

1 **Freeze-thaw processes correspond to the protection-loss of soil**
2 **organic carbon through regulating pore structure of aggregates**
3 **in alpine ecosystems**

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5 Ruizhe Wang^{1,2}, Xia Hu^{1,2*}

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7 ¹State Key Laboratory of Earth Surface Process and Resource Ecology, Faculty of Geographical Science, Beijing
8 Normal University, Beijing 100875, China

9 ²School of Natural Resources, Faculty of Geographical Science, Beijing Normal University, Beijing 100875, China.

10 *Correspondence to:* Xia Hu (huxia@bnu.edu.cn)

11

12 **Abstract.** Seasonal freeze–thaw (FT) processes alter soil formation and causes changes in soil
13 structure in alpine ecosystems. Soil aggregates are basic soil structural units and play a crucial role
14 in soil organic carbon (SOC) protection and microbial habitation. However, the impact of seasonal
15 FT processes on pore structure and its impact on SOC fractions have been overlooked. This study
16 characterized the pore structure and SOC fractions of aggregates during the unstable freezing
17 period (UFP), stable frozen period (SFP), unstable thawing period (UTP) and stable thawed period
18 (STP) in typical alpine ecosystems via the dry sieving procedure, X-ray computed tomography
19 (CT) scanning and elemental analysis. The results showed that pore network of 0.25-2 mm
20 aggregates was more vulnerable to seasonal FT processes than that of > 2 mm aggregates. The
21 freezing process promoted the formation of > 80 μm pores of aggregates. The total organic carbon
22 (TOC), particulate organic carbon (POC) and mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC)
23 contents of aggregates were high in the stable frozen period and low in unstable thawing period,
24 demonstrating that freezing process enhanced SOC accumulation while early stage of thawing led
25 to SOC loss. The vertical distribution of SOC of aggregates was more uniform in the stable frozen
26 period than in other periods. Pore equivalent diameter was the most important structural
27 characteristic influencing SOC contents of aggregates. In the freezing period, pore structure
28 inhibited SOC loss by promoting the formation of >80 μm pores. In the thawing period, pores of
29 <15 μm inhibited SOC loss. Our results revealed that changes in pore structure induced by FT
30 processes could positively contribute to SOC protection of aggregates.

31

32 **Key words:** Seasonal freeze–thaw process, soil aggregate, soil organic carbon, soil pore

33

34 1. Introduction

35 The alpine regions contribute to over 50% of the soil organic carbon (SOC) stock in terrestrial
36 ecosystems, which is 1.5 times higher than the atmospheric carbon pool (Tarnocai et al., 2009).
37 Significant soil carbon emissions from warming-induced permafrost thawing could further provide
38 a positive carbon feedback to climate change (Schuur and Mack, 2018). Freeze–thaw (FT) cycles
39 are main processes of soil formation in alpine regions (Wang et al., 2007). The ongoing global
40 warming has reduced snow cover in winter and decreased the insulations of soils against freezing,
41 which has increased the frequency of FT cycles (Kreyling et al., 2008). Soil aggregates are
42 fundamental soil structural units and favour SOC protection (Oztas and Fayetorbay, 2003; Tan et
43 al., 2014). SOC is preserved by physical protection in the forms of light organic carbon (fLOC),
44 particulate organic carbon (POC) and mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC). POC is a
45 crucial contributor to soil aggregation and parallels plant-derived carbon into aggregates, and
46 MAOC plays a crucial role in long-term SOC storage (Wang et al., 2020; Witzgall et al., 2021).
47 FT processes may loosen the aggregates' protection of SOC by stimulating substrate release (Song
48 et al., 2017), destroying soil aggregates and stimulating microbial activities (Campbell et al., 2014;
49 Xiao et al., 2019), and the impact is highly dependent on SOC components. For example, FT
50 processes could significantly increase soil soluble carbon content and extractable SOC content but
51 decrease microbial biomass carbon (MBC) content of aggregates (Patel et al., 2021). The increase
52 in microporosity and microbial activity of aggregates induced by FT could decrease the dissolved
53 organic carbon (DOC) concentration (Kim et al., 2023). More frequent FT cycles enhance SOC
54 availability especially in active layers and thus lead to a high risk of greenhouse gas release (Estop-
55 Aragonés et al., 2020). However, these related studies were mostly based on simulated laboratory
56 FT experiments. The field FT process is elusive as it contains the complex interactions between
57 soil properties, plant growth and topographic features, which are responsible for differences in the
58 outcomes between laboratory and field conditions (Henry et al., 2007; Deng et al., 2024).
59 Therefore, quantifying the actual dynamics of SOC of aggregates under seasonal FT processes is
60 valuable.

61 Soil structure refers to the spatial arrangement of solids and voids and controls many
62 important biophysical processes in soils (Rabot et al., 2018). The pore networks of soil aggregates
63 are heterogeneous. FT processes not only affect the stability of soil aggregates but also change

64 their inner pore characteristics, especially those of the water-filled pores (Wang et al., 2012; Li
65 and Fan, 2014; Starkloff et al., 2017). For example, A decrease in pore connectivity, an increase
66 in elongated porosity and an increase in asymmetrical pores were observed after continuous FT
67 events (Ma et al., 2020; Rooney et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2023). Pore network determines the
68 accessibility of organic matter to microbes and indirectly influence microbial activities, thus
69 determining the magnitude to which the SOC is protected (Ruamps et al., 2013; Kravchenko and
70 Guber, 2018). Interactions between pore structure and SOC fractions of soil aggregates have
71 gained much attention. Pores of 30-75 μm and $> 13 \mu\text{m}$ in size were found to enhance the
72 mineralization of carbon (Lugato et al., 2009; Kravchenko et al., 2015). Pores of $> 90 \mu\text{m}$ and $<$
73 $15 \mu\text{m}$ in size were found to support SOC protection (Ananyeva et al., 2013; Quigley and
74 Kravchenko, 2022). 30–150 μm pores are also the preferential places for new carbon inputs and
75 greater abundance of such pores translates into a higher spatial footprint that microbes make on
76 SOC storage capacity (Kravchenko et al., 2019). These distinct correlations demonstrated that the
77 pore-SOC interactions are highly dependent on environmental conditions. In alpine ecosystems,
78 dynamics of SOC can be significantly correlated with the transformation and destruction of
79 aggregates induced by FT processes (Dagesse, 2013). However, the role of pore structure in
80 regulating SOC dynamics in FT processes has not been revealed.

81 The Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) has warmed twice the global average rate in recent years
82 with the average temperature being expected to increase by over 2 °C before 2070 (Lin et al., 2019).
83 Soils of the QTP are fragile and vulnerable to the global climate change. The depth and duration
84 of FT processes have decreased while the frequency of FT cycles has increased in the QTP (Peng
85 et al., 2017), posing dramatic alterations on the soil pore network (Gao et al., 2020; Yang et al.,
86 2021). Our previous studies have shown that alpine meadow soil aggregates of the QTP had dense
87 pore networks with many elongated pores in them due to frequent FT cycles (Zhao et al., 2020).
88 For typical ecosystems on the QTP, the aggregate protection of SOC was promoted by pores of
89 $<15 \mu\text{m}$ by limiting microbial access and the process was most closely associated with soil
90 moisture content (Wang and Hu, 2023). Aggregate stability has been proved to impact SOC
91 protection on the QTP and thawing-induced SOC loss of aggregates will translate into carbon
92 emissions from the meadow to the atmosphere and exacerbate global warming (Ozlu and Arriga,
93 2021). Changes in carbon storage depend on relationships between SOC input from litter and root

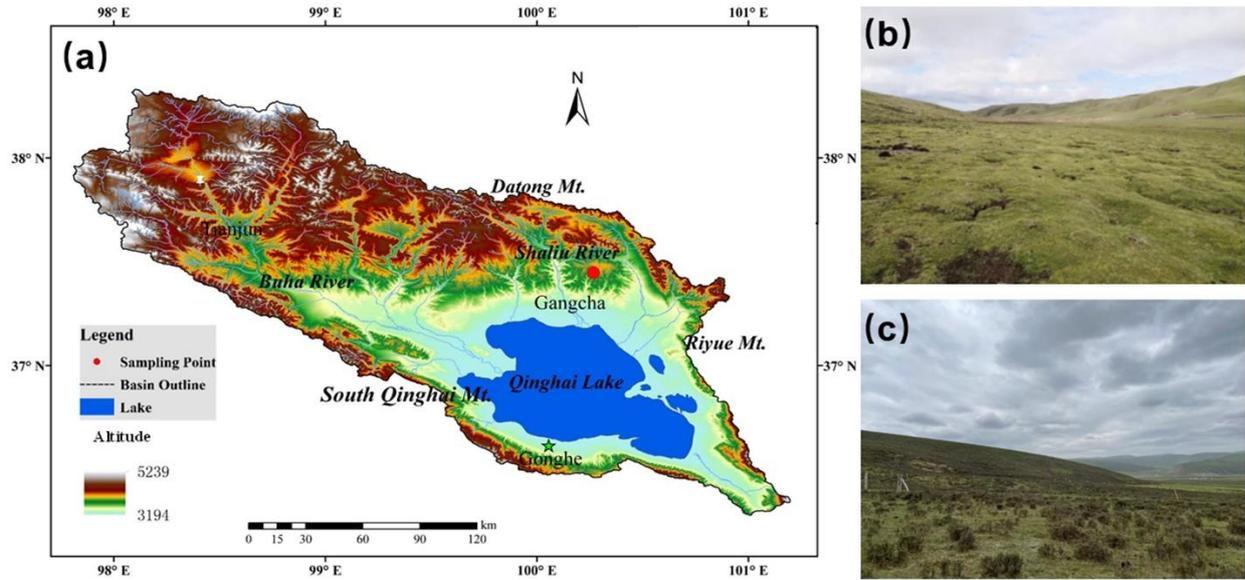
94 exudates and output by microbial metabolic activities, and pore structure defines the pathway of
95 substrate movement (Qiao et al., 2023). Overall, the pore structure of aggregates under FT
96 conditions has important implications for predicting carbon turnover projections under global
97 warming (He et al., 2021).

98 To fill these research gaps, the objectives of the study were: (1) to quantify changes in pore
99 structure and SOC fraction contents of aggregates in typical alpine ecosystems during the seasonal
100 FT process; (2) to investigate the relationships between them and (3) to clarify the role of pore
101 structure on aggregate functions related to SOC protection during seasonal FT processes.

102 2. Materials and methods

103 2.1 study sites and sampling

104 The study was carried out in the Qinghai Lake Watershed (36°15'N-38°20'N, 97°50'-101°20'E),
105 northeastern QTP. The area lies in the cold and high-altitude climate zone, with a mean annual
106 temperature and precipitation of 0.1 °C and 400 mm, respectively (Li et al., 2018). Two ecosystems
107 were selected in the study: *Kobresia pygmaea* meadow (KPM) and *Potentilla fruticosa* shrubland
108 (PFS). They are representative terrestrial ecosystems of the Qinghai Lake watershed and account
109 for over 60% of the watershed land area (Hu et al., 2016). One of the main features of these two
110 ecosystems is the mattic epipedon present on the soil surface. Mattic epipedon is the surface layer
111 consisting of a grass felt-like complex formed by the interweaving of live and dead roots of
112 different ages. The layer is soft and significantly enhances nutrient preservation (Hu et al., 2023).
113 The soil type was classified as Gelic Cambisols according to the FAO UNESCO system (IUSS
114 Working Group WRB, 2022). We tried to avoid the simple pseudo replication so that each
115 sampling site has a certain distance with others (> 1 km). Three sites within each ecosystem have
116 similar vegetation conditions. In every FT period, three sampling plots (1 m × 1 m) were set up at
117 each site.

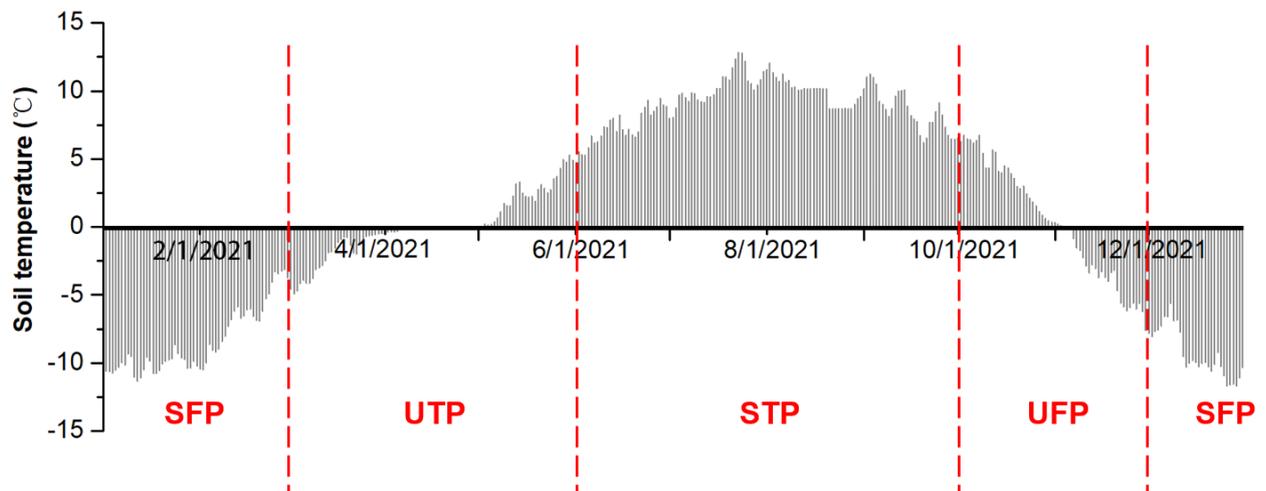


118

119 **Fig. 1. Location of the sampling site (a) and landscapes of the *Kobresia pygmaea* meadow**
 120 **ecosystem (b) and the *Potentilla fruticosa* shrub ecosystem (c).**

121

122 The division of seasonal FT periods is based on changes in daily soil temperature (Chen et
 123 al., 2021; Wu et al., 2023). The EM-50 soil temperature data for 2019, 2020, and 2021 were
 124 obtained at 0.5 Hz with 30 min averages at all three study sites using the ECH2O 5TE sensor
 125 (Decagon Devices, USA) (Li et al., 2018). The seasonal freeze–thaw process was divided into four
 126 periods in this study: the unstable freezing period (UFP, as soil temperature starts to drop to 0°C),
 127 the stable frozen period (SFP, with soil temperature completely below 0 °C), the unstable thawing
 128 period (UTP, as soil temperature starts to rise above 0 °C), and the stable thawed period (STP,
 129 with soil temperature completely above 0 °C). The freezing process included the SFP and UFP,
 130 while the thawing process included the STP and UTP. Soil samples were taken in October 2021
 131 (representing UFP), January 2022 (representing SFP), May 2022 (representing UFP) and July 2022
 132 (representing SFP).



133
 134 Fig. 2. Daily average soil temperature in 2021 and the classification of freeze–thaw stages (SFP-
 135 stable frozen period, UTP-unstable thawing period, STP-stable thawing period and UFP-unstable
 136 freezing period).

137
 138 **Soils from three typical profiles in the sampling plots (1 m×1 m) in each site were dug.** A
 139 total of 18 soil profiles were obtained in every FT period. We classified the soil layers as 0-10 cm,
 140 10-30 cm and 30-50 cm soil layers. Soil cores and bulk soil were collected at each soil layer for
 141 aggregate sieving and physiochemical characteristic measurements, respectively. Soil cores were
 142 obtained using an 80 mm diameter soil auger and then preserved in an icebox before being sieved
 143 in the laboratory. A total of 54 soil cores were collected in every FT period. **Nitrile powder-free**
 144 **gloves, a plastic garden trowel, and a small saw were utilized for bulk soil sampling.** The basic
 145 soil properties of each soil layer at the study site are listed in Table S1. Particle size distribution
 146 was determined using the sieve-pipette method (Mako et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2021). The soil
 147 water content as weight was determined using an oven-dried method (Klute, 1986). Soil pH
 148 measurements were conducted by an FE20 pH meter (Mettler Toledo, Columbus, USA) from
 149 slurries of samples at a soil:water ratio of 1:2.5 (w:w) (Zhao et al., 2020). SOC and TN were
 150 determined using a CN 802 elemental analyzer (VELP, Italy). Inorganic carbon was removed from
 151 the soil samples using 1 mol/L HCl prior to elemental analysis (Zhang et al., 2017).

152 2.2 Aggregate sieving

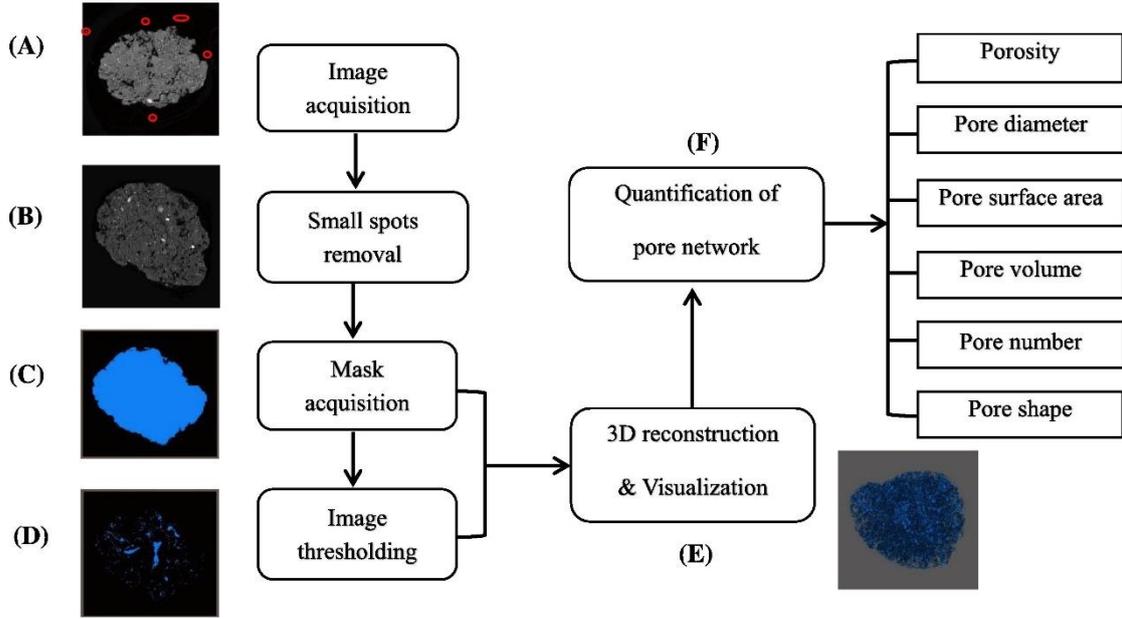
153 Separation of soil aggregates was performed using the dry sieving method with 0.053, 0.25-
 154 and 2-mm sieves **from bottom to top**. Soil cores were gently broken by hand into 1-cm clods, and
 155 then soils were laid out between sheets of brown paper (Schutter and Dick, 2002). Debris such as

156 gravel and roots were removed from the samples. Two hundred grams of soil was placed on the
157 top sieve and was shaken for five minutes by the sieve shaker (200r/min). Therefore, the aggregates
158 were divided into four categories: large macroaggregates (LMAs, with diameters >2 mm), small
159 macroaggregates (SMAs, with diameters of 0.25~2 mm), microaggregates (mAs, with diameters
160 of 0.053~0.25 mm), and fractions with diameters <0.053 mm. Aggregate fractions of > 2 mm and
161 0.25-2 mm were weighed and preserved for further analysis.

162 2.3 CT sanning and image processing

163 A nanoVoxel-4000 X-ray three-dimensional microscopic CT (Sanying Precision Instruments
164 Co., Ltd., China) was used to scan the soil aggregates with X-ray source parameters of voltage 80
165 kV and current 50 μ A, with which 2800 detailed and low-noise images could be obtained during
166 a 360° rotation. The reconstructed images featured a 3.6 μ m spatial resolution and 2800 \times 2800 \times
167 1500 voxels. Aggregate fractions of > 2 mm and 0.25-2 mm from all soil layers of the UFP, SFP,
168 UTP and STP periods were scanned (other fractions were too small to separate into a single
169 sample). A total of 144 aggregates were selected and scanned.

170 Reconstruction of the pore network of aggregates was completed using Avizo 9.0
171 (Visualization Sciences Group, Burlington, MA). The procedure for image analysis was similar to
172 that described by Wang and Hu (2023). Briefly, the clutters around the aggregates were eliminated
173 using a volume-editing module. Mask extraction was carried out in the segmentation module (Zhao
174 et al. 2020). The soil matrix was selected with the “Magic Wand” tool, and then the “Fill” tool was
175 used to fill the pores for obtaining the aggregate boundary and the mask of the whole aggregate
176 (Zhao and Hu, 2023a). All images were binarily segmented using the histogram thresholding
177 method based on the global thresholding algorithm (Jaques et al., 2021), and pore thresholds were
178 selected for all images.



179
180 Fig. 3. Procedures used for the visualization and quantification of soil aggregate pore networks.

181 Taken from Zhao et al. (2020) with permission from Elsevier.

182
183 The two-dimensional images were transformed into 3D images by Volume Rendering tool in
184 Avizo 9.0 software. The intra-aggregate porosity was calculated using the Volume Fraction tool.
185 After transforming 2D images into 3D images, pore characteristics including the equivalent
186 diameter, volume, number, length, and surface area were calculated using the Label Analysis tool.
187 The pore number density (ND) is defined as the ratio of the pore number (n) to the total volume
188 of the aggregate samples (V):

$$189 \quad ND = \frac{n}{V} \quad (1)$$

190 One pore network may consist of several branches of connected pores or just one individual
191 pore. The pore length is the total actual length in all branches. The pore length density (LD) is
192 defined as the ratio of the pore length (L) to the total volume of pores (V) (Yang et al., 2021):

$$193 \quad LD = \frac{L}{V} \quad (2)$$

194 The surface area density (SD) is defined as the ratio of the pore surface area (S) to the total
195 volume of V:

$$196 \quad SD = \frac{S}{V} \quad (3)$$

197 To characterize the pore shape, the pore shape factor (SF) was calculated as follows:

198
$$SF = \frac{A_0}{A} \quad (4)$$

199 where A_0 represents the surface area of the equivalent sphere of the pores and A is the actual
200 surface area of the pores. SF values closer to 1 indicate a more regular pore shape (i.e., closer to a
201 spherical shape), and smaller values refer to more irregular or elongated pore shapes (Zhou et al.,
202 2012).

203 The equivalent diameter (EqD) was defined as the diameter of spherical particle with the
204 same volume and was calculated by pore volume:

205
$$EqD = \sqrt[3]{\frac{6 \times V}{\pi}} \quad (5)$$

206 Where V represents the volume of pores.

207 The pores were divided into four classes based on their equivalent diameter: <15, 15–30, 30–
208 80, and >80 μm . According to Lal and Shukla (2004) and Wang and Hu (2023), pores <30, 30–80,
209 and >80 μm are termed micropores, mesopores and macropores, respectively.

210 *2.4 SOC fraction separation*

211 In every FT period, soil aggregate samples were sufficiently ground to pass through a 0.15
212 mm sieve before their total organic carbon content (TOC) content was measured using the CN 802
213 elemental analyzer (VELP, Italy).

214 The determination of SOC fractions, including POC and MAOC, was performed as described
215 by Cambardella and Elliott (1992). Approximately 5 g of each dried aggregate of the LMA and
216 SMA fractions was moved to a 50 mL centrifuge tube and dispersed in 25 mL of a sodium
217 hexametaphosphate (0.5%, w/v) solution by shaking for 18 h in a reciprocating shaker at 120 RMP
218 to ensure that it was evenly blended (Chen et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2023). The dispersed samples
219 were rinsed onto a 53 μm sieve to separate MAOC (particle size <53 μm) and POC (particle
220 size >53 μm) using distilled water until the water stream was clear and free of fine soil particles.
221 After that, samples were transferred to evaporating dishes and dried at 65 °C for 48 h to isolate
222 soils which contained POC or MAOC fractions solely (Six et al., 1998). After weighing and
223 sieving, all the fractions' SOC contents were measured using the CN802 elemental analyser
224 (VELP, Italy). The POC and MAOC contents were obtained by multiplying the percentage of each
225 particle size fraction in the soil (Sun et al., 2023).

226 2.5 Statistical analysis

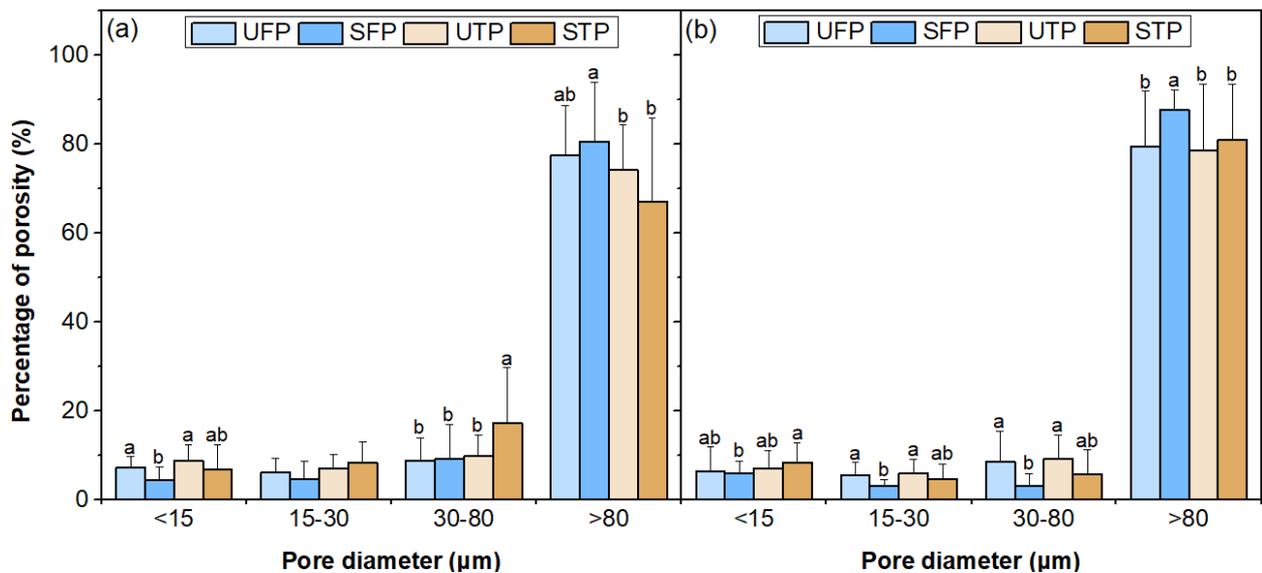
227 All statistical analyses except redundancy analysis (RDA) were conducted with IBM's SPSS
228 20 software (SPSS Inc., USA). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher's
229 protected least significance difference (LSD) test was conducted to compare differences between
230 the four seasonal **FT periods** and between different aggregate fractions. Pearson's correlations
231 were conducted to evaluate the linkages between pore characteristics and SOC fractions of
232 aggregates. **Statistical significance was defined at $P < 0.05$** . RDA was conducted to determine pore
233 parameters that had a significant impact on SOC fractions and was carried out in R software
234 (<http://www.r-project.org>) using the vegan package.

235 3 Results

236 3.1 Soil pore characteristics of aggregates

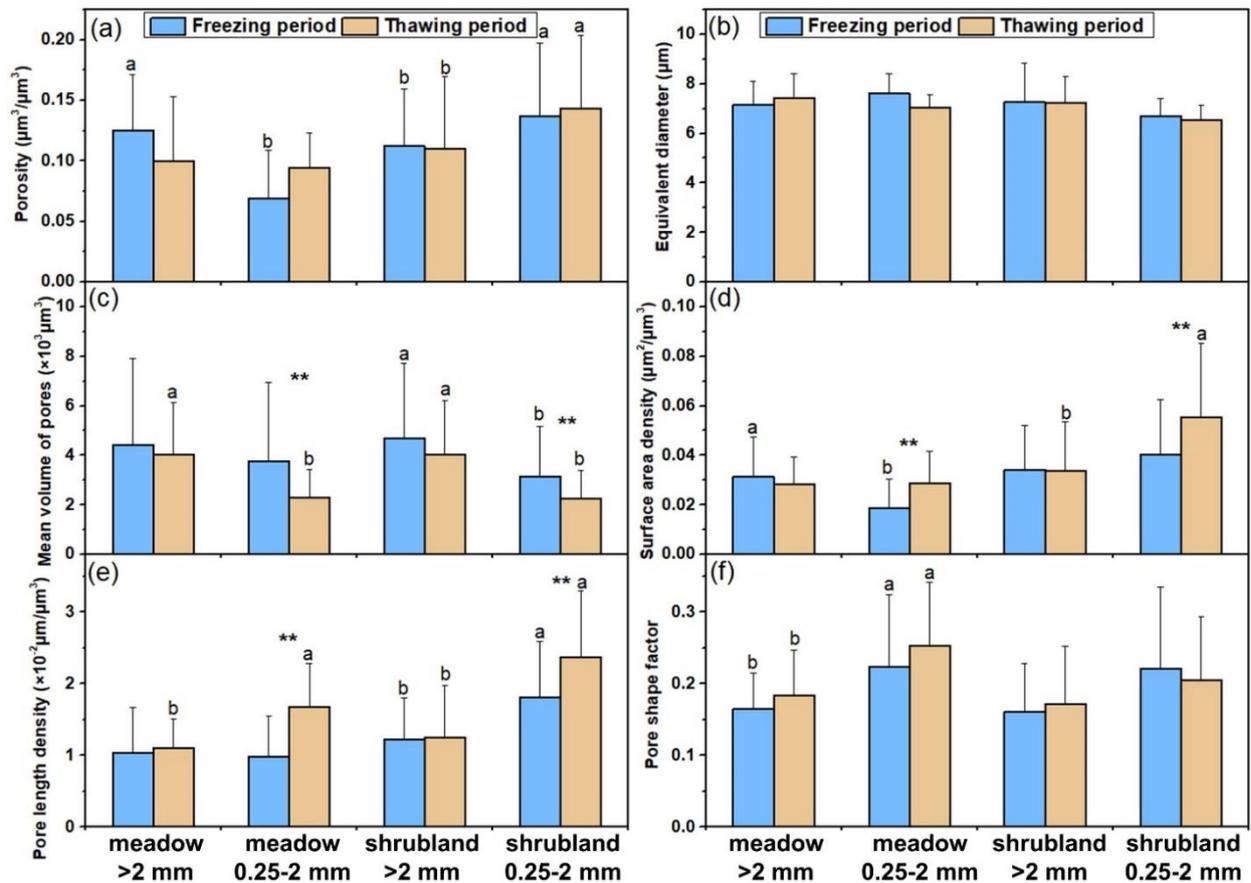
237 Fig. 4 depicts the pore size distribution of soil aggregates during the seasonal FT process. In
238 the two ecosystems, pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ dominated the pore space in all periods and accounted for
239 over 65% of the total porosity. The contribution of pores of $< 15 \mu\text{m}$ was low in the stable frozen
240 period with 4.39 % in the meadow ecosystem and 5.36 % in the shrubland ecosystem. The volume
241 percentage of pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ was high in the stable frozen period (80.62% in the meadow
242 ecosystem and 87.65% in the shrubland ecosystem) and was significantly higher than that in the
243 UTP (74.17% in the meadow ecosystem and 78.53% in the shrubland ecosystem) and the STP
244 (67.18% in the meadow ecosystem and 80.96% in the shrubland ecosystem). The results showed
245 that freezing process enhanced the formation of pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ **while thawing contributed to the**
246 **increase in porosity of pores of $< 15 \mu\text{m}$.**

247



248
 249 Fig. 4. Pore size distribution (by pore diameter) of soil aggregates in the (a) meadow ecosystem
 250 and (b) shrubland ecosystem during the seasonal FT process. Bars represent the mean \pm standard
 251 error (n=18). Different lowercase letters denote significant differences among pore volume
 252 percentages in different FT periods ($P < 0.05$).

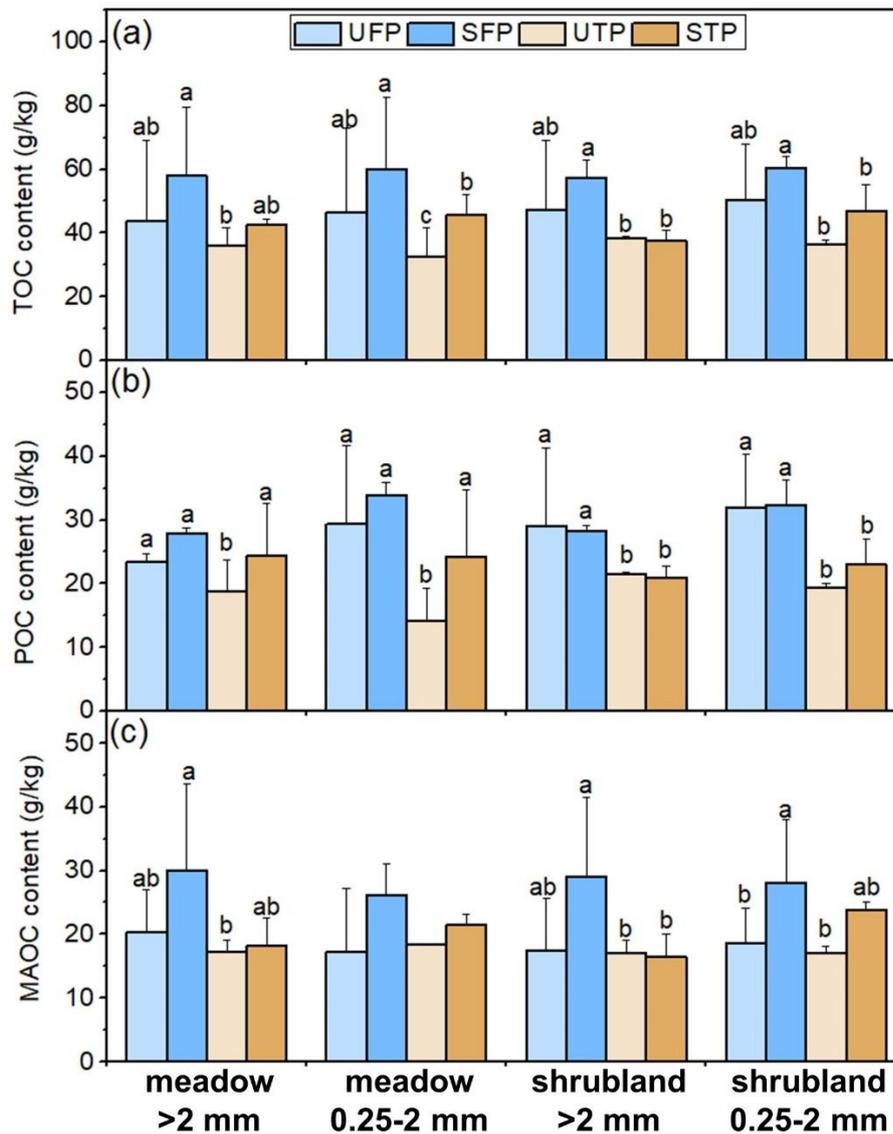
253
 254 The characteristics of the pores of aggregates during the seasonal FT process are shown in
 255 Fig. 5. The seasonal FT process did not significantly affect the EqD (Fig. 5b). The mean pore
 256 volumes of 0.25-2 mm aggregates in the freezing period ($3.76 \times 10^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ and $3.14 \times 10^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ in the
 257 meadow and shrubland ecosystems respectively) were significantly higher than those in the
 258 thawing period ($2.30 \times 10^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ and $2.24 \times 10^3 \mu\text{m}^3$ in the meadow and shrubland ecosystems
 259 respectively), while no significant difference was observed for > 2 mm aggregates (Fig. 5c). In the
 260 meadow ecosystem, the pore length density of the 0.25-2 mm aggregates was $1.68 \times 10^{-2} \mu\text{m} \mu\text{m}^{-3}$
 261 in thawing period, which was 1.71 times higher than that in the freezing period ($0.98 \times 10^{-2} \mu\text{m}$
 262 μm^{-3}). In the shrubland ecosystem, pore surface area density and length density of 0.25-2 mm
 263 aggregates were $0.0553 \mu\text{m}^2 \mu\text{m}^{-3}$ and $2.37 \times 10^{-4} \mu\text{m} \mu\text{m}^{-3}$, respectively, both significantly higher
 264 than those in the freezing period ($0.0404 \mu\text{m}^2 \mu\text{m}^{-3}$ and $1.81 \times 10^{-4} \mu\text{m} \mu\text{m}^{-3}$ for surface area density
 265 and length density, respectively). Overall, seasonal FT processes mainly led to changes in the pore
 266 characteristics of 0.25-2 mm aggregates rather than those of > 2 mm aggregates.



267
 268 Fig. 5. Pore characteristics of soil aggregates during the seasonal FT process. (a) porosity, (b) pore
 269 equivalent diameter, (c) mean volume of pores, (d) pore surface area density, (e) pore length
 270 density and (f) pore shape factor. Bars represent the mean \pm standard error (n=9). ** represents
 271 significant differences between pore characteristics in freezing period and thawing period (P<0.05).
 272 Different lowercase letters denote significant differences between pore characteristics of >2 mm
 273 aggregates and 0.25-2 mm aggregates (P<0.05).

274
 275 *3.2 SOC fraction contents of aggregates*

276 The SOC fraction contents (TOC, POC and MAOC) of aggregates during the seasonal FT
 277 process is shown in Fig. 6. Generally, in the two ecosystems, the TOC contents of aggregates
 278 peaked in the stable frozen period, ranging from 57.33 g/kg to 60.28 g/kg (Fig. 6a). The following
 279 unstable thawing period demonstrated the dramatic decline in TOC contents of > 2 mm (dropped
 280 by 37.73% and 32.95% in the meadow and shrubland ecosystems, respectively) and 0.25-2 mm
 281 aggregates (dropped by 45.57% and 39.43% in the meadow and shrubland ecosystems,
 282 respectively).



283
 284 Fig. 6. Changes of SOC content (a-TOC, b-POC and c-MAOC) of soil aggregates during the
 285 seasonal freeze–thaw process. Bars represent the mean \pm standard error (n=9). Different lowercase
 286 letters denote significant differences among SOC contents in different FT periods ($P < 0.05$).

287 Note: UFP-unstable freezing period, SFP-stable frozen period, UTP-unstable thawing period, STP-stable thawed
 288 period.

289 Changes in contents of POC and MAOC were similar to those of TOC (Fig. 6b and 6c). In
 290 the meadow ecosystem, the POC contents were high in the stable frozen period (27.90 g/kg for >
 291 2 mm aggregates and 33.77 g/kg for 0.25-2 mm aggregates) and **the dramatic decline existed in**
 292 **the unstable thawing period (32.69% for > 2 mm aggregates and 58.01% for 0.25-2 mm aggregates)**
 293 **(Fig. 6b)**. The MAOC content of > 2 mm aggregates was 29.99 g/kg in the stable frozen period,
 294 which was 1.74 times higher than that in the unstable thawing period (17.28 g/kg) (Fig. 6c). In the

shrubland ecosystem, POC contents in freezing periods were significantly higher than those in thawing periods (Fig. 6b). The unstable thawing process led to significant loss in MAOC compared with the stable freezing period (41.54% for > 2 mm aggregates and 39.14% for 0.25-2 mm aggregates) (Fig. 6c). Therefore, freezing increased SOC concentration and the beginning of thawing led to a significant loss of SOC.

The changes in the coefficient of variation (CV) of SOC content during the seasonal FT process, which depicted the variation in the SOC of aggregates from different soil depths, were shown in Table 1. In the two ecosystems, the CV values in the stable frozen period (0.20 for the meadow ecosystem and 0.22 for the shrubland ecosystem) were significantly lower than those in other periods. These results revealed that the freezing process featured a more uniform distribution of SOC across different soil layers.

Table 1 Coefficient of variation (CV) of SOC content of aggregates in all soil layers during the seasonal FT process

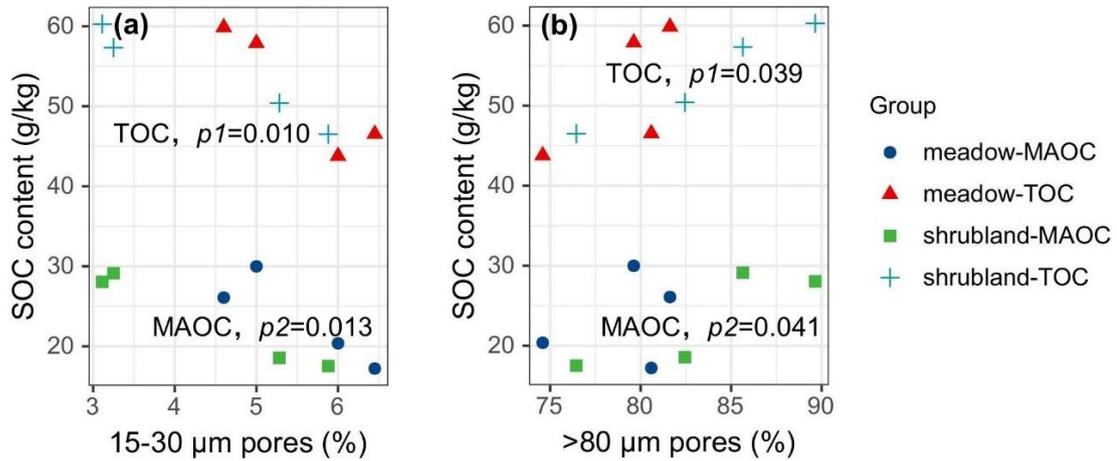
Ecosystem	Seasonal FT periods			
	UFP	SFP	UTP	STP
meadow	0.38 ± 0.12a	0.20 ± 0.07b	0.47 ± 0.19a	0.56 ± 0.21a
shrubland	0.46 ± 0.16a	0.22 ± 0.09b	0.34 ± 0.17a	0.34 ± 0.13a

Note: Bars represent the mean ± standard error (n=6). Different lowercase letters denote significant differences in CV of different FT periods.

3.3 Relationships between pore structure and SOC fractions of aggregates

In the freezing period, no correlations were observed between SOC fractions and pore parameters while pore size distribution had significant impact on SOC content. The TOC and MAOC contents were both positively correlated with pores of > 80 μm (P=0.039 and P=0.041, respectively) but negatively correlated with pores of 15-30 μm (P=0.010 and P=0.013, respectively). In the thawing period, the POC content was positively correlated with pores of <15 μm (P=0.049). The TOC and MAOC contents were both positively correlated with pore length density (P=0.045 and P=0.006, respectively).

320

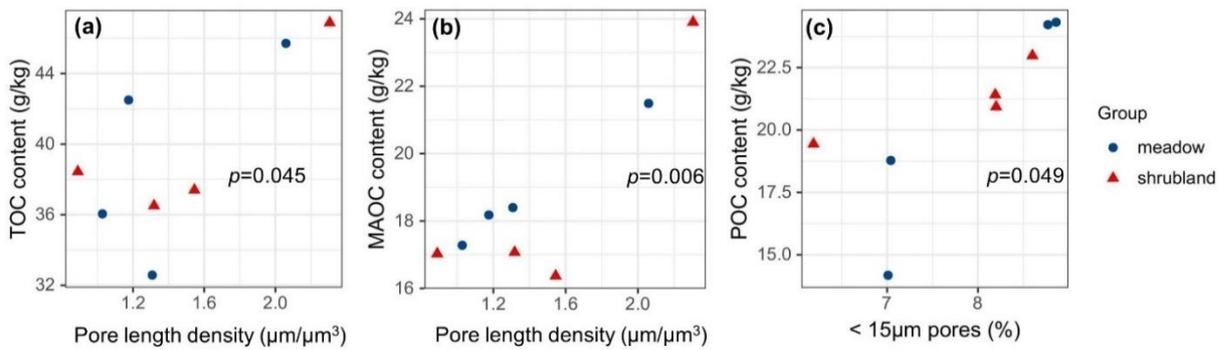


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322

323

Fig. 7. Scatter plots of relationships between (a) SOC content and 15-30 μm pores and (b) SOC content and $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ pores in the freezing process.



324

325 Fig. 8. Scatter plots of relationships between (a) TOC content and pore length density, (b) MAOC
326 content and pore length density and (c) POC content and $< 15 \mu\text{m}$ pores in the thawing process.

327

328 RDA was used to explain the relationship between the pore parameters and SOC fractions
329 during the seasonal FT process (Supplementary Fig. 1). In the freezing period, a total of 53.29%
330 of the SOC variation could be explained by pore characteristics. Pore EqD had a significant impact
331 on SOC content ($P=0.01$). In thawing period, 52.90% of the SOC variation, with 50.99% on Axis
332 1 and 1.91% on Axis 2, was explained by pore characteristics. Pore surface area and EqD played
333 important roles in SOC dynamics of aggregates ($P=0.01$ and $P=0.04$, respectively).

334

335 4 Discussion

336 Our results demonstrated that the volume percentage of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ pores of aggregates was high
337 in the stable frozen period. This finding is consistent with related results, which showed that

338 FT resulted in an increase in macroporosity (Wu and Hu, 2024). Ma et al. (2020) found volume
339 percentage of pores of $> 100 \mu\text{m}$ in aggregates increased from 62.39% to 96.53% after 20 times
340 FT cycles. During the freezing process, pore-scale heterogeneities cause pressure gradients and
341 the seepage of water from smaller to larger pores (Rempel and van Alst, 2013), and this process
342 enhances the expansion of force heave (Skvortsova et al., 2018). Freezing could also increase pore
343 size by forming new connections among adjacent pores (Ma et al., 2020). The increase in pore size
344 and porosity could loosen the aggregate stability and increase pore air content, thus increasing the
345 air pressure and enhancing expansion (Lugato et al., 2010; de Jesus Arrieta Baldovino et al., 2021).
346 We also found that the seasonal FT process mainly affects the pore characteristics of 0.25-2 mm
347 aggregates rather than those of $> 2 \text{ mm}$ aggregates, especially in the pore surface area density and
348 length density. Zhao and Hu (2023a) reported a similar significant change in pore surface area
349 density of 0.25-1 mm aggregates after FT cycles. Changes in surface area density and pore length
350 density or pores might be associated with pore shape. In the freezing period, the frost heave force
351 of water is anisotropic, which increases the pore length and decreases the surface area (Rooney et
352 al., 2022). In summary, freezing increased the pore volume and the impact of seasonal FT
353 processes on pore characteristics is dependent on aggregate size.

354 In our study, contents of SOC fractions were all high in the stable frozen period and low in
355 the unstable thawing period. Huang et al. (2021) found that the TOC content of aggregates was
356 high in January and February and showed a significant decrease in March due to FT processes.
357 Many studies have also reported the SOC loss at the beginning of the thawing period at regional
358 scales (Song et al., 2014; Song et al., 2020). This phenomenon can be explained by litter
359 accumulation and suppressed microbial activities in freezing periods (Han et al., 2018), as well as
360 the aerobic environment intensifying SOC mineralization during thawing (Liu et al., 2018; Liu et
361 al., 2021). So, the freezing process promoted SOC accumulation while the thawing process
362 induced a loss of SOC.

363 Among all pore characteristics, equivalent diameter explained most in the SOC variations
364 (Supplementary Fig. 1). In the freezing period, pores of $15\text{-}30 \mu\text{m}$ had negative impact on SOC
365 protection, this was consistent with our previous results (Wang and Hu, 2023). Pores of $15\text{-}30 \mu\text{m}$
366 are probably suitable habitat for soil microbes and support their activity, where greater SOC
367 decomposition takes place (Kravchenko & Guber, 2017; Liang et al., 2019). Pores of $>80 \mu\text{m}$

368 favoured SOC protection of aggregates. As the period was featured by SOC accumulation
369 (especially residue entry), Pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ serve as primary sites for residue entry and are
370 promoted by microbial materials and SOC, which enhance soil aggregation and thus drive much
371 SOC to be protected (Ananyeva et al., 2013; Dal Ferro et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2023). Freezing
372 promoted the formation of these pores which were conducive to organic matter entry into
373 aggregates. In the thawing period, pores of $<15 \mu\text{m}$ inhibited the POC loss. Previous studies proved
374 that these pores reduced SOC decomposition via limiting microbial access and shifting microbial
375 metabolism to less efficient anaerobic respiration (Strong et al., 2004; Keiluweit et al., 2017). On
376 the QTP, the positive impact of soil moisture on SOC protection has been revealed in both
377 aggregate scale and landscape scale (Ma et al., 2022; Wang and Hu, 2023). The thawing process
378 is accompanied by an increase in microbial activity and moisture availability, pores of $<15 \mu\text{m}$ are
379 able to hold water surrounding the soil particles (Kim et al., 2021). Therefore, POC associated
380 with these pores was less vulnerable to microbial processing and desorption due to equilibration
381 with the more frequently exchanged soil solution (Schluter et al., 2022). The protection promotes
382 the consequent transport of POC towards mineral sorption and thus contributes to the long-term
383 SOC storage (Vedere et al., 2020). Overall, the FT-induced pore structure posed a positive impact
384 on SOC protection in that: pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ promoted by freezing serve as primary sites for organic
385 matter entry, while pores of $<15 \mu\text{m}$ promoted by thawing inhibited POC decomposition through
386 holding moisture.

387 In this study, we explored changes in the pore structure and SOC fractions of alpine soil
388 aggregates during the seasonal FT process. However, we could not isolate the impact of FT
389 processes on soil structure and functions as impacts from vegetation and climate could not be
390 avoided under field conditions. Therefore, it is necessary to compare the results based on
391 laboratory FT simulations and field sampling in future studies to clarify the importance of FT
392 processes in shaping pore structure and affecting soil functions. Recent studies have clarified the
393 importance of minerals (e.g., Fe, Al, and their oxides) in microscale SOC protection (Kang et al.,
394 2024; Wang et al., 2024; Zhu et al., 2024). This mechanism can be closely associated with soil
395 moisture and enzyme activities (Li et al., 2023; Hu et al, 2024), while the role of pore structure
396 has not been clarified. Future research needs to further quantify the impact of soil structure on

397 organic carbon, which will enable us to apply the mechanisms we have discovered to landscape
398 scales to improve existing global carbon cycle predictions.

399 **5 Conclusion**

400 The findings of the study revealed that seasonal FT processes regulate pore structure, and
401 SOC concentration of aggregates. The seasonal FT process significantly affected the pore surface
402 area density and length density of 0.25-2 mm aggregates. The freezing period promoted the
403 formation of pores $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ while thawing led to shrinkage of pore space. Freezing enhanced the
404 accumulation of SOC of aggregates and the more uniform distribution of SOC among different
405 soil layers. Thawing witnessed the loss of SOC. The seasonal FT process altered the SOC
406 protection of aggregates via regulating pore size distribution. Pores of $> 80 \mu\text{m}$ promoted by
407 freezing serve as primary sites for organic matter entry, while pores of $< 15 \mu\text{m}$ promoted by
408 thawing inhibited POC decomposition through holding moisture. Overall, our study explains the
409 changes in SOC during the freeze-thaw process by innovatively establishing a pathway of FT-pore
410 structure-SOC. In future studies, by incorporating a more variety of factors, we hope the
411 contribution of soil structure to SOC conservation can be upscaled to achieve a more precise global
412 carbon cycle estimation.

413

414 **Abbreviations**

415 FT: freeze-thaw, UFP: unstable freezing period, SFP: stable frozen period, UTP: unstable
416 thawing period, STP: stable thawed period, EqD: equivalent diameter of pores, SF: shape factor,
417 LMA: large macroaggregate, SMA: small macroaggregate, SOC: soil organic carbon, TOC: total
418 organic carbon, POC: particulate organic carbon, MAOC: mineral-associated organic carbon.

419 **Declarations**

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424 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

425 Ruizhe-Wang: Conceptualization; data curation; formal analysis; methodology; writing-
426 original draft; writing-review & editing. Xia Hu: Funding acquisition; investigation; project
427 administration; supervision; writing-review & editing.

428 **Data availability statement**

429 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article [and
430 its supplementary information files.

431 **Conflict of interest statement**

432 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
433 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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837 **Figure Captions**

838 Fig. 1. Location of the sampling site (a) and landscapes of the *Kobresia pygmaea* meadow
839 ecosystem (b) and the *Potentilla fruticosa* shrub ecosystem (c).

840 Fig. 2. Daily average soil temperature in 2021 and the classification of freeze–thaw stages (SFP-
841 stable frozen period, UTP-unstable thawing period, STP-stable thawing period and UFP-unstable
842 freezing period).

843 Fig. 3. Procedures used for the visualization and quantification of soil aggregate pore networks.
844 Taken from Zhao et al. (2020) with permission from Elsevier.

845 Fig. 4. Pore size distribution (by pore diameter) of soil aggregates in the (a) meadow ecosystem
846 and (b) shrubland ecosystem during the seasonal FT process. Bars represent the mean \pm standard
847 error (n=18). Different lowercase letters denote significant differences among pore volume
848 percentages in different FT periods ($P<0.05$).

849 Fig. 5. Pore characteristics of soil aggregates during the seasonal FT process. (a) porosity, (b) pore
850 equivalent diameter, (c) mean volume of pores, (d) pore surface area density, (e) pore length
851 density and (f) pore shape factor. Bars represent the mean \pm standard error (n=9). ** represents
852 significant differences between pore characteristics in freezing period and thawing period ($P<0.05$).
853 Different lowercase letters denote significant differences between pore characteristics of >2 mm
854 aggregates and 0.25-2 mm aggregates ($P<0.05$).

855 Fig. 6. Changes of SOC content (a-TOC, b-POC and c-MAOC) of soil aggregates during the
856 seasonal freeze–thaw process. Bars represent the mean \pm standard error (n=9). Different lowercase
857 letters denote significant differences among SOC contents in different FT periods ($P<0.05$).

858 Fig. 7. Scatter plots of relationships between (a) SOC content and 15-30 μm pores and (b) SOC
859 content and > 80 μm pores in the freezing process.

860 Fig. 8. Scatter plots of relationships between (a) TOC content and pore length density, (b) MAOC
861 content and pore length density and (c) POC content and < 15 μm pores in the thawing process.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary Table 1. Basic soil physio-chemical properties

Ecosystem	Soil depth (cm)	Bulk density (g/cm ³)	Soil water content (%)	pH	Organic C (g/kg)	Total N (g/kg)	Particle size composition (%)			
							clay	silt	sand	
KPM (meadow)	0-10	0.77±0.19b	35.76±15.01	6.50±0.35	85.26±29.38a	7.66±2.22a	9.05±2.65	33.60±6.10	57.35±8.73	
		1.00±0.17a	32.00±20.68	6.49±0.19	67.12±20.49ab	6.94±1.37ab	10.65±3.74	35.83±9.05	53.52±12.64	
	30-50	1.07±0.05a	24.18±13.04	7.17±0.32	25.35±6.78b	2.66±0.45b	11.84±2.57	34.88±4.98	53.28±7.32	
		0.83±0.23	42.57±4.57a	6.64±0.40	64.42±11.22a	7.00±1.12a	13.95±0.56	47.56±1.25	38.49±1.69	
	PFS (shrubland)	10-30	0.81±0.15	32.40±8.70ab	6.82±0.22	44.11±6.88ab	4.30±0.90ab	14.59±0.86	46.85±1.00	38.56±1.73
		30-50	0.96±0.15	22.82±0.50a	7.31±0.37	36.44±7.06b	3.38±0.53b	15.05±1.80	47.44±3.80	37.50±5.58

Note: KPM-*Kobresia pygmaea* meadow; PFS- *Potentilla fruticosa* shrub. The properties were measured with 865 samples taken in the unstable freezing period. All data is presented with standard error (n=3). Different lowercase letters denote significant difference between soil layers.

Supplementary Table 2. Mass proportions of soil aggregates in alpine ecosystems during the seasonal freeze–thaw process

Ecosystem	Aggregate fraction	Mass proportion of aggregates (%)			
		UFP	SFP	UTP	STP
KPM (meadow)	> 2 mm	34.55±6.80ab	41.14±11.36a	29.83±8.72b	38.86±12.90ab
	0.25-2 mm	46.29±5.60a	37.29±7.77b	48.73±6.86a	42.97±11.81ab
	0.053-0.25 mm	16.61±3.64	16.73±5.73	20.27±4.32	15.56±5.09
	<0.053 mm	2.55±0.80a	4.84±2.74a	1.16±0.81b	2.61±1.61ab
PFS (shrubland)	> 2 mm	32.17±5.49	34.52±13.59	26.57±6.66	30.03±8.52
	0.25-2 mm	47.30±5.80a	35.40±6.50b	51.72±8.65a	45.02±7.17a
	0.053-0.25 mm	18.07±3.28b	22.50±7.40a	18.72±4.28ab	21.00±7.10ab
	<0.053 mm	2.49±1.62ab	7.75±3.50a	2.92±2.16b	3.95±3.52ab

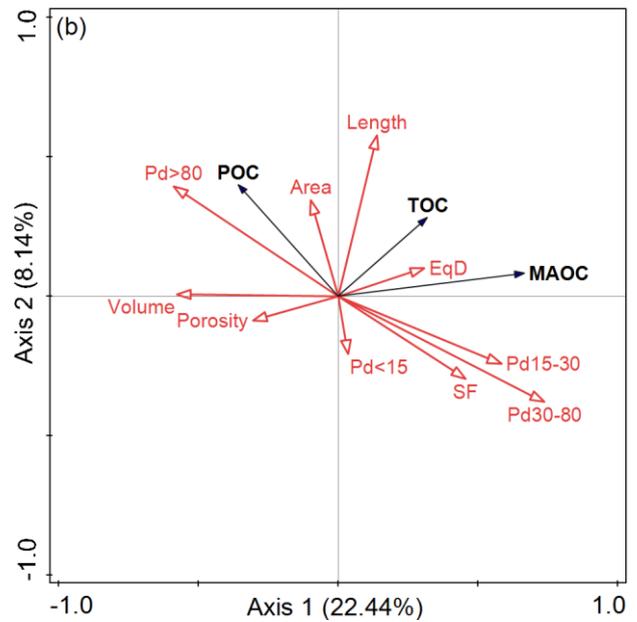
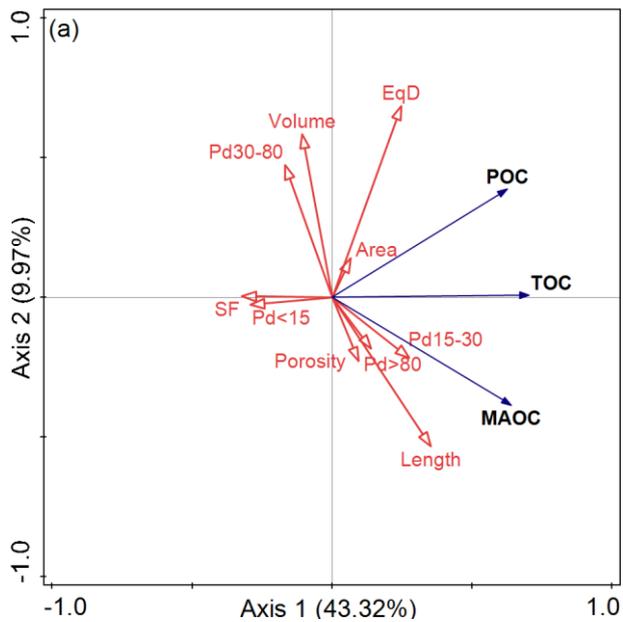
870 Note: Bars represent the mean ± standard error (n=9). Uppercase letters represent significant differences among FT periods (P<0.05).

Supplementary Table 3 Correlations between SOC content and soil structure of soil aggregates in freezing period and thawing period

Thawing period										
	Porosity	Equivalent diameter	Mean volume	Pore surface area density	Pore length density	Pore shape factor	Pd<15	Pd15-30	Pd30-80	Pd>80
TOC	0.428	-0.404	-0.124	0.553	0.718*	0.241	0.420	0.084	0.316	-0.235
POC	0.222	-0.252	0.188	0.339	0.397	0.032	0.639*	0.123	0.410	-0.273
MAOC	0.529	-0.443	-0.479	0.622*	0.865**	0.422	0.013	0.010	0.086	-0.106
Freezing period										
	Porosity	Equivalent diameter	Mean volume	Pore surface area density	Pore length density	Pore shape factor	Pd<15	Pd15-30	Pd30-80	Pd>80
TOC	0.582	-0.507	-0.036	0.326	0.396	0.199	0.811*	-0.834**	-0.503	0.733*
POC	0.521	-0.214	-0.274	0.178	0.428	0.538	0.458	-0.353	-0.146	0.295
MAOC	0.409	-0.498	0.117	0.296	0.234	0.071	0.727*	-0.818*	-0.532	0.727*

Note: * represents the correlation is significant (P<0.05). Pd<15: volume percentage of pores <15 μm, Pd15-30: volume percentage of pores 15-30

875 μm; Pd30-80: volume percentage of pores 30-80 μm; Pd>80: volume percentage of pores >80 μm.



Supplementary Figure 1. RDA analysis between SOC content and pore characteristics of aggregates in (a) the freezing period and (b) the thawing period.

880 Note: Volume-pore volume, EqD-equivalent diameter of pores, Pd30-80-pores with diameter of 30-80 μm , SF-pore shape factor, Pd<15: pores with diameter of <15 μm , Pd15-30- pores with diameter of 15-30 μm , Pd>80- pores with diameter of > 80 μm .