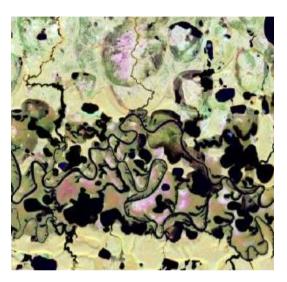
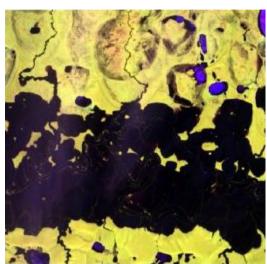
Climate change and the carbon cycle of frozen floodplains.





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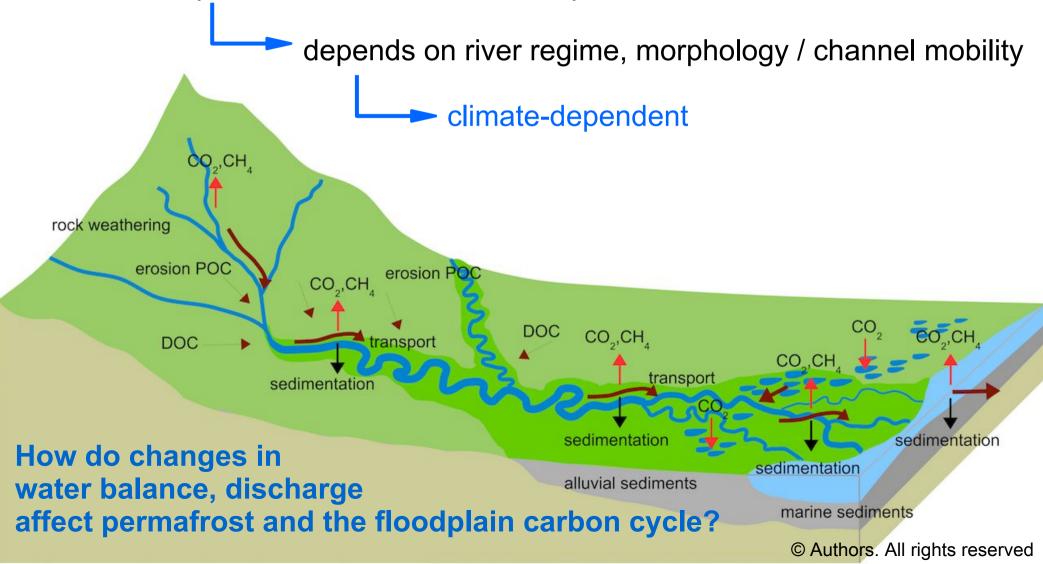




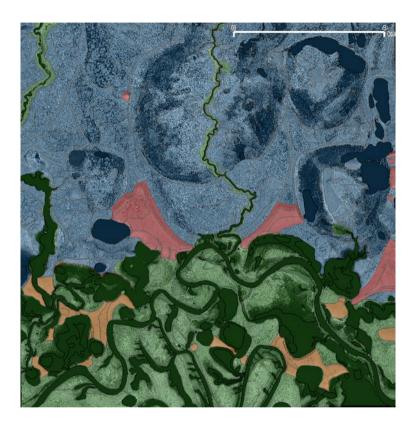


River plain carbon cycle

Transport / emission of dissolved carbon species Erosion, transport and re-sedimentation of particulate carbon

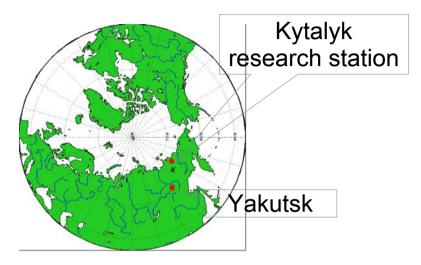


Berelegh floodplain, NE Siberia



Holocene floodplain
Drained thaw lake basins *(alas)*Yedoma remnants
Pleistocene(?) river terrace

4 km



Methods:

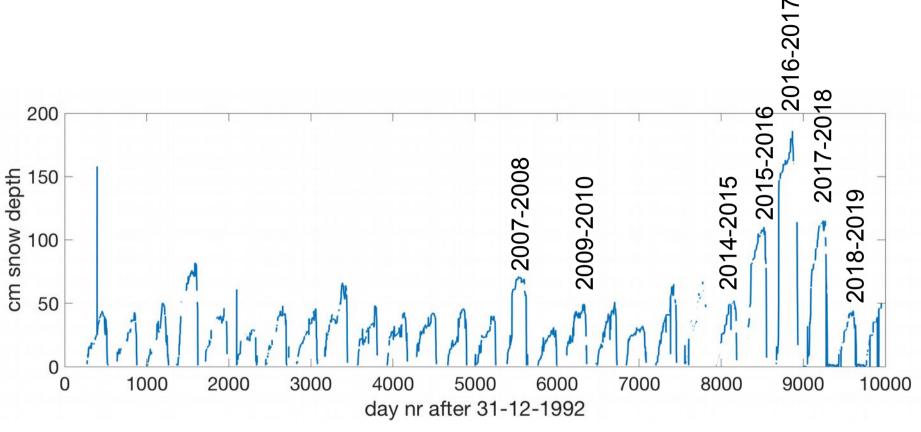
Interferometric SAR surface movement mapping

Multi-year high resolution satellite image study thaw pond development and river flooding

Geomorphological mapping

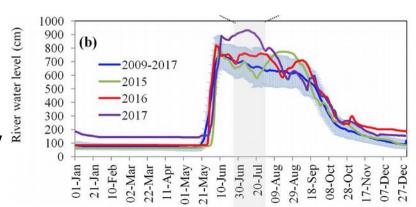
Active layer thickness data

Recent high river water and snow



2017 flood (Tei et al., 2019):

- High early flood peak early June
- Prolonged extreme flooding June and July
- Flood probability <= 1 in 49 years



Results

1. The floodplain wetlands are

- a hotspot of CH₄ emission
- stores of carbon in sediments

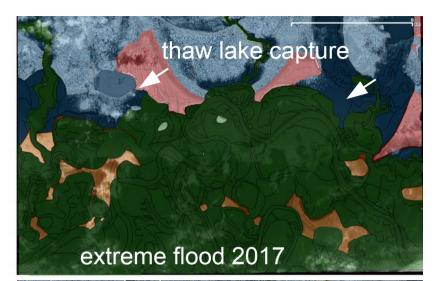
2. Extreme floods expand the floodplain:

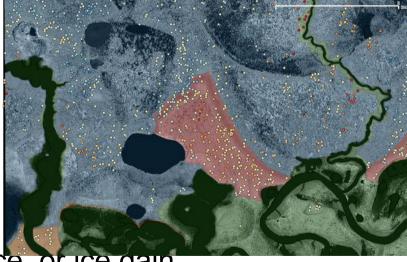
- permafrost thaw, subsidence
- capture of thaw lakes

Future projections: increased flooding of Siberian rivers (Shkolnik et al. (2016): **2-5%** increase in flood area by 2050 - 2059)

3. INSAR surface movement data:

- Subsidence in poorly-drained areas
- Well drained areas: no significant subsidence, or ice gain
- Sedimentation: on floodplain, peat accumulation in alases





Permafrost rivers: carbon cycle diversity

Nival or glacier-fed discharge regime, sensitive to drainage basin permafrost cover

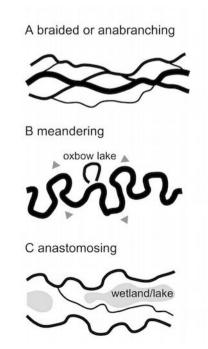
Erosion processes linked to permafrost thaw channel bank stability, thaw lake development

Diverse floodplain morphology affects:

carbon storage in sediments

wetland environments

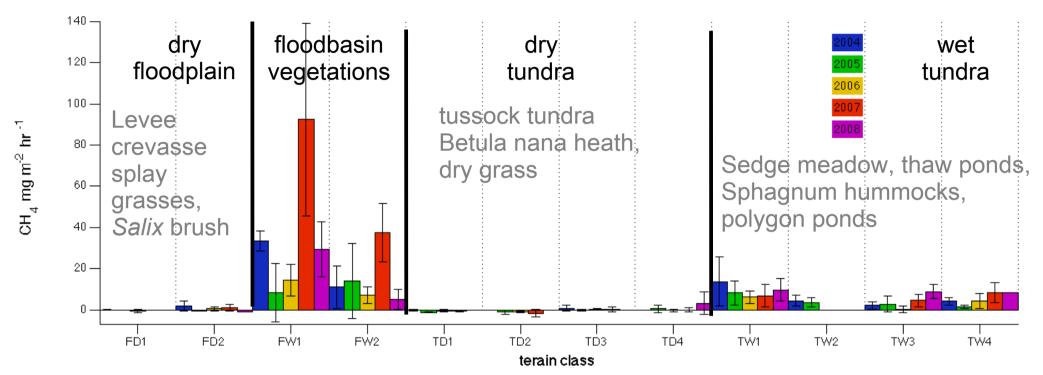
Nutrient supply by floodwater





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Carbon cycle significance: CH₄



Wet floodplain vegetations:

- 1. Higher CH₄ fluxes than comparable sites (water level, vegetation) on oligotrophic tundra see e.g. FW2 and TW1 class above: both are sedge meadows with same vegetation composition and above-surface water table. Nutrient conditions cause higher primary production on floodplain FW2 class (Van Huissteden et al., 2005, 2009)
- 2. Evasion of CH₄ from river flood water in spring is an important process (Morozumi et al., 2019)

Carbon cycle significance: Organic sediment



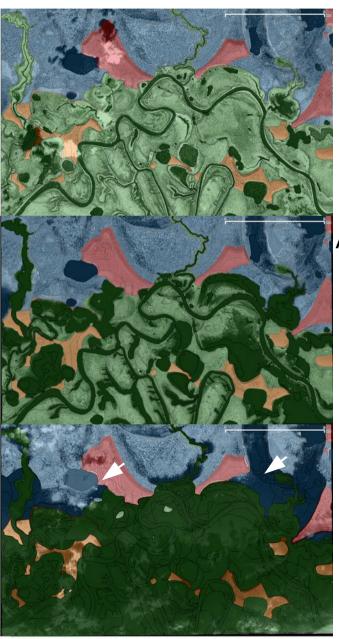
Active carbon sedimentation and burial:

carbon in vegetation horizons in floodbasin sediment peat growth in floodbasin sediments particulate carbon deposition

Local floodbasin sedimentation rate: 0.5 ± 0.3 cm yr⁻¹

Carbon storage in floodplain sediments is poorly quantified (Hugelius et al., 2014; Van Huissteden, 2020)

River spring flood height



Low stand, end of summer (August 2010):

Thaw lakes:

If not connected with river: ± stable water level

River connected: water level follows river, drained in autumn

At receding, ± normal spring flood mid July 2015:

Channels are bank-full

All river-connected lakes filled

Floodbasins without lakes are partly flooded

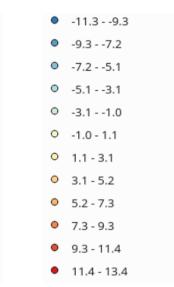
Extreme spring flood, mid July 2017 (Tei et al., 2019)
after high winter precipitation, rain on snow, ice jams
Complete floodplain flooded except river terrace
River water invades normally non-flooded
drained thaw lake basin (DTLB) surfaces
One thaw lake invaded by river water, another nearly
(arrows)

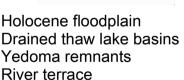
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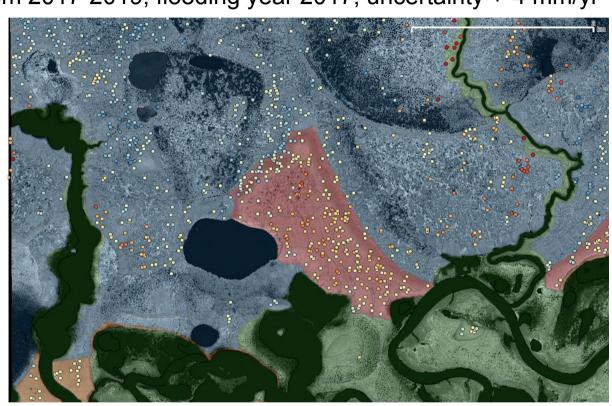
INSAR data

Method: Persistent scatter interferometric SAR using Sentinel 1

Persistent scatterer: pixels that are not affected by surface property changes 3 year velocity rates from 2017-2019, flooding year 2017, uncertainty +-4 mm/yr







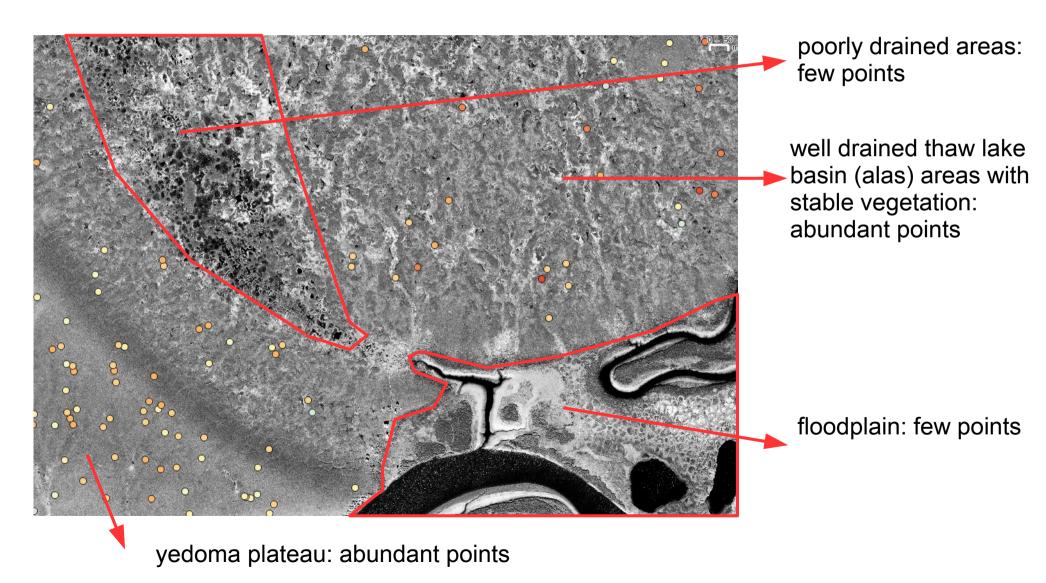
Processes affecting velocities:

- permafrost ice gain / loss (frost heave / thaw subsidence)
- slope and fluvial erosion
- sedimentation (peat growth / fluvial / colluvial deposition)
- tectonic movements (not considered here)

Data interpretation supported by geomorphological mapping and flood mapping based in high resolution Geoeye and Worldview sattellite images

Sampling bias

Cross-image requirement of coherence: *may exclude dynamic surface types* (vegetation change, flooding)



INSAR comparison with geomorphology, high resolution images

: subsiding

: not subsiding or heave

: less subsidence

: more subsidence (p<0.01)

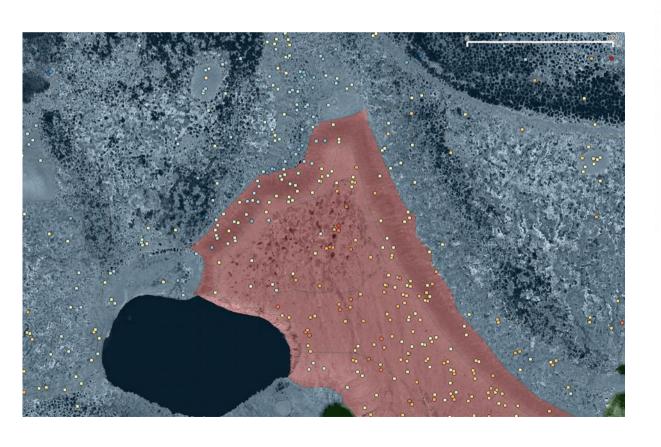
Low-lying pond-rich thaw lake basins (alas) areas well-drained Yedoma and alas areas

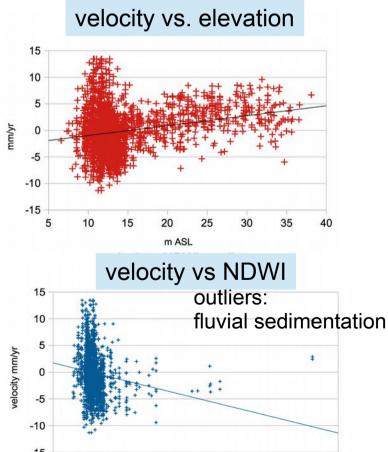
Higher pond density and higher NDWI water index

Higher elevation

Higher policidensity and higher NDW water index

NDWI = normalize differential water index = (green - near infrared) / (green + near infrared)



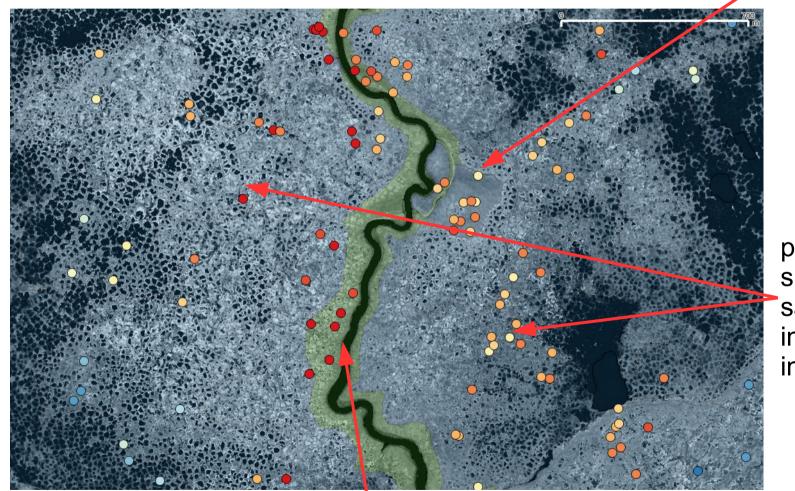


NDWI - higher = more water

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Examples drainage effect, peat growth, frost heave

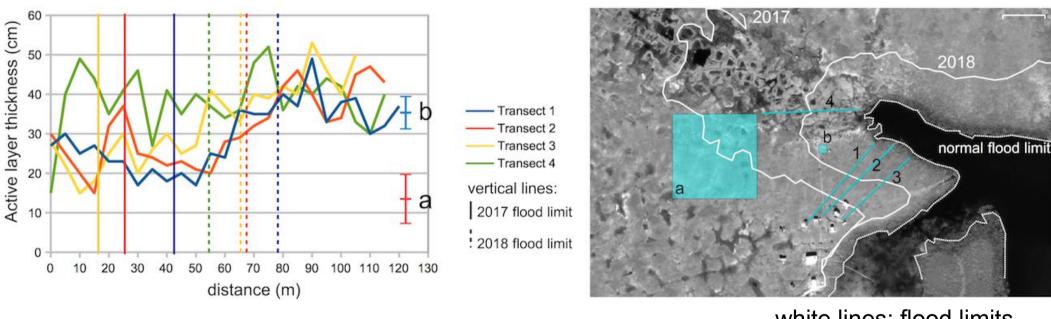
pingo complex: heave?



polygon areas in alas: spectral signature in satellite images indicates peat growth in ice wedge polygons

incised river channel in alas: better drainage along banks + ice gain after ice loss in 2017 flood?

Flooding affects active layer thickness



white lines: flood limits

Active layer depths in July 2018 along transects at ± right angle to 2017, 2018 flood limits

Transect 1, 2, 3 : Mesic (dry-moist) tussock tundra

increased active layer tickness in flood-affected areas

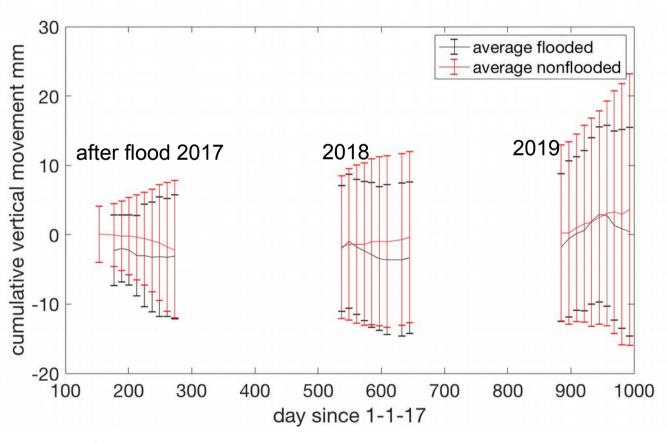
Transect 4 : Wet Sphagnum-dominated tundra

no clear effect of flooding

Subsidence after flooding

INSAR time series 2017-2019

INSAR seasonal time-series surface changes in drained thaw lake basins are compared for alas point affected by the 2017 flood, and alas points that were not flooded in 2017



flooded DTLB: n = 14non-flooded DTLB: n = 432

flooded area 2017 : early, rapid subsidence during flooding

nonflooded areas 2017 : later subsidence progressing with thaw season

effects appear to continue in 2018 (more subsidence at 2017 flooded points)

in 2019 no statistically significant difference

Flooding effects on vegetation



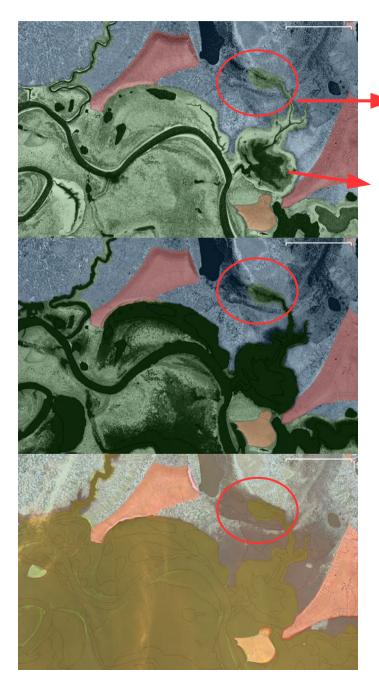
Flooded areas show mortality of non-flood resistant species

- Dwarf shrubs (Betula, Vaccinium), Sphagnum, Eriophorum tussocks
- Advantage of flood-resistant willow
- Tei et al. (2019) report forest browning

Immediate and longer-term effects of flooding on vegetation and carbon cycle need quantification!

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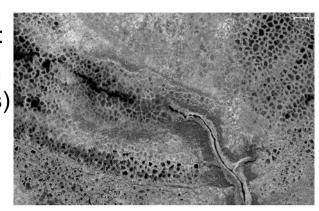
Floodplain expansion into thaw lake basin



Visible at low water level (2010):

expanding channel + floodplain
vegetation(high willow, grasses)
into alas

thaw lake captured in the past by river bank erosion, drains at river low stand



Early summer 2015 ± normal flooding: flood water does not enter the alas at this location

2017 extreme flood

flood water enters the alas at this location and makes contact with thaw lake

subsidence + channel erosion may widen the connection of the alas to the river, and potentially drain the thaw lake

Discussion

Subsidence on poorly drained sites and floodplain:

is it driven by more surface water - ponding/flooding in wet years? longer INSAR time series + field observations on changes needed

Well drained sites - no subsidence, some heave:

do wet years contribute to ice accumulation at top of permafrost in wet years ? quantification of ice content over the years necessary

Other positive surface movement:

peat accumulation (areas with *Sphagnum*) floodplain sedimentation colluvial deposition on lower slopes of Yedoma remnants

Extreme river flooding drives floodplain expansion by:

subsidence thaw lake capture

What are effects on the carbon cycle, ecological changes, Arctic browning/greening?

Factors affecting the floodplain carbon cycle at a large scale:

Vegetation stress / die-back in areas affected by unusual flooding Higher vegetation productivity on floodplain Higher CH₄ emission in floodplain environments

Floodplain expansion creates accomodation space for carbon-rich fluvial sediment

Conclusions

- 1. The floodplain wetlands are
- a hotspot of CH_₄ emission
- carbon storage in sediments
- 2. Extreme floods expand the floodplain:
- permafrost thaw, subsidence
- capture of thaw lakes
- INSAR surface movement data show:
- Subsidence in poorly-drained areas
- Well drained: no significant subsidence, or ice gain
- Sedimentation: floodplain, peat accumulation