Cryoturbation impacts iron-organic carbon associations along a permafrost soil chronosequence in northern Alaska

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ABSTRACT

In permafrost soils, substantial amounts of organic carbon (OC) are potentially protected from microbial degradation and transformation into greenhouse gases by association with reactive iron (Fe) minerals. As permafrost environments respond to climate change, increased drainage of thaw lakes in permafrost regions is predicted. Soils will subsequently develop on these drained thaw lakes, but the role of Fe-OC associations in future OC stabilization during this predicted soil development is unknown. To fill this knowledge gap, we have examined Fe-OC associations in organic, cryoturbated and mineral horizons along a 5500-year chronosequence of drained thaw lake basins in Utqiaġvik, Alaska. By applying chemical extractions, we found that ~17% of the total OC content in cryoturbated horizons is associated with reactive Fe minerals, compared to ~10% in organic or mineral horizons. As soil development advances, the total stocks of Fe-associated OC more than double within the first 50 years after thaw lake drainage, because of increased storage of Fe-associated OC in cryoturbated horizons (from 8 to 75% of the total Fe-associated OC stock). Spatially-resolved nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry showed that OC is primarily associated with Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides which were identified by ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectroscopy as ferrihydrite. High OC:Fe mass ratios (>0.22) indicate that Fe-OC associations are formed via co-precipitation, chelation and aggregation. These results demonstrate that, given the proposed enhanced drainage of thaw lakes under climate change, OC is increasingly incorporated and stabilized by the association with reactive Fe minerals as a result of soil formation and increased cryoturbation.

1. Introduction

Increasing soil temperatures induced by climate change are accelerating permafrost thaw. Since permafrost soils in the northern circumpolar permafrost region store approximately 1035 ± 150 Pg organic carbon (OC) in the upper 3 m (Hugelius et al., 2014), rapid warming could potentially unlock vast amounts of OC and stimulate release of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere. Thermokarst landscapes are assumed to be most vulnerable to abrupt changes in a warming climate (Turetsky et al., 2020; Walter Anthony et al., 2018). They cover around 20% of the northern permafrost region and are estimated to store around 30% of the total OC (TOC) present in the upper 3 m of the circumpolar permafrost region (Olefeldt et al., 2016). As in other arctic lowland regions, thermokarst lakes are the dominating landscape feature of northern Alaska and follow a general thaw lake cycle (Grosse et al., 2013; Hinkel et al., 2003). Lakes form by thermokarst processes and drain due to e.g., ice-wedge degradation or coastal erosion. After drainage, terrestrial soils develop in the drained thermokarst lake basins on the remaining sediments and ice-wedge growth continues which potentially reforms lakes. It is assumed that the reformation of thaw lakes will be absent in the future, due to insufficient ice-wedge growth (Fuchs et al., 2019) which disrupts the thaw lake cycle and promotes the ongoing soil development on drained thaw lake basins. The soils developing on these thermokarst lake basins are increasingly influenced by cryoturbation which redistributes relatively young OC from the topsoil into deeper soil layers. Cryoturbation contributes on average

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55% to the soil OC density in the active layer and the near-permafrost surface in permafrost soils from Alaska (Bockheim, 2007). Considering increasing cryoturbation under global warming and prolonged soil drainage as expected at the Arctic Coastal Plain of northern Alaska (Herndon et al. 2020), cryoturbation has a potential to mitigate OC loss as greenhouse gases in the future.

Previous studies on permafrost soils have intensively focused on the decomposition of the stored OC (Estop-Aragonés et al., 2020; Hopple et al., 2020; Schädel et al., 2016), whereas only a few have focused on the stabilization mechanisms of OC which can mitigate the permafrost carbon feedback (Mu et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2020; Mueller et al., 2017; Osterkamp and Romanovsky, 1999; Patzner et al., 2020; Prater et al., 2020; Schuur et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020). In soils, the fate of OC is determined by an interplay of various physical, chemical and biological components (Lehmann et al., 2020). The accessibility of OC for micro-organisms is reduced by physical protection within soil aggregates and by interactions with minerals that stabilize OC via sorption, co-precipitation or aggregation (Hemingway et al., 2019; Kaiser and Guggenberger, 2000; Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008; von Lützow et al., 2008; Wagai and Mayer, 2007).

Reactive iron (Fe) minerals (defined here as reductively dissolvable by sodium dithionite e.g., Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides) are particularly important for the stabilization of OC in various environments (Coward et al., 2017; Lalonde et al., 2012; Shields et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2016). Fe-OC associations in organic rich soils of high latitude regions are less well studied, with recent studies pointing towards a significant proportion of reactive Fe associated OC in permafrost soils (Herndon et al., 2017; Mu et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2020; Patzner et al., 2020; Sowers et al., 2020, Monhonval et al., 2021). In a permafrost soil chronosequence of drained thaw lake basins in northern Alaska, Mueller et al. (2015) identified, using physical fractionation, ^{14}C analysis and imaging analyses, that the oldest OC fraction (11650 ± 90 BP) is directly associated with minerals, especially with Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Mueller et al., 2017, 2021). This highlights the potential of reactive Fe minerals in the stabilization of OC over thousands of years in thermokarst regions (Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008; Mueller et al., 2015).

Despite the recognized role of reactive Fe minerals in the association with OC in permafrost soils, very little is known about the long-term development of Fe-OC associations especially in thermokarst regions. In order to address this knowledge gap, we quantified Fe-OC associations of soil cores from drained thaw lake basins spanning 5500 years of soil development by using selective chemical extractions. We further identified the potential reactive Fe minerals involved in the association with OC in different soil horizons and soil development stages along the chronosequence with ^{57}Fe-specific Mössbauer spectroscopy. This was complemented by visually highlighting spatial Fe-OC associations in soil horizons using correlative scanning electron microscopy and nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry. This approach allows us to evaluate biogeochemical drivers of Fe-OC associations along the soil profile and during progressive soil development after thaw lake drainage.

## 2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sampling and soil properties

Permafrost soil cores along a chronosequence of drained thaw lake basins near Utqiaġvik in northern Alaska were collected in April 2010 during the sampling campaign described in Mueller et al. (2015). Based on vegetation succession and ^{14}C data, the soil chronosequence is classified into distinct age classes covering young (0–50 years), medium (50–300 years), old (300–2000 years) and ancient (2000–5500 years) drained basins (Hinkel et al., 2003). Briefly, four soil cores of each age class were collected using an 80–150 cm long corer from the Snow, Ice, Permafrost Research Establishment (SIPRE) with 7.5 cm diameter attached to a Big Beaver earth drill apparatus (Little Beaver, US). Samples were transported within 8 h to a cold room in Utqiaġvik where soil

description followed. The frozen cores were cut with a chop saw into corresponding soil horizons and subsamples were oven-dried at 60 °C for further analysis. Within our study, two soil cores of each age class were analyzed from locations spanning from 71°12' to 71°16' N latitude and 156°25' to 156°39' W longitude (Fig. SI 1). These soil cores were selected based on the core depth and on soil horizons to capture soil profiles representative for the individual age classes (informed by Mueller et al. (2015)). The selected soil cores along the chronosequence differ in maximum core length (sampled soil depth) ranging from 90 to 126 cm and reach the permafrost layer at around 30 to 50 cm depth (Fig. 1). Soil cores of the young age class show little to no cryoturbation and are mainly dominated by one organic horizon followed by mineral horizons. The abundance of soil horizons with indications of cryoturbated soil material increases with the age of the drained thaw lake basins. Buried horizons are combined with, and referred to as, cryoturbated horizons in the following discussion as burial and cryoturbation both lead to a redistribution of organic material into deeper soil layers.

2.2. Selective extractions

Soil horizons of two soil cores representative of each age class were selectively extracted to quantify different Fe mineral phases and the associated OC (Cornell and Giovanoli, 1988; Mehra and Jackson, 1960). To prepare for the chemical extractions, glass vials were washed with 1 M HCl, rinsed with deionized water and sterilized for 4.5 h at 180 °C. Oven-dried and ball-milled (pulverisette 23; Fritsch, Idar-Oberstein, Germany) soil samples were weighed in duplicates into glass vials (0.15 ± 0.05 g) and degassed with N_2 prior to extraction. To target poorly crystalline and crystalline Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides (in the following considered as the total extractable Fe), samples were extracted anoxically in the dark over 24 h at 70 °C with 3.125 mL of a 6 M HCl solution (Foucher et al., 2000; Pehkonen, 1995; Peltier et al., 2005; Porsch and Kappler, 2011; Rutledge et al., 2010).

In parallel, a dithionite-citrate bicarbonate extraction was carried out to selectively extract reactive Fe (defined here as reductively dissolvable by dithionite-citrate extraction), comprising Fe minerals such as ferrihydrite, goethite, lepidocrocite, akaganeite and hematite nanoparticles (Cornell and Schwertmann, 2003; Coward et al., 2017; Mehra and Jackson, 1960; Raiswell et al., 1994) and chelated Fe (Rennert, 2019; Wagai et al., 2013). This extraction also allows for the quantification of OC that is mobilized during the reductive dissolution of reactive Fe minerals (in the following referred to as Fe-associated OC) (Lalonde et al., 2012; Mu et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2020; Patzner et al., 2020). We followed the dithionite-citrate extraction which is performed for 16 h on a rolling shaker under room temperature and anoxically in the dark (Coward et al., 2017; Wagai et al., 2013; Wagai and Mayer, 2007) and combined different approaches to account for potential difficulties when using this extraction method as previously discussed in detail by Patzner et al. (2020) and shortly discussed in the following. Due to the instability of dithionite in solution (Varadachari et al., 2006), powdered dithionite was added to the sample to reach a final concentration of 0.1 M by adding 3.125 mL of a 0.27 M trisodium citrate, 0.11 M sodium bicarbonate solution (pH 7, $N_2:CO_2$ (90:10, v:v) headspace). Sodium bicarbonate was used as a buffer (pH 7) to prevent hydrolysis and re-sorption of organic matter under acidic pH. Under neutral pH, the dithionite-citrate extraction only partially dissolves reactive Fe minerals, thus leading to a potential underestimation of the amount of reactive Fe minerals in soil horizons with >20 wt% Fe-associated OC (Fisher et al., 2020; Fisher et al., 2021). To enable comparison to other studies focusing on reactive Fe mineral phases in permafrost regions, we did not increase the concentration of sodium dithionite, which would improve extractability of reactive Fe in samples showing >20 wt% Fe-associated OC (Fisher et al., 2021). However, this issue would only influence 14% of our samples in this current study and thus the effect is small on the dataset as a whole. Trisodium citrate was used as a
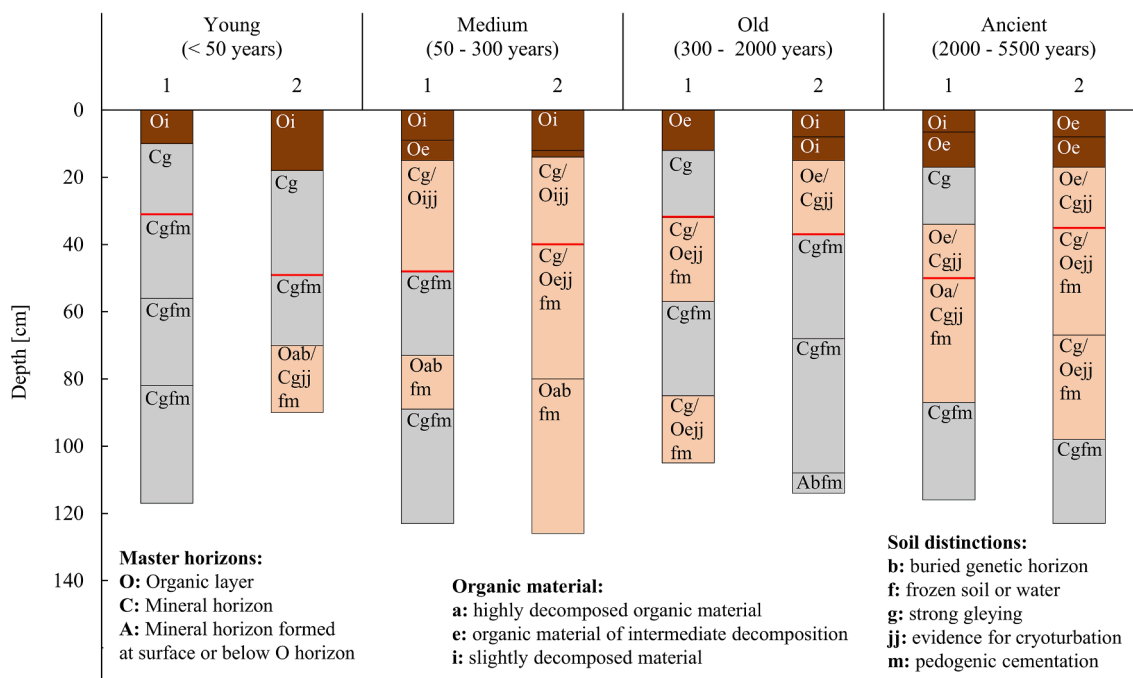
Fig. 1. Soil classification. Classification according to Mueller et al. (2015) and description of soil horizons of replicate soil cores of the four different age classes. Abbreviations assigned to the distinct soil horizons are described within the figure. Colors indicate organic horizons (brown), cryoturbated/buried horizons (beige) and mineral horizons (grey). The permafrost table is indicated with red lines.

complexing agent to prevent re-precipitation of the mobilized Fe and sorption of OC (Mehra and Jackson, 1960). A pre-test carried out under the same conditions (pH, ionic strength) showed that without citrate, $43.5 \pm 17.6\%$ less reactive Fe and $37.2 \pm 4.4\%$ less reactive Fe-associated OC was obtained in an organic horizon of a medium aged soil core (Table SI 1). To account for effects of soil drying on the extractability of reactive Fe minerals and Fe-associated OC, permafrost soil material from the transition zone of a desiccating palsa in northern Sweden (Patzner et al., 2020) with comparable reactive Fe (~94% of total Fe extracted with 6 M HCl) and Fe-associated OC (~15% of total OC) was dried under anoxic and oxic conditions at room temperature and 60 °C. We obtained similar reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC contents by the dithionite-citrate extraction method for all drying techniques (Table SI 2). Taking into account that transformation of poorly crystalline Fe minerals such as ferrihydrite is slow under dry conditions and temperatures up to 127 °C (Stanjek and Weidler, 1992), we are confident that soil drying at 60 °C did not have a major influence on Fe mineral crystallinity and extractability.

To also account for the OC which is readily desorbed from the sample and not directly associated with reactive Fe minerals, a control extraction using a 1.85 M sodium chloride (NaCl), 0.11 M sodium bicarbonate solution (pH 7, N_2:CO_2 (90:10, v:v) headspace) was performed under the same conditions as the dithionite-citrate extraction (Table SI 3) (Lalonde et al., 2012; Patzner et al., 2020). It has to be noted that the NaCl control extraction was shown to also extract OC that was weakly bound to reactive Fe minerals (Fisher et al., 2020). As the OC quantified by the NaCl control extraction is subtracted from the OC mobilized by the dithionite-citrate extraction, the amount of Fe-associated OC is likely underestimated.

2.3. Geochemical analyses

The supernatant from the selective extractions was obtained by centrifugation (10 min, 13400 rpm) and subsequently analyzed for total Fe (6 M HCl extractable) and reactive Fe (dithionite-citrate extractable) using the ferrozine assay (Stookey, 1970) following the protocol from Hegler et al. (2008). Briefly, to quantify total Fe, 80 μL of

hydroxylamine-HCl were incubated for 30 min with 20 μL of the supernatant which was fixed in 1 M HCl beforehand. The dilution of samples ensured that the initial brownish color of the supernatant, resulting from OC, did not interfere with the spectrophotometric quantification. 100 μL of ferrozine was then added, the solution was mixed and incubated for 5 min to allow for the spectrophotometric quantification at 562 nm. Subsequently, reactive Fe contents were calculated by subtracting the Fe readily mobilized during the NaCl control extraction.

OC in the supernatant which was mobilized during the dithionite-citrate extraction and the trisodium citrate-bicarbonate solution (to correct for the citrate background) were analyzed by combustion at 750 °C (Elemental analyzer, multi N/C 2100S, Analytik Jena GmbH, Germany). The Fe-associated OC was calculated by subtracting the OC background from the trisodium citrate-bicarbonate solution and the NaCl control extraction. As a consequence of the high OC background imposed by the use of citrate, Fe-associated OC could not be quantified in four soil horizons (young 1: 56–82 and 82–117 cm, ancient 1: 87–116 cm and ancient 2: 35–67 cm), however the amount of Fe-associated OC was typically high and detectable in most samples.

The TOC content of horizons in soil cores from drained thaw lake basins was previously analyzed in the study of Mueller et al. (2015). Briefly, oven-dried and ball-milled sample material was measured in duplicates via dry combustion (Vario MAX CNS Analyzer, Elementar, Hanau, Germany). The measured carbon contents represent the TOC content due to absence of carbonates.

Stocks of reactive Fe and associated OC (Eq. 1) were calculated based on content, bulk density (BD) and layer thickness of the horizons in each soil core (Table SI 3).

$$\text{Stock } [\text{kg m}^{-2}] = \text{content } [\text{mg g}^{-1}] \cdot \text{BD } [\text{g cm}^{-3}] \cdot \text{layer thickness } [\text{m}]$$

$$(1)$$

To account for differences along the permafrost soil chronosequence, reactive Fe and associated OC stock of same horizons (organic, cryoturbated or mineral) within one soil core were summed up and averaged between replicate soil cores of one age class to represent the

average reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC present in distinct soil horizons within one age class.

2.4. Fe mineralogy and spectroscopic analysis

To identify the reactive Fe minerals potentially involved in the association with OC, ^{57}Fe-specific Mössbauer spectroscopy was applied. Prior to Mössbauer analysis, dried sample material from organic, cryoturbated and mineral horizons of two endmember soil cores (young, ancient) was mortared and loaded into plexiglass holders (1 cm^2), forming a thin film of sample material. Plexiglass holders were tightly closed with parafilm and transmission spectra were collected at 77 K and 5 K using a constant acceleration drive system (WissEL) in transmission mode with a ^{57}Co/Rh source. All spectra were calibrated against a 7 μm thick α-^{57}Fe foil that was measured at 295 K. Sample analysis was carried out using Recoil (University of Ottawa) and the Voigt Based Fitting (VBF) routine (Rancourt and Ping, 1991). The half width at half maximum was constrained to 0.124 mm s^{-1} during fitting.

For visualizing Fe-OC associations with correlative scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and nanoscale secondary ion mass spectrometry (NanoSIMS) analysis, the deepest horizon of an intact frozen soil core (medium 2, 80–126 cm, Fig. 1) was chemically fixed, dried over an acetone row and subsequently impregnated with Araldite 502 (Araldite kit 502, electron microscope sciences, Hatfield, USA). The impregnated soil core was sectioned and polished (see details in Mueller et al. (2017)). Prior to SEM analysis (Jeol JSM 5900LV, Freising, Germany) in backscatter electron mode and NanoSIMS analysis, the intact cross section was gold-coated by physical vapor deposition under argon atmosphere to circumvent possible charging effects. The NanoSIMS measurements were recorded at the Cameca NanoSIMS 50 L (Gennevilliers, France) of the Lehrstuhl für Bodenkunde, TU München, Germany. Electron multiplier secondary ion collectors were used for $^{12}C^{14}N^-$, $^{27}Al^{16}O^-$ and $^{56}Fe^{16}O^-$. Prior to analysis, impurities and the coating layer were sputtered away by using a high primary beam current and charging during the measurements was compensated by an electron beam generated by the electron flood gun of the NanoSIMS instrument (Mueller et al., 2013). The NanoSIMS data was analyzed using the Look@NanoSIMS plugin for MatLab (Polerecky et al., 2012), images were corrected for detector dead time and drift corrected.
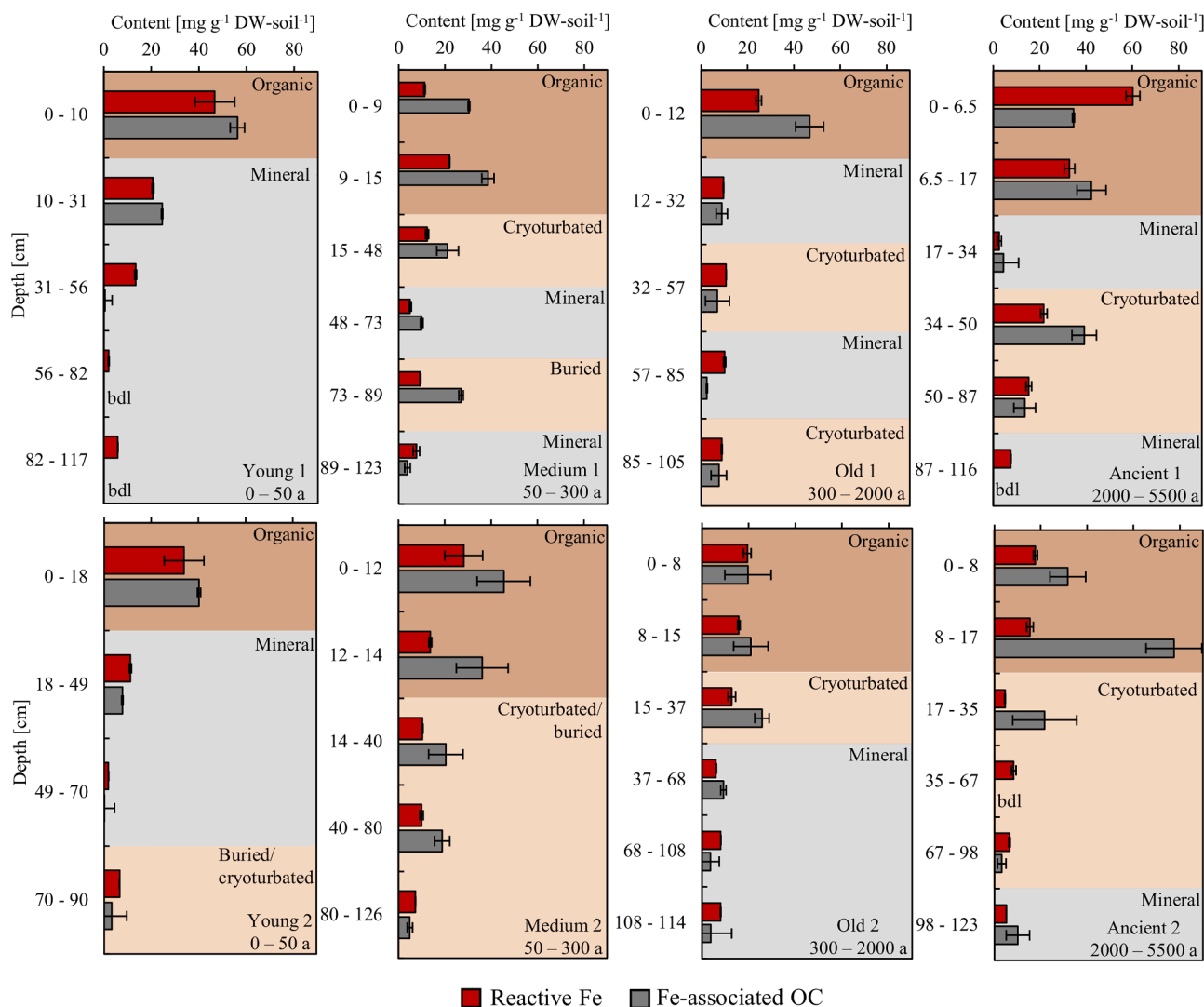

Fig. 2. Reactive Fe and associated OC content in soil horizons. Soil horizons determine the content of reactive Fe (red) and Fe-associated OC (grey) along the soil profile of replicate cores (1, 2) from four age classes (young, medium, old, ancient) of drained thaw lake basins from Alaska. Reactive Fe is dithionite-citrate extractable Fe corrected by NaCl control extraction and Fe-associated OC is dithionite-citrate extractable OC corrected by NaCl control extraction and citrate background, presented as mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}. Soil horizons are highlighted by color shading (brown: organic, beige: cryoturbated/buried, grey: mineral). Error bars represent a combined range of duplicate extractions per horizon of replicate soil cores.

2.5. Statistical analysis

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied using RStudio (Version 1.3.959) to identify differences between soil age classes, combined with a post-hoc test to identify age classes that are different from each other. Whenever normal distribution or homogeneity of variances was not given, a non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test was performed. For correlation analysis of non-normally distributed data, p-values (p) and correlation coefficients (r) are given for a Spearman (p_s and r_s) correlation. Additionally, linear regressions (R^2) were calculated to identify relationships between reactive Fe and associated OC across age classes.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Differences in reactive Fe and associated OC between soil horizons

Contents of reactive Fe and associated OC did not show a clear trend with depth, but were significantly different between soil horizons across the soil profiles ($p < 0.001$, Kruskal Wallis test) (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). Reactive Fe contents were highest in organic horizons (10 to 60 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) with a significantly higher content compared to cryoturbated ($p < 0.001$, 5 to 20 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) and mineral horizons ($p < 0.001$, 2 to 20 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). Cryoturbated horizons incorporate, in comparison to directly over- or underlying mineral horizons, higher amounts of reactive Fe (Fig. 2), even though overall differences in reactive Fe between cryoturbated and mineral horizons were not significant.

Horizons with elevated contents of reactive Fe in comparison to over- or underlying horizons were also identified to overlay the permafrost table (Fig. 1), subject to annual freeze/thaw cycles that experience
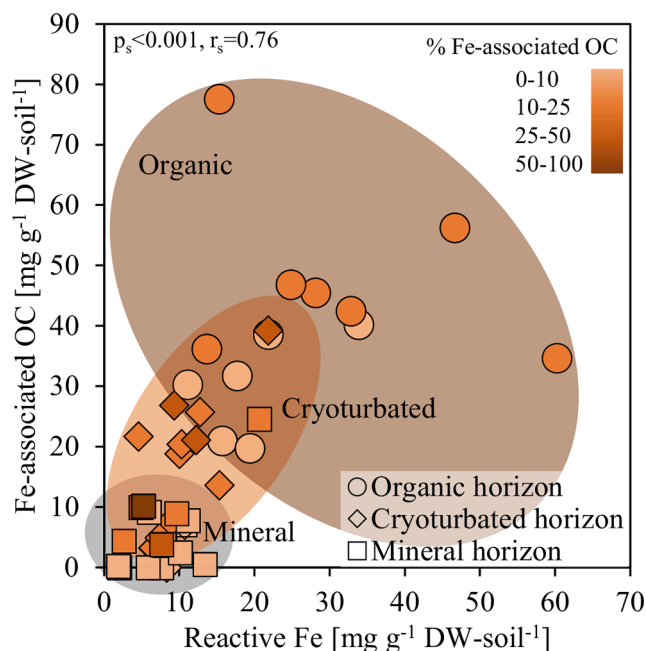
Fig. 3. Correlation of reactive Fe and associated OC content in soil horizons. Horizon-dependent correlation of reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC in organic horizons (circle, n = 13), cryoturbated/buried horizons (diamond, n = 14) and mineral horizons (square, n = 16) of replicate cores (1, 2) from four age classes (young, medium, old, ancient) of drained thaw lake basins from Alaska. Reactive Fe is dithionite-citrate extractable Fe corrected by NaCl control extraction and Fe-associated OC is dithionite-citrate extractable OC corrected by NaCl control extraction and citrate background, presented as mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}. Data points represent the average from duplicate extractions filled with a color gradient depending on the amount of Fe-associated OC as percentage of TOC.

fluctuations in redox conditions. At such redox interfaces, Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides are assumed to be effectively recycled forming poorly crystalline Fe minerals (Moormann and van Breemen, 1978) which counteracts the crystallization of reactive Fe minerals with time. Even though Chen et al. (2020) postulated the formation of more crystalline Fe minerals under redox fluctuations due to oxygen limitation, the association with high amounts of OC, as found in affected soil horizons, impede the crystallization of reactive Fe minerals (Schwertmann, 1966). Additionally, Fe(II) which is reduced in deeper, anoxic soil layers migrates upwards and subsequently is oxidized by oxygen and precipitates as Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides (Herndon et al., 2015; Liang et al., 1993). This likely explains highest contents and percentages (as % of total Fe) of reactive Fe found in organic horizons in our soil cores (~100% reactive Fe of the total Fe, Table SI 3). In accordance to the study by Herndon et al. 2017 from the same region, we also find highest amounts of poorly crystalline and crystalline Fe minerals in organic horizons and overall higher amounts of reactive Fe compared to other permafrost regions (Mu et al., 2016; Patzner et al., 2020).

Fe-associated OC contents were also highest in organic horizons (20 to 80 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) and are significantly different from cryoturbated ($p < 0.001$, 0 to 40 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) and mineral horizons ($p < 0.001$, 0 to 25 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}) (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). It has to be noted that TOC contents were also greatest in organic horizons (Fig. SI 2). Significantly elevated contents of Fe-associated OC were found in cryoturbated horizons in comparison to mineral horizons ($p = 0.025$), due to introduction of OC into deeper soil layers or redistribution of soil material rich in Fe-OC associations by cryoturbation (Fig. SI 2). Generally, reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC contents over all soil horizons and age classes correlate significantly ($p_s < 0.001$, $r_s = 0.76$) (Fig. 3). By categorizing the percentage of Fe-associated OC into four ranges (0–10, 10–25, 25–50, 50–100%) (Fig. 3), it can be shown that Fe-associated OC constitutes a higher proportion of TOC in cryoturbated horizons compared to organic and mineral horizons. This might be due to the formation of Fe-OC associations through input of fresh OC or by relocation of soil material already rich in Fe-OC associations by cryoturbation. Cryoturbated horizons show mainly 10 to 25% Fe-associated OC, whereas organic horizons have between 0 and 25% and mineral horizons have between 0 and 10% Fe-associated OC.

Cryoturbation redistributes mostly young, undecomposed OC into deeper soil layers (Ping et al., 1998), as was also shown by ^{14}C analysis for the same permafrost soil samples (Mueller et al., 2015). The relocated OC in cryoturbated horizons was furthermore characterized to be more bioavailable compared to over- or underlying mineral horizons as indicated by O-N/alkyl C to alkyl C ratios obtained by NMR spectroscopy (Mueller et al., 2015). Therefore, besides the preferential association of proteins and hydrophilic moieties with Fe mineral surfaces (Kleber et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2020), it is conceivable that easily available OC is also associated with reactive Fe minerals as the Fe-associated OC constitutes a large proportion of the TOC in cryoturbated horizons.

Also, similar amounts of Fe-associated OC are present in other permafrost regions (Mu et al., 2016; Patzner et al., 2020), although Fe-associated OC contents could be underestimated as a result of the NaCl control extraction (Fisher et al., 2020).

The depth distribution demonstrates that the content of reactive Fe and associated OC is controlled by soil horizons rather than by age class and is supported by significant differences found between soil horizons.

3.2. Reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC increasingly distributed in cryoturbated horizons with progressive soil development

In order to follow the Fe-OC associations with progressive soil development, soil horizons of replicate soil cores of four age classes were analyzed, integrated over the soil profile and averaged over the replicate cores. The influence of soil age class on the distribution of reactive Fe and associated OC is less apparent than the influence of soil horizons (Fig. SI 3). However, it can be noted that the relationship between

reactive Fe and associated OC is increasingly heterogeneous along the soil chronosequence (Fig. SI 4), likely resulting from warped or broken soil profiles due to cryoturbation (Ping et al., 2008). Overall, a maximum of 73.66 ± 5.65% of the total extractable Fe was quantified as reactive Fe and 13.68 ± 2.31% of the TOC was found to be associated with reactive Fe minerals over the soil profiles (Table 1). In comparison to other studies focusing on Fe-OC associations in permafrost soils, we find similar amounts of OC associated with reactive Fe minerals. In permafrost soils from the Qinghai-Tibetan-Plateau, a maximum of 23.09 ± 16.42% of the TOC is associated with reactive Fe minerals in soil cores of an alpine desert steppe (Mu et al., 2016) and a maximum of 7% in soils overlying intact permafrost in Sweden when averaged over the soil profile (Patzner et al., 2020).
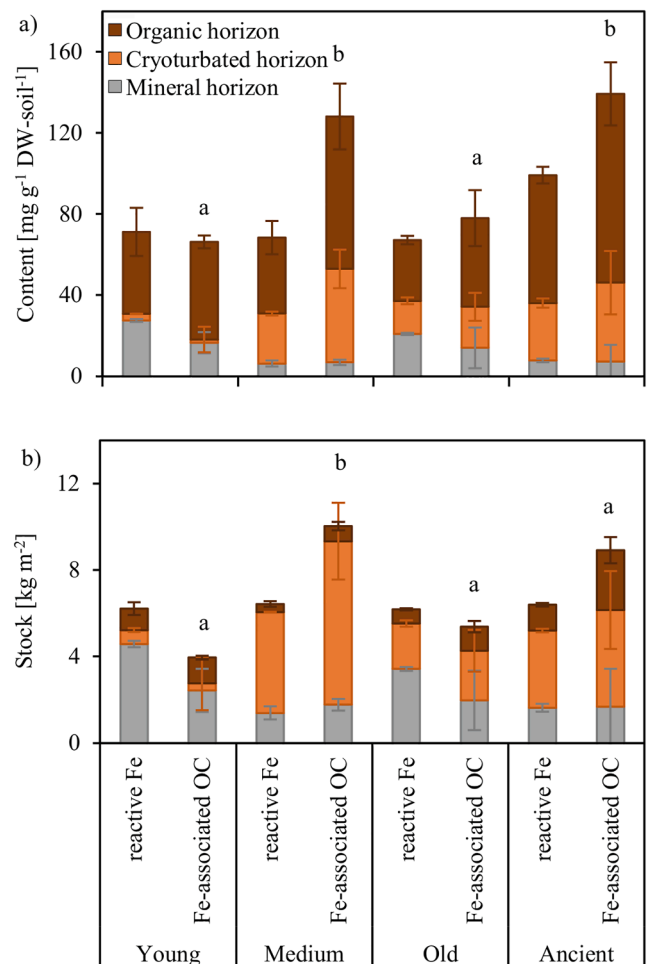
Across age classes of the permafrost soil chronosequence, reactive Fe contents are relatively constant (Fig. 4 a), but significant differences between age classes were found for the content of Fe-associated OC (p = 0.008) between the young and the medium (p = 0.0214, 66.34 ± 8.75 to 128.12 ± 18.86 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}, Table 1) and the young and ancient age class (p = 0.0118, 66.34 ± 8.75 to 139.25 ± 23.54 mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}, Table 1) (Fig. 4 a). Even though the majority of reactive Fe and associated OC content is contained in organic horizons along the soil chronosequence, cryoturbated horizons account for 6 to 8 times more reactive Fe (from ~4% in young to 24–36% in older age classes) and 10 to 14 times more associated OC (from ~2% in young to 26–36% in older age classes) from the young to the older age classes (medium, old, ancient) (Fig. 4 a). Our consistent trend in reactive Fe across soil age classes indicates either a stable pool of reactive Fe minerals over 5500 years of soil development by impeded crystallization and hydrolysis of Fe minerals by association with OC (Amstaetter et al., 2012; Cornell and Schwertmann, 2003; Schwertmann and Murad, 1988) or likely results from effective recycling of Fe minerals under redox fluctuations as was already observed in the same permafrost region (Herndon et al., 2017).

Stocks of reactive Fe do not significantly change (6.22 ± 0.33 to 6.40 ± 0.34 kg m^{-2} from young to ancient, Fig. 4 b, Table 1), but the distribution of reactive Fe in soil horizons differs along the soil chronosequence. Cryoturbated horizons store 10% of the total reactive Fe stock in the young age class and 34–72% in the older age classes (medium, old, ancient). Fe-associated OC stocks are significantly different between age classes (p = 0.0285) (Fig. 4 b, Table 1) and significantly increase from the young (3.95 ± 1.59 kg m^{-2}) to the medium age class (10.04 ± 1.81 kg m^{-2}) (p = 0.0346). Changes in Fe-associated OC are potentially driven by an increased incorporation of OC in cryoturbated horizons as they increase in abundance along the soil chronosequence or by redistribution of soil horizons rich in Fe-OC associations by cryoturbation. Stocks of Fe-associated OC in cryoturbated horizons concurrently increase from around 8% in the young age class to 42–75% of the total OC stock in the older age classes (medium, old, ancient) (Table SI 3). This underlines the shift from mineral horizons contributing most to the Fe-associated OC and reactive Fe stock in young (0–50 years) permafrost soils of drained thaw lake basins to cryoturbated horizons storing most reactive Fe and associated OC with progressive soil development.

Fig. 4. Reactive Fe and associated OC content and stock along the permafrost soil chronosequence. Reactive Fe and associated OC a) content in mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1} and b) stock in kg m^{-2} in distinct soil horizons (organic: brown, cryoturbated/buried: orange, grey: mineral) along the soil chronosequence. Distribution of reactive Fe and associated OC contents highlight the role of organic horizons, whereas cryoturbated horizons are more important regarding stocks along the soil chronosequence. Reactive Fe is dithionite-citrate extractable Fe corrected by NaCl control extraction and Fe-associated OC is dithionite-citrate extractable OC corrected by NaCl control extraction and citrate background. Error bars represent a combined range of duplicate extractions per horizon of replicate soil cores. Significant differences between age classes are highlighted with letters a and b.

3.3. The nature of Fe-OC associations

3.3.1. Differences in Fe mineral crystallinity between soil horizons

The crystallinity of Fe minerals can highly impact their capacity to

Table 1

Overview of content, percentage and stock of reactive Fe and associated OC integrated over the whole soil profile and averaged over two replicate soil cores along the soil chronosequence. Reactive Fe is dithionite-citrate extractable Fe corrected by NaCl control extraction and Fe-associated OC is dithionite-citrate extractable OC corrected by NaCl control extraction and citrate background.

		Young			Medium			Old			Ancient		
Content													
[mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1}]	Reactive Fe	71.11	±	13.07	68.40	±	9.50	67.18	±	4.60	99.17	±	9.11
	Fe-associated OC	66.34	±	13.74	128.12	±	44.79	77.99	±	40.31	139.25	±	48.04
Percentage													
[%]	Reactive Fe	59.51	±	7.29	56.55	±	5.09	59.21	±	3.92	73.66	±	7.02
	Fe-associated OC	10.96	±	0.21	12.77	±	0.35	8.03	±	0.52	13.68	±	0.34
Stock													
[kg m^{-2}]	Reactive Fe	6.22	±	0.50	6.44	±	0.68	6.18	±	0.31	6.40	±	0.63
	Fe-associated OC	3.95	±	1.96	10.04	±	5.44	5.38	±	3.35	8.92	±	4.84

interact with OC (Herndon et al., 2017). We therefore performed [57]Fe-specific Mössbauer spectroscopy analysis at 77 K and 5 K to identify and quantify the relative abundances of Fe minerals. Mössbauer transmission spectra of organic horizons of the young and ancient age class showed similar properties for spectra collected at 77 K (Fig. SI 7 a, b, Table SI 4). The absence of a magnetic-ordering phase at 77 K and the presence of a sextet in the Mössbauer spectra collected at 5 K suggests the presence of a poorly crystalline Fe(III) mineral phase with hyperfine field parameters similar to ferrihydrite (Fig. SI 7 a, b, Fig. SI 8 a, b, Table SI 4). This supports findings from selective extractions in organic horizons where reactive Fe minerals (which would include ferrihydrite) account for almost all of the total extractable Fe pool (Table SI 3). In cryoturbated and mineral horizons, 77 K Mössbauer spectra indicated the presence of an additional ferrous Fe mineral phase in both the young and ancient age class (Fig. SI 7c, d, e, f) which undergoes magnetic ordering only at 5 K (Figure SI 8c, d, e, f, Table SI 4). This can be typical for a poorly crystalline Fe(II) mineral phase such as vivianite, siderite or Fe(II)-rich phyllosilicates (Murad, 2010), although a clear identification could not be achieved by Mössbauer spectroscopy only. Phyllosilicates are not targeted by the dithionite-citrate extraction but will dissolve to a small extent in the 6 M HCl extraction. A poorly crystalline Fe(II) mineral such as vivianite would likely dissolve in the dithionite-citrate extraction (Williams et al., 1980). Moreover, the preparation of the sample material under oxic conditions might lead to the abiotic oxidation of such oxygen sensitive ferrous Fe minerals. Taken this into consideration, and the lower abundance of reactive Fe minerals in the total extractable Fe pool compared to organic horizons (Table SI 3), suggests that the observed phase is probably an Fe(II)-bearing phyllosilicate (Poulton and Canfield, 2005; Raiswell et al., 1994). Overall, Mössbauer spectroscopy enabled the identification of ferrihydrite as the poorly crystalline mineral phase most abundant in organic horizons with lower abundance due to a more pronounced Fe(II) phase in cryoturbated and mineral horizons. Fe minerals of higher crystallinity such as magnetite are typically generated by dissimilatory Fe(III) reduction (Lovley et al., 1987) and present in permafrost soils from northern Alaska (Lipson et al., 2010), but are not involved in Fe-OC associations found in our study. Unlike Sowers et al. (2020) which investigated a Yedoma chronosequence over 36000 years, we did not observe differences in Fe mineral crystallinity with soil development, but rather in soil horizons. Cryoturbated and mineral horizons contain similar Fe mineral phases in our study, but differ greatly in their amount of Fe-associated OC. Thus, we conclude that Fe mineral crystallinity does not solely affect the association of OC in permafrost soils of drained thaw lake basins, but is potentially influenced by the type of interaction between OC and reactive Fe minerals.

3.3.2. Co-precipitation, chelation and aggregation primarily explain the nature of Fe-OC associations

Fe-associated OC to reactive Fe ratios (OC:Fe) obtained by the dithionite-citrate extraction after control correction (i.e., by subtracting the NaCl control extraction and the citrate background) can indicate the mechanism of Fe-OC interactions. A mass ratio over 0.22 is indicative for Fe-OC associations predominantly formed by co-precipitation or chelation (Wagai and Mayer, 2007). Below an OC:Fe mass ratio of 0.22, OC is mainly assumed to be sorbed onto Fe minerals. In the present study, 86% of the permafrost samples exceed an OC:Fe mass ratios of 0.22. Between soil age classes, differences in OC:Fe mass ratios are not profound (Figure SI 5), but significant differences were found between soil horizons (p = 0.01, Kruskal Wallis test) (Fig. 5). Organic horizons consistently exceed an OC:Fe mass ratio of 0.22 with ratios between 0.57 and 5.05. They are significantly different from mineral horizons (p = 0.01) that show lower OC:Fe mass ratios (0 to 2.02). OC:Fe mass ratios in cryoturbated horizons range between 0 and 4.72. Given the release of OC bound in soil microaggregate structures during dithionite-citrate extraction (Wagai and Mayer, 2007) and the occlusion of particulate organic matter (POM) in soil aggregate structures as shown for the same
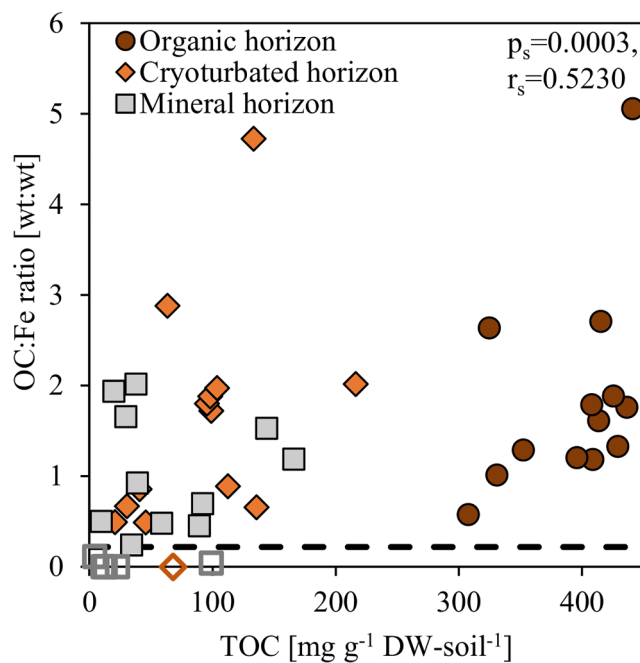

Fig. 5. Correlation of OC:Fe mass ratio and TOC content in soil horizons. OC:Fe mass ratios in relation to the TOC content in mg g^{-1} DW-soil^{-1} separated into organic horizons (brown circle), cryoturbated/buried horizons (orange diamond) and mineral horizons (grey square) of replicate cores (1, 2) from four age classes (young, medium, old, ancient) of drained thaw lake basins from Alaska. OC:Fe mass ratios were calculated using reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC contents. Reactive Fe is dithionite-citrate extractable Fe corrected by NaCl control extraction and Fe-associated OC is dithionite-citrate extractable OC corrected by NaCl control extraction and citrate background. The dashed line represents the presumed threshold for sorption of reactive Fe minerals on natural organic matter (Wagai and Mayer, 2007). OC:Fe mass ratios largely exceeding 0.22, indicate co-precipitation or chelation of organic compounds. Samples exceeding this threshold are illustrated as filled symbols, whereas framed symbols are below a ratio of 0.22.

permafrost soil samples by physical fractionation and imaging analyses (Mueller et al., 2015, 2017), high OC:Fe mass ratios indicate the contribution of aggregation.

Cryoturbated horizons show a high proportion of particulate organic matter where plant residues can for example promote soil aggregate formation by providing a priming structure for aggregating mineral particles (Mueller et al., 2017; Prater et al., 2020). The intricate connection of reactive Fe minerals, organic matter and the soil matrix in a cryoturbated horizon (medium 2) is illustrated by using combined SEM and NanoSIMS analysis (Fig. 6). The backscattered SEM image showed POM and clay minerals (mi) enclosed by Fe minerals (FeO) in the soil cross section and delimited quartz grains (q) (Fig. 6 a). Microscale distributions showed a close spatial association of Fe minerals visualized as $^{56}Fe^{16}O^{-}$ intertwined with POM as $^{12}C^{14}N^{-}$ and clay and silt minerals shown as $^{27}Al^{16}O^{-}$ as detected by NanoSIMS in the cryoturbated horizon of the medium age class (Fig. 6 b, c).

The type of Fe-OC interactions seems to be governed to a certain extent by the amount of TOC present in soil horizons, as supported by significant correlation between OC:Fe mass ratios and TOC content (p_s = 0.0003, r_s = 0.5230). Furthermore, the association of OC seems not to be limited by the amount of reactive Fe in our permafrost soil cores, in contrast to Fe-OC associations in forest soils (Zhao et al., 2016). The Fe-associated OC in our study largely exceeds the theoretical maximum of sorbed OC onto Fe (oxyhydr)oxides, calculated as 0.22 times the reactive Fe content (Herndon et al., 2017) (Figure SI 6). High OC:Fe mass ratios in distinct soil horizons can possibly be explained by changes in solubility of redox active metals (Eusterhues et al., 2005), as it can also be
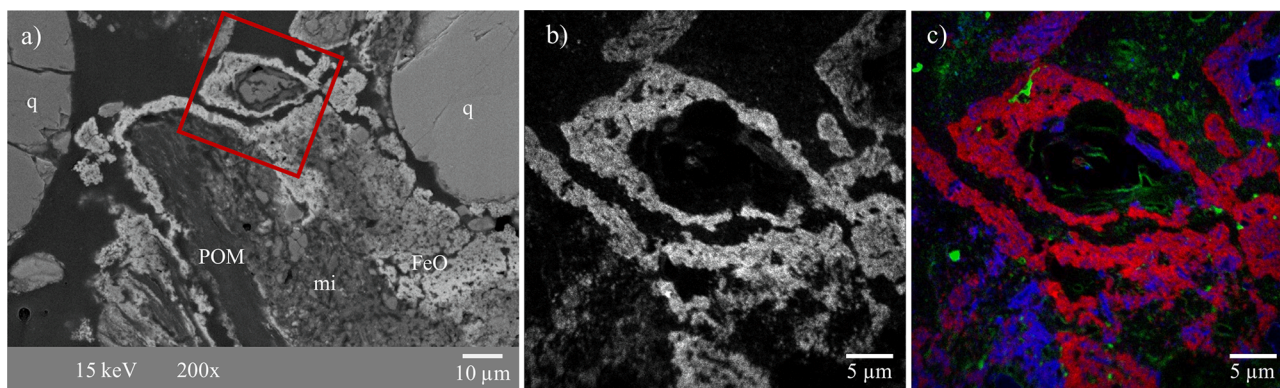
Fig. 6. Spatial association of Fe minerals and OC. Cross section of an embedded intact soil core (medium 2, 80–126 cm) derived from the permafrost layer to illustrate the intricate connection of Fe oxides (FeO) with soil organic matter (i.e., particulate organic matter, POM) and the soil matrix (quartz grains, q; clay minerals, mi). a) Backscattered SEM image showing the incrustation of POM and silt and clay minerals (mi) by FeO (brighter zones in backscattered SEM image). The red square indicates the NanoSIMS measurement spot (b, c). b) Microscale distribution of Fe measured as $^{56}Fe^{16}O^-$ by NanoSIMS. c) Composite image of Fe (red, $^{56}Fe^{16}O^-$), organic matter (green, $^{12}C^{14}N^-$) and aluminium (blue, $^{27}Al^{16}O^-$) (detailed description of sample in Mueller et al. (2017)).

observed at the redox interface in permafrost affected soils.

Besides the amount of OC, pH also influences the nature of the Fe-OC association (Wagai and Mayer, 2007). On average, higher OC:Fe mass ratios can be found in older age classes where pH is generally lower and TOC is higher compared to the young age class (OC:Fe mass ratio: young = 0.55 ± 0.54, medium = 1.85 ± 0.76, old = 1.03 ± 0.59, ancient = 1.68 ± 1.65) (Kao-Kniffin et al., 2015). In summary, our results show that Fe-OC associations are primarily formed by co-precipitation, chelation and aggregation in drained thaw lake basins of northern Alaska which is in accordance with findings from other permafrost regions (Mu et al., 2020; Patzner et al., 2020). Contrary findings in the same region, where Fe-OC associations are restricted to sorption (Herndon et al., 2017), highlights the heterogeneity of Fe-OC associations and the need for further investigations.

3.4. Potential fate of Fe-OC associations under climate change

The molecular diversity was long thought to be the main factor limiting the decomposition of organic matter. Lehmann et al. (2020) recently underlined that spatial and temporal variations in the soil shape the functional complexity and collectively determine OC persistence. As permafrost soils are highly variable ecosystems with annual freeze–thaw cycles, Fe-OC associations are considered to play an important role in retaining OC under a changing climate. Increasing permafrost thaw can result in waterlogged and anoxic conditions under which Fe minerals are dissolved by dissimilatory Fe(III)-reducing microorganisms that releases the Fe-associated OC (Patzner et al., 2020). By this, greenhouse gas emissions could be exaggerated by microbial Fe(III) reduction which is directly coupled to OC mineralization leading to CO_2 emissions (Lovley et al., 1987). As well as by the reductive dissolution of reactive Fe minerals mobilizing the previously bound OC which becomes available for microbial respiration. Additionally, Fe(III) reduction can also be coupled to other microbial processes such as anaerobic oxidation of methane which influences greenhouse gas emissions (van Huissteden et al., 2011) and thus the response of permafrost soils to climate change.

At the Arctic Coastal Plain of northern Alaska, microbial Fe(III) reduction contributes up to 63% to the total respiration (Lipson et al., 2013) which emphasizes the important role of Fe minerals in the association with OC. Thermokarst regions of the Arctic Coastal Plain in Alaska are assumed to shift from a stable (Hinkel et al., 2007) to a susceptible environment under future climate (Nitze et al., 2020). Due to the lack of ground ice-wedge build-up under future climate scenarios, it is expected that thermokarst lakes will no longer follow the long postulated thermokarst lake cycle where reformation of thermokarst lakes was expected after around 5500 years of drainage (Bouchard et al.,

2017; Fuchs et al., 2019; Jorgenson and Shur, 2007). Consequently, OC introduced by cryoturbation can be associated and stabilized by reactive Fe minerals under increasing soil drainage which promotes oxic conditions (Herndon et al., 2020). This association potentially preserves OC over thousands of years mitigating the rapid loss of respired C as greenhouse gases to the atmosphere.

4. Conclusions

We found that high amounts of OC are associated with reactive Fe minerals, identified as ferrihydrite, in soils forming on drained thaw lake basins in northern Alaska. These associations form predominantly by co-precipitation or chelation in addition to aggregation mechanisms. Even though organic horizons account for the highest content of reactive Fe and associated OC, the importance of cryoturbated horizons becomes apparent when stocks of reactive Fe and Fe-associated OC are considered. We thus postulate that the increase of cryoturbation with progressive soil development controls the increase of Fe-associated OC already within the first 50 years after thaw lake drainage. These observations have important implications under climate change for other thermokarst landscapes as found in northern Siberia and Canada (Grosse et al., 2006; van Huissteden et al., 2011) and for OC rich permafrost soils in general (Sowers et al., 2020).

Authors contribution

C.B, M.P and A.K formulated the original hypothesis. H.J, M.P, C.B and A.K designed the project. C.M collected and provided the permafrost soil samples and conducted the NanoSIMS analysis. M.M performed the Mössbauer analysis. H.J conducted analyses in the laboratory and wrote the original draft of the manuscript. All authors were responsible for data evaluation and interpretation. All authors discussed the data, reviewed and edited the manuscript and have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2022.115738.

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