



# 1 Effects of permafrost thaw on seasonal soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux dynamics in a boreal 2 forest site

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10 **Abstract.** Permafrost regions in subarctic and arctic areas harbor substantial carbon reserves, which are  
11 becoming increasingly vulnerable to microbial decomposition as soils warm. As the seasonally thawed  
12 active layer deepens and anthropogenic disturbances escalate, accurately predicting carbon fluxes from  
13 thawed permafrost requires a comprehensive understanding of soil respiration dynamics. This study  
14 aimed to investigate the impact of disturbance on soil respiration rates and identify the key environmental  
15 and geochemical factors influencing these processes in a boreal forest ecosystem near Fairbanks, Alaska.  
16 The disturbed site demonstrated an increase in mean annual soil temperatures, recorded at  $0.60 \pm 0.16^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  
17 along with a 14.4% rise in mean annual microbial activity, which peaked at 20% during the summer, in  
18 contrast to the undisturbed site, which had a mean annual temperature of  $-0.37 \pm 0.08^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Furthermore,  
19 bacterial and fungal community composition differed significantly between the two sites, suggesting a  
20 potential mechanism underlying the variation in CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. Our research underscores the essential  
21 importance of considering the rise in carbon emissions from anthropogenically disturbed soils in  
22 permafrost areas, which are frequently neglected in assessments of the carbon cycle. This study  
23 contributes to a deeper understanding of the complex interactions governing soil respiration in thawing  
24 permafrost, ultimately informing more accurate predictions of carbon fluxes in these ecosystems.

## 25 1. Introduction

26 Soil respiration, the process by which carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is released from the soil surface to  
27 the atmosphere, is a critical component of the global carbon cycle. This process is influenced by the  
28 microbial breakdown of organic material as well as the respiration of plant roots. Understanding soil  
29 respiration dynamics is particularly crucial in boreal forests, as they encompass approximately 30% of the  
30 global forest and play a vital role in global carbon sequestration (Bonan, 2008; Pan *et al.*, 2011; Chi *et al.*,  
31 2021). Recent studies indicate that increasing temperatures could lead to boreal forests transitioning from  
32 functioning as carbon sinks to becoming carbon sources (Bond-Lamberty *et al.*, 2018; Marty *et al.*, 2019,



33 Harel *et al.*, 2023). In boreal forests, soil respiration is estimated to contribute up to 68% of the total  
34 ecosystem respiration (Parker *et al.*, 2020; Watts *et al.*, 2021) and is significantly impacted by changes in  
35 soil temperature, soil moisture, the microbial community, and the type of vegetation present (Grace, 2004;  
36 Fekete *et al.*, 2014; Rodtassana *et al.*, 2021). Soil respiration in permafrost regions is also influenced by  
37 the deepening of the active layer (seasonal surface soil thaw) that may occur due to permafrost  
38 degradation exacerbated by warmer soil and air temperatures (Turetsky *et al.*, 2020; Watts *et al.*, 2021).

39 Anthropogenic (e.g., trail development, firewood harvesting) and natural (e.g., wildfires,  
40 flooding, drought) disturbances can significantly impact the terrain by altering the ground vegetation, as  
41 well as soil temperature, structure, water content, organic matter content, and microbial communities,  
42 thereby influencing the rates and patterns of soil respiration. Previous studies conducted in boreal forest  
43 and spruce forest environments have shown that tree harvesting leads to a long-term increase in CO<sub>2</sub>  
44 effluxes due to a decrease in net radiation (Amiro 2001) and an increase in soil temperature (Gordon *et al.*, 1987; Lytle and Cronan 1998; Amiro 2001) and soil water content because of vegetation cover loss  
45 (Halim *et al.*, 2024). Tree harvesting also has a profound effect on the availability of substrates, both in  
46 terms of quantity and quality, which subsequently modifies the biomass and structure of the microbial  
47 community (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2008).

49 In a carbon dynamics study conducted in three boreal fen peatlands of Ontario, Canada, Webster  
50 *et al.* (2023) discovered that drought conditions can significantly elevate CO<sub>2</sub> efflux while simultaneously  
51 reducing the CH<sub>4</sub> efflux. Additionally, they found that shallow flooding can lead to a reduction in CO<sub>2</sub>  
52 emissions and an increase in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. A separate investigation revealed that the flooding  
53 significantly influenced the dynamics of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in riparian forests subject to varying degrees of  
54 flooding. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions tend to rise with increased flood frequency, averaging 1.6 times higher in flood-  
55 affected riparian forests compared to those protected from flooding, which exhibited unexpectedly strong  
56 CH<sub>4</sub> sink characteristics (Jacinthe, 2015). Similar to the effects of flooding and drought, wildfires in  
57 boreal forests significantly influence soil carbon efflux. Following the fire, the efflux of CO<sub>2</sub> from the soil  
58 experienced a decline (Amiro, 2001; Koster *et al.*, 2017 and 2018; Halim *et al.*, 2024); however, it  
59 subsequently rose over the course of several decades, ultimately peaking approximately 40 to 45 years  
60 later. (Halim *et al.*, 2024).

61 Research on changes to soil respiration in disturbed environments is crucial to enhance our  
62 understanding of the resilience and vulnerability of boreal forests to disturbances. As global temperatures  
63 rise, the frequency and intensity of disturbances in these regions are expected to increase, potentially  
64 leading to significant changes in soil carbon fluxes. Further, insights gained from such studies can inform



65 forest management practices aimed at mitigating the impacts of disturbances and preserving the carbon  
66 sequestration potential of boreal forests.

67 The aim of this study is to measure and compare the soil respiration rates in an undisturbed  
68 subarctic boreal forest with those in a subarctic boreal forest that has been affected by historical activities  
69 tied to mining such as trail development and firewood harvest. These disturbances took place in the early  
70 1900s, coinciding with the construction of a drainage ditch and an access trail to support mining  
71 operations. Currently, there is no active drainage at the research site, and the trail is seldom used. The  
72 study seeks to reveal the fundamental mechanisms of soil respiration in these ecosystems by examining  
73 various edaphic factors, including soil temperature, moisture content, soil organic matter (SOM), pH, and  
74 the composition of microbial communities. A Random Forest Model (RFM) was utilized in conjunction  
75 with regression analysis to analyze the time series data, which encompassed variables such as soil  
76 respiration, temperature, moisture, and air temperature. Furthermore, R statistical ANOVA analysis was  
77 performed to evaluate soil characteristics, particularly pH and SOM, as well as the composition of soil  
78 microbial communities. We hypothesize that there is a considerable escalation in carbon emissions from  
79 anthropologically disturbed soils as compared to undisturbed soils in permafrost areas and we propose  
80 that these emissions must be incorporated into models of carbon fluxes within these ecosystems.

## 81 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 82 **2.1 Site description**

83 The study was conducted at two adjacent sites underlain by permafrost in a subarctic boreal forest  
84 located at the U.S. Army Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory (CRREL) Permafrost  
85 Research Tunnel Facility in Fox, Alaska (64.9507 N -147.6200 W, 248 m a.s.l.). The region experiences a  
86 continental climate, which is defined by an average annual air temperature of  $-2.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ , with average  
87 temperatures in July reaching  $16^{\circ}\text{C}$  and January temperatures averaging  $-21.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; extreme temperatures  
88 throughout the year can range from  $-51^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $38^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Jorgenson et al. 2020). The two sites were situated  
89 approximately 10 m apart; the first consists of an undisturbed black spruce forest ecosystem; the second  
90 consists of an anthropogenically disturbed area where trails were established, and firewood was harvested  
91 as part of mining activities in the region in the 1920's.

92 The vegetation at the undisturbed site consists of small black spruce (*Picea mariana*) ranging  
93 from densely distributed to tightly spaced. Understory canopy is dominated by marsh and bog Labrador  
94 tea (*Rhododendron tomentosum*; *groenlandicum*). Forest floor cover is primarily mosses (feather mosses  
95 and *Sphagnum spp.*) and small shrubs including lowbush cranberry (*Vaccinium vitis-idaea*). The disturbed



96 site is characterized by scattered birch (*Betula neoalaskana*) and white spruce (*Picea glauca*) cover. The  
97 understory canopy is primarily dwarf shrubs including marsh Labrador tea and bog blueberry (*Vaccinium*  
98 *uliginosum*). The ground surface cover is dominated by grasses (*Poaceae*) and sedges (*Cyperaceae*). Soil  
99 material types were classified as mineral soil (<20% OM; Soil Survey Staff, 2022) with more organic-rich  
100 fractions (10-18% OM) comprising a surface layer (topsoil) and lower organic content (<5% OM) in the  
101 stratigraphically deeper subsoil. The topsoil textures ranged from loam to silt loam, reflecting a higher  
102 proportion of sand particles in the topsoil relative to the silt loam subsoil (SI Table 1).

## 103 2.2 Data Collection

104 Total soil respiration (autotrophic and heterotrophic), temperature, volumetric water content  
105 (VWC), air temperature, and barometric pressure were measured from 4 Nov 2022 to 9 Nov 2023 at eight  
106 plots; four plots were located at the undisturbed site and the remaining four at the adjacent disturbed site.  
107 In preparation for total soil efflux measurements, a soil collar made from thick-walled polyvinyl chloride  
108 (PVC) pipe was inserted at each of the eight plots. The collars had an inside diameter of 21.3 cm and a  
109 height of 11.4 cm and were inserted 2-3 cm into the soil through the soil vegetation cover. Soil  
110 temperature and VWC sensors were also installed in both the topsoil and subsoil layers at all plots.

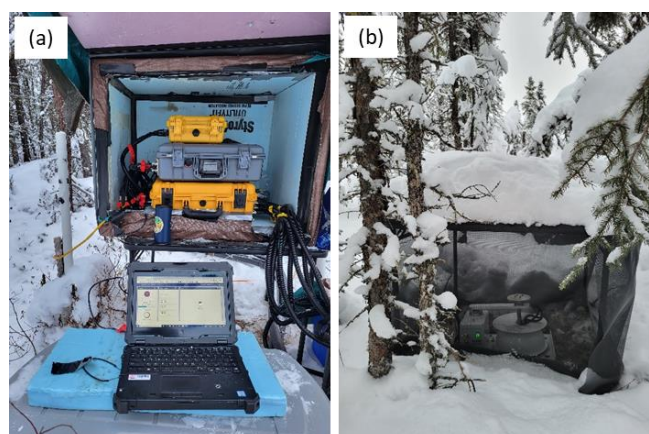
111 The varying temporal resolution soil parameter (30 min), weather (15 min), and soil efflux (30  
112 min) data were averaged to hourly, daily, and seasonal means for statistical analyses. The seasons were  
113 categorized as winter (November to March), spring (April to May), summer (June to August), and autumn  
114 (September to October), based on the observed patterns of efflux seasonality at the research location. This  
115 classification aligns with earlier studies on boreal forest efflux conducted by Wats et al. (2021) in Alaska  
116 and Canada.

## 117 2.3 Total soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux measurements

118 The total soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux respiration, which encompasses the overall release of CO<sub>2</sub> from the soil  
119 into the atmosphere (including both autotrophic and heterotrophic processes), was measured using a LI-  
120 COR Soil gas flux system (LI-COR inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) composed of 2 gas analyzers, LI-870  
121 CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O analyzer and LI-7810 CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O trace gas analyzer, a LI-8250 multiplexer, and eight 8200-  
122 104 Opaque Long-Term Chambers. The two gas analyzers and multiplexer were housed in a custom-made  
123 Styrofoam enclosure (Figure 1a) to protect them from precipitation and extreme winter temperatures. The  
124 eight chambers were deployed over the soil covers installed at the study plots and were connected to the  
125 multiplexer by a 15 m long tubing and cable assembly provided by the manufacturer. Minor adaptations  
126 to the soil gas flux system were necessary to ensure data collection in the winter months; first the cable



and tubing assembly was wrapped in 1.3 cm thick tubular pipe insulation foam to prevent/minimize clogging due to moisture freezing up inside the tubing, and second, Costco (Columbus, Indiana) folding tables with a surface of 91.4 cm × 91.4 cm were positioned over the 8200-104 long-term chambers to prevent snow accumulation on the chambers (Figure 1b). Therefore, all sample locations were equally affected by the lack of snowfall and possible grazing by animals. A detailed description of the soil gas flux system operation and winter modifications can be found in Vas *et al.* (2023).



133

**Figure 1. Custom modifications for LI-COR Soil gas flux system in cold climates. Specially designed enclosures to ensure optimal operating temperatures (a) (photo credits: Dragos A. Vas, 17 November 2023), insulated tubing for instruments to prevent clogging, and long-term covers for chambers (b) (photo credits: Dragos A. Vas, 17 November 2023) to inhibit snow accumulation or drifting on the chambers.**

139

## 2.4 Soil and meteorological condition measurements

Soil temperature, VWC, air temperature, and barometric pressure were measured using the following Onset HOBO (Onset, Bourne, Massachusetts, USA) instrumentation: U30 USB Weather Station, S-TMB-M002 12-Bit Temperature Smart Sensor, S-SMC-M005 EC5 Soil Moisture Smart Sensor, S-THC-M002 Temperature/Relative Humidity Smart Sensor, and S-BPB-CM50 Smart Barometric Pressure Sensor. Soil temperature and VWC were recorded in the topsoil and subsoil layers, approximately 30 cm from each long-term chamber, at a depth of  $18.5 \pm 1.19$  cm in the topsoil layer and  $34.5 \pm 1.47$  cm in the subsoil layer for the undisturbed site. At the disturbed site, the measurements were taken at  $13.5 \pm 2.53$  cm in the topsoil layer and  $35.5 \pm 1.85$  cm in the subsoil layer. These depths were measured from the top of the ground vegetation cover, which had a thickness of  $16.5 \pm 1.19$  cm at the undisturbed site and  $9.5 \pm 0.87$  cm at the disturbed site. VWC measurements were restricted to the



151 summer and autumn seasons due to the sensor's inability to measure below freezing temperatures. Air  
152 temperature and barometric pressure were measured at 2 m above the substrate surface.

153 The depth of thaw in the active layer was assessed at ~ 10 cm from each of the eight chamber  
154 plots during each site visit (n = 160) from 12 May to 3 Oct 2023. To determine this depth, a graduated  
155 metal rod with a diameter of 1 cm (known as a frost probe) was inserted into the ground, at the same  
156 location, until it met resistance, establishing the distance between the ground surface vegetation and the  
157 top of the frozen soils (Shiklomanov *et al.* 2013).

## 158 **2.5 Soil collection and property analysis**

159 Soil samples were collected from both the topsoil and subsoil layers across all plots in the autumn  
160 (September 2022), winter (February 2023), and summer (June 2023) seasons to analyze potential  
161 variations in microbial community composition among seasons, disturbance regimes, and soil layers. The  
162 samples were collected at identical depths during each season, which coincided with the depth at which  
163 the soil temperature and moisture probes were positioned; these depths varied for each plot. The winter  
164 samples were acquired using a gas-powered SIPRE (Snow, Ice, and Permafrost Research Establishment)  
165 corer (Jon's Machine Shop, Fairbanks, Alaska, USA). Nitrile gloves were utilized to minimize any  
166 potential contamination to the cores. Furthermore, the SIPRE corer and all associated tools were  
167 thoroughly sanitized with 70% isopropyl alcohol, DNA away, and RNase away (Thermo Fisher Scientific  
168 in Waltham, MA, USA). The cores were then subsampled into approximately 5 cm long cylinders using a  
169 sanitized hammer and chisel and were carefully placed into sterile Nasco™ Whirl-pak bags (Thermo  
170 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA); further information on this sampling method can be found in  
171 Barbato *et al.* (2022). Summer and autumn soil samples were gathered using a sanitized trowel with 70%  
172 isopropyl alcohol, DNA away, and RNase away. The samples, approximately 5 cm thick, were placed in  
173 sterile Nasco™ Whirl-pak bags and immediately placed in a cooler with frozen ice packs, then transferred  
174 to a freezer upon arrival at the Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory in Fairbanks, Alaska  
175 (CRREL-AK). All collected soil samples were kept at a temperature of -25 °C until shipped to CRREL in  
176 Hanover, New Hampshire (CRREL-NH), where they were stored at -20 °C until further processing.

177 Loss on ignition (LOI) was measured as a proxy for soil organic matter (SOM) content (Storer,  
178 1984) on all soil samples. Here, LOI is the proportion of mass loss from oven-dried soil (dried at 105 °C  
179 for 24 hours) following 2 hours at 360 °C in a muffle furnace. Soil total carbon and total nitrogen was  
180 measured via combustion using a TruSpec C and N Analyzer (LECO, St. Joseph, MI, USA) at the  
181 University of Wisconsin Soil and Forage Lab. Soil pH was measured from a 1:1 slurry of soil:CaCl<sub>2</sub>  
182 solution (0.01M) using a pH probe (Hanna Instruments, Woonsocket, RI, USA) and a SevenEasy S20 pH





meter (Mettler Toledo, Columbus, OH, USA). Soil pH was converted to H<sup>+</sup> concentration prior to taking an average or statistical analysis. LOI total carbon, total nitrogen and soil pH was statistically analyzed using ANOVA in R.

## 2.6 Soil microbial DNA extraction, gene sequencing, and data analysis

Soil was partially defrosted and homogenized in the sample bag prior to subsampling 250 mg into bead beating tubes. Total genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit (Catalog No. 47014, Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA), using a Precellys Evolution Touch homogenizer for the bead beating step (Catalog number P002511-PEVT0-A.0, Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). Automated DNA extraction was done with a QIAcube Connect (Catalog No. 9002864, Qiagen, Germantown, MD, USA) and each extraction run included a blank. Extracted DNA was held at -20 °C.

Library preparation and sequencing was completed at Argonne National Laboratory (Lemont, IL, USA), as follows. For bacterial analysis, the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was targeted for PCR amplification with region-specific primers (forward primer 515F and reverse primer 806R); and for fungal analysis, the ITS region was amplified using appropriate barcoded primers (Caporaso *et al.*, 2011; Caporaso *et al.*, 2012; Apprill *et al.*, 2015; Parada *et al.*, 2016; Smith *et al.*, 2014; Walters *et al.*, 2016). Each PCR reaction contained 1 µL template DNA, 12.5 µL AccuStart II PCR ToughMix (Quantabio, Beverly, MA, USA), 1 µL forward primer with Golay barcode (5 µM concentration), 1 µL reverse primer (5 µM concentration), and 9.5 µL DNA-free PCR water. PCR conditions were: 94 °C (3 minutes to denature the DNA); 35 cycles of 94 °C (45 s), 50 °C (60 s), and 72 °C (90 s); final extension at 72 °C (10 minutes). PCR product was quantified using Quant-iT PicoGreen (P7589, Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA). Equimolar amounts of amplicons were pooled, purified using AMPure XP Beads (A63881, Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA), quantified (Qubit, Invitrogen), and diluted to 6.75 pM using a 10% PhiX spike. Paired-end 2 x 251 sequencing was done on a MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

Sequencing data were processed in R (R-Core-Team, 2018), using a dada2 v1.18.0 pipeline (Callahan *et al.*, 2016), as in Baker *et al.* (2023), implemented using Snakemake v7.25.0 (Mölder *et al.*, 2021). Taxonomy assignment was based on the SILVA 138.1 reference database for 16S sequences (Quast *et al.*, 2013; Yilmaz *et al.*, 2013) and the UNITE database (release 25.07.2023) for ITS sequences (Köljal *et al.*, 2013; Nilsson *et al.*, 2019). Chloroplasts and mitochondria were excluded from the dataset. A total of 2836 fungal ASVs and 10,608 bacterial ASVs were identified (excluding extraction blanks). Amplicon sequences are in the National Center for Biotechnology Information Sequence Read Archive (NCBI SRA), accession PRJNA1178745. Though our bacterial primers targeted both bacterial and archaeal 16S rRNA, we will refer simply to bacteria, which comprise 99.8% of total reads. Of archeal reads, 80%



215 represented the phylum *Crenarchaeota*. One sample was excluded from analysis because it was  
216 mislabeled (2023\_Feb, Chamber 3, Organic).

217 R (R-Core-Team, 2018), and *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016) were used for data analysis and  
218 visualization; the bioinformatic approach followed West et al. (2022). Community composition was  
219 visualized using principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities (Bray and Curtis,  
220 1957) generated using *avgdist* from the R package *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2024) using rarefaction (999  
221 iterations) to a sampling depth of 16,300 for 16S and 6150 for ITS. A significant effect ( $p < 0.05$ ) of  
222 disturbance, sampling date, and interaction of these factors on community composition was tested within  
223 each soil layer (topsoil and subsoil), using permutational multivariate analysis of variance  
224 (PERMANOVA; *adonis2* from *vegan*) (Anderson, 2001). Richness was evaluated using weighted linear  
225 regression (*betta* function in *breakaway* R package) (Willis et al., 2017), and a significant effect of  
226 disturbance tested via ANOVA. Differential abundance (*differentialTest* in the *corncob* package) (Martin  
227 et al., 2021) was then used to identify significant enrichment or depletion of individual taxa due to  
228 disturbance, after excluding taxa with mean relative abundance  $< 0.00001$ .

## 229 **2.7 Random Forest modeling**

230 A regression-based Random Forest (RF) model developed in R was used to identify the relative  
231 importance of the input variables to predict hourly and daily CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. RF was chosen over  
232 other algorithms due to its wide and successful application in determining variable importance  
233 (Behnamian et al., 2017; Lei et al., 2024). In RF, the supervised non-linear algorithm can combine  
234 predictions from hundreds or thousands of individual decision trees via bootstrap aggregation to generate  
235 an ideal output (Schonlau and Zou, 2020). Compared with individual decision trees, this results in an  
236 increase in generalization accuracy and a reduction in overfitting. A repeated k-fold cross-validation  
237 technique was also employed. In this technique, data are randomly separated into  $k$  subsets with  $k-1$  used  
238 to train the model and the remainder to test the model, which is then repeated a specified amount. We  
239 selected a value of 10 for  $k$  and a value of 5 for repetition. Input variables were the same for each instance  
240 except barometric pressure being dropped for daily CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations due to poor importance values.  
241 Thaw depth was static in the dataset that the model used from 4 October through 16 May due to the  
242 presence of a frozen surface layer preventing thaw depth probing. Organic soil VWC and mineral soil  
243 VWC from 1 November – 31 March and 1 April – 31 May were omitted for machine learning due to the  
244 inability of the probes to function properly in subzero temperatures.

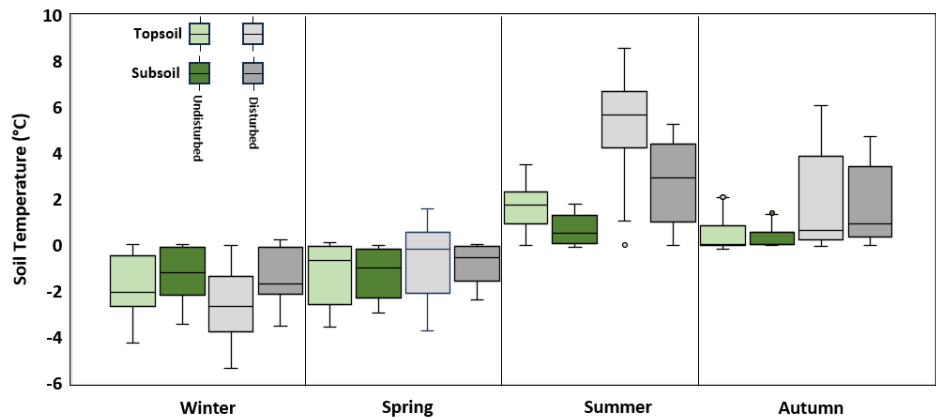
## 245 **3. Results**





246 **3.1 Soil conditions**

247 Soil temperature fluctuated by a factor of three at the disturbed site and by a factor of 1.9 at the  
248 undisturbed site over the course of the year. The undisturbed and disturbed sites exhibited contrasting  
249 thermal regimes. At the undisturbed site, the mean annual soil temperatures were below freezing,  
250 exhibiting  $-0.33 \pm 0.1$  °C for topsoil and  $-0.41 \pm 0.07$  °C for subsoil (Figure 1). In contrast, the disturbed  
251 site experienced positive mean annual soil temperatures, with  $0.72 \pm 0.2$  °C for topsoil and  $0.48 \pm 0.13$  °C  
252 for subsoil. Winter was the only season with warmer topsoil and subsoil temperatures at the undisturbed  
253 site. For both the undisturbed and disturbed sites, the subsoil layer was cooler than the topsoil layer in  
254 terms of mean annual temperature. Significantly warmer soil temperatures were observed at the disturbed  
255 site during the summer ( $4.04 \pm 0.19$  °C;  $p < 0.001$ , ANOVA) and autumn ( $1.88 \pm 0.23$  °C;  $p < 0.001$ ,  
256 ANOVA) in comparison to the temperatures recorded at the undisturbed site during the same seasons.  
257 Conversely, the mean summer temperature at the undisturbed site was  $1.15 \pm 0.08$  °C, while the mean  
258 autumn temperature was  $0.38 \pm 0.07$  °C (Figure 2). Soil temperatures in the shallower topsoil layer  
259 exhibited greater variability throughout the year compared to the temperatures in the deeper subsoil layer  
260 at both sites (Figure 2).

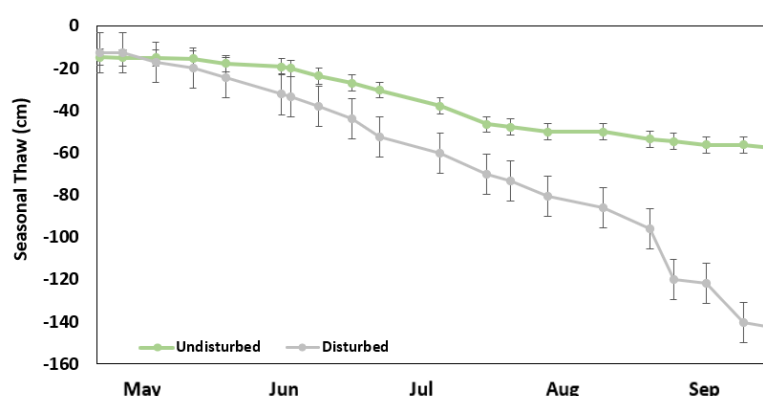


261  
262 **Figure 2. Seasonal soil temperature patterns.** The seasons were delineated as winter (Nov–Mar),  
263 spring (Apr and May), summer (Jun–Aug), and autumn (Sep and Oct). Soil temperature are  
264 average daily values from the topsoil and subsoil layers at the 8 chamber plots: 4 at the undisturbed  
265 site and 4 at the disturbed site. The range of the boxplot represents the first and third quartiles,  
266 while the central line signifies the median. The whiskers of the box extend to the minimum and  
267 maximum values, with outliers represented by circles.

268  
269 WVC values ranged from  $0.29 \pm 0.00$  m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> to of  $0.47 \pm 0.00$  m<sup>3</sup>/m<sup>3</sup> (1 Jun to 31 Oct 2024) (SI  
270 Figure S1). Subsoil layer exhibited elevated mean seasonal VWC values, as compared to the topsoil



layer, at both locations ( $p$  values from 0.04 to  $< 0.001$ , ANOVA). Average maximum seasonal thaw depth exhibited significant differences between the two locations ( $p$  values 0.02, ANOVA), ranging from  $58 \pm 3$  cm or  $143 \pm 29$  cm at the undisturbed site or disturbed site, respectively (Figure 3). While the maximum seasonal thaw depth remained relatively consistent across the undisturbed plots, ranging from 50 cm to 61 cm, the disturbed plot displayed a larger range in maximum thaw depth, varying from 82 cm to 204 cm.



276

277 **Figure 3. Average seasonal thaw depth at the undisturbed and disturbed sites measured using**  
278 **manual frost probe measurements from 12 May to 3 Oct 2023. Error bars are standard error.**

279

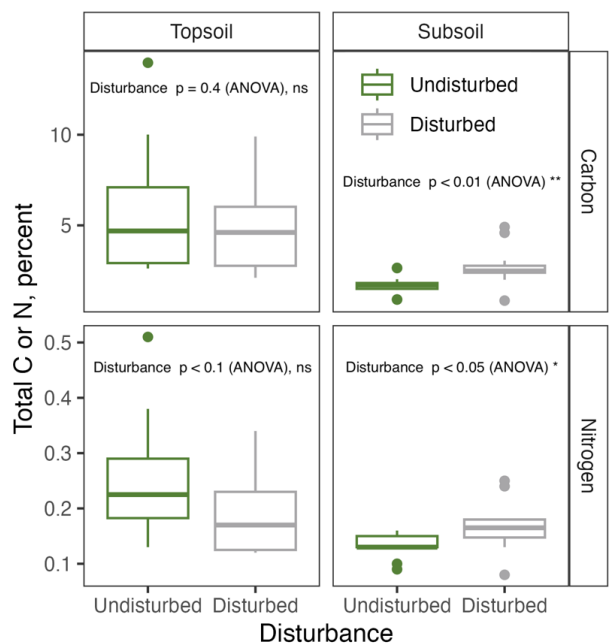
### 280 3.2 Soil properties

281 The disturbance treatment had a significant effect on LOI (a proxy for SOM content) in the  
282 subsoil layer, but not the topsoil layer (SI Figure S2). There was no significant effect of sampling date or  
283 significant interaction of sampling date and disturbance on LOI. Mean total C content for subsoil in the  
284 disturbed treatment was 2.7% (averaged across LiCor chamber plots and sampling dates), significantly  
285 greater than that of the undisturbed treatment mean of 1.7% ( $p < 0.01$ ; ANOVA). Mean LOI for the  
286 topsoil layer was 0.122 and 0.142 for disturbed and undisturbed, respectively (not significant).

287 Similarly, the disturbance treatment was a significant factor for soil total C content and total N  
288 content in the subsoil layer ( $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.05$ , respectively; ANOVA), but not the topsoil layer  
289 (Figure 4), and there was no significant effect of sampling date or significant interaction of sampling date  
290 and disturbance on either C or N. Mean total C content for subsoil in the disturbed treatment was 2.7%  
291 (averaged across LiCor chamber plots and sampling dates), significantly greater than that of the  
292 undisturbed treatment mean of 1.7% ( $p < 0.01$ ; ANOVA). Mean total C content for the topsoil layer was  
293 4.7% and 5.8% for disturbed and undisturbed, respectively (not significant). Mean total N content for



subsoil in the disturbed treatment was 0.16%, significantly greater than that of the undisturbed treatment mean of 0.13% ( $p < 0.01$ ; ANOVA). Mean total N content for the topsoil was 0.19% and 0.25% for disturbed and undisturbed, respectively (not significant).



**Figure 4. Soil total carbon and total nitrogen, by disturbance treatment. Boxplots represent all three sampling dates and four LiCor chamber plots, within each disturbance treatment.**

Similar to the response of LOI, total C, and total N, soil pH was significantly different in the subsoil layer, depending on disturbance treatment; the effect of disturbance on the topsoil layer was not significant (SI Figure S3). There was no significant effect of sampling date or significant interaction of sampling date and disturbance on soil pH. Mean pH for subsoil in the disturbed treatment was 4.63 (averaged across chambers and sampling dates), significantly greater than that of the undisturbed treatment mean of 4.11 ( $p < 0.01$ ; ANOVA). Mean pH for the topsoil layer was 3.78 and 3.79 for disturbed and undisturbed, respectively (not significant).

### 3.3 Soil microbial community composition and diversity

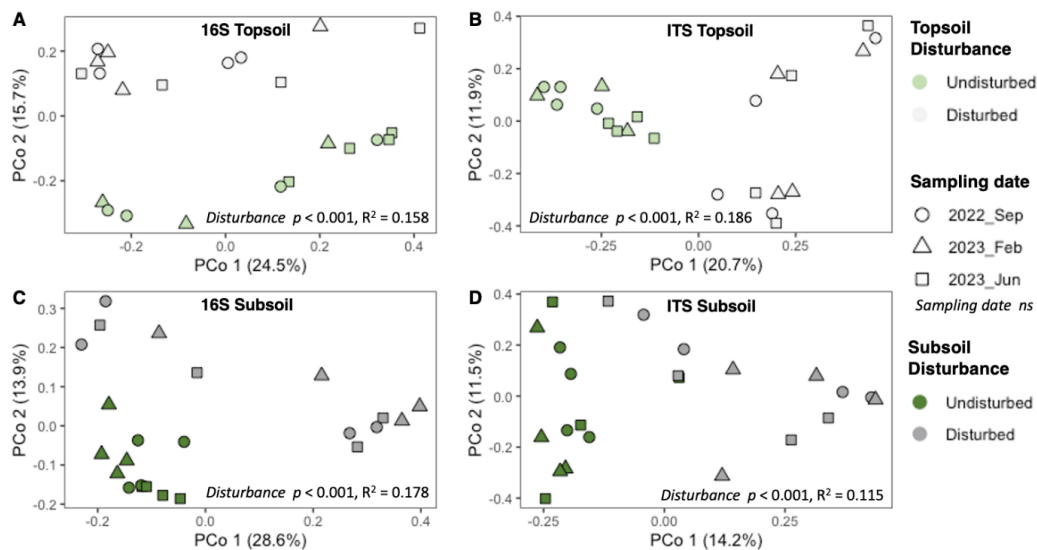
We analyzed the effect of disturbance on microbial community composition and diversity to better understand the microbial role in soil respiration. The dominant bacterial phyla included



311 *Proteobacteria*, *Acidobacteria*, *Actinobacteria*, *Verrucomicrobia*, and *Chloroflexi*, which together  
312 comprised over 75% of relative abundance (SI Figure S4). For fungi, 54% of relative abundance was  
313 comprised of *Ascomycota* (mostly classes *Leotiomycetes* and *Archaeorhizomycetes*), and 40% was  
314 *Basidiomycota* (mostly class *Agaricomycetes*) (SI Figure S5). Differential abundance testing only  
315 identified several dozen taxa (after filtering for somewhat higher abundance taxa) that were either  
316 significantly enriched or depleted under disturbance (see SI Figures S6 and S7). Notably, several  
317 *Chloroflexi* and *Dormibacterota* (a newly named phylum, previously identified as *Chloroflexi*) ASV's are  
318 depleted under disturbance relative to the undisturbed condition in subsoil, particularly at the February  
319 sampling date (SI Figure S6).

320 Mean estimated bacterial richness across the dataset was 711.5 ASVs, with a significant effect of  
321 disturbance (SI Figure S8). Overall, the disturbed samples had 30% higher richness compared to the  
322 undisturbed samples ( $p < 0.01$ , ANOVA); within each date and soil layer combination, only the February  
323 2023 subsoil samples demonstrated a significant effect of disturbance ( $p < 0.01$ , ANOVA). There was no  
324 effect of sampling date or soil layer, or interaction amongst the factors. Mean estimated fungal richness  
325 across the dataset was 165 ASVs; there was no effect of disturbance, sampling date, soil layer, or  
326 interaction amongst the factors (SI Figure S8).

327 Using Bray-Curtis dissimilarities to evaluate beta diversity (Figure 5), there was a significant  
328 effect of disturbance regime on both bacterial and fungal communities in both topsoil and subsoil layers  
329 ( $p < 0.001$  for all;  $R^2 = 0.158, 0.178, 0.186, 0.115$  for bacterial topsoil, bacterial subsoil, fungal topsoil,  
330 and fungal subsoil communities, respectively; PERMANOVA). Sampling date did not have a significant  
331 effect.



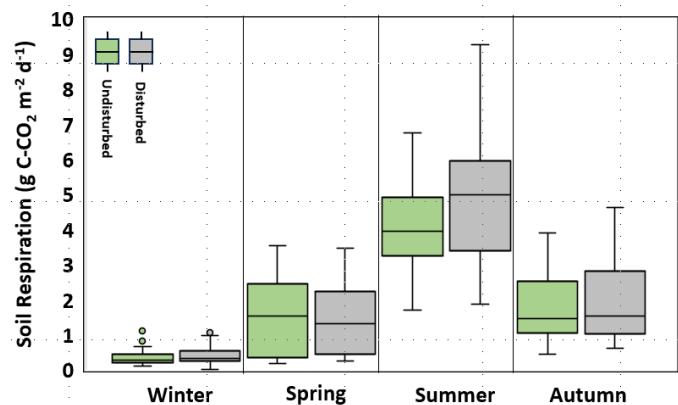
332

333 **Figure 5. Principal coordinates analysis of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities of relative abundance data**  
334 **following rarefaction. Panels (A) and (C) represent the bacterial community (16S marker), and**  
335 **panels (B) and (D) represent the fungal community composition (ITS marker). The top panels (A &**  
336 **B; lighter shades) represent the topsoil layer community composition, while the bottom panels (C &**  
337 **D; darker shades) represent the subsoil community composition.**

338

### 339 3.4 Soil Respiration

340 The total soil respiration showed strong seasonal and disturbance level patterns. The undisturbed  
341 site had an average annual soil efflux of  $1.81 \pm 0.09$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, while the disturbed site had an  
342 average annual soil efflux of  $2.07 \pm 0.11$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. On July 20, the undisturbed site recorded the  
343 highest average daily flux of  $9.27$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. The peak seasonal soil efflux occurred during the  
344 summer season (SI Figure S9), with seasonal mean daily fluxes reaching  $4.01 \pm 0.12$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at  
345 the undisturbed and  $4.81 \pm 0.17$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at the disturbed site ( $p < 0.0001$ , ANOVA; Figure 6).  
346 This was followed by autumn, where seasonal mean values were lower at  $1.79 \pm 0.13$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at  
347 the undisturbed and  $1.91 \pm 0.15$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at the disturbed (not statistically different). Spring  
348 showed a decrease with  $1.46 \pm 0.14$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at the undisturbed and  $1.41 \pm 0.13$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at  
349 the disturbed site (not statistically different), while the lowest efflux was recorded during winter with  $0.33$   
350  $\pm 0.01$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at the undisturbed and  $0.39 \pm 0.13$  g C-CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> at the disturbed site ( $p < 0.01$ ,  
351 ANOVA). CO<sub>2</sub> flux was significantly different between the undisturbed and disturbed sites in the winter  
352 ( $p = 0.01$  ANOVA) and summer ( $p < 0.01$ , ANOVA) and revealed no statistically significant efflux  
353 differences between the two sites in the shoulder seasons.



**Figure 6.** Seasonal soil respiration patterns observed at the undisturbed and disturbed sites. Soil respiration emissions are average daily fluxes from the 8 long-term chambers: 4 at undisturbed site and 4 at disturbed site. The range of the boxplot represents the first and third quartiles, while the central line signifies the median. The whiskers of the box extend to the minimum and maximum values, with outliers represented by circles.

### 3.5 Linear regression analysis to determine important variables contributing to soil efflux

A linear regression analysis was performed on the mean daily averages to investigate the seasonal correlation between soil efflux and various factors, including air temperature, barometric pressure, seasonal thaw depth, topsoil and subsoil temperature, and volumetric water content (VWC) at both undisturbed and disturbed sites. The presence of disturbance did not have a significant effect ( $p$  values 0.3 to 0.9, ANOVA) on the relationship between soil efflux and the aforementioned variables between the two sites. The analysis revealed that overall soil and air temperature exhibited the strongest correlation with soil respiration across all sites during different seasons. Soil and air temperatures showed the strongest correlations with soil efflux across all seasons. Seasonal  $R^2$  values for soil temperatures ranged from 0.21–0.65 (winter), 0.87–0.92 (spring), 0.52–0.79 (summer), and 0.85–0.93 (autumn). Air temperature also correlated strongly with soil efflux in spring ( $R^2 = 0.74$ –0.77) and autumn ( $R^2 = 0.83$ –0.87). Moderate correlations were observed between soil efflux and thaw depth at both sites, with  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.39–0.50 in spring, 0.41–0.43 in summer, and 0.74 in autumn.

The correlation between soil efflux and topsoil and subsoil VWC varied during the summer and fall seasons, as well as across the two soil layers. At the undisturbed site, in summer, moderate correlation was found in the topsoil ( $R^2 = 0.38$ ) and strong in the subsoil ( $R^2 = 0.69$ ). In autumn, correlations were strong in the topsoil ( $R^2 = 0.62$ ) but weaker in the subsoil ( $R^2 = 0.22$ ). At the disturbed site, in summer, the correlation was weak in the topsoil ( $R^2 = 0.09$ ) but strong in the subsoil ( $R^2 = 0.64$ ). In autumn, weak



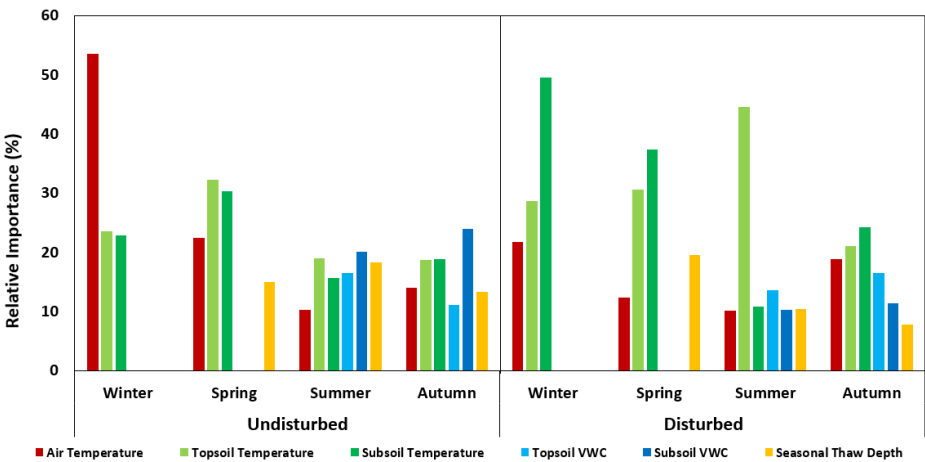


379 correlations were observed in both layers ( $R^2 = 0.28$  in topsoil and 0.10 in subsoil). Regression analysis  
380 showed weak to no correlation between soil efflux and barometric pressure during winter and autumn ( $R^2$   
381  $= 0.02$ – $0.12$ ) and no correlation in spring and summer. A slightly higher correlation was noted in winter  
382 when using hourly averages ( $R^2 = 0.23$  undisturbed, 0.18 disturbed).

### 383 **3.6 Random forest efflux modeling**

384 The RF model accurately described the effects of disturbance with the variation in soil respiration  
385 at both locations, showing strong confidence levels with high  $R^2$  and moderate to low mean absolute error  
386 (MAE) values. Specifically, the model's  $R^2$  values and corresponding MAE were 0.95 (0.14 MAE) for  
387 winter, 0.80 (0.38 MAE) for spring, 0.94 (0.16 MAE) for summer, and 0.82 (0.04 MAE) for autumn at the  
388 undisturbed site, and 0.95 (0.12 MAE) for winter, 0.83 (0.52 MAE) for spring, 0.96 (0.13 MAE) for  
389 summer, and 0.84 (0.05 MAE) for autumn at the disturbed site.

390 The predictors' relative importance (RI) varied across seasons and sites (Figure 7). In the winter  
391 model at the undisturbed site, air temperature emerged as the most influential predictor, accounting for  
392 53.6% RI. Conversely, at the disturbed site, the subsoil temperature exhibited the highest predictive power  
393 with 49.6% RI (figure 7). For the spring model, soil temperature was the best predictor at both sites, the  
394 topsoil layer temperature exhibited a slightly greater predictive power at the undisturbed site, whereas the  
395 subsoil layer temperature proved to be more influential at the disturbed site. In the undisturbed site's  
396 summer model, the soil moisture and temperature as well as the seasonal thaw depth variables exhibit  
397 similar RI values, ranging from 15.7 to 20.2%. Among these variables, air temperature has the lowest  
398 predictive power, with an RI of 10.3%. Conversely, at the disturbed site, the topsoil layer temperature  
399 stands out as the strongest predictor, with an RI of 44.6%. It is followed by the topsoil VWC, which has  
400 an RI of 13.7%. The undisturbed site's autumn model indicates that subsoil layer VWC has the highest  
401 predictive power at 24.3% RI, followed by subsoil layer temperature at 18.9% RI, and topsoil layer  
402 temperature at 18.7% RI. However, the disturbed autumn model shows that subsoil layer temperature is  
403 the most influential factor in predicting CO<sub>2</sub> efflux with 24.3% RI and topsoil layer (21.1% RI) and air  
404 (18.9% RI) also playing significant roles.



**Figure 7. Relative importance (%) of variables to predict CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. Missing or static input variables were not measured for importance.**

Throughout the different seasons, various factors contribute to the varying degrees of relative importance regarding soil respiration. These factors include air temperature, the temperature of both topsoil and subsoil layers, and volumetric water content, which pertains only to subsoil. This information is presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Tabulation of the most important predictor variables to explain variability in the soil efflux data between disturbed and undisturbed sites as a function of season.**

Season	Plot	Highest Predictor	RI
Winter	Undisturbed	Air temperature	53.6
Winter	Disturbed	Soil layer temperature (subsoil)	49.6
Spring	Undisturbed	Soil layer temperature (topsoil)	32.2
Spring	Disturbed	Soil layer temperature (subsoil)	37.4
Summer	Undisturbed	Volumetric water content (topsoil)	20.2
Summer	Disturbed	Soil layer temperature (topsoil)	44.6
Autumn	Undisturbed	Volumetric water content (subsoil)	24.0
Autumn	Disturbed	Soil layer temperature (subsoil)	24.3

#### 4. Discussion



Our findings show that the temperatures of the active layer soil are markedly elevated at the disturbed site in comparison to the undisturbed site. Previous research has indicated that this increase in temperature is primarily due to a decrease in insulating organic matter (Gordon *et al.*, 1987; Lytle and Cronan, 1998; Amiro, 2001; Halim *et al.*, 2024) and alterations in surface albedo resulting from disturbance (Amiro, 2001). The consequences of these modified thermal conditions are significant, as heightened soil temperatures may expedite permafrost degradation and affect biogeochemical cycles (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2008) contributing to a positive feedback cycle. It stands to reason that winter was the only season during which soil temperatures were elevated regardless of organic content at the undisturbed site (Figure 2), as the unaltered surface vegetation provided a layer of insulation against the low air temperature. Furthermore, disturbance notably influenced total C, total N (Figure 4), and soil pH within the subsoil layer.

The effects of disturbance on microbial communities were substantial, with significant alterations noted in both bacterial and fungal compositions. Notably, the date of sampling did not exert a significant impact on community structure, indicating that the disturbance itself serves as the principal factor driving these changes. This finding is consistent with earlier studies that suggest soil disturbances can disrupt microbial habitats, resulting in a reorganization of community dynamics (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2008). Such changes can lead to cascading effects on ecosystem functions, including nutrient cycling and the decomposition of organic matter. We found that the disturbance-driven changes, led to higher average soil temperatures and increased concentrations of mean SOM (LOI) (by a factor of 1.8) (SI Figure S2), mean total carbon (by a factor of 1.6) (Figure 4), and mean total nitrogen (by a factor of 1.2) (Figure 4) in the subsoil which positively influenced the mean annual soil respiration rates, resulting in a 14.4% increase when compared to the undisturbed site.

The variability in soil efflux data between disturbed and undisturbed sites as a function of season reveals distinct patterns influenced by key abiotic factors. In winter, air temperature emerged as the most significant predictor for the undisturbed sites, likely due to its direct impact on microbial activity and respiration rates. In contrast, the disturbed site during the same season showed a stronger correlation with the subsoil layer temperature, suggesting that disturbances may alter the thermal dynamics of the soil profile, making soil temperature a more crucial determinant. During spring, topsoil layer temperature was the primary predictor for the undisturbed site, highlighting the importance of organic matter decomposition driven by temperature changes. For the disturbed site, the subsoil layer temperature remained the dominant factor, indicating that disturbances may have disrupted the organic layer, shifting the focus to the subsoil layer's thermal conditions.



450 In the summer months, the volumetric water content in the subsoil layer emerged as the principal  
451 predictor for the undisturbed site, highlighting the essential role of moisture availability in influencing  
452 microbial activity and respiration during this warmer period. Conversely, the disturbed site exhibited a  
453 more pronounced correlation with the temperature of the topsoil layer, indicating that disturbances may  
454 have modified the soil's hydrological characteristics by increasing thaw depth and enhancing drainage,  
455 which resulted in a reduced volumetric water content and rendered temperature a more significant factor  
456 than moisture. As autumn approached, the volumetric water content in the subsoil layer reestablished  
457 itself as the key predictor for the undisturbed site, reaffirming the ongoing significance of moisture for  
458 microbial functions as temperatures began to decline. In contrast, for the disturbed site, the temperature of  
459 the subsoil layer continued to be the prevailing influence, underscoring the enduring effects of  
460 disturbances on the thermal dynamics of the soil.

461 Overall, the observed patterns indicate that soil disturbances fundamentally alter the relationships  
462 between abiotic factors and CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. By reshaping thermal profiles and hydrological properties,  
463 disturbances intensify microbial activity across seasons, thereby increasing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

## 464 Conclusion

465 As warming continues, thawing permafrost and degrading pristine areas in arctic and sub-arctic  
466 regimes, there will be a higher degree of ecological response that occurs, particularly related to soil  
467 respiration. Areas that, in theory, are undisturbed will begin to mirror anthropogenically disturbed areas in  
468 terms of greenhouse gas efflux. This study provided valuable insights into the effects of disturbance on  
469 critical soil properties and their influence on soil respiration. Our research indicates notable changes in  
470 soil temperature, volumetric water content, the composition of bacterial and fungal communities, total  
471 mean SOM, C and N levels and pH values in the subsoil layer, and the depth of the active layer as a result  
472 of disturbances, which subsequently led to higher soil respiration rates. Soil respiration was primarily  
473 regulated by temperature, (air and soil) while factors such as soil volumetric water content and the depth  
474 of the active layer also contributed, with their relative importance varying throughout the different  
475 seasons. These findings underscore the complex interplay between seasonal variations, soil disturbance,  
476 and abiotic factors in determining soil respiration rates. Understanding these relationships is essential for  
477 accurate modeling of carbon cycling and for developing effective strategies to mitigate the impacts of soil  
478 disturbances on ecosystem functions. Both natural and anthropogenic disturbances can lead to a marked  
479 rise in the emission of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. Neglecting to  
480 account for these disturbances may result in a considerable underestimation of the role of soils in global



481 carbon cycles. Future investigations should concentrate on the long-term consequences of these dynamics,  
482 especially considering ongoing warming change and its impact on permafrost regions.

483 *Data availability.* The datasets produced and/or examined in the present study can be obtained from the  
484 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

485 *Author Contributions.* DAV conceptualized the study and managed the data collection, RAB provided  
486 funding, DAV, AJB, and WBB collected the soil samples, DAV and DB performed the soil respiration  
487 analysis, JRW performed the soil property and microbial community analyses. DAV drafted the initial  
488 manuscript and all authors contributed to revisions.

489 *Competing Interests.* The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

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