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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 the 11 planet over the last decades, and that high-latitude permafrost-periglacial processes and hydrological systems are notably responsive to rising temperatures. The aim of this paper is to report on thermal 12 13 regime of islands located along the Lena River floodplain, upstream of the city of Yakutsk (eastern 14 Siberia). Four islands were monitored using waterproof dataloggers and continuous monitoring of 15 frozen soil in contact with ice breakup of the Lena River. For each of these islands, we measured: i) 16 ground surface temperature, air and frozen soil temperatures at different depths; ii) submersion 17 duration during the flood. Our results show that within a zone of thick and continuous permafrost, the 18 Lena floodplain is notably heterogeneous, with a combination of permanently and seasonally frozen 19 islands. The ice breakups seem to have a negligible impact on the ground thermal regime. Our study 20 confirms that relatively young (less than 30 years old) islands, composed of fine sand material, appear 21 less prone to permafrost formation compared to older islands with ice-rich silty material.

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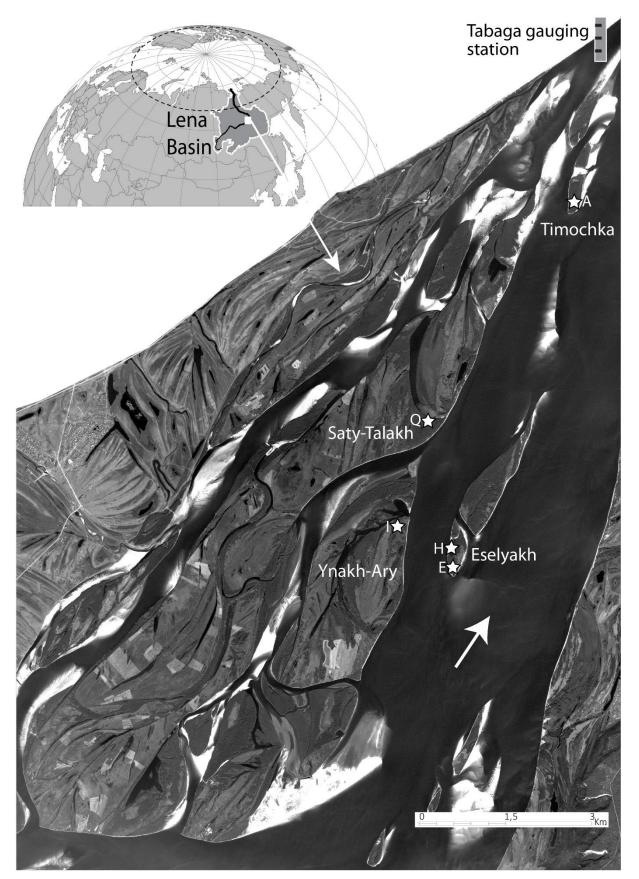
1. Introduction

24

25 Permafrost has been warming at the global scale over the last decade, following the Arctic 26 amplification of air temperature increase in the Northern Hemisphere (Biskaborn et al., 2019). Recent 27 work has shown a significant increase in air and ground temperatures in central Yakutia (Eastern 28 Siberia) since the late 1980s (Fedorov et al., 2014; lijima et al., 2016, Zhang et al., 2012). In the Lena River valley (Figure 1), according to lijima et al. (2010), the mean annual ground temperature at a depth 29 30 of 3.2 m has increased by about 1.3°C since 1930. The mean annual air temperature at Yakutsk was -31 9.9° 9 and it ranged between -8°C and -12°C for the period 1936-199. The mean annual air temperature 32 has increased to -8.4°C between 2000 and 2007 and to -7.4°C after 2008 (the last period ranging between -6.7°C and -7.8°C). A wetter period is registered between 2002 and 2008 (mean annual value 33 34 for the period: 276 mm), however the precipitation has decreased after (about 220 – 230 mm). Very wet conditions occurred in 1999, 2003, 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).

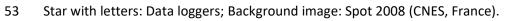
38 Furthermore, active layer deepening results in an increase in river discharge (Peterson et al., 2002). 39 More recently, Gautier et al. (2018) reported a strong water discharge increase since the beginning of 40 the 21st century for the Lena River at Tabaga (just upstream of Yakutsk city, at 61° 4'N and 129° 3'E, 41 Figure 1): the 2000-2017 discharge was 15% higher than the discharge for 1936-1999. Furthermore, 42 floods are also changing, with more frequent flood peaks and longer recorded flooding durations 43 (Gautier et al., 2018). Recent exceptional flood events are reported (Shiklomanov and Lammers, 2009; 44 Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2018; Tei et al., 2020). There has also been a decrease in winter 45 river ice cover, used as road. Winter thawing/melting events, as well as spring ice jam floods during the ice breakups represent major risks for riverside residents, road and river infrastructures. All these 46 47 factors lead to permafrost instability and consequent changes in forest, wetland, lake and river 48 ecosystems.

49





52 Figure 1: A: Location of the Lena basin and the study sites (upstream of Yakutsk). B: Observation points.



54 Very few studies have focused on permafrost in floodplains and little is known on geomorphological 55 impacts of ice breakups and floods on major Arctic rivers. Most of the geomorphological studies report on river dynamics of breakup for Canadian Arctic rivers (Beltaos and Burrell, 2002). Specifically, studies 56 have shown the role of the ice cover and its thickness on the intensity of ice jams produced by ice packs 57 58 along the Yukon River (Shen, 2003; Walker and Hudson, 2003). With increasing discharge, the ice cover 59 under pressure locally cracks and starts to move (Shen, 2003). This is the beginning of the "breakup" phase where ice rafts accumulate at the head of islands (Figure 2); ice breakup usually occurs in spring, 60 61 between May 20th and early June on the middle Lena River, and in Mid-June or late June downstream, 62 in the low valley (Gautier and Costard, 2000). The flow often carries these ice blocks along with tree 63 trunks (Walker and Hudson, 2003). Ice jams produce local dams, resulting in a sudden rise of water 64 levels (Billfalk, 1982; Beltaos and Burell, 2002; Costard et al., 2014). During the flood season from May 65 to July, the stream water warms the frozen soils, leading to accelerated erosion of the banks (Are, 66 1983; Jahn, 1975; Walker, 1983). Melting of the ice contained in the porous sediment of the riverbank 67 reduces its strength, and produces removable unconsolidated material (Costard et al., 2003). 68 Furthermore, when the water level is above the bankfull level, the overbank water submerges the 69 island soil that is still frozen. The effects of the submersion have never been studied.

70

71 Breakups and floods are strongly heterogeneous, as numerous factors control their starting date, 72 duration and intensity (Costard et al., 2014; Gautier et al., 2018). The flood wave coming from the 73 upper basin can occur on a floodplain that is still frozen or not (depending on the local temperature). 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 76 (gauging station upstream section of Yakutsk, Figure 1). We have also demonstrated the impact of 77 recent warming on increasing erosion rates of the islands by thermal erosion (Costard et al., 2007; 78 Gautier et al., 2021).

Only a few studies report on permafrost thermal regime in Arctic floodplains, and in spite of a relatively good understanding of the initial stage of the breakup period of these periglacial rivers [Beltaos and Burrell, 2002; Shen, 2003; Billfalk, 1982], little is known regarding the influence of ice breakup and flooding on ground thermal regime during the flood season (Are, 1983; Walker, 1983). The major influence of water stream temperature on the thermal regime of frozen ground has already been demonstrated using cold room experiments (Costard et al., 2003), but only for river bank erosion.

Moreover, breakup and large flooding events represent an important risk in Arctic regions and can threaten infrastructures. In May 2001 and 2010, catastrophic breakup events linked to an early spring season following a severe winter strongly impacted the cities of Yakutsk and Lensk (Gautier et al., 2018). Recently, a project of a 6 km-long bridge across the Lena floodplain at Tabaga site is projected

- 89 and it implies accurate knowledge of the formation, and especially of the causes of the variable
- 90 intensity of these ice breakups.
- 91



Figure 2: Beginning of the ice breakup on the Lena River, May 15th, 2010. Flow from right to left. During
the first days, drifting ice blocks on the river formed thick ice accumulations at the head of Timochka
Island, which led to a frontal erosion of up to 40 m within a few days.

96

97 The main objective of this paper is to analyze the near-surface thermal regime of four islands in the 98 Lena River floodplain, eastern Siberia, and to determine to what extent it is affected by island dynamics 99 and ice breakup/flooding events. We investigate the thermal influence of the water stream 100 temperature by a vertical variation of the ground thermal regime during a typical submersion of the 101 islands affected by ice breakups and flooding events.

102

103 **2.** Study area

Central Yakutia (eastern Siberia) is characterized by a continental periglacial climate with extreme 104 105 variations in air temperatures, ranging from +30°C in summer to -50°C in winter (Fedorov et al., 2014) (see Figure 3 for the period 2009-2018). The region is characterized by a thick continuous ice-rich 106 107 permafrost of late Pleistocene age, called "Yedoma" (Antonov, 1960; Schirrmeister et al., 2013). The 108 mean air temperature at Yakutsk is -8.5 °C since the beginning of the 21st century. The winter temperature (October to April) ranged between -10°C and -40°C (Figure 3). The temperature becomes 109 110 positive at the beginning of May and the mean monthly temperature can exceed +20°C from mid-June 111 to mid-August. The low annual precipitation (230 mm near Yakutsk), together with a high evaporation 112 rate, induces a dry climate (Antonov, 1960). Most of the precipitation occurs in summer, with 140 mm 113 distributed between June and September. Snow cover thickness remains low (30 to 40 cm), which 114 favors efficient frost penetration and the existence of a deep permafrost, especially underneath the 115 taiga. The mean annual temperature of the permafrost at depths of 10 m to 20 m ranges from -2° C to

116 –4°C (Fedorov and Konstantinov, 2003). Since the end of the 1980s, it has undergone a warming of

almost 1.5°C (at a depth of 3.2 m), together with a deepening of the 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).

- 119
- 120
- 30 20 10 0 Temperature ⁰C -10 -20 -30 \L V 4 4 V -40 T Т 1 1 Т T -50 2010-01-01 2011-01-01 2012-01-01 2013-01-01 2014-01-01 2016-01-01 2018-01-01 2015-01-01 2017-01-01 2009-01-01 2019-01-01 Air temperature -Ground temperature (3.2 m)
- 121
- 122

Figure 3: Mean monthly air and ground (3.2-m depth) temperature at Yakutsk (NOAA data) – July 2009
 – July 2018.

125 126

127 The Lena River is one of the largest fluvial hydrosystems within the periglacial zone (Figure 1), with 128 thick and continuous permafrost that covers 77% of the basin (Soloviev, 1973). During the winter 129 season (October to April), the river flows under an ice cover with an average thickness of 1.4 m (min: 130 0.3 m; max. 2 m). The river discharge is then extremely low (less than 1500 m³ s⁻¹ at the Tabaga station,) 131 and reaches its lowest discharge of 870 m³ s⁻¹ in April, at the end of the winter (Gautier and Costard, 2000; Gautier et al., 2018). The breakup and the flood occur between May 20th and June 10th. However, 132 133 the recent years showed earlier or later events (Gautier et al., 2018). The overbank discharge (about 30 000 m³.s⁻¹ at Tabaga) inundates the forested islands and the floodplain with a great irregularity: the 134 135 inundation can last from a few days to one month. After the flood, the water level rapidly drops in July. 136 On the Lena River, ice breakups are controlled by the meridian course of the river, with a 30- to 50-day 137 lag between basin upstream and downstream (Gautier et al., 2003). As a result, when snow and ice 138 covers melt, a flood wave propagates from the southern regions further to the still-frozen regions in 139 the north. Therefore, the water discharge increases abruptly and massive ice and log jams can be 140 formed on the island heads (figure 2). Within a few days, the volume of water flow increases 20 to 45 141 times (Gautier et al., 2018). The peak flood can reach up to 50,000 m³ s⁻¹ (Antonov, 1960, Liu et al., 142 2005; Gautier et al., 2018). At the latitude of Yakutsk, the water level during the flood season can be up to 8 to 10 m higher than during the winter low water level (Costard et al., 2007; Gautier et al., 2018).
During high floods, the Lena flood spreads over a width of 15 km. The water stream temperature,
about 0°C in the winter and up to 8°C at the beginning of the flooding season, increases rapidly to
reach 17-18°C in July and August (Costard et al., 2014).

147

For the purpose of our study, a site upstream of Yakutsk (Figure 1) have been chosen, in order to avoid 148 149 the urban heat flow. In addition, the upstream Lena River is not impacted by dams. Ten islands were 150 preselected in the riverbed upstream of Tabaga gauging station, and four of them were instrumented 151 and are discussed further in this paper (Figure 1). Eselvakh and Timochka islands (0.2 and 0.7 km² are 152 located in the central part of the active channel, whereas Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh are two much larger lateral islands, sizing 5 km² and 20 km², respectively (Table 1). The island elevation ranges 153 154 between 92 masl for the highest parts (levees and center of old islands) and 88 masl for the depressions 155 that generally correspond to abandoned channels. The islands are colonized by a homogeneous alluvial 156 forest mainly composed of willows. On the Lena River, islands are formed by stabilization of sand bars 157 by pioneer sequences. Because of their abundance, young trees trap the sediment load, causing rapid 158 vertical accretion of the island (Gautier et al., 2021). Hence, the base of the island stratigraphy is mainly 159 composed of homometric (D_{50} = 200 - 250 µm) sandy material organized in horizontal beds several tens of centimeters thick. The sandy deposits are often covered with layers of fine sand and silt (D_{50} = 160 161 $50 - 100 \,\mu\text{m}$) deposited by overbank flows. On the oldest islands, overbank deposits can be 2 m thick. 162 Fine-grained deposits mixed with organic matter are found in abandoned channels. For a detailed 163 description of the sedimentary sequences of these islands, see Gautier and Costard (2000), Costard et al. (2014), and Gautier et al. (2021). 164

165

Bank erosion of the Lena river ranges on average between 11 and 18 m yr⁻¹ on island head (upper part)
and 5 to 10 m on island side. In localized areas, erosion rates of 25 to 40 m yr⁻¹ could be observed
(Gautier et al., 2003; Costard et al., 2007, 2014; Tananaev, 2016; Dupeyrat et al., 2018; Gautier et al.,
2021). The thermo-mechanical process explains the relative efficiency of bank retreat (Walker and
Arnborg, 1963; Jahn, 1975; Walker, 1983; Costard et al., 2014).

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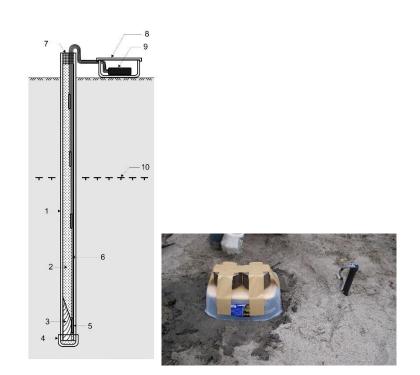
173 **3. Methods**

In order to determine the ground temperature and to evaluate the active layer thickness on the islands, various methods were integrated. First, a drilling campaign (2008) enabled the installation of several temperature sensors at different depths and a precise measurement of the active layer with a steel stick. Thus, topographic conditions do not change a lot in the proximity of the sensors. We used HOBO

178 4-channels dataloggers (model U12-008) to record variations in the thermal profile. Each datalogger, 179 previously calibrated in the laboratory, includes 4 thermistor sensors (TMCx-HD) that produce a 180 temperature-dependent voltage, which is then converted to temperature and stored in the datalogger, 181 every hour, with an accuracy of +0.25°C, in the soil, at 0 m (soil surface), 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m depth 182 (Figure 4). On Saty-Talakh island, the sensors have been installed at 2 m, 3 m and 4 m depth (plus the 183 surface). The annual periods are delimited from July to July. Once a year, after the ice breakup, we 184 went to the instrumented sites to collect data from the dataloggers and to ensure the equipment maintenance on site. During the first year (2008) on Timochka and Eselyakh islands, only two among 185 186 the four sensors worked well and the others were broken by the strong ice breakup. They were 187 modified to ensure waterproof conditions and to improve the robustness of the equipment in order 188 to control the mechanical effect of ice breakups (e.g., internal pressure). Thus, we had to develop a 189 new system (Figure 4) that is much more efficient and could resist the repeated impacts of ice rafts 190 and water pressure (Konstantinov et al., 2011). Unfortunately, because of the extremely rough 191 conditions, the duration of measurements of the temperature sensors is very variable (Table 1): some 192 of them have been working for more than 10 years, whereas others disappeared during a flood or were 193 buried under meters of sediment and woody debris. Due to some severe breakups, some ground 194 temperature sensors were broken during the first year. In the present study, we present the data of 195 the devices that were installed several dozen meters away from the riverbank and that were preserved 196 from erosion and/or thick sediment deposition during floods.

197

198



200 Figure 4: Sketch on the left: Drilling in the frozen soil for the installation of thermistor sensors placed

at 0 m (soil surface), 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m 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 resist flooding of the island during spring breakup. Note the two weights on the box and the wooden support holding the datalogger in the waterproof box. (Figure modified from Konstantinov et al., 2011). Every sensor position was

206 precisely determined with a GPS and a total station.

207

The water levels and the daily discharge were recorded at Tabaga (gauging station, 8 km north from the sites, see Figure 1). The overbank discharge and the submersion duration of the islands have been determined during field observations during the flooding season. Island inundation begins when the river discharge reaches about 30 000 m³.s⁻¹ (Costard et al., 2014 and Gautier et al., 2001; Tananaev, 2016). The lowest parts of the islands can be inundated for a discharge a bit lower and the highest parts need about 32 000 m³-s⁻¹ to be flooded.

214

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

		Area (m²)				Dataloggers		
Island Name	1967	2008	2017	Age	Mean temp. at -3.2 m (°C)	Duration of measurement	Sediment	Geomorphic Unit
Eselyakh –					5.2 m (C)	measurement		
Upstream part	486,726	198,256	105,520	> 60 yr	E: -2.2	2008 – 2011	Mixed sed.	Abandoned channel
Downstream	416,877	790,189	675,931		H: -0.4	2008 – 2011	Sand	Bar/island
part								
Timochka -				< 30 yr				
Upstream part	216,239	135,560	107,161		A: 1.2	2008 – 2014	Sand	Bar/island
Downstream	0	70,300	79,164					
part								
Ynakh-Ary	5047,718	5338,126	50294,298	> 70 yr	I:-3.9	2009 – 2016	Mixed sed.	Abandoned channel
Saty-Talakh	18 247,279	20 125,713	19 685,946	> 70 yr	Q: -0.6	2009 – 2018	Sand	Bar/island

216

217 We estimated the age of the islands based on the year of their appearance from a previous pluri-

218 decadal analysis of aerial pictures and satellite images (Figure 1 and Table 2) used by Gautier et al.

219 (2021). We also used the dendrochronology method to precisely measure the age of the oldest trees.

220 Our objectives were to determine whether the thermal regime is related to the age (and/or size) of

the islands.

222 For each of these sites, we also did an analysis of the sediments and stratigraphy using a soil moisture

sensor and grain-size was determined with a laser granulometer (see Suplementary material S1). The

224 depth of the permafrost table and its ice content were obtained by sampling with a drilling machine

down to 3.2 m; the permafrost table was also measured every year with a stick. The analysis of the

226 sediments was done at the Melnikov Permafrost Institute in Yakutsk.

227

228 4. **Results**

The analysis reveals an important inter-annual variability, which underscores the heterogeneity of the thermal regime of islands within the Lena floodplain. On the basis of field surveys and soil temperature data, we are able to distinguish two main types: islands with a perennially frozen soil (*i.e.* with a permafrost), and islands with a seasonally frozen ground only.

233

4.1. Islands with permanently frozen soil

235

236 Eselyakh Island

237

238	The Eselyakh Island (Figure 5) has a permanently frozen soil. According to Hobo E (Figure 6), the annual
239	average temperature at 3.2 m depth was -2.2°C for 2009-2010 and -3°C for 2010-2011. At 1 m and 2
240	m depths, the Hobo recorded a slightly lower mean temperature and a higher intra-annual variability
241	(1m: -2.5°C in 2009-2010 and -4.3°C in 2010-2011; 2m: -2.4°C in 2009-2010 and -3.5°C in 2010-2011).
242	Hobo measurements coupled with successive field campaigns have shown that the active layer is
243	thinner on the upstream section (1.2 m depth) of the island than on the downstream section (1.5 m
244	depth) (Figure 5). The active layer is composed of peaty sandy loam with a volumetric moisture content
245	of 25% to 53%. Based on drilling operations, the permafrost table at Hobo E site is located at 1.5 m and
246	contains ice-rich sandy loam materials with 19% to 50% ice content by volume.
247	

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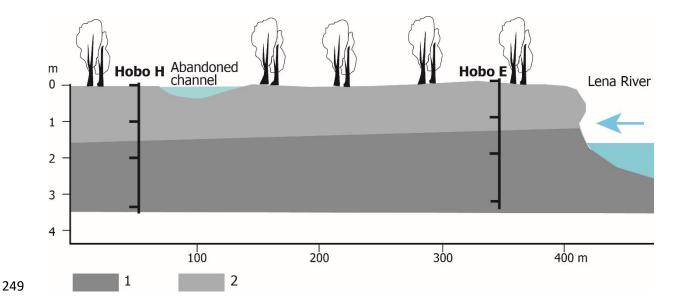
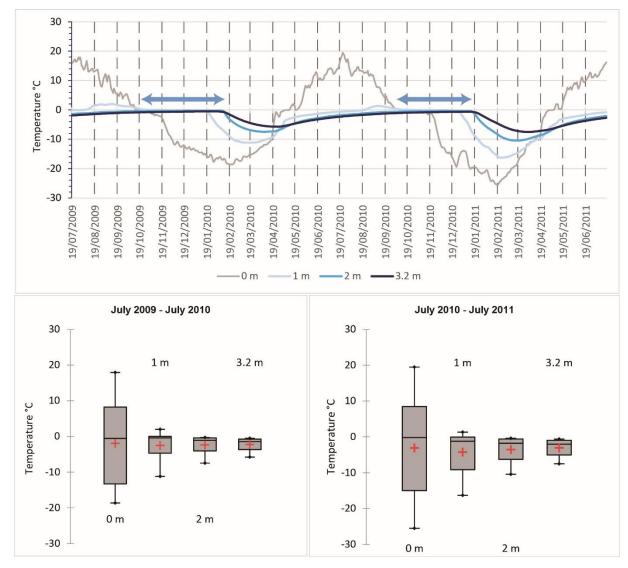


Figure 5: Schematic longitudinal section of Eselyakh Island. 1: permanent frozen soil; 2: active layer.
Blue arrow indicates flow direction (to the North). Hobo H is located near a 30 m wide abandoned
channel.

254 According to the thermal profile of HOBO E (Figure 6), underneath the active layer, there is 255 permanently frozen soil with temperatures ranging from -0.3°C to -10.4°C at a depth of 2 m during the 256 two consecutive years (2009 - 2010 and 2010 - 2011). At 3.2m depth, the variability of frozen soil 257 temperature was even less pronounced, ranging between -0.5°C and -7.5°C. We note a downward propagation of the winter freezing wave and a time lag with depth for reaching minimum temperature 258 259 due to the thermal inertia of frozen ground (Figure 6). For example, the minimum annual temperature 260 was reached in mid-February at the soil surface, in early March at a depth of 1 m, in late March at 2 m, 261 and in mid-April at 3.2 m, during the first winter. The second winter was harsher and a colder weather 262 occurred earlier with -20°C in December and -25°C in February, at the soil surface. Consequently, this 263 ~ 20-day time lag between different depths was also observed during the second winter, although nearly three weeks earlier than the previous year (in mid-February, early March and late March, 264 265 respectively). For the October – December period, temperatures were stabilized (70 to 80 days) just 266 below 0°C at a depth of 1 m due to the effect of latent heat (zero curtain effect on Figure 6). At 2m and 267 3.2m-depth, temperature began to decrease at the end of January.

268



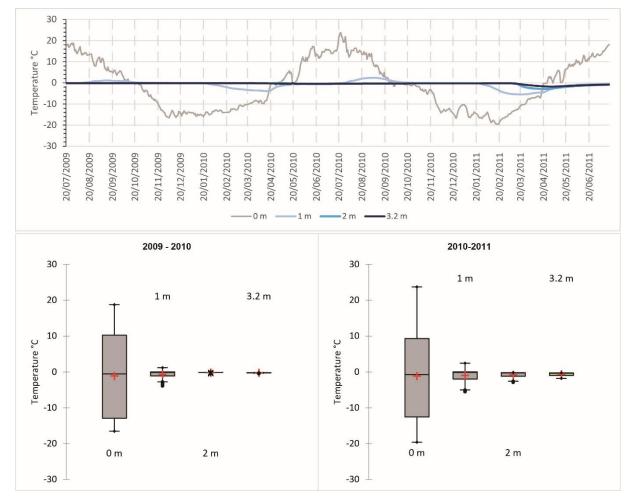
270

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

datalogger; 0 m: soil surface temperature (July 2009 – July 2011). Blue arrows correspond to the zero-

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273 curtain effect during phase change of the water-ice in winter season.
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274



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Figure 7: Ground thermal profiles on Eselyakh Island at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m depth for HOBO H
datalogger; 0 m: soil surface temperature (July 2009 – July 2011).

280

Contrastingly, the thermal profile of HOBO H, located further downstream on the island (Figure 7), 281 282 shows a notably warmer frozen soil. For 2009-2010, the mean temperature was -0.67°C, -0.18°C and -0.24°C at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m, respectively. In 2010-2011, the mean temperature was lower (-1°C, -283 284 0.8°C, -0.6°C at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m). Furthermore, the temperature ranged between ~ 0°C and -5.5°C (1 m), between -0.1°C and -2.9°C (2 m) and between -0.2°C and -1.7°C (3.2 m) during the second 285 286 (colder) winter. The temperature did not vary substantially during the first winter and decreased a bit more during the second winter. The lowest temperature was registered in April before the breakup (-287 288 1.8°C at 3.2m). The lowest temperatures are not as cold as the one registered by Hobo E (-7.5°C in April 289 2011 at 3.2 m). The sediment is identical, with the same composition and grain size characteristics as 290 on the previous site.

291

293 Large lateral islands (Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh)

294 On Ynakh-Ary, Hobo I has been working from 2009 to 2016 (Figure 8). The temperature varied between

295 -0.1 and -14°C (1 m) -1.2°C and -11.1°C (2 m) and between -1.2°C and -8.9°C (3.2 m depth). When

296 comparing the same years (2009 to 2011), Ynakkh – Ary has a colder soil than Eselyakh: -2.98°C for

2009-2010 (at 3.2 m) and -3.97°C for 2010-2011 mean value. We also observed a two month-time-lag

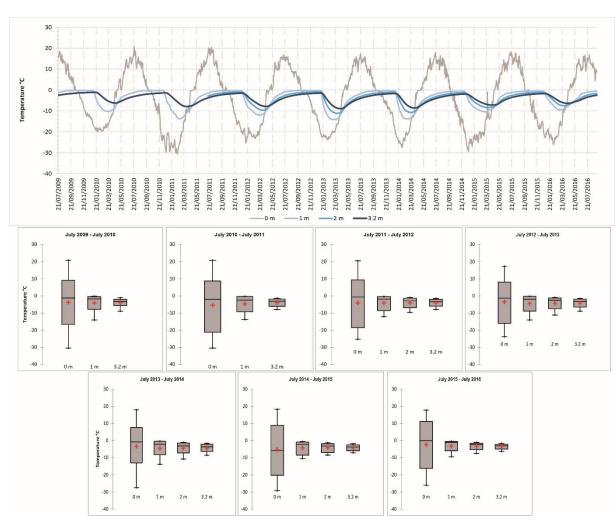
separating the beginning of continuous negative temperature on the soil surface (October) and the

start of the cooling within the frozen soil: beginning of January at 1 m and 2 m depths, end of Januaryor early February at 3.2m depth.

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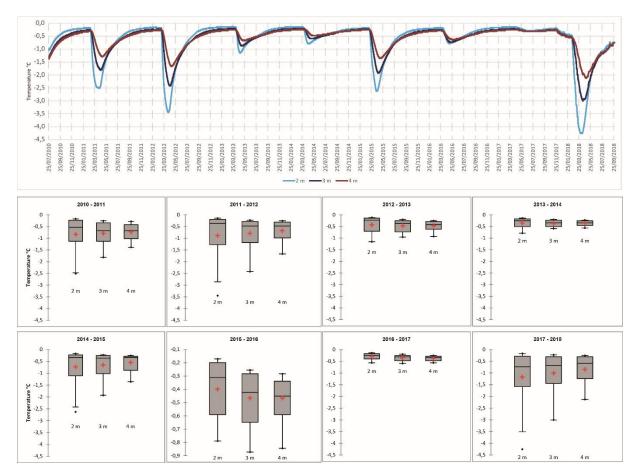
Figure 8: Ground thermal profiles on Ynakh-Ary island, at 1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m depth for Hobo I
datalogger; 0 m: soil surface temperature (July 2009 – July 2016).

307

308 On Saty-Talakh, which is also a large lateral island, Hobo Q has been working from 2010 to 2018 (Figure

309 9). The thermal profile differs from the data registered on Ynakh-Ary. The temperature regime is similar

- to Hobo H on Eselyakh island, because of a relatively warm permafrost at 3.2 m depth. For 2010-2011,
- 311 the mean temperature (3.2 m) was -0.79°C and dropped to -1.81°C at the end of the winter. The cold
- winter 2017 2018 induced a stronger cooling; the 3 m Hobo recorded -3°C in mid-April.
- 313
- 314



- Figure 9: Ground thermal profiles on Saty-Talakh island, at 2 m, 3 m and 4 m depth for Hobo Q
 datalogger (July 2010 September 2018). No data logger at the soil surface for Hobo Q.
- 318
- 319

320 4.2. Islands with seasonally frozen ground

- 321 Timochka Island
- 322 Timochka Island has a seasonally frozen ground; negative temperature is observed from November to
- 323 the end of April at 1m depth. At 3.2 m depth, the average annual temperature ranges between +1°C
- and +1.5°C. Thus, temperatures remain constantly above 0°C even at a depth of 3.2 m (Figure 10). This
- island is mostly composed of fine sand, and the willows are relatively younger than those on Eselyakh
- 326 Island (Gautier et al., 2021). The volumetric soil moisture content ranges from 4% at 0.1 m depth to
- 40% at 1 m depth. Similarly to other Hobo sites on the other islands, however, ground temperature

328 variability is notably larger near the surface (at 1 m deep) compared to several meters deep (Figure 10,

329 lower graphs).

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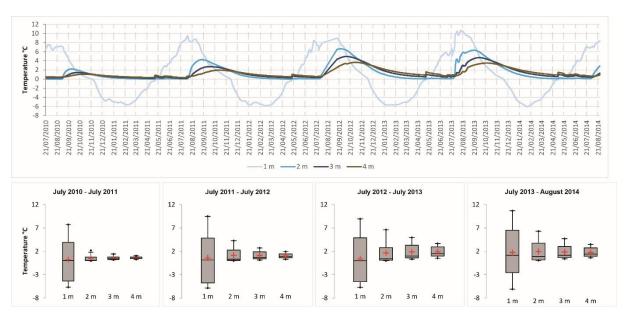


Figure 10: Ground thermal profiles on Timochka Island at 1 m, 2 m, 3 m and 4 m depths for HOBO-A
(July 2010 – August 2014), without a permanently frozen soil. No data logger at the soil surface for
Hobo A.

331

337 **5.** Discussion

338 Our results demonstrate that, even in an area of thick continuous permafrost, the ground is not 339 permanently frozen everywhere within the Lena floodplain. This study also highlights not only a strong 340 inter-annual variability in ground temperature, but also the spatial heterogeneity of the thermal 341 regime of frozen soils. On the one hand, some sites along the islands show a colder permafrost 342 conditions that vary little throughout the years, and on the other hand, other sites are underlain by a 343 notably warmer seasonally frozen ground affected by strong thermal variability. Two main factors are inferred to influence permafrost dynamics in the Lena floodplain: the age of the islands and the 344 345 thermal effect of spring breakups.

346

347 Age and thermal state of the islands

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 Eselyakh and Timochka islands 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 11). Island sides are also exposed to erosion, explaining the reduction in form size (Table 1). The two other islands (Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh) are much larger lateral islands, and are more stable. As they are located at the margins of the river active channel, they are subjected to a reduced reshaping (sediment drift) with a local erosion of their bank (Figure 11).

357 Eselyakh and Timochka are relatively small islands with surface area of 0.2 km² and 0.13 km², 358 respectively (Table 1). They are bisected with a secondary channel between the two parts (Figure 1, 359 Table 1). Eselvakh is older than Timochka, as its two parts were already formed in 1967 and a 360 dendrochronological analysis of a willow puts its age at 56 years in 2010. It suggests the stabilization 361 of a sand bar during the 1950's. The upper part of Eselyakh is progressively shrinking due to head and 362 side erosion, whereas the lower part is growing by sedimentation. Timochka is an elongated island that 363 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. 364

Ynakh-Ary and Saty-Talakh are large islands with surface area of 5 km² and 20 km², respectively. They had the same general shape in 1967 (Figure 11). According to local inhabitants, they are very old islands. They were formed by merging of different islands, and lakes and swamps occupy the former inter-island channels.

369 It appears that the oldest islands are thus at least 70 years old in our selected study area (Gautier et 370 al., 2021). The Ynakh-Ary, Saty-Talakh and Eselyakh islands are old islands with a permanent frozen soil 371 developed in fine-grained material (silt-clay) deposited by overbank flows overlaying a sandy base. 372 Timochka Island is much younger, with only seasonally frozen ground and mostly sand deposits, as the 373 island has been formed by the colonization of a former sand bar by willows. This apparent relationship 374 between the age of deposition/formation and the thermal regime of the ground can also be extended 375 to the much older permafrost near Yakutsk (Figure 3), where ground temperatures at 3.2 m can remain 376 below -1°C at the end of the summer and below -4°C at the end of the winter. Contrastingly, ground 377 temperatures barely or never attain such low values at Eselyakh (Figures. 6 and 7), Ynakh-Ary (Figure 378 8) or Saty-Talakh (Figure 9), which are nevertheless underlain by frozen ground. Permafrost obviously 379 had much less time to develop at these sites and is in equilibrium with current climate conditions, 380 which is not the case 'onshore' near Yakutsk.

However, the age of the island is not the only parameter explaining the observed differences. Local parameters, and more precisely, abandoned channels, also seem to explain the observed thermal heterogeneity. Hobo H is located not far from a 30 m-large abandoned channel (Figure 5), which obviously induces a thermal effect by heating the upper part of the frozen soil. Widespread along the floodplain, such abandoned channels are watered more frequently and they are located on lower

- topographic levels. These depressions are humid and occupied by swampy vegetation. Eselyakh (Hobo
- 387 E) and Ynakh-Ary dataloggers are installed on higher topographic levels.

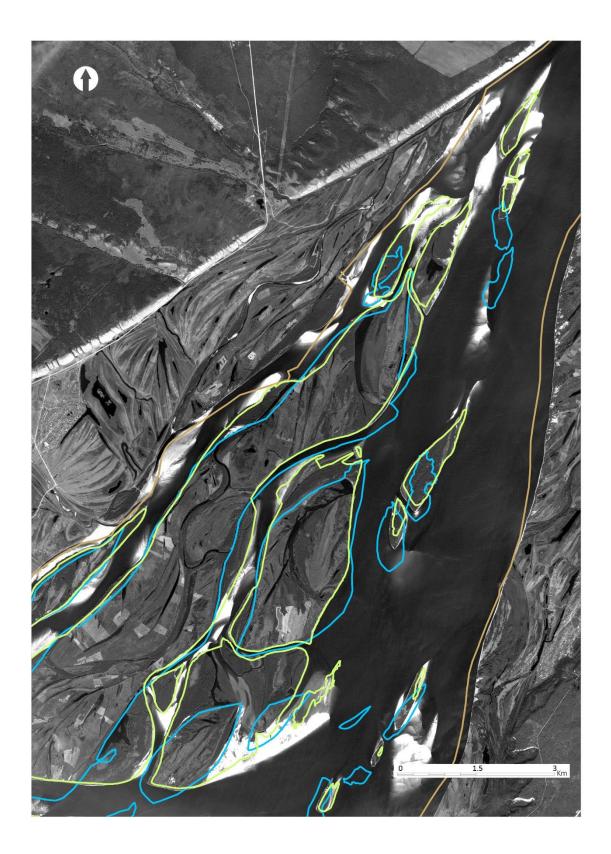


Figure 11: Island migration of the study reach upstream of Yakutsk city from GIS study. Blue line: island
shape in 1967 (Corona photographs); Brown line: channel bank in 1967; Green line: island shape 2017

- 392 (Pleiade images © CNES, 2017, Distribution Airbus DS, all rights reserved). Background image: Spot
- 393 2008 (© CNES, Freance)
- 394

395 Thermal effect of spring breakup: the example of 2010

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 12). It can be seen 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 (Figure 12; Table 2). This is due to the inundation of the islands when the flooding begins (for a discharge exceeding about 30,000 m³.s⁻¹). The submersion duration greatly varied during the study period (Table 3).

Furthermore, the sensor installed at the soil surface (0 m on Figure 12) registered the water stream temperature. At the beginning of the flooding, temperatures close to 0°C confirm the existence of a mixture of water and ice during the breakup. Then, after a few days, the water temperature slightly increases (1°C to 3°C) as the islands are inundated by water only.

407

Table 2. Flood duration, number of flood peaks and temperature range of the study sites along theLena River

	Flooding duration (Days)	Flood peaks	Stream water temperature range (°C)
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	5°C – 5.5°C
		July 23 rd – July 29 th	18°C – 19°C
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	19°C – 19.5°C
2018	17	May 5 th – May 10 th	ND
		July 19 th – July 25 th	

However, the observed effect of island submersion at the time of breakup appears to have a relatively moderate impact on thermal profile at depth (i.e. more than 1 m deep). This can likely be explained by 1) the duration of submersion, which in that case is too short to have a long-term thermal impact in the ground, and 2) the water temperature, still near 0°C, again precluding major thermal disturbance within the ground, at least below the surface. Figure 12 clearly shows that the ground temperature regime for the two islands (Eselyakh and Ynakh-Ary) did not change, even during the 10-day submersion of the island during the ice breakup in May.

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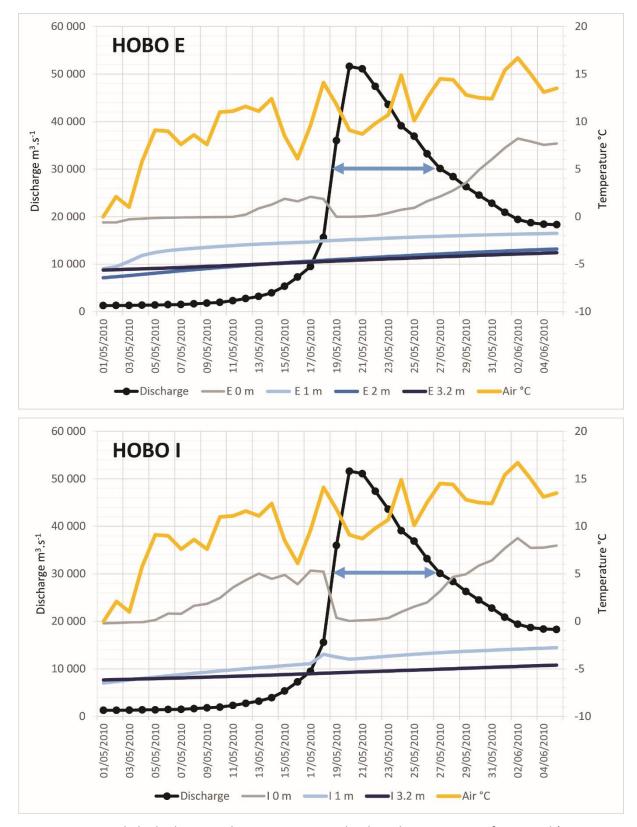


Figure 12: Mean daily discharge and temperature on islands with a permanent frozen soil (2010, May
1 – June 5). Eselyakh Island (HOBO E), Ynakh-Ary Island (Hobo I). Water Discharge at Tabaga gauging
station (Roshydromet data); 0 m: soil surface temperature; ground temperature at different depths (1

427 m, 2 m and 3.2 m); air temperature at Yakustk (NOAA, NASA data). The blue arrow corresponds to the

428 submersion duration of the islands in relation with a discharge > $30,000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$.

429

Interestingly, multiple water level increases during the warm seasons have occurred in the Lena River.
During some years, the islands can be inundated twice or more often. For example, in 2012, the Lena
River underwent four flood peaks (Figure 13) with 36 days of total flood duration (Table 2). The
repeated inundations and warm stream water did not significantly affect, however, the ground
temperature regime of the islands.

435 Regarding the surface temperature recorded in 2010 and in 2012 for Eselyakh Island (HOBO E) and 436 Ynakh-Ary Island (Hobo I), we can observe a systematic decrease of the surface temperature (0 m) 437 during each of these breakups and flood seasons (Figures 12 and 13). The water stream temperature 438 is systematically lower than the air temperature due to the water/ice mixture of the breakup that 439 decreases the surface temperature of the islands during the submersion phase. We also observed that 440 the initial phase of the breakup in May is accompanied by a net decrease in air temperature (yellow 441 curve on figure 12 and figure 13). Finally, regardless of the water stream temperature or the thermal 442 state and water/ice content of the subsoil, the thermal regime of the subsoil at 1 m depth (Figure 13) 443 does not appear to be affected.

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- 445

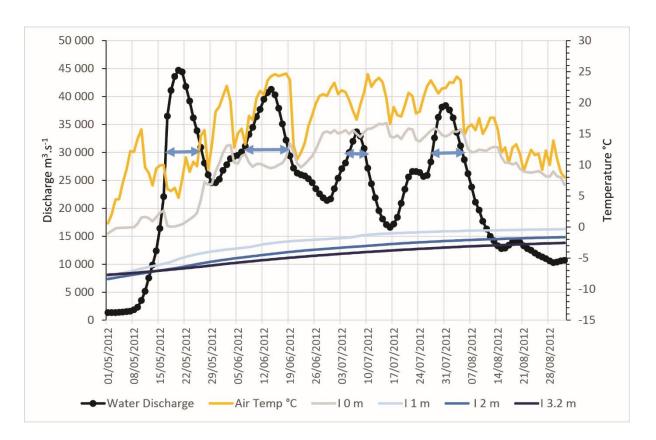


Figure 13: Mean daily discharge, air temperature and thermal regime of subsoil of Ynakh-Ary (HOBO I) between May and August 2012. Water Discharge at Tabaga gauging station (Roshydromet data); 0 m: soil surface temperature; ground temperature at different depths (1 m, 2 m and 3.2 m); air temperature at Yakutsk (NOAA, NASA data). Blue horizontal line corresponds to a water discharge > 30,000 m³.s⁻¹ in relation with the submersion of the island.

452

453 6. Conclusion

454 For a first time, we were able to instrument a large Arctic fluvial system in order to acquire new data 455 on frozen ground development within a large floodplain. Our measurement campaigns revealed that 456 the floodplain of the Lena River, upstream of Yakutsk, does not everywhere contain permanently 457 frozen soil, and that some highly mobile and young islands have (only) a seasonally frozen ground. 458 Even in old islands, where frozen ground is present, a marked variability is noticeable. We also conclude 459 that the ice breakups and floods seem to have a negligible impact on the ground thermal regime. Our 460 study confirms that relatively young (less than 50 years old) islands, composed of fine sand material, 461 appear less prone to permafrost formation compared to older islands with ice-rich silty material. Thus, 462 the Lena floodplain is notably heterogeneous, with a combination of permanently and seasonally 463 frozen islands. The observed disparity between these islands is significant and unexpected, because it confirms that the Lena River floodplain is far from being thermally and geomorphologically 464 465 homogenous. It rather consists of a juxtaposition of seasonally frozen islands and permanently frozen 466 islands in the regional context of a floodplain affected by thick and continuous permafrost. The 467 heterogeneity could also induce differential responses of the frozen and unfrozen parts of the 468 floodplain to global warming.

469

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