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- 1 Thermal regime variability of frozen islands in the Lena River floodplain near Yakutsk, eastern Siberia 2
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- 8

9 Abstract

10 Recent evidence has shown that Arctic regions have warmed about twice as much as elsewhere on 11 the planet over the last decades, and that high-latitude permafrost-periglacial processes and 12 hydrological systems are notably responsive to rising temperatures. The aim of this paper is to report 13 on permafrost thermal regime of islands located along the Lena River floodplain, upstream of the city 14 of Yakutsk (eastern Siberia). Four islands were monitored during two consecutive years (July 2009 to 15 July 2011) to characterize their frozen soil thermal regime using waterproof dataloggers and 16 continuous monitoring of permafrost in contact with ice breakup of the Lena River. For each of these 17 islands, we measured: i) river water, air and frozen soil temperatures at different depths; ii) height of 18 ice jams; iii) submersion duration and height during the flood; iv) erosion and sedimentation. The 19 results show that within a zone of thick and continuous permafrost, the Lena River floodplain is far 20 from being homogeneous: it rather shows notably heterogeneous thermal regimes, with some 21 islands composed of permafrost and others with only seasonally frozen ground. Our study highlights 22 the complexity of ecosystem responses across Arctic environments.

23

24 **1.** Introduction

25

26 Permafrost has been warming at the global scale over the last decade, following the Arctic 27 amplification of air temperature increase in the Northern Hemisphere (Biskaborn et al., 2019). 28 Recent work has shown a significant increase in air and ground temperatures in central Yakutia since the late 1980s (Fedorov et al., 2014; lijima et al., 2016, Zhang et al., 2012). In the lower Lena River 29 30 valley (Figure 1), according to Yang et al. (2002), the mean annual ground temperature has increased 31 by about 1.3°C since 1930. The mean annual air temperature at Yakutsk, which was ranging between -10.3°C and -9.9° for the period 1936-1999, has increased to -7.4°C for the period 2008-2017. The 32 warming is characterized by a marked inter-seasonal evolution: a strong increase (+3°C since 2000) in 33 34 winter temperatures (November-March) is observed, while spring temperatures (April and May)

have increased by 2.3°C. The precipitation (about 230 mm per year at Yakutsk) does not show the
same trend, however. Very wet conditions have occurred more frequently since 1998 (1999, 2005,
2006, 2007 and 2013), with storms affecting Siberia resulting in more abundant late summer
precipitation and early winter snow (Fedorov et al., 2014b; lijima et al., 2016).

39 Furthermore, active layer deepening results in an increase in river discharge. At the beginning of the 40 21st century, Peterson et al. (2002) reported an average increase of 7% in water discharge volumes 41 delivered by the seven main sub-arctic rivers, including the Lena. More recently, a study (Gautier et al., 2018) reported a strong water discharge increase since the beginning of the 21st century for the 42 43 Lena River at Tabaga (just upstream of Yakutsk): the 2000-2017 discharge was 15% higher than the discharge for 1936-1999. Furthermore, floods are also changing, with more frequent flood peaks and 44 45 longer recorded flooding durations (Gautier et al., 2018). Recent exceptional flood events are 46 reported (Shiklomanov and Lammers, 2009; Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2018; Tei et al., 47 2020). There has also been a decrease in winter river ice cover, used as road. Winter thawing/melting events, as well as spring ice jam floods during the ice breakups represent major risks 48 49 for riverside residents, road and river infrastructures. All these factors lead to permafrost instability 50 and consequent changes in forest, wetland, lake and river ecosystems.



56

57 Very few studies have focused on geomorphological impacts of ice breakups and floods on major 58 Arctic rivers. Most of the geomorphological studies concern river dynamics of breakup for Canadian 59 Arctic rivers (Beltaos and Burrell, 2002). Specifically, studies have shown the role of the ice cover and 60 its thickness on the intensity of ice jams produced by ice packs along the Yukon River (Shen, 2003; 61 Walker and Hudson, 2003). With increasing discharge, the ice cover under pressure locally cracks and starts to move (Shen, 2003). This is the beginning of the "break up" phase where ice rafts accumulate 62 at the head of islands (Figure 2). The flow often carries these ice blocks along with tree trunks 63 64 (Walker and Hudson, 2003). Ice jams produce local dams, resulting in a sudden rise of water levels 65 (Billfalk, 1982; Beltaos and Burell, 2002; Costard et al., 2014). During the flooding season, a typical

<sup>Figure 1: A. Location of the Lena basin (grey-shaded area). B. Study area (upstream of Yakustk).
Background image: Spot 2008; Star with letters: Temperature sensors.</sup>

heat exchange takes place between the water and the frozen islands, leading to accelerated erosion

67 of the banks (Are, 1983; Jahn, 1975; Walker, 1983).

68

69 Breakup is strongly heterogeneous, as numerous factors control its starting date and intensity 70 (Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2018). These events can depend on temperature and 71 precipitation within the watershed, but also on ice cover thickness, starting date and duration of the 72 break-up phase, and spring and/or winter temperatures. In Siberia, the conditions for the onset of 73 break-up events, as well as their intensity or efficiency on erosion, remain poorly characterized. 74 Moreover, analysis of climatic and hydrological data near Yakutsk showed a very clear thinning trend 75 in winter ice thickness and a significant increase in water temperature of the Lena River near Tabaga (gauging station upstream section of Yakutsk, Figure 1). We have also demonstrated (Costard et al., 76 77 2007) the impact of recent warming on increasing erosion rates of the islands by thermal erosion. .

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Figure 2: Beginning of the ice breakup on the Lena River in 2010. The Eselyakh Island is submerged. Flow from right to left. During the first days, drifting ice blocks on the river form thick ice accumulations at the Eselyakh Island head, together with a frontal erosion of up to 40 m within a few days.

84

85 Break-up and large flooding events represent an important risk in Arctic regions and can threaten 86 infrastructures. In May 2001 and 2010, catastrophic breakup events linked to an early spring season 87 following a severe winter strongly impacted the cities of Yakutsk and Lensk (Gautier et al., 2018). 88 Recently, a project of a 6 km-long bridge across the Lena floodplain at Tabaga site is projected and it 89 implies accurate knowledge of the formation, and especially of the causes of the variable intensity of 90 these ice breakups. Specifically, there is a clear need to analyze the conditions that triggered these 91 ice breakups and their subsequent geomorphological impacts on the Lena river banks. Interestingly, 92 some key parameters remain unresolved, such as the thermal state of these frozen islands. In order

to document the thermal profiles of these islands and to clarify the thermal impact of these ice breakups on Lena floodplain permafrost, we started a joint research program between GEOPS and LGP laboratories near Paris and the Melnikov Permafrost Institute in Yakutsk. The main objective of this paper was to investigate the hypothesis that some of these islands contain permanently frozen soil (permafrost), while others are affected only by seasonal frost.

98

99 2. Study area

100 Central Yakutia (eastern Siberia) is characterized by a strongly continental climate with extreme 101 variations in air temperatures, ranging from +40°C in summer to -60°C in winter (Fedorov et al., 102 2014). The region is characterized by a thick continuous ice-rich permafrost of late Pleistocene age, 103 called "Yedoma" (Antonov, 1960; e.g., Schirrmeister et al., 2013). Figure 3 and Table 1 show the 104 contrasted ground surface temperature range between July 2009 and July 2011, as recorded within 105 the Lena River floodplain upstream of Yakutsk at the Eselyakh Island (for location see Figure 1). The average annual ground surface temperature is around -10°C. The low annual precipitation (230 mm 106 107 near Yakutsk), together with a high evaporation rate, induces a dry climate (Antonov, 1960). The wet season occurs in the summer, with 140 mm distributed between June and September. Snow cover 108 109 thickness remains low (30 to 40 cm), which favors efficient frost penetration and the existence of 110 deep permafrost, especially underneath the taiga. Locally, permafrost has an average temperature of 111 -5°C and a maximum depth of 1500 m (Fedorov and Konstantinov, 2009). Since the end of the 1980s, 112 it has undergone a warming of almost 1.5°C (at a depth of 3.2 m), together with a deepening of the 113 active layer, with values ranging from 0.8 to 1.2 m at the latitude of Yakutsk (Fedorov and Konstantinov, 2003; Fedorov et al., 2014). 114





Figure 3: Recorded ground surface temperatures of Hobo E between July 2009 and July 2011 on theLena River floodplain at Eselyakh Island.

119

120 In Yakutia, the Lena River is one of the largest fluvial hydrosystems within the periglacial zone (Figure 1), with thick and continuous permafrost. From its large watershed (2.49 million km²), the Lena 121 annually brings 525-537 km³ of water to the Laptev Sea (Antonov, 1960; Shiklomanov et al., 2009), 122 representing 15 % of total freshwater flow into the Arctic Ocean. During the winter season, the river 123 124 flows under an ice cover of 1.4 m thick on average (min: 30 cm; max. 2 m). The river discharge is then extremely low (less than 1500 m³ s⁻¹ at the Tabaga station, south of Yakutsk city, by 61° 4'N and 129° 125 3'E) and reaches its lowest discharge of 870 m³ s⁻¹ at the end of the cold season (Gautier and Costard, 126 127 2000; Gautier et al., 2018).

128

129 The four instrumented islands present various configurations. Two islands (Eselyak and Timochka) 130 are located in the central part of the active channel, whereas Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh are two very 131 large lateral islands, sizing 5 km² and about 20 km², respectively (Figure 1). The islands are colonized 132 by a homogeneous alluvial forest mainly composed of willows. On the Lena River, islands are formed 133 by stabilization of sand bars by pioneer sequences. Because of the short duration of flooding in the spring, sand bars are dewatered during two or three months (July-September), allowing young 134 135 willows to grow. Because of their abundance, young trees trap the sediment load, causing rapid 136 vertical accretion of the island (Gautier et al., 2021). Hence, the basis of the island stratigraphy is 137 mainly composed of sand, i.e. homometric (D_{50} = 200 - 250 µm) sandy material organized in 138 horizontal beds several tens of centimeters thick. The sandy deposits are often covered with layers of 139 silt (D_{50} between 50 and 100 μ m) deposited by overbank flows. Thicker fine-grained deposits can be 140 found in abandoned channels. For a detailed description of the sedimentary sequences of these 141 islands, see Gautier and Costard (2000) and Costard et al. (2014).

142 On the Lena river, ice breakups are controlled by the meridian (i.e. from south to north) course of the 143 river, with a 30- to 50-day lag between basin upstream and downstream (Gautier et al., 2003). As a 144 result, a flood wave propagates from the southern regions further to the still-frozen regions in the 145 north. In spring, when snow and ice covers melt, the flow increases abruptly. Massive ice and log 146 jams can be formed on the island heads (figure 2). The ice break-up at the latitude of Yakutsk occurs 147 during the second half of May and within a few days, the volume of water flow increases by 20 to 45 times. The peak flood can reach up to 50,000 m³ s⁻¹ (Antonov, 1960, Liu et al., 2005; Gautier et al., 148 149 2018). At the latitude of Yakutsk, that water level during the flood season can be up to 8 to 10 m 150 relative to the winter low water level (Costard et al., 2007; Gautier et al., 2018). During high floods, 151 the Lena flood spreads over a width of 25 km. The water temperature, very low in the winter and at 152 the beginning of the flooding season, increases rapidly to reach 17-18°C in July and August (Costard 153 et al., 2014).

155 Preliminary studies based on the analysis of satellite images had been conducted, which enabled us 156 to identify the locations with the highest erosion rates on a 100-km long transect of the Lena River in 157 Yakutia (Costard et al. 2007). Furthermore, more than one hundred islands have been surveyed on the basis satellite images (1967 – 2017) and erosion – sedimentation was surveyed for several years 158 159 on five islands (Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2021). Thermal erosion of river banks ranges on average between 11 and 18 m yr⁻¹ on island head (upper part) and 5 to 10 m on island side. In 160 localized areas, erosion rates of 25 to 40 m yr⁻¹ could be observed (Gautier et al., 2003; Costard et al., 161 2007, 2014; Tananaev, 2016; Dupeyrat et al., 2018; Gautier et al., 2021). The thermo-mechanical 162 163 erosion efficiency implies that the water is permanently in contact with permafrost (Walker and 164 Arnborg, 1963; Jahn, 1975; Walker, 1983; Costard et al., 2014).

165 For the purpose of our study, a site upstream of Yakutsk (Figure 1) have been chosen, which allows

to avoid the urban heat flow. In addition, the upper Lena River is not impacted by dams. Ten islands

167 were preselected, and four of them have been instrumented and discussed further in this paper

- 168 (Figure 1). Two islands are lateral old islands and two are located in the center of the river channel.
- 169

170 Table 1. Main features of the 4 study islands. Letters: temperature sensors

	Area (m²)								
Island Name	1967	2008	2017	Age	Temp. at -3 m	Duration of	Sediment	Geomorphic Unit	
					Mean – Max	measurement			
					(°C)				
Eselyakh									
Upstream part	486,726	198,256	105,520	>60 yr	Т4	2008 – 2011	Mixed sed.	Abandoned channel	
Downstream	416,877	790,189	675,931		E: -2.3/-3.1	2009 – 2011	Sand	Bar	
part					H: -0.3/-0.6	2008 – 2011			
Timochka									
Upstream part	216,239	135,560	107,161	<30 yr	A: 0.7/2.1	2008 – 2014	Sand	Bar/island	
Downstream	0	70,300	79,164		P: 0.6/1.6	2010 - 2014	Sand	Bar/island	
part					R: 1.1/1.6	2010 – 2015	Sand	Bar/island	
					S: 1.1/1.6	2016 – 2018	Sand	Bar/island	
Ynakh-Ary	5 047,718	5 338,126	5 0294,298	>70 yr	I:-3.1/-3.4	2009 – 2016	Mixed sed.	Abandoned channel	
Saty-Talakh	18 247,279	20 125,713	19 685,946	>70 yr	Q: 0.3/-1.2	2010 - 2018	Sand	Bar/island	

172 **3. Methods**

173 In order to determine the ground temperature of the islands with and without permafrost, and to 174 evaluate the active layer thickness on the islands, various methods were integrated. First, a drilling 175 campaign (2008) enabled the installation of several temperature sensors at different depths and a 176 precise measurement of the active layer. We used HOBO 4-channels dataloggers (model U12-008) to 177 record variations in the thermal profile of the frozen soil at different depths. Each datalogger, previously calibrated in the laboratory, includes 4 thermocouples that automatically record, every 178 179 hour, permafrost and water temperature with an accuracy of +0.1°C, on the soil surface, at 1m, 2m 180 and 3.2 m depth (Figure 4). On Saty-Talakh island, the sensors have been installed at 2 m, 3 m and 4 181 m depth. Once a year, after the ice break-up, we went to the instrumented sites to collect data from 182 the dataloggers and to ensure the equipment maintenance on site. During the first year (2008) on 183 Timochka and Eselyakh islands, only two among the four sensors worked well and the others were broken by the strong ice breakup. They were modified to ensure waterproof conditions and to 184 185 improve the robustness of the equipment in order to support the mechanical effect of ice breakups (e.g., internal pressure). Thus, we had to develop a new system (Figure 4) that is much more efficient 186 187 and could support the repeated impacts of ice rafts and water pressure (Konstantinov et al., 2011). 188 Unfortunately, because of the extremely rough conditions, the duration of measurements of the 189 temperature sensors is very variable (Table 1): some of them have been working for more than 10 years, whereas others disappeared during a flood or were buried under meters of sediment and 190 191 woody debris.

192



Figure 4: Photo on the left: Drilling in permafrost for the installation of thermocouples placed at 0 m, 1m, 2m and 3.2m depth. 1- polypropylene tube; 2- dry sand; 3-wooden bloc; 4- tube plug; 5-sensor; 6-cable; 7- waterproofing compound; 8-protective box; 9-data logger; 10-bottom of active layer. Photo on the right: HOBO datalogger modified to support flooding of the island during spring breakup. Note the 2 weights on the box and the wooden support holding the datalogger in the waterproof box. (Figure modified from Konstantinov et al., 2011).

201

Other Progres-Plus Thermo-Buttons iBTag (model 22L with a ± 0.5°C accuracy) sensors were installed on *Salix* trunks of two instrumented islands (Timoshka and Eselyakh islands) to estimate the height and duration of submersion and variations of water temperature (Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2018). These thermobuttons were installed from the ground surface and every 50 cm up to a height of 3 m. The water levels are correlated to the daily discharge measured by the navigation services at Tabaga (gauging station at 8 km from the sites). Every sensor position was precisely determined with a GPS and a total station.

We estimated the age of the islands based on the year of their appearance (Gautier et al., 2021) from a diachronic analysis of satellite images (Figure 10). We also used the dendrochronology method to precisely measure the age of the oldest trees. Our objectives were to identify a possible difference in their thermal regime between perennially-frozen islands and islands without permafrost (only frozen in winter).

We also quantified the variability of erosion and sedimentation rates over a year using field surveys (total station topographic measurements and sediment traps) and we realized various grain-size analyses of the deposits (Costard et al., 2014). Here, we focus our study on the thermal regime offour islands (Figure 1).

218

- 219 4. **Results**
- 4.1. Islands with permafrost
- 221 Thermal subsoil profiles on Eselyakh Island

Based on datalogger data, we present the thermal profiles of the four islands over two consecutive years between July 2009 and July 2011. The upper part of Eselyakh Island (Hobo E & H, Figures 6 and 7) has a permafrost with an annual average temperature of -1.3°C at 3.2 m depth. Hobo measurements from successive field campaigns have shown that this permafrost is thicker on the upstream section of the island (Figure 5). The soil is composed of silty-clay material.

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- 228



229 230

Figure 5: Schematic longitudinal section of Eselyakh Island. 1: permafrost; 2: active layer. Blue arrow
indicates flow direction (to the North). Hobo H is located near a 30 m-diameter thermokarst lake.

233

234 For this island, according to the thermal profile of HOBO E (Figure 6), permafrost temperatures 235 ranged from -0.1°C to -16.1°C at a depth of 1 m and from -0.3°C to -10.4°C at a depth of 2 m during the two consecutive winters (2009 - 2010 and 2010 - 2011). At 3.2m depth, the variability of 236 237 permafrost temperature was even less pronounced, ranging between -0.5°C and -7.5°C. The second 238 winter was harsher: the surface temperature dropped to -25°C, and ground temperatures at 1 m, 2 239 m and 3.2 m deep reached their lowest values during this winter. The active layer is 1.6 m thick. We 240 note a downward propagation of the winter freezing wave and a time lag with depth for reaching 241 minimum temperature due to the thermal inertia of frozen ground (Figure 6). For example, the 242 minimum annual temperature was reached in early March at a depth of 1 m, in late March at 2 m, 243 and in mid-April at 3.2 m during the first winter. This ~ 20-day time lag between different depths was also observed during the second winter, although nearly three weeks earlier than the previous year 244 245 (in mid-February, early March and late March, respectively). For the October - December period, 246 temperatures were stabilized for several weeks (from 70 to 80 days) at 0°C at a depth of 1 m at the 247 time of freezing due to the effect of latent heat (zero curtain effect on Figure 6). At 2m- and 3.2m-248 depth, temperature began to decrease at the end of January. The lowest temperatures were 249 registered in April 2010 and in March and April 2011. The permafrost here is composed of ice-rich silty clay materials (ice content around 40% by volume) 250

251



252 253

Figure 6: Ground thermal profiles on Eselyakh Island at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m depth for HOBO E

255 datalogger (July 2009 – July 2011). Blue arrows correspond to the zero curtain effect during phase

change of the water-ice flow during breakup.



Figure 7: Ground thermal profiles on Eselyakh Island at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m depth for HOBO H
datalogger. (July 2009 – July 2011).

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Contrastingly, the thermal profile of HOBO H, located further downstream on the island (Figure 7), 263 264 shows the presence of a notably warmer permafrost. The temperature ranged between ~ 0°C and -265 5.5°C (1m), between -0.1°C and -2.8°C (2m) and between -0.2°C and -1.7°C (3.2m) during the second 266 (colder) winter. Contrastingly, temperature reached -4°C at 1m and stayed around 0°C at 2 and 3.2m deep during the first (warmer) winter. In fact, this recorder is located not far from a 30 m-diameter 267 thermokarst lake (Figure 5) corresponding to an abandoned channel, and indicates an average 268 269 annual ground temperature of -0.5°C. The temperature did not vary a lot during the first winter and decreased a bit more during the second winter. The lowest temperature was registered at the end of 270 271 the cold season (April, beginning of May), just before the breakup. The sediment is identical, with the 272 same composition and grain size characteristics as on the previous site. The lake obviously induces a 273 thermal effect by heating the upper part of permafrost, and its presence alone can explain the 274 observed difference in the thermal regime between HOBO E and HOBO H.

275

276 Thermal subsoil profiles on large lateral islands (Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh)

277 On Ynakh-Ary, Hobo I has been working from 2009 to 2016 (Figure 8). The temperature varied 278 between -0.1 and -14°C (1m) -1.2°C and -11.1°C (2m) and between -1.2°C and -8.9°C (3.2m depth). 279 The same progressive temperature decrease is observed, with a 2 month-time-lag separating the 280 beginning of continuous negative temperature on the soil surface (October) and the start of the 281 cooling within the permafrost: beginning of January at 1 m and 2 m depths, end of January or early 282 February at 3.2m depth.













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309 Discussion

- 310
- 311 Age of the islands and permafrost

The middle Lena River develops a multiple-channel pattern with large forested islands (Costard et al., 2000; Gautier et al. 2008). The anabranching fluvial pattern implies relative stability of the channels and islands, although some islands quickly migrate downstream. This is the case for two islands (Eselyak and Timochka) that are located in the central part of the active channel (Figure 1). Thus, they rapidly migrate downstream, as the head is progressively eroded, whereas the tail (downstream) progresses by deposition (Figure 10). The two other islands (Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh) are large lateral islands, and are more stable.

Eselyakh and Timochka are bisected islands with a secondary channel between the two parts (Figure 1, Table 1). Eselyakh is older than Timochka, as its two parts were already formed in 1967 (Corona pictures) and a dendrochonological analysis allows to precisely determine the age of an old willow (56 years old in 2010). This is due to the stabilization of a sand bar during the 1950's. The upper part of Eselyakh is progressively shrinking due to head erosion, whereas the lower part is growing by sedimentation. Timochka is an elongated island that is migrating very rapidly since its formation. Hence, the present-day island is young: the upper part corresponds to a deposition zone formed between 1980 and 1996.

Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh are large islands with surface area of 5 km² and 20 km², respectively. 327 328 According to local inhabitants, they are very old islands. They were formed by the merging of 329 different islands, and lake and swamps occupy the former inter-island channels. From our study, it 330 appears that the oldest islands are thus at least 50 years old in our selected study area (Gautier et al., 331 2021). The Ynakh-Ary, Saty-Talakh and Eselyakh islands are old islands with permafrost developed in 332 fine-grained material (silt-clay) accumulated in lower energy sections of the river, whereas Timoshka 333 Island is relatively young, with only seasonally frozen ground and mostly sand deposits accumulated 334 near the main channel, with high energy.





- 337 Figure 10: Main island migration on the Lena river upstream of Yakutsk city) from GIS study. Blue line:
- island shape in 1967 (Corona photographs); Green line: island shape 2017 (Pleiade images).
- 339

340 Thermal effect of spring breakup: the example of the 2010 breakup

During spring floods, the islands along the Lena River channel are submerged and this induces an additional thermal imprint. Our dataloggers were able to record this specific stage on Eselyakh and Ynakh-Ary islands (Figure 11). It can be see that the temperature variations on the ground are suddenly interrupted on May 19, 2010 with a temperature dropping and remaining at 0°C until May 25, 2010 (Figure 11). This is due to the inundation of the islands where the flooding begins when the water discharge exceeds 30,000 m³.s⁻¹. The submersion duration greatly varied during the study period (Table 2).

Furthermore, the sensor installed at the soil surface (0 m on Figure 11) registered the water temperature. At the beginning of the flooding, temperatures close to 0°C confirm the existence of a mixture of water and ice during the break-up. Then, after a few days, the water temperature slightly increases (1°C to 3°C) as the islands are inundated by water only.

352

353 Table 2. Flooding characteristics

	Flooding duration (Days)	Number flood peaks	Mean water temperature
2009	26	June 3 rd – June 28 th	ND
2010	9	May 19 th – May 27 th	0°C – 0.9°C
2011	6	May 13 th – May 18 th	0.2°C – 1.4°C
2012	36	May 17 th – May 26 th	0°C – 3°C
		June 5 th – June 19 th	9.5°C – 12°C
		July 5 th – July 9 th	15°C – 15.5°C
		July 28 th – August 4 th	15°C – 16.5°C
2013	14	May 14 th – May 21 st	
		July 23 rd – July 29 th	
2014	0		
2015	7	May 13 th – May 19 th	0.3°C – 3°C
2016	10	June 10 th – June 16 th	11.6°C – 13.3°C
		July 31 st – August 3 rd	14.6° – 15°C
2017	5	July 20 th – July 24 th	ND
2018	11	May 5 th – May 10 th	ND
		July 19 th – July 25 th	

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356 However, the observed effect of island submersion at the time of break-up appears to have a 357 relatively moderated impact on permafrost thermal profile at depth (i.e. more than 1 m deep). This 358 can likely be explained by 1) the duration of submersion, which in that case is too short to have a 359 long-term thermal impact in the ground, and 2) the water temperature, still near 0°C, again 360 precluding major thermal disturbance within the ground, at least below the surface. Figure 11 clearly 361 shows that the thermal regime of permafrost for the two islands with permafrost (Eselyakh and 362 Ynakh-Ary) did not fluctuate, even during the 10-day submersion of the island during the ice breakup 363 in May.









Figure 11: Water discharge and temperature on islands with permafrost (2010, May 1 – June 5). A: Eselyakh Island (HOBO E), B: Ynakh-Ary Island (Sensor I). Water Discharge at Tabaga gauging station (Roshydromet data); 0 m: soil surface temperature; permafrost temperature at different depths (1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m); air temperature at Yakustk (NOAA, NASA data). The red arrow corresponds to the duration of the submersion of the islands in relation with a discharge > 30,000 m³.s⁻¹.

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During some years, the islands can be inundated two times or more. For example, in 2012, the Lena River underwent four flood peaks (Figure 12). This offers the possibility to examine the effect of repeated inundations and warm stream water. Even if the water temperature strongly increased from May to August, reaching 15°C – 16°C at the end of the summer, the submersion does not seem to have caused a marked increase in permafrost temperature (Figure 12).



Figure 12: Water discharge, air temperature and permafrost temperature of Ynakh-Ary (HOBO I) between May and August 2012. Water Discharge at Tabaga gauging station (Roshydromet data); 0 m: soil surface temperature; permafrost temperature at different depths (1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m); air temperature at Yakutsk (NOAA, NASA data). Red horizontal line corresponds to a discharge > 30,000 m³.s⁻¹ in relation with the submersion of the island.

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389 Conclusions

390 For a first time, we were able to instrument a large Artic river in order to acquire new data on the 391 thermal impacts of ice break-up (intensity, duration, ice thickness) and flooding (water temperature, 392 duration of submersion) on ground thermal regime. Our measurement campaigns revealed that the 393 floodplain of the Lena River, upstream of Yakutsk, did not always contain permafrost, and that some 394 highly mobile islands have (only) seasonally frozen ground. The Lena floodplain is notably 395 heterogeneous, with a combination of permanently and seasonally frozen islands. The observed 396 disparity between these instrumented islands is significant and unexpected, because it confirms that 397 the Lena River floodplain is far from being thermally and geomorphologically homogenous. It rather 398 consists of a juxtaposition of seasonally frozen islands and permanently frozen islands in the regional 399 context of a floodplain affected by thick and continuous permafrost. Further surveys of 10 more 400 islands confirm that relatively young (less than 30 years old) islands, composed of fine sand material

401 accumulated in higher energy sectors, appear less prone to permafrost formation compared to older

402 islands with ice-rich silty material deposited in lower energy environment.

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