 435 stream, lake and river sediments as well as soil water input via supra-permafrost flow (i.e., 436 Raudina et al., 2018), that can produce a sizeable amount of CO<sub>2</sub>, thus increasing overall C 437 emission potential of the aquatic systems (MacIntyre et al., 2018; Valle et al., 2018). For 438 example, anaerobic C mineralization of thermokarst lake sediments is fairly well established in 439 discontinuous permafrost zone of peat bogs in western Siberia (Audry et al., 2011) and Canada 440 (Deshpande et al., 2017). Second, the photo-degradation (Panneer Selvam et al., 2019) of OM 441 as well as the photo-stimulation of the microbial respiration, which is known to decrease along 442 the HC (Cory and Kling, 2018), could enhance natural CO<sub>2</sub> emission compared to laboratory 443 incubations. Third, the POC present in the water column in the field can sizably contribute to 444 overall CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from surface waters: it has been shown that, during laboratory incubations of boreal and subarctic waters, the POC is 15 times more reactive towards 445 446 biodegradation than DOC (Attermeyer et al., 2018).

447 Our study dealt solely with dissolved components in closed systems and was conducted 448 in the ice-free season of arctic peatlands. Although the results of both incubations are 449 comparable between sites, which were sampled during the baseflow summer-autumn period, 450 additional factors need to be considered in order to fully understand the biogeochemical 451 processing of organic carbon in natural systems. These include i) seasonality (Gao et al., 2019; 452 Kaiser et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019), notably spring snowmelt period (Tang et al., 2018) and potential anoxic conditions in summer and winter (Deshpande et al., 2017), ii) water retention 453 454 time (Moore, 2009; Olefeldt and Roulet, 2012; Tang et al., 2018), iii) vegetation cover which 455 affects quality and quantity of OM input (Gałka et al., 2017; Kaiser et al., 2017); iv) the ratio 456 of water volume to soil/sediment surface area which determines the rate of fresh OM input 457 (Polishchuk et al., 2017), v) the biodegradability of the particulate organic carbon (Attermeyer 458 et al., 2018), and vi) redox conditions in the water column (Deshpande et al., 2017) and at the

459 water-sediment interface (Valle et al., 2018).

## 5. Conclusions

461 Biodegradation experiments demonstrated a decreasing trend of DOC removal rate 462 along the HC from soil solutions to lakes, streams, and rivers of the discontinuous permafrost 463 zone of permafrost peatlands of W. Siberia and N. Sweden. While we hypothesized a decrease 464 of the DOC biodegradability along the HC, the BDOC increased from the beginning to the end 465 of the continuum. This could be linked to preferential removal of labile, low molecular weight compartments of the DOM which are likely to be firstly processed during the transition because 466 467 the fresher DOC is delivered into the early stages of the HC. Low DOM biodegradability 468 reported in this study (0 and 20%) suggests that the majority of BDOC is degraded before its 469 arrival to a larger aquatic reservoir or even before reaching surface waters. We also suggest that 470 the biodegradation can support part of the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from surface waters of these peatlands 471 but that other sources are likely of larger importance, including soil and sediment respiration of 472 dissolved and particulate OC, photo-degradation and photo-stimulation of the microbial 473 respiration. Concurrent measurements of BDOC and direct CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the field are 474 needed to constrain the quantitative importance of *in-situ* DOM degradation for CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes to 475 the atmosphere. Considering the fast processing of OM at the beginning of the continuum and 476 the increasing biodegradability of waters along the HC, this study highlights the importance of 477 accounting for the large spatial heterogeneity of aquatic environments which is needed for 478 mechanistically modeling of C cycling in permafrost peatlands.

## **CRediT** authorship contribution statement

480 D. Payandi-Rolland: conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, L.S.
481 Shirokova: conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, M. Tesfa: investigation,
482 P. Bénézeth: writing – original draft, A.G. Lim: investigation, D. Kuzmina: investigation, J.
483 Karlsson: conceptualization, writing – original draft, R. Giesler: conceptualization, writing –
484 original draft, O.S. Pokrovsky: conceptualization, writing – original draft.

485

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501

#### 502 **Conflicts of interests**

503 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# Figures



Figure 1: Schematic of a hydrological continuum in the discontinuous permafrost region. The hydrological continuum represents a progression of wetland water habitats from gravitational soil water in soil pits and cracks to small ponds, fens, lakes, streams and rivers. While the soil solutions represent the upper end of the continuum the rivers are the receiving system at the other end of the transition. Note that either the vertical or horizontal scales are not representative.



Figure 2: DOC concentration (mg L<sup>-1</sup>, A), BDOC (%, B), SUVA (L mg C<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup>, C) of the
Khanymey (.1) and Stordalen (.2) hydrological continuum; and FI evolution of the Stordalen
continuum during incubation time (D). Note that the total incubation time is 30 days for
Khanymey continuum and 15 days for Stordalen continuum.





Figure 3: The removal rate of dissolved organic carbon (RDOC<sub>15</sub>) of waters along the
hydrological continuum (HC) after 15 days of incubations (bars and left y-axes). The filled
circles show the biodegradable DOC (BDOC<sub>15</sub>) after 15 days of incubations from the same
HC. The waters are from 15 locations across two HC's: one in northern Sweden (Stordalen;
light grey fill for circle and bars) and one in western Siberia (Khanymey; dark gray for circle
fill and bars). The sites are represented starting from the left with the upper end of the HC and
the receiving systems to the right (see figure 1). The error bars denote one standard deviation.



Figure 4: Biplot of the individual PCA on waters from Stordalen (circle) and Khanymey
 (square) hydrological continuum and variable correlation plot (black arrow).



815 Figure 5: Left axis: Calculated potential  $CO_2$  fluxes (mean  $\pm$  SD) emitted by biodegradation 816 (RCO<sub>2</sub>) of waters from the Khanymey (black circles) and Stordalen (grey squares) hydrological continuum. Right axis: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, log scale) field-based 817 estimated from other studies in Khanymey region (dark grey boxplot) for rivers (Serikova et 818 819 al., 2018) and thermokarst lakes (Serikova et al., 2019); and in thaw ponds from the 820 Stordalen region (light grey boxplot, Kuhn et al. (2018)). The box encloses 50% of the data 821 and the horizontal bar marks the median. Whiskers extend to the outermost data-points. \* No 822 outermost data-points are given for those studies. \*\* Negative values for the minimum 823 outermost data-point