



# Experimental evidence that organo-mineral interactions regulate dissolved organic matter composition and lability across permafrost landscapes of northwestern Canada

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**Abstract.** Increased land-water connectivity of northern landscapes driven by permafrost thaw is shifting the bioavailability of dissolved organic matter (DOM) in surface waters, with implications for northern food webs and regional and global carbon balances. However, sorption of DOM to previously frozen sediments has received little attention as a mechanism of regulating the bioavailability of organic matter in thaw-affected freshwater ecosystems.

Using batch sorption experiments, we assessed sorption potential, water-extractable dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration, and the impact of sorption on DOM composition of six different permafrost sediment types common throughout northwestern Canada, reflecting variation in geologic and permafrost histories. A principal component analysis revealed that sediment biogeochemical characteristics reflected geologic origin, and past thaw increased within-type variation. Sorption was positively correlated with organo-reactive forms of Al and Fe and negatively correlated with sediment pH. Proportion of bulk sediment organic carbon released as water extractable DOC ranged from 1.0 % to 62.0 %, with yedoma sediments from the Klondike region releasing substantially more than sediments from other regions. Preferential sorption of larger, humic-like compounds and displacement of mineral-bound small, aliphatic molecules enriched the DOM pool in labile compounds. Bio-incubations verified that exposure to sediments increased rates of biodegradation, corresponding with shifts in DOM composition and increased nutrient concentrations. Our experiments demonstrate that organo-mineral interactions have the potential to decrease DOC concentrations while increasing DOM bioavailability following exposure to permafrost-origin sediments, but that the strength of this response varies with sediment characteristics that are reflective of landscape history.

## 1 Introduction

As permafrost thaw increases across northern latitudes, biogeochemical constituents previously contained in permafrost become accessible for biological processing and lateral mobilization toward freshwater ecosystems and, ultimately, the coastal ocean (Vonk et al., 2019, 2025; Walvoord and Kurylyk, 2016). The lateral transport of permafrost carbon as dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is an important stimulant of change to the ecological and biogeochemical function of freshwater ecosystems. DOC is the microbially-accessible form of organic carbon in soils, freshwater, and the ocean, with organismal processing resulting in carbon mineralization into carbon dioxide and



35 methane (Hanson et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2000; Yavitt, 1997). Molecular characteristics of dissolved organic matter  
(DOM), such as weight and molecular structure, impact DOM susceptibility to biodegradation (Arvola and Tulnen,  
1998; Catalán et al., 2021; Kalbitz et al., 2003). Across northern freshwater ecosystems, the impact of permafrost thaw  
on DOC concentrations is regionally variable (Tank et al., 2020), with both substantial increases (e.g., Ewing et al.,  
2015; Mann et al., 2015) and decreases in DOC concentrations reported (e.g., Littlefair et al., 2017; Shakil et al.,  
40 2020). While permafrost thaw is generally associated with increases in DOM lability (e.g., Abbott et al., 2014;  
Littlefair and Tank, 2018; Mann et al., 2015; Vonk et al., 2013), permafrost-origin DOM shows wide compositional  
variation (MacDonald et al., 2021), and reduced lability has been observed in DOM originating from organic deposits  
(Burd et al., 2020; Wickland et al., 2018). Understanding controls on permafrost-region organic matter concentration,  
composition, and lability both within and between regions is therefore critical for applications ranging from  
45 understanding local changes to ecological and food web function to upscaling the effects of thaw on the broader carbon  
cycle.

Within aquatic networks, the concentration of organic matter (OM) and its overall composition are in part regulated  
by interaction with minerals in soils, deposited sediments, and suspended particles in surface waters (e.g., Kaiser et  
al., 1996; Kalbitz et al., 2005; von Lützow et al., 2006). While these organo-mineral interactions are a well-established  
50 mechanism of OM stabilization in southern (i.e., non-permafrost) soils, these processes are only beginning to receive  
attention in the permafrost region. Organo-mineral interactions can provide physical (i.e., microbes cannot physically  
access OM) or physicochemical (i.e., increased activation energy required by microbes to access OM) protection of  
OM from biodegradation (von Lützow et al., 2006). Due to an increased number of potential bonding sites (Kaiser  
and Zech, 1997), large, aromatic molecules preferentially engage in organo-mineral interactions relative to small,  
55 aliphatic compounds (Hernes et al., 2007; Kothawala et al., 2014). The protection provided by organo-mineral  
interactions contributes to the persistence of OM in non-permafrost soils for centuries to millennia (Jastrow et al.,  
1996; Kleber et al., 2011; Rasmussen et al., 2005). Because permafrost thaw increases exposure of dissolved organics  
to mineral substrates via deepening flow pathways and lateral transport of sediments into river valleys, organo-mineral  
interactions may play an important role in regulating the ability of OM to occur in the dissolved state, and therefore  
60 its accessibility to microbes.

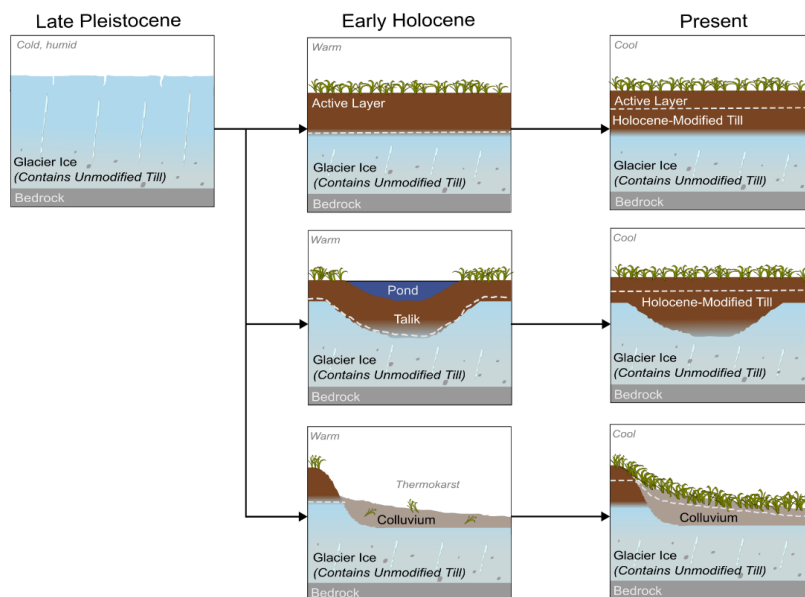
Given that the potential for organo-mineral interactions is largely influenced by sediment properties (Kothawala et al.,  
2009; Rasmussen et al., 2018; Saïdy et al., 2013), their influence on OM bioavailability likely varies across the  
permafrost domain. Variation in the genesis and evolution of landscapes has given rise to a diversity of contemporary  
permafrost landscapes with unique permafrost and substrate properties (Fig. 1) (Kokelj et al., 2026). Post-  
65 depositional transformations, such as mobilization or thaw and refreezing driven by geomorphic and paleoclimate  
factors, further drive diversity of permafrost landscapes by facilitating changes to sediment biogeochemistry and  
ground ice content at local to regional scales (Kokelj et al., 2026; Lacelle et al., 2004, 2019). Physical permafrost  
properties and terrain configuration influence the susceptibility to and mechanism of thaw that a landscape is likely to  
experience under climate change (Grosse et al., 2011; Jorgenson et al., 2015; Kokelj et al., 2023, 2026), with  
70 biogeochemical implications for the interactions between surface waters and previously thawed sediments and the  
resulting impact on nearby aquatic ecosystems (Tank et al., 2020; Zolkos et al., 2022). For example, widespread



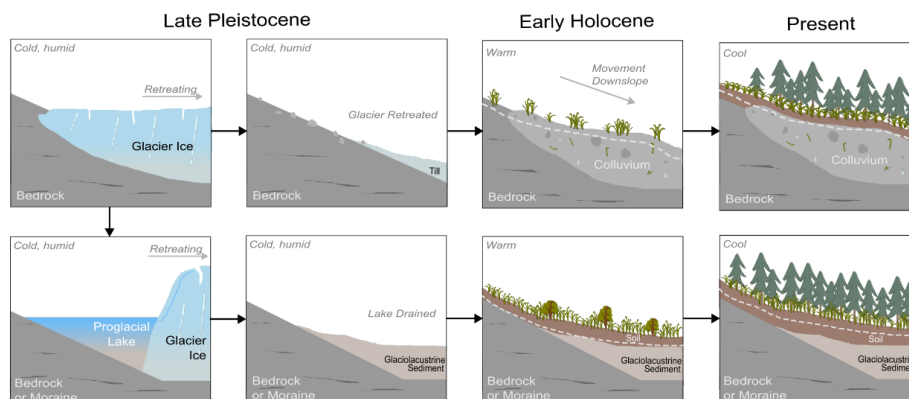
increases in active layer thickness could facilitate the interaction between organic surface waters and previously frozen mineral-rich sediments (Keller et al., 2010; Mu et al., 2017; Speetjens et al., 2022), while permafrost mass-wasting occurring in ice-rich hillslope terrain transports terrestrial material into nearby aquatic ecosystems, enabling interaction between aquatic DOM and recently thawed mineral sediment (Kokelj et al., 2005; Littlefair et al., 2017; Shakil et al., 2022). This landscape variability in the nature of substrate and mechanism of thaw is becoming increasingly recognized as an important factor in understanding the impacts of climate-driven permafrost thaw on freshwater biogeochemistry and the fate of permafrost carbon (Opfergelt, 2020; Tank et al., 2020; Vonk et al., 2019). To examine the potential for organo-mineral interactions between DOC and thawed permafrost sediments across varied landscapes, we sampled a broad range of sediment types from different permafrost landform assemblages with varying geological and permafrost histories across northwestern Canada. Sampling locations spanned several degrees of latitude and included subregions that experienced different landscape genesis and evolution processes (i.e., glaciated and unglaciated regions). We pursued three objectives: (a) to explore variation in sediment biogeochemical properties across different permafrost-affected sediment types found in northwestern Canada; (b) to experimentally determine the impact of organo-mineral interactions on DOC concentrations across these sediment types; and (c) to evaluate the impact of organo-mineral interactions on DOM composition and the bioavailability of the DOM pool. We hypothesized that mineral sediment that had experienced limited post-depositional transformation (i.e., syngenetic permafrost) would have the greatest potential for organo-mineral interactions due to its reduced exposure to past leaching and weathering processes. We expected exposure to thawed permafrost sediments to enrich the DOM pool in aliphatic compounds due to preferential sorption of aromatic compounds, and for this alteration to increase rates of DOC biodegradation. We use permafrost landsystems as a conceptual model (Kokelj et al., 2026) to better understand how the origin and evolution of permafrost landscapes controls on DOC concentrations and DOM composition in northern freshwater ecosystems and the variability of the potential for these interactions across the diverse Arctic region.



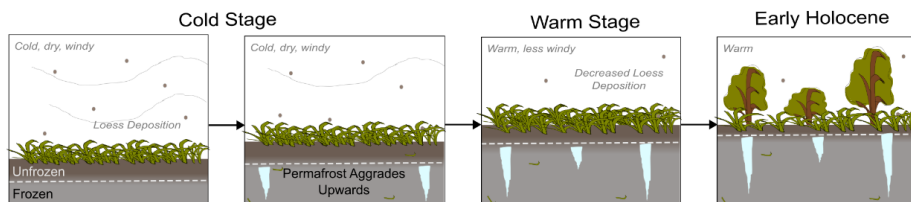
**a) Peel Plateau, NT**



**b) Central Mackenzie Valley, NT**



**c) Klondike, YT**



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**Figure 1.** Schematic of the emergence of distinct permafrost sediment types under different depositional environments, influenced by local topography and freeze-thaw histories, in northwestern Canada. The permafrost table is denoted by a dashed line. Elements are not shown to scale. Note that additional sediment types exist in each region beyond those shown.



100 **2 Methods**

**2.1 Study region**

Northwestern Canada contains diverse landscapes shaped by glaciation, with climate-driven ecological and permafrost processes resulting in varied sediment biogeochemistry (Lacelle et al., 2019; MacDonald et al., 2021; Malone et al., 2013; Zolkos and Tank, 2020). The region is widely underlain by ice-rich permafrost, including segregated ice, wedge ice in tundra regions, and relict ice associated with permafrost-preserved moraine (Dyke and Evans, 2005; Lacelle et al., 2004, 2010; Mackay, 1972; O'Neill et al., 2019). Driven by warming temperatures, increasing summer precipitation, and legacy effects of wildfire, permafrost thaw-driven active layer thickening and mass-wasting features, such as retrogressive thaw slumps, are widespread throughout the region (Kokelj et al., 2017a, 2023; Lipovsky et al., 2005; O'Neill et al., 2023; Young et al., 2022). A diversity of permafrost landform assemblages characterizes the region, reflecting diversity in geological and permafrost history, indicating substantial variation in physical and biogeochemical properties, mechanisms of thaw, and biophysical feedback, providing an opportunity to assess the potential for organo-mineral interactions across a wide variety of sediment characteristics. In this study, samples were collected from three geologically distinct subregions.

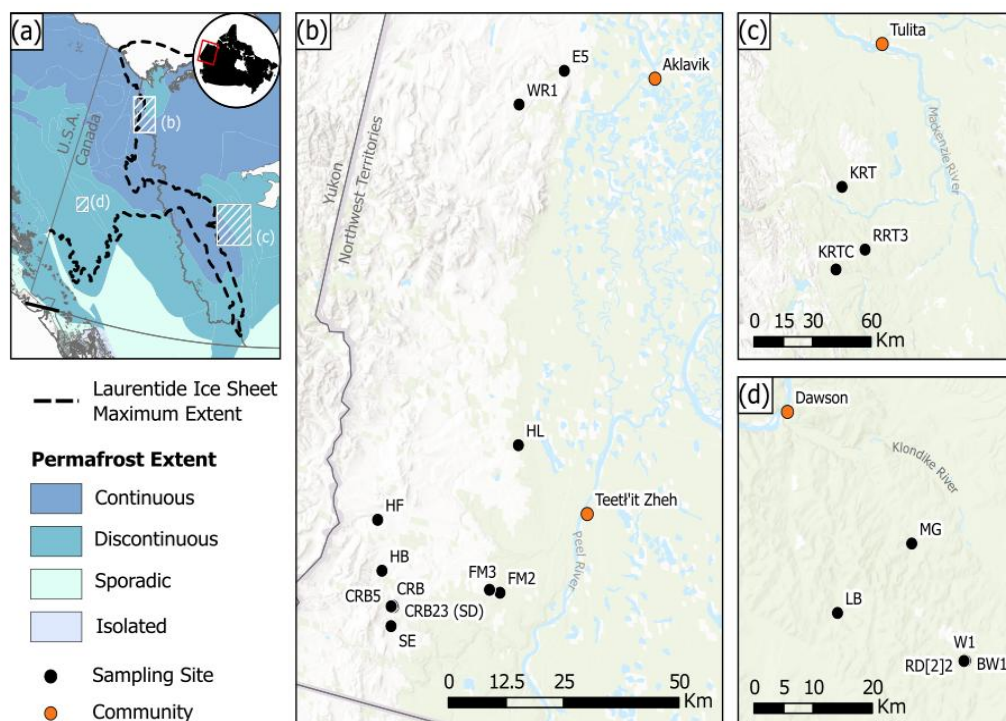
The Peel Plateau (Gwich'in Settlement Area; Fig. 2b) is a fluvially incised, hummocky moraine landscape that extends from the Mackenzie Delta to the foothills of the Richardson Mountains in the Northwest Territories, Canada (Kokelj et al., 2017b). The region is within the Continuous Permafrost Zone (Heginbottom et al., 1995). The Peel Plateau was glaciated by the Laurentide Ice Sheet, which reached its maximum extent near the western margin of the Richardson Mountains in the late Pleistocene (18,000–15,000 ybp; Duk-Rodkin and Lemmen, 2000; Lacelle et al., 2013). This resulted in widespread deposition of ice-rich moraine comprised of fine-grained till containing carbonates, sulfides, and silicates derived from predominantly sedimentary shales and mudstones (Norris, 1980; Zolkos et al., 2018; Zolkos and Tank, 2020). Climate warming in the early Holocene (*ca.* 8,000 ybp; Burn, 1997) caused thicker active layers, mass wasting, and talik development, thawing near-surface materials (Lacelle et al., 2004). Subsequent climate cooling and aggradation of permafrost have preserved this suite of modified materials, which are stratigraphically and biogeochemically distinct from the underlying debris-rich relict glacial ice and the overlying active layer (Malone et al., 2013). With present-day thaw, manifesting primarily as large retrogressive thaw slumps, sediments contained in relict glacial ice (hereafter referred to as *unmodified tills*) are exposed and eroded alongside more surficial *Holocene-modified tills* (i.e., contained in past taliks and paleo-active layers) and *colluvium* (i.e., modified tills with incorporated surface organics from past mass-wasting activity; Lacelle et al., 2019) (Fig. 1a). Thawed materials combine as *thawed debris* that is transported from the scar zone of these large mass-wasting features and deposited in debris tongues or valley-bottom streams (Kokelj et al., 2015, 2021). We collected samples from each of these permafrost “sediment types” that represent a continuum of permafrost materials ranging in depositional and thaw histories.

The central Mackenzie Valley (Sahtú Dene and Métis Settlement Area; Fig. 2c) is located east of the Mackenzie Mountains in the Northwest Territories, Canada in the Extensive Discontinuous Permafrost Zone and, at its high-altitude western limits, the Continuous Permafrost Zone (Brown et al., 1997; Heginbottom et al., 1995). Similar to the Peel Plateau, the region is characterized by fluvial incision, with exposed bedrock composed of North American margin sedimentary and metasediment origin rocks, including siliclastic and carbonate units (Okulitch and Irwin,



2017). This region was overrun by the Laurentide Ice Sheet in the late Pleistocene (Dulfer et al., 2023; Kennedy et al., 2010), with the resulting surficial geology consisting of till with post-glacial lacustrine, alluvial, and colluvial deposits (Duk-Rodkin, 2018; Duk-Rodkin and Hughes, 2002). Thaw-driven landslides in the region expose ice-rich  
140 *glaciolacustrine* and till deposits and Holocene-aged *colluvium* deposits with incorporated local bedrock and surface organic materials (Fig. 1b) (Young, 2025; Young et al., 2022). These permafrost sediment types, as well as *thawed debris*, were sampled from the central Mackenzie Valley.

The Klondike region (Tr'ondëk Hwëch'in Traditional Territory; Fig. 2d) in the central Yukon Territory contrasts the Peel Plateau and central Mackenzie Valley as it remained unglaciated during the Quaternary (Bostock, 1966; Froese et al., 2009). The Klondike region is located in the Discontinuous Permafrost Zone (Heginbottom et al., 1995).  
145 Pleistocene-aged permafrost in this region, referred to as yedoma, is primarily a result of loess deposition during Pleistocene cold stages, with aggradation of permafrost preserving accumulated sediments in a frozen state (Fig. 1c) (Froese et al., 2009; Schirrmeister et al., 2013, 2024). The organic carbon content and grain size of Klondike yedoma deposits vary with depth, reflecting hydroclimate-driven shifts in loess deposition and vegetation cover and  
150 productivity (Mahony, 2015; Sanborn et al., 2006). Bedrock in the Klondike region is predominantly composed of highly metamorphosed silicates (Mortensen, 1990). While biogeochemical properties (e.g., Ewing et al., 2015; Monhonval et al., 2021b; Strauss et al., 2012) and potential for organo-mineral interactions (Martens et al., 2023; Monhonval et al., 2021a) have been evaluated in yedoma from Eurasian and Alaskan permafrost environments, these properties have received little attention in Klondike yedoma (MacDonald et al., 2021). In the Klondike region, primary  
155 *yedoma* deposits (i.e., not mobilized since deposition) were sampled from exposures of sediment of different ages (site Mint Gulch (MG): ca. 13,200–16,140 yr BP (Cocker, 2025); site Little Blanche (LB): associated with the Late Pleistocene Dawson tephra ca. 29,400 cal yr BP (Demuro et al., 2008; Froese et al., 2002)) at multiple depths to capture climate-driven biogeochemical variation.



160 Figure 2. Sediment sampling locations in northwestern Canada. (a) Maximum extent of the Laurentide and Cordilleran ice  
 sheets (dashed line) and permafrost extent in northwestern Canada, with three subregions indicated by white boxes with  
 hash marks. Accompanying panels show sediment sampling locations (black) and nearby communities (red) within each  
 subregion (b – Peel Plateau, NT; c – central Mackenzie Valley, NT; and d – Klondike region, YT). All sediment sampling  
 165 locations fall within the glacial limit, except those in the Klondike region. Sampled sediment types and site codes are  
 summarized in Table S1. Sources: Basemap – Designed and developed by Esri | Powered by Esri; Permafrost Extent –  
 National Snow and Ice Data Centre (Brown et al., 2002); Glacial Limit – Dyke and Prest (1987); Provincial and Territorial  
 Boundaries – Statistics Canada (2016). Projection: NAD83; Lambert Conformal Conic.

## 2.2 Sample collection and initial processing

170 To understand variation in biogeochemical properties and potential for organo-mineral interactions, sediment samples  
 were collected from the above-described permafrost sediment types across the three study regions. A broad suite of  
 samples was collected for biogeochemical characterization ( $n = 76$ ), with a subset used for experimental determination  
 of sorption potential ( $n = 32$ ) and biodegradation ( $n = 3$ ) (Table S1). Permafrost samples from the Peel Plateau and  
 the central Mackenzie Valley were collected by drilling horizontal cores from headwalls of retrogressive thaw slumps.  
 Samples from yedoma deposits in the Klondike region were collected by horizontal core drilling from mining  
 175 exposures. Thawed debris samples were collected from rills draining active retrogressive thaw slumps on the Peel  
 Plateau and in the central Mackenzie Valley in the summer of 2023. Permafrost cores were kept frozen, and debris  
 samples were immediately frozen after collection; samples were transported frozen to the Permafrost ArChives  
 Science (PACS) Laboratory at the University of Alberta, Canada and stored at  $-25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  until processing.

180 Active layer samples were collected from each region to create stock solutions reflective of the dissolved organic  
 matter (DOM) pool that may be encountered by permafrost sediments upon thaw. Active layer samples from the Peel



Plateau were collected with a trowel from the exposed headwalls of four retrogressive thaw slumps (CRB, CRB5, HB, and HF; Fig. 2b and Table S1) with tussock- and shrub-tundra vegetation in July 2023. From the central Mackenzie Valley, an active layer sample was collected with a trowel within the undisturbed forested area adjacent to the retrogressive thaw slump KRT in June 2023. Active layer samples from the Klondike region were collected by vertical  
185 core in the summer of 2008 in the forested area in the Dominion Creek valley (sites W1, BW1, and RD[2]2 in Calmels et al., (2012) and Calmels and Froese (2009)). Active layer samples collected within each of the three regions were combined to create one representative sample for each region, as described below.

To remove materials that were thawed and potentially modified during the drilling process, the outer 0.5 cm of permafrost cores was removed using a rock saw with a diamond blade at -5 °C in the PACS laboratory cutting room.  
190 Cores were subsequently cut horizontally into 10 cm pucks. All samples were freeze-dried to remove water. Freeze-dried samples were gently disaggregated and homogenized with a mortar and pestle and passed through a 2 mm mesh sieve (#10) before further processing (see below). Samples were further ground and sieved as required for each analysis. Prepared samples were stored in a dark freezer (-20 °C) until analysis.

### 2.3 Analysis of sediment biogeochemical properties

195 Analytical methods and detection limits are summarized in Table S2.

*Grain size.* Sieved samples (< 2 mm) were saturated with hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) to remove organics and dried overnight at 60 °C. Samples were treated with a solution of sodium hexametaphosphate (Na<sub>6</sub>[(PO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub>]; 5 % w/w) and gently ground to prevent particle aggregation. Grain size, represented here as clay content (< 2 µm; %), was measured by laser diffraction analysis with a particle size analyzer (Mastersizer 3000; D422-ASTM, Malvern) in the PACS  
200 laboratory, with a lower detection limit of 10 nm. The mean of five measurements was recorded.

*pH and conductivity.* In a 50 mL centrifuge tube, 20 g of sediment (< 2 mm) was saturated with 40 mL (1:2 w/v) of 18.2 MΩ ultrapure (MilliQ) water and shaken at 60 rpm in the dark at room temperature for 2 h, following Pansu and Gautheyrou (2006). pH was measured with a calibrated benchtop pH probe (Mettler Toledo), and conductivity was measured with a calibrated YSI multiparameter probe (YSI Professional Plus). The mean of three measurements was  
205 recorded.

*Carbon and nitrogen concentration.* To assess percent sediment organic carbon (%SOC; mg OC per mg sediment) and nitrogen (%N), 15 mg of sediment (< 500 µm; #35 sieve) was weighed into silver (for SOC analysis) and tin (for N analysis) capsules. Capsules prepared for %SOC analysis were wetted with HCl (0.32 M trace metal grade HCl) and heated to 60 °C in an enclosed container with 12M HCl for 72 h to remove inorganic C (Harris et al., 2001; Ramnarine et al., 2011). Following fumigation, samples were neutralized with NaOH pellets in a desiccator for 24 h and dried at 60 °C for 16 h. Tungstic oxide (approximately 50 mg; WO<sub>3</sub>) was added to each capsule to aid in combustion, and silver capsules were further encapsulated with tin. Samples for %N were analyzed without acidification. Elemental mass of C and N was measured by flash combustion with the Vario ISOTOPE Cube (Elementar) at the Ján Veizer Stable Isotope Laboratory at the University of Ottawa, Canada.  
210

*Mineral element concentrations.* Total concentrations of mineral elements (Al<sub>t</sub>, Ca<sub>t</sub>, Fe<sub>t</sub>, and Mn<sub>t</sub>) were measured for all samples (*n* = 79) via nitric acid digestion. 25 mg of sediment (< 500 µm; #35 sieve) was treated with 10 mL of



trace metal grade HNO<sub>3</sub> and digested for approximately 1 h using a microwave digestion system (MARS6; CEM Corp.). The digested sample was centrifuged and diluted before analysis. Selective extractions were performed on the subset of sediment samples selected for the batch sorption experiments ( $n = 32$ ; see below) to target different phases of Al, Ca, Fe, and Mn. A dark ammonium oxalate extraction was performed to target poorly crystalline oxides and mineral elements complexed with organics (Blakemore et al., 1981; Monhonval et al., 2022). A sodium-pyrophosphate extraction was conducted to extract mineral elements complexed with organics and dispersible colloids (Bascomb, 1968; Parfitt and Childs, 1988). All extracted solutions were stored at 4 °C until analysis of Al, Fe, Mn, and Ca concentrations by Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES; Thermo Scientific ICAP6300) at the Biogeochemical Analytical Service Laboratory (BASL) at the University of Alberta. Element concentrations were normalized for the mass of sediment analyzed and expressed as mg of element per kg of sediment. Of the total pool, the reactive portion (i.e., highly reactive with organic compounds) of the Al, Fe, and Mn pools was assessed using the concentration extracted with ammonium oxalate (Al<sub>o</sub>, Fe<sub>o</sub>, and Mn<sub>o</sub>; Monhonval et al., 2022). Because Ca oxalate precipitates, Ca concentrations from the ammonium oxalate extraction were not used (Monhonval et al., 2022). The portion of the reactive mineral element pool engaged in existing organo-complexes is defined as the concentration extracted by sodium-pyrophosphate (Al<sub>p</sub>, Ca<sub>p</sub>, Fe<sub>p</sub>, and Mn<sub>p</sub>).

*Mineralogy.* Mineral phases present in sediment samples (< 40 µm; #320 sieve) selected for batch sorption experiments ( $n = 32$ ) were identified with X-ray diffraction (XRD) using an Ultima IV x-ray diffractometer (Rigaku, Tokyo, Japan) at the X-Ray Diffraction Laboratory in the Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences at the University of Alberta. Diffraction patterns were matched in the PDF 5+ database with the DIFFRAC.EVA v.6 software to produce presence-absence data, with a detection limit of 1–5 %.

## 2.4 Batch sorption experiments

Mineral sorption properties of the selected subset of samples ( $n = 32$ ) were determined through batch sorption experiments (e.g., Kaiser et al., 1996; Vance and David, 1989) that are designed to examine the proportion of DOC in solution that can be sorbed by specific sediment samples. Briefly, a consistent mass of sediment was added to individual replicates across a DOC dilution series created from active layer DOM extracts from the respective study regions, and carbon sorption potential was evaluated using the Initial Mass (IM) approach (Eq. 1; Nodvin et al., 1986) (Fig. S1). The IM approach relates the mass of carbon sorbed (RE) to the initial mass of carbon in each of the dilution series stocks ( $X_i$ ), with the y-intercept ( $b$ ) representing the amount of carbon released from sediment in a carbon-free initial solution (i.e., water-extractable DOC; when  $X_i = 0$ ) and the slope ( $m$ ) representing a unitless sorption coefficient that describes the proportional increase in DOC sorbed per additional unit of DOC exposed to a fixed sediment mass. This relationship is expected to be linear until the sediment approaches its maximum sorption capacity. As all samples exhibited linear relationships in this study, the IM approach was selected over other methods of describing sorption relationships.

$$RE = m \cdot X_i - b \quad (1)$$

To prepare for the batch sorption experiments, a regionally specific active layer leachate was extracted from the combined active layer material from each region by adding 270 g of sediment (< 2 mm) to 2700 mL of water (1:10



w/v) (Supplementary Information S1.1, Fig. S1). This mixture was agitated on a shaker table at 60 rpm for 72 h in the dark at 10 °C, before being filtered through a sterile polyethersulfone (PES) membrane filter (0.45 µm pore size; Sterlitech). The pH and conductivity of the organic leachate were adjusted to 6.5 (trace metal grade HCl) and 135 µS cm<sup>-1</sup> (NaCl), respectively, to reflect natural stream conditions in the Peel Plateau (Kokelj et al., 2013; Malone et al., 2013; Zolkos et al., 2019). Leachates were diluted to create a 5-point dilution series, ranging from 0 to 100% of the initial leachate DOC concentration, using pH- and conductivity-adjusted MilliQ water. Batch sorption experiments were initiated by adding 5 g of sediment to 100 mL of each dilution (1:20 w/v) series, with each treatment conducted in duplicate (i.e., 10 experimental vials per incubation). After mixing for 48 h at 60 rpm in the dark at 10 °C, the solution was filtered through a sterile 0.45 µm PES filter. Aliquots for DOC concentration, DOM composition, pH, and conductivity were collected from the dilution series solutions prior to exposure, and from each of the 10 filtrates after exposure to sediment. Aliquots for DOC concentration were acidified with trace metal grade HCl to pH < 2 and stored at 4 °C until analysis with a total organic carbon analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-5000A), using a sparge time of 5 min and the mean of the best 3 of 5 injections with a variance < 2 %. Aliquots for DOM were frozen in pre-rinsed centrifuge tubes (Falcon Brand, 50 mL) until absorbance and fluorescence spectra were measured with an Aqualog-UV-800 (HORIBA Scientific) optical spectrometer using a 10 mm quartz cuvette. Absorbance was measured from 240–800 nm at a 0.1 s integration time. Excitation-emission matrices (EEMs) were constructed using fluorescence measurements with excitation ranging 230–600 nm at 5 nm increments and emission ranging 118.78–828.18 nm at 2.33 nm increments. Integration time was adjusted between 1–3 s to achieve maximum values below 60,000 raw fluorescence units. pH and conductivity were measured directly after collection, as described above. Percent of soil OC vulnerable to extraction was determined as the molar ratio of water-extractable DOC to SOC (weDOC:SOC), measured as described above.

## 2.5 Bio-incubation experiments

To directly evaluate the impact of sorption-induced DOM compositional changes on DOM susceptibility to biodegradation, filtered solutions from select samples ( $n = 3$ ) from the batch sorption experiment (unmodified till, Holocene-modified till, and thawed debris from Peel Plateau site SE) and a control bottle of ultrapure MilliQ water were inoculated (10 % v/v inoculation) with water from the Mackenzie River (Gwich'in: *Nagwichoonji*; Inuvialuktun: *Kuuknak*), collected 2 km upstream of Inuvik, NT (Supplementary S2, Fig. S2). Stock solutions were evaluated for nutrients (total dissolved nitrogen [TDN], total dissolved phosphorous [TDP], ammonium [NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>], nitrite/nitrate [NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>], and soluble reactive phosphorous [SRP]) prior to the start of the bio-incubation. Inoculated samples were incubated in triplicate for 14 days or until they reached hypoxic conditions (< 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> dissolved oxygen). To evaluate biodegradation, dissolved carbon dioxide (measured as dissolved inorganic carbon following sample acidification; AS-C3 DIC Analyzer, Apollo SciTech, University of Alberta) was analyzed at the start and end of the experiment. Daily measurements of dissolved O<sub>2</sub> were additionally recorded using oxygen spot sensors (SP-PSt3-PSUP-YOPD5, PreSens GmbH) and a fibre-optic oxygen meter (Fibox 3; PreSens GmbH). Upon termination, changes in water chemistry were assessed via measurement of DOM composition, pH, and conductivity, as detailed above. Oxygen loss rate ( $k$ ) was calculated as the exponential decay rate for the duration of the incubation.



## 2.6 Data treatment and analysis

290 Changes in DOM composition in the batch sorption and bio-incubation experiments were assessed using absorbance  
and fluorescence-based metrics. Spectral slope (275–295 nm;  $S_{275-295}$ ) and slope ratio (275–295 nm slope:350–400 nm  
slope;  $S_R$ ), and specific ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm ( $SUVA_{254}$ ) were calculated as proxies for molecular weight  
and aromaticity of the DOM pool, respectively (Helms et al., 2008; Weishaar et al., 2003). A parallel factor  
(PARAFAC) analysis was conducted using the drEEM toolbox (version 0.6.5) in MATLAB (The MathWorks Inc.,  
295 2023), following Murphy et al. (2013). To maximize robustness of the model, EEMs from both the batch sorption ( $n$   
= 374) and bio-incubation ( $n = 37$ ;  $n_{total} = 411$ ) experiments were included in model construction. The relative  
contribution of each PARAFAC component to the overall fluorescence signal of a sample was determined by  
normalizing the maximum fluorescence scores of each component to the sum of all component intensities for the  
sample. Components were matched (similarity scores > 0.95 for both excitation and emission spectra) to published  
300 models on the OpenFluor database (Murphy et al., 2013).

Statistical analyses were performed in R (4.4.1; R Core Team, 2024) unless otherwise noted, using *dplyr*, and *ggplot2*  
for data management and visualization (Wickham, 2016; Wickham et al., 2023). One-way analysis of variance  
(ANOVA), followed by Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test when main effects were significant ( $p <$   
0.05), were used to assess differences in biogeochemical properties. Paired t-tests were used to evaluate changes in  
305 pH and conductivity in the batch sorption experiment. The package *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2024) was used to conduct  
principal component analyses (PCAs) for sediment biogeochemistry and DOM composition. Simple linear regressions  
(package *stats*) were used to relate sediment biogeochemical and sorption properties and to identify drivers of oxygen  
loss in the bio-incubation experiment. All summary statistics are reported as mean  $\pm$  standard error, unless otherwise  
noted. See Supplementary Information 1.3 for a detailed description of data analysis.

## 310 3 Results

### 3.1 Sediment mineralogy and biogeochemistry

Permafrost and debris sediments contained carbonates (dolomite, calcite, and siderite), pyrite, anatase, gypsum, and  
various silicate minerals (Fig. S3). Quartz, microcline, and albite were detected in all samples. Anatase and calcite  
were present in nearly all samples from the central Mackenzie Valley and Klondike region, but were undetected in  
315 most samples from the Peel Plateau. Clay minerals (i.e., kaolinite and smectitic illite) were detected in all samples  
from the Peel Plateau and central Mackenzie Valley but were not detected in yedoma samples. Non-silicate minerals  
were not detected in active layer samples.

Similar to mineralogy, biogeochemical properties of permafrost sediments varied between regions (Figs. S4, S5, and  
S6). Sediment pH ranged from 4.6 to 8.8, with most samples being slightly alkaline. Conductivity was significantly  
320 lower in sediment extracts from the central Mackenzie Valley ( $224.4 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1} \pm 17.0$ ) compared to those from the  
Peel Plateau ( $431.2 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1} \pm 25.3$ ,  $p = 0.017$ ) and Klondike region ( $527.1 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1} \pm 79.3$ ,  $p = 0.022$ ). Clay content  
(%) was lowest in the Klondike samples ( $7.6 \% \pm 0.7$ ), with similar clay content in sediments from the Peel Plateau  
( $29.9 \% \pm 0.7$ ) and central Mackenzie Valley ( $29.8 \% \pm 2.4$ ). %SOC was highest in the Klondike samples ( $1.6 \% \pm$



0.3), followed by the Peel Plateau ( $1.5 \% \pm 0.04$ ) and central Mackenzie Valley samples ( $1.0 \% \pm 0.1$ ). The ratio of  
325 SOC:N was highest in Peel Plateau samples ( $9.7 \pm 0.2$ ), followed by central Mackenzie Valley ( $8.1 \pm 0.4$ ) and Klondike  
samples ( $7.1 \pm 0.4$ ). Sediments from the Peel Plateau had significantly lower concentrations of  $\text{Ca}_t$  ( $4.4 \times 10^3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$   
 $\pm 0.3 \times 10^3$ ) and  $\text{Mn}_t$  ( $2 \times 10^2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.1 \times 10^2$ ) compared to the central Mackenzie Valley ( $1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.2$   
 $\times 10^4$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $4 \times 10^2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.3 \times 10^2$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and Klondike ( $1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.3 \times 10^4$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $4 \times$   
330  $10^2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.8 \times 10^2$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Sediments from the Peel Plateau had higher concentrations of reactive  $\text{Al}_o$  ( $1.2 \times$   
 $10^3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$ ) and  $\text{Fe}_o$  ( $1.1 \times 10^4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.1 \times 10^4$ ) and lower  $\text{Ca}_p$  ( $2.1 \times 10^3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$ ) compared  
to sediments from the central Mackenzie Valley and Klondike regions.

A PCA that considered concurrent variation in sediment biogeochemistry across all sites explained 51.5 % of sample  
variation across the first two principal component axes (Fig. 3). Principal component (PC) 1 (31.5 % of variation)  
described variation in mineral element ( $\text{Al}_t$ ,  $\text{Ca}_t$ ,  $\text{Fe}_t$ , and  $\text{Mn}_t$ ) concentrations, with higher concentrations plotting  
335 positively along PC1. PC2 (25.0 % of variation) was driven by pH and OC content, with pH plotting positively and  
%SOC and the ratio of SOC:N plotting negatively along PC2. Within regions, sediment biogeochemistry varied by  
sediment type. In the Peel Plateau, unmodified tills showed substantial variation along PC1, reflecting differences in  
mineral element concentrations but little variation in pH or OC content between sites. Holocene-modified tills  
displayed greater variation in OC content and pH than unmodified tills, reflected in increased variation along PC2.  
340 Thawed debris displayed greater variation along both PC1 and PC2 than other sediment types. In the central  
Mackenzie Valley, samples clustered by site, reflecting different depositional origins (i.e., colluvium or  
glaciolacustrine) across sites. Yedoma samples also showed biogeochemical clustering by site. The %SOC was lower  
at site MG than at site LB, except for the youngest sample at MG (*ca.* 14,155 yr BP; Cocker, 2025), which had  
considerably higher %SOC than the older samples at this site (14,485–16,140 yr BP; Cocker, 2025). Samples from  
345 MG also had lower concentrations of mineral elements relative to samples from LB.

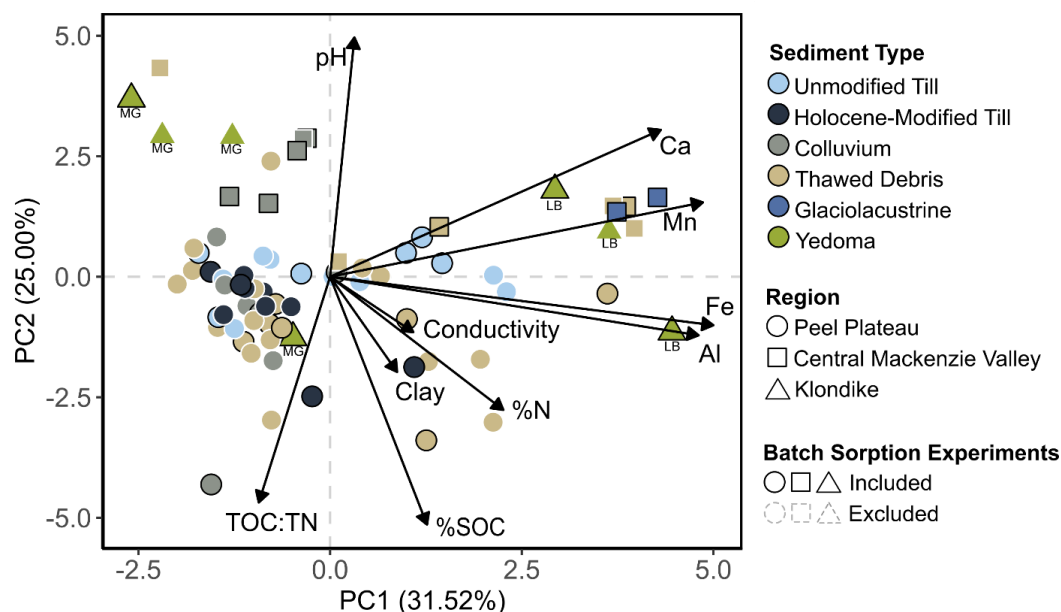


Figure 3. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of sediment biogeochemical properties, with sediment type indicated by colour, and geographic region indicated by shape (Peel Plateau, NT ( $n = 56$ ); central Mackenzie Valley, NT ( $n = 13$ ); and Klondike region, YT ( $n = 7$ )). Data points outlined in black were evaluated for sorption properties with batch sorption experiments. Mineral element concentrations reflect total (Al, Ca, Fe, and Mn) fraction. Site labels are included for Klondike region samples (MG – Mint Gulch; LB – Little Blanche).

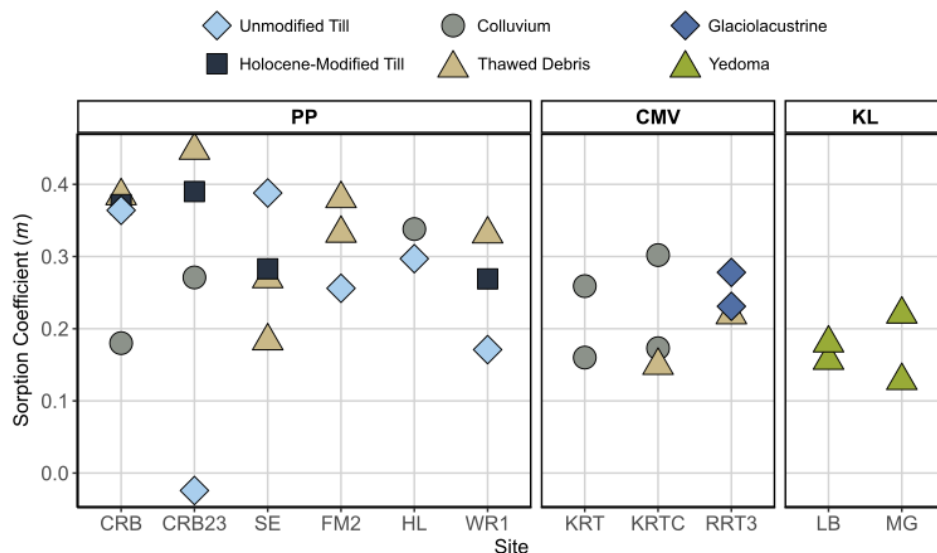
### 3.2 Sediment sorption properties

The prepared DOC dilution series varied between regions, ranging to  $10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for Peel Plateau samples,  $52 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for central Mackenzie Valley samples, and  $41 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for Klondike samples (Fig. S7). After exposure to sediment, both pH ( $7.4 \pm 0.1$ ; paired t-test:  $t_{31} = 9.99, p < 0.001$ ) and conductivity ( $272.8 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1} \pm 20.6$ ; paired t-test:  $t_{31} = 7.89, p < 0.001$ ) were significantly higher than the initial solution ( $6.5 \pm 0.01$ ;  $171.5 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1} \pm 17.6$ ). The relation between initial and sorbed bulk DOC was linear for all samples, indicating that no sample reached its maximum sorption capacity in the batch sorption experiments (Kaiser and Zech, 1997). Sorption coefficients ( $m$ ) ranged from  $-0.02$  to  $0.45$ , with the higher coefficients occurring in sediments from the Peel Plateau ( $0.29 \pm 0.02$ ) compared to those from the central Mackenzie Valley ( $0.22 \pm 0.02, p < 0.160$ ) (Fig. 4; Table S3) and yedoma samples from the Klondike Region ( $0.17 \pm 0.02, p < 0.053$ ). The unmodified till sample from site CRB23 (PP\_CRB23\_PL) was the only sample with a sorption coefficient at or below 0 ( $-0.02$ ). On the Peel Plateau, unmodified tills generally had lower sorption coefficients and thawed debris sediments had higher sorption coefficients than other sediment types at the same site (Fig. 4). In the central Mackenzie Valley, glaciolacustrine sediments generally had higher sorption coefficients than colluvium and thawed debris sediments.

Water-extractable DOC ( $b$ ) ranged from  $0.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  to  $57.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (Fig. 5; Table S3). When normalized for total OC content of the freeze-dried sediment samples (weDOC:SOC), OC content ranged from  $1.0 \%$  to  $62.0 \%$ , in which

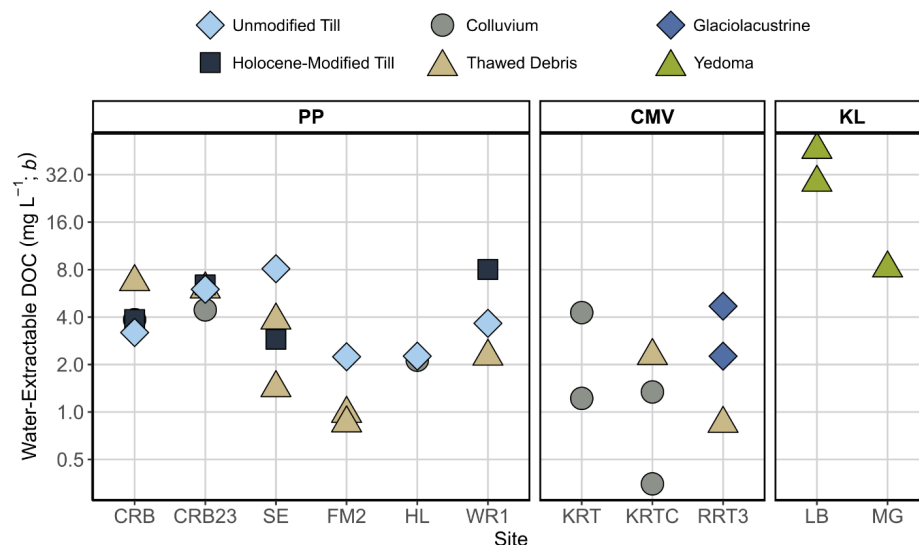


Klondike samples released substantially more OC ( $37.1\% \pm 8.6$ ), than samples from the Peel Plateau ( $5.2\% \pm 0.6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and central Mackenzie Valley ( $4.0\% \pm 1.0$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. S8).



370

Figure 4. Point plots of sorption coefficients ( $m$ ) of thawed permafrost sediments, demarcated by site (see Fig. 1 and Table S1) and geographic region (Peel Plateau, NT (PP); central Mackenzie Valley, NT (CMV); Klondike region, YT (KL)). Figure S8 shows the derivation of  $m$  for a subset of samples.



375

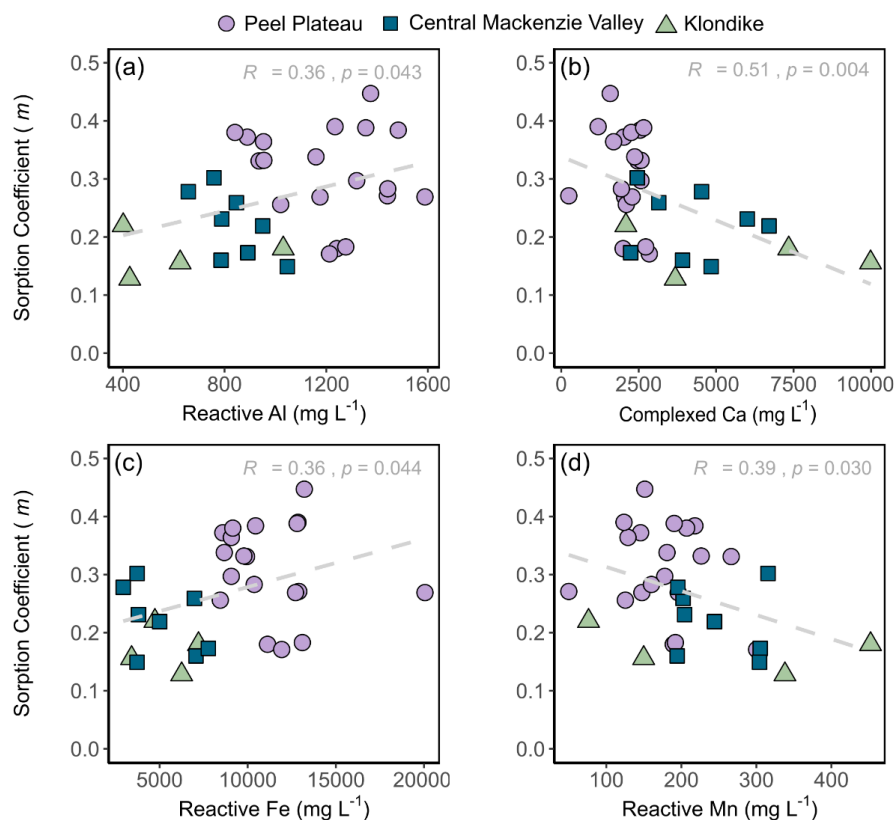
Figure 5. Point plots of water-extractable dissolved organic carbon (DOC;  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ;  $b$ ) of thawed permafrost sediments, demarcated by site (see Fig. 1 and Table S1) and geographic region (Peel Plateau, NT (PP); central Mackenzie Valley, NT (CMV); Klondike region, YT (KL)). Note that the y-axis is shown in log scale. Figure S shows the derivation of  $b$  for a subset of samples.



### 3.3 Relations between sediment characteristics and sorption properties

380 Excluding the sample with a sorption coefficient near 0,  $m$  was positively correlated with the concentration of  $Al_o$  ( $F_{1,29} = 4.50$ ,  $p = 0.043$ ,  $R = 0.36$ ) and  $Fe_o$  ( $F_{1,29} = 4.45$ ,  $p = 0.044$ ,  $R = 0.36$ ), but negatively correlated with  $Ca_p$  ( $F_{1,29} = 9.94$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ,  $R = 0.51$ ) and  $Mn_o$  ( $F_{1,29} = 5.19$ ,  $p = 0.030$ ,  $R = 0.39$ ) (Fig. 6) and sediment pH ( $F_{1,29} = 6.99$ ,  $p = 0.013$ ,  $R = 0.44$ ). Sediment OC (%SOC) was positively correlated with  $Al_p$  ( $F_{1,29} = 12.99$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $R = 0.56$ ) and  $Fe_p$  ( $F_{1,29} = 39.01$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $R = 0.75$ ) (Fig. S9). The weDOC:SOC ratio (i.e., proportion of total SOC that was

385 susceptible to water extraction) was positively correlated with  $Ca_p$  ( $F_{1,29} = 20.58$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $R = 0.65$ ) and clay content ( $F_{1,29} = 29.71$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $R = 0.71$ ) (relationships not shown).



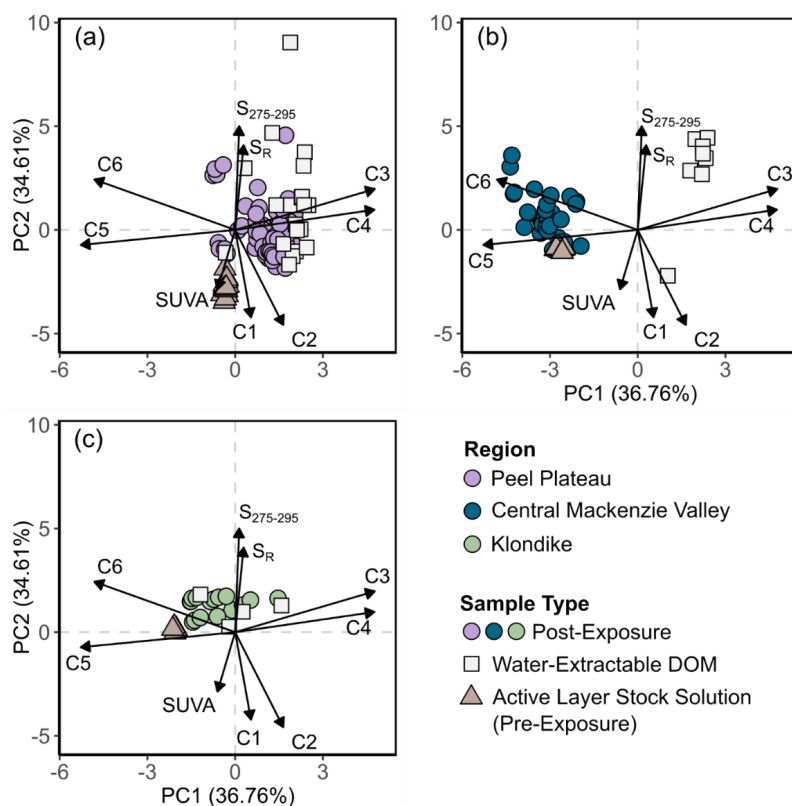
390 **Figure 6.** Scatter plots of relationships between sorption coefficient ( $m$ ) and the reactive concentrations of elements ( $mg\ kg^{-1}$ ) extracted by dark ammonium oxalate ((a)  $Al_o$ , (c)  $Fe_o$ , and (d)  $Mn_o$ ) and pyrophosphate ((b)  $Ca_p$ ). Simple linear regressions are represented by a dashed grey line with  $R$  and  $p$  values reported at the top of each panel.

### 3.4 Compositional shifts in DOM following sorption

A 6-component PARAFAC model was validated using split-half analysis, explaining 99.85 % of sample variance, with all components well-matched (similarity score  $> 0.95$  for both excitation and emission spectra) within the OpenFluor database (Fig. S10; Table S4). The model consisted of two components (C1 and C2) representing aromatic,



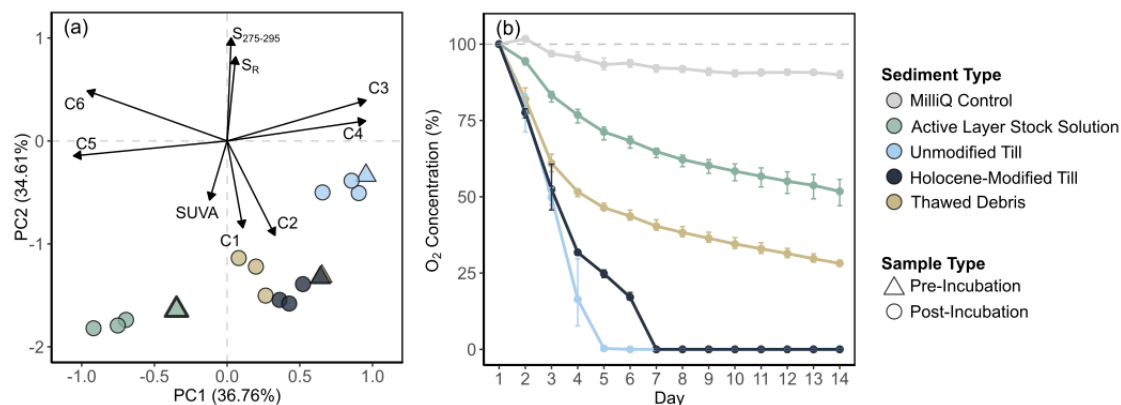
395 humic-like compounds of recent terrestrial origin. Components C3 and C4 were interpreted to reflect degraded humic-  
like compounds of terrestrial origin, while C5 was interpreted to reflect humic-like compounds of microbial origin.  
While the latter three components have similar EEM expressions, reflecting a “blue shift” from C1 and C2 along the  
emissions axis (Fig. S10), this shift can occur both through the diagenesis of terrigenous DOM (C3 and C4) and  
through the production of humic-like compounds by microbes (C5) (Coble, 1996; Coble et al., 1998). Our C5 was  
400 interpreted as microbially-produced humic material due to its close similarity to the M peak (marine or microbial  
humic), while C3 and C4 more closely aligned with the A and C peaks (humic-like) described by Coble (1996). The  
final component of the PARAFAC model (C6) reflected protein (tyrosine)-like compounds.  
A PCA of optical indices (PARAFAC C1-6,  $S_{275-295}$ ,  $S_R$ , and  $SUVA_{254}$ ) was created for all samples ( $n = 374$ ), with an  
explanatory power of 71.4 % across the first two principal component axes (Fig. S11a). Principal Component 1 (PC1;  
405 36.8% of variation explained) is interpreted as a gradient of organic matter diagenesis, with PARAFAC C3 and C4  
(degraded terrestrial material) plotting positively and C5 and C6 (microbially produced humic-like; protein-like)  
plotting negatively. Principal Component 2 (PC2; 34.6% of variation explained) describes variation in aromaticity and  
molecular weight, with  $SUVA_{254}$ , C1, and C2 (high aromaticity, humic-like) plotting negatively on this axis, and  $S_{275-}$   
 $295$  and  $S_R$  (lower molecular weight) plotting positively.  
410 Water-extractable DOM (DOM composition at *b*) varied predominantly along PC2, driven by differences in molecular  
weight and aromaticity (Fig. S11b). On average, water-extractable DOM from sediment samples from the central  
Mackenzie Valley was less aromatic and had lower molecular weight than samples from the other regions. Sediments  
from Klondike yedoma released DOM that appeared to be dominated by microbially produced DOM relative to other  
samples. Samples from the Peel Plateau showed the greatest variation across both PC1 and PC2, though this region  
415 also accounted for the greatest number of incubated samples.  
After exposure to permafrost sediments, all organic solutions had a shift in DOM composition (Fig. 7), becoming  
enriched in aliphatic, low molecular weight compounds relative to the initial stock solution (positive shift along PC2).  
When exposed to permafrost sediments from the Peel Plateau and Klondike regions, the DOM pool contained more  
diagenetically altered terrestrial material (positive shift along PC1). In these samples, the DOM pool shifted to become  
420 more similar to the water-extractable DOM of the sediment. When exposed to sediments from the central Mackenzie  
Valley, the DOM pool became more saturated in microbially-derived compounds (negative shift along PC1).  
Generally, samples showed greater sorption of C2 (terrestrial, humic-like) compounds than C6 (protein-like)  
compounds (Fig. S7). Displacement of labile compounds by humic-like compounds appeared to occur even in samples  
that demonstrated no bulk sorption of total DOC (e.g., unmodified till at site FM2; Fig. S7b). Despite having a linear  
425 slope for *m* when considering the total DOC pool, the sorption relationship appeared to reach an asymptote for C6 and  
C2 fluorescence in glaciolacustrine and debris sediments from RRT3 (Fig. S7c).



430 **Figure 7. Batch sorption experiment: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of dissolved organic matter (DOM) properties. PCA includes organic solutions pre- (triangle) and post-exposure to permafrost sediments (circle) and carbon-free water (squares; water-extractable DOM) in batch sorption experiments. Panels represent the same global PCA as Fig. S11a, with each panel displaying samples from three geographic regions: (a) Peel Plateau, NT; (b) central Mackenzie Valley, NT; and (c) Klondike region, YT.**

### 3.5 Changes to DOM susceptibility to biodegradation

435 To test DOM susceptibility to biodegradation following organo-mineral interactions, we inoculated active layer DOM extracts exposed to unmodified till, modified till, and thawed debris from the Peel Plateau with a common microbial pool. As demonstrated in the batch sorption experiments, sediment-exposed DOM was enriched in aliphatic, low molecular weight compounds (positive shift along PC2) and contained more degraded terrestrial material (positive shift along PC1) relative to organic-rich leachates, with the most pronounced shift associated with the unmodified till sample (Fig. 8a). This shift was accompanied by increased TDN concentrations, with the greatest concentration associated with the unmodified till sample (1640  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) and lowest in the active layer control (411  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). Across 440 treatments, there was little variation in TDP (37-41  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; range) and SRP (4-6  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). Conductivity and pH ranged from 40.2–232.8  $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$  and 6.8–7.4, respectively. DOC concentrations varied between 11.9–18.0  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ , with the highest concentration in the unmodified till treatment and the lowest concentration in the Holocene-modified till treatment. Biogeochemical parameters for each treatment at the start of the bio-incubation are summarized in Table 445 S5.



**Figure 8. Bio-incubations: Change in dissolved organic matter (DOM) composition and dissolved oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) concentration over a 14-day incubation of sediment-exposed DOM with a microbial inoculum. (a) Principal component analysis (PCA) of DOM properties (same global PCA as Fig. S11a), showing solutions modified by organo-mineral interactions at the start and end of the bio-incubation. The green triangle with a bolded outline represents the initial active layer leachate, with other triangles reflecting change in DOM composition after exposure to thawed permafrost sediments. Circles represent the DOM composition at the end of the bio-incubation. (b) Consumption of dissolved oxygen throughout the bio-incubation, normalized to the initial oxygen concentration on Day 1. Error bars represent the range across 3 replicates.**

450

The abiotic shift in DOM composition and increase in nitrogen corresponded to increased rates of DOC biodegradation. Dissolved oxygen depletion was most rapid in the unmodified till treatment ( $k = -0.85 \pm 0.10$ ), in which all sample bottles became hypoxic by day 5 (Fig. 8b), followed by the Holocene-modified till treatment ( $-0.37 \pm 0.01$ ), in which all bottles became hypoxic on day 7. Sample bottles containing leachates that had not been exposed to sediments (active layer control) experienced the least oxygen depletion ( $-0.05 \pm 0.003$ ), but with oxygen depletion rates that were similar to the thawed debris treatment ( $-0.09 \pm 0.003$ ). No sample bottles with the thawed debris treatment or active layer control reached hypoxia throughout the 14-day bio-incubation.

460

Following bio-incubation, the DOM pool generally became enriched in protein-like and microbial-origin humic compounds (negative shift on PC1), but with slightly greater aromaticity and higher molecular weight (negative shift on PC2) (Fig. 8a). This shift in DOM composition was most pronounced in the active layer control sample bottles, and more modest for the till-associated treatments. Respiratory quotients (molar ratio between O<sub>2</sub> depletion and CO<sub>2</sub> production) ranged from 0.71–0.99 in sediment-exposed samples and 0.38–0.47 in the organic-rich leachate (Fig. S12).

465

Considering nutrient concentrations, DOC concentration, DOM composition (via PC1 and PC2 scores), pH, and conductivity prior to incubation, oxygen loss rate had a strong, positive association with NH<sub>4</sub> ( $F_{1,2} = 467.40$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ,  $R = 0.99$ ) and TDN ( $F_{1,2} = 333.30$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ,  $R = 0.99$ ). Positive associations between oxygen loss rate and DOM composition (treatment position on PC2;  $F_{1,2} = 17.70$ ,  $p = 0.052$ ,  $R = 0.95$ ) and TDP ( $F_{1,2} = 13.1$ ,  $p = 0.069$ ,  $R = 0.93$ ) were also observed (Fig. S13). Compared to these metrics, initial DOC concentration was a poor predictor of oxygen loss rate ( $F_{1,2} = 3.40$ ,  $p = 0.210$ ,  $R = 0.79$ ) (Fig. S13).

470



## 4 Discussion

This research demonstrates that DOM is rapidly modified by organo-mineral interactions upon exposure to thawed  
475 permafrost sediments. Increased rates of OM biodegradation were associated with the enrichment of the DOM pool  
in labile compounds and higher nutrient concentrations, driven by the simultaneous release of labile compounds and  
sorption of humic-like compounds, and elevated concentrations of decomposition-origin  $\text{NH}_4^+$  following exposure to  
sediments. This supports our hypothesis that organo-mineral interactions involving thawed permafrost sediments  
impact the bioavailability of DOM. The extent of the impact of organo-mineral interactions on DOC concentration  
480 and DOM composition varied by sediment type and by region, indicating that organo-mineral interactions facilitated  
by permafrost thaw and their impact on freshwater ecosystems will vary across the permafrost domain, but that this  
variation can be constrained based on knowledge of sediment geochemistry and landscape composition.

### 4.1 Organo-mineral interactions enrich DOM pool in labile compounds

Preferential sorption of humic-like, aromatic compounds was consistently observed in our batch sorption experiments.  
485 Humic-like, high molecular weight, aromatic OM contains numerous functional groups available to participate in  
cation bridging and organo-mineral complexes (Kaiser and Zech, 1997), resulting in the preferential involvement of  
these compounds in organo-mineral interactions relative to low molecular weight, aliphatic molecules (Groeneveld et  
al., 2020; Hernes et al., 2007; Kothawala et al., 2014; Voggenreiter et al., 2024). Concurrently, the DOM pool can be  
enriched in labile compounds by the displacement of indigenous, low molecular weight, aliphatic OM by high  
490 molecular weight, aromatic compounds (Kaiser et al., 1996). The simultaneous occurrence of these processes is  
demonstrated in the unmodified till sample of site CRB23. While this sample had a bulk sorption coefficient near 0,  
changes to total C2 and C6 fluorescence values show a DOM exchange, whereby aromatic C2 was preferentially  
sorbed and protein-like C6 was preferentially released (Fig. S7) (Kaiser et al., 1996).

The simultaneous sorption of humic-like and release of aliphatic compounds at a relatively rapid timescale suggests  
495 that organo-mineral interactions have a “sorting effect” on DOM in impacted surface waters and hydrological flow  
paths (see also Shakil et al., 2022). The enrichment of permafrost-exposed waters in labile organic compounds and  
bioavailable nutrients corresponded with rapid biodegradation of OM in our bio-incubation experiments, resulting in  
a further shift of the DOM pool away from that which is released from permafrost. The sorting and protection of OM  
exposed to permafrost sediments may be a contributing mechanism to the relatively low lability of yedoma sediment  
500 OM (Kuhry et al., 2020), but high lability of DOM draining from yedoma deposits (Mann et al., 2015; Spencer et al.,  
2015; Vonk et al., 2013).

Variation in molecular weight and aromaticity of water-extractable DOM between sediment types aligns with past  
observations (Fouché et al., 2020; MacDonald et al., 2021, 2025). Differences in water-extractable DOM composition  
between unmodified and Holocene-modified tills likely reflect the progression of soil development and organic matter  
505 cycling during early Holocene thaw (Lacelle et al., 2019; MacDonald et al., 2021), whereby terrestrial-origin materials  
are decomposed and microbial-origin compounds are produced. Water-extractable DOM from yedoma tended to be  
enriched in protein-like and microbially-produced humic OM compared to other sediment types, aligning with  
previous observations of labile OM draining from yedoma in Siberia (Mann et al., 2015; Spencer et al., 2015) and



Alaska (Drake et al., 2018; Ewing et al., 2015), likely the result of long-term biological activity under low oxygen environments found in syngenetic permafrost (Ewing et al., 2015), in association with the sorting effects described above.

## **4.2 Landscape and permafrost history shape sediment biogeochemistry and organo-mineral interactions upon thaw**

### **4.2.1 Biogeochemical properties**

Past thaw history influenced the variability of biogeochemical properties in sediments in northwestern Canada. On the Peel Plateau, the pronounced variability of thawed debris is likely reflective of the influence of inconsistent weathering and leaching processes experienced as sediments thaw and undergo transport (Monhonval et al., 2021a). Additionally, thawed debris represents a mixture of materials from multiple sediment types, with different relative contributions of biogeochemically distinct sediment types between sites. In contrast, unmodified tills, which have not been subjected to thaw-related modification, displayed the least within-type variation of sediment types sampled on the Peel Plateau, even across different recessional fronts of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (MacDonald et al., 2025). Divergence of the characteristics of Holocene-modified tills from those of unmodified tills within can be attributed to thaw-related processes, such as leaching of soluble minerals and past soil development. In the central Mackenzie Valley, geologic origin and thaw history resulted in biogeochemical divergence between sites. Permafrost sediments and thawed debris from sites with colluvium parent materials (KRT and KRTC; thawed in the early Holocene), had lower concentrations of mineral elements relative to sediments from features eroding glaciolacustrine deposits (RRT3), which had not thawed since post-depositional permafrost aggradation.

Biogeochemical variation in Klondike sediments may reflect differences in loess deposition and soil formation driven by hydroclimatic conditions. Samples from site LB (predating Dawson tephra; > 29,400 yr BP; Demuro et al., 2008; Froese et al., 2002) represent accumulation of materials driven by the deposition of carbonate-rich loess under cold stage conditions (colder temperatures, higher winds), resulting in high Ca concentrations (Monteath et al., 2023). A shift to warmer temperatures and weaker winds in the latest Pleistocene (MG samples; ca. 13,500–15,900 yr BP; Cocker, 2025) decreased loess deposition and stimulated the development of forests and associated soils, resulting in low mineral element concentrations and a shift in grain size (Péwé, 1975; Sanborn et al., 2006). Yedoma sediments at both sites generally had SOC content (%SOC; 0.57–2.66) at the lower range of previous observations in Pleistocene-aged yedoma from the Klondike (Fraser and Burn, 1997; MacDonald et al., 2021; Sanborn et al., 2006) and other regions (Schirmer et al., 2011; Strauss et al., 2013). At site MG, the youngest sample (ca. 13,500 yr BP) had markedly higher OC content relative to deeper samples at the site, representing the transition from steppe-tundra to woody shrubland vegetation (Monteath et al., 2023; Murchie et al., 2021; Cocker 2025). Concentrations of Al<sub>t</sub>, Ca<sub>t</sub>, Fe<sub>t</sub>, and Mn<sub>t</sub> of yedoma samples fell within the observed range for yedoma from Alaska and Siberia (Monhonval et al., 2021b), although at the lower end of each element's range, highlighting the distinct nature of Klondike yedoma relative to other regions of the Yedoma domain.



#### 4.2.2 Sorption properties

Observed sorption coefficients (-0.02–0.45) are lower than previously recorded for glacial-derived permafrost  
545 sediments in Siberia (0.43–0.60) (Kawahigashi et al., 2006) but align with the range observed in non-permafrost  
mineral soils (0.01–0.86; Kaiser et al., 1996, 2001; Kothawala et al., 2008). Compared to previous observations in the  
Peel Plateau (MacDonald et al., 2025; Zolkos and Tank, 2019), unmodified tills released relatively high concentrations  
of water-extractable DOC, despite similar assessment techniques. Several unmodified till samples used in this study  
were collected from different thaw exposures than previous studies, indicating variable weDOC within regional tills.  
550 Petrogenic DOC could have contributed to the high weDOC concentrations that we measured in unmodified tills  
(Bröder et al., 2021; Hilton et al., 2015), although the TN:TOC ratios of these sediments (0.095–0.128) are somewhat  
higher than other estimates for petrogenic sources that have been applied to the Mackenzie basin (0.064–0.078; Hilton  
et al., 2015). Yedoma samples released much higher proportions of their sediment OC than other sediment types,  
potentially influenced by high porewater DOC concentrations (Ewing et al., 2015) and associated low proportions of  
555 mineral-bound OC due to low sorption potentials of these sediments.

Thaw-related variation in biogeochemical properties translated to differences in sorption coefficients, aligning with  
observations of past thaw as a primary control on concentrations of mineral-associated OC in sediments on the Peel  
Plateau (Thomas et al., 2023). Across sediment types, sorption coefficients were likely influenced by the number of  
potential binding sites (influenced by mineral surface area and Al<sub>t</sub>, Ca<sub>t</sub>, Fe<sub>t</sub>, and Mn<sub>t</sub> concentrations) (e.g., von Lützow  
560 et al., 2006; Torn et al., 1997) and the presence of competitors (e.g., ions in solution measured by conductivity) for  
those binding sites (Gu et al., 1994; Guppy et al., 2005; Kaiser and Zech, 1997). Despite being a consistent predictor  
of sorption in non-permafrost soils (Abramoff et al., 2021; Burke et al., 1989; Hassink, 1997; Szymański et al., 2022),  
we did not observe a strong correlation between *m* and clay-sized particles, suggesting that competition for binding  
sites (e.g., by dissolved ions) may influence the potential for organo-mineral interactions in these sediments. As  
565 expected, Al<sub>p</sub> and Fe<sub>p</sub> were positively correlated with sorption across all sediment types. In contrast to previous  
observations of Ca-mediated stabilization of OC, we observed a negative correlation between *m* and Ca<sub>p</sub>; however,  
this relationship may be biased by the markedly low concentrations of Ca in sediments from the Peel Plateau, which  
also have relatively high sorption coefficients (Fig. 6b).

Contrary to expectations, unmodified tills did not consistently have higher sorption coefficients than other sediment  
570 types at the same sites on the Peel Plateau. We expected unmodified tills to have a high number of potential binding  
sites due to their high concentrations of reactive mineral elements (Al<sub>o</sub>, Ca<sub>p</sub>, Fe<sub>o</sub>, Mn<sub>o</sub>) and limited potential for  
previous organo-mineral interactions. However, competition for these binding sites from ions, as indicated by  
relatively high conductivity, may diminish the potential of these sediments to interact with organic compounds. High  
sorption coefficients observed in thawed debris sediments in the Peel Plateau could be explained by high  
575 concentrations of reactive Mn compared to other sediment types, as Mn can be an important OC binding agent even  
at low concentrations relative to Fe and Al. Low sorption coefficients observed in Klondike yedoma sediments likely  
arise from a combination of low potential binding sites and high competition. High proportion of clay-sized particles  
and total mineral element concentrations relative to other sites (Fig. 3) would suggest that sediments at LB could have



580 a high sorption potential, but this may be offset by high binding site competition (i.e., as assessed by high conductivity).

#### 4.3 Implications for biological communities and biogeochemical cycling

585 Organo-mineral interactions have been proposed as a mechanism of protecting permafrost OC from biodegradation upon thaw (e.g., Wang et al., 2023), though this effect may be timescale-dependent. In our experiments, these interactions acted to rapidly sort the DOM pool, increasing overall lability of DOM in solution; combined with the release of bioavailable nitrogen, biodegradation of DOM was initially stimulated following exposure to permafrost sediments. DOM composition and nitrogen concentrations had a stronger influence on biodegradation rate than DOC concentration in our bio-incubation experiments, indicating that a change in DOM composition and an increase in nutrient availability could supersede modest decreases in DOC concentrations in the short term, resulting in an immediate but short-lived increase in OM biodegradation. Similar to our observations, organo-mineral interactions 590 increased DOC biodegradation in a river water sample from Sweden and were attributed to preferential sorption of aromatic compounds and resulting relative enrichment in more labile aliphatic molecules (Groeneveld et al., 2023). Despite this initial increased biodegradation, the sorbed fraction of DOM is likely to experience long-term stabilization and remain relatively inaccessible to microbes (Jastrow et al., 1996; Kaiser and Guggenberger, 2000; Kleber et al., 2011; Rasmussen et al., 2005). The importance of this timescale factor is supported by a study in Siberian yedoma 595 sediments that found increases in organo-mineral interactions corresponded to decreases in CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions over a one-year period (Jongejans et al., 2021; Monhonval et al., 2022). The influence of timescale on the relation between organo-mineral interactions and DOM will be important for understanding both immediate and long-term impacts of permafrost thaw on freshwater ecosystems.

600 Permafrost landform assemblages reflect variations in topography, substrate, and ground ice conditions, and hence, thaw trajectories (Kokelj et al., 2026), indicating that the progression of organo-mineral interactions is likely to exhibit contrasts within and between regions (Opfergelt, 2020; Vonk et al., 2019). Increases in active layer thickness are widespread throughout the pan-Arctic, enabling percolation of organic surface waters into deeper, mineral-rich sediments (Keller et al., 2010; Mu et al., 2017). Resultant increases in water residence time augmented soil pore water organo-mineral interactions at a catchment in Interior Alaska, with pronounced mobility of mineral-bound OC into 605 nearby streams during high flow events (i.e., spring snowmelt and rainfall) (Hirst et al., 2022). The migration of metals from deeper, recently thawed mineral sediments to the organic horizon and redox interface may create new opportunities for OM-mineral interactions in the thickening active layer (Herndon et al., 2017). Near-surface, previously thawed and refrozen tills on the Peel Plateau have increased concentrations of organic carbon complexed with metals relative to unmodified tills, indicating that increases in active layer thickness facilitated organo-mineral 610 interactions in this region during the early Holocene (Thomas et al., 2023). In contrast to increases in active layer thickness, mass-wasting events are more localized but cause dramatic increases in the transport of sediment and associated biogeochemical constituents within impacted fluvial networks (Keskitalo et al., 2021; Malone et al., 2013; Zolkos et al., 2020). Organo-mineral interactions facilitated by the direct mixing of thawed permafrost materials and their intersection with surface water DOM may result in more pronounced, but more localized impacts on DOC



615 concentrations and DOM bioavailability (e.g., Littlefair et al., 2017; Shakil et al., 2022). The mechanism of contemporary permafrost thaw, shaped by landscape origin and evolution (Kokelj et al., 2026), directly influences how sediment is delivered to and interacts with surface waters and therefore has the potential to wield strong control on the facilitation of organo-mineral interactions.

In addition to the influence of thaw mechanism, the impacts of organo-mineral interactions on carbon sequestration and OM bioavailability will be affected by substrate characteristics across different permafrost landsystems (*sensu* 620 Kokelj et al., 2026; Tank et al., 2020). Variation in composition and bioavailability of permafrost-origin DOM has previously been observed across permafrost sediment types on the Peel Plateau (Lacelle et al., 2019; MacDonald et al., 2021, 2025). Notably, our study primarily included sediments exposed by retrogressive thaw slumps, comprising environments with ice-rich fine-grained mineral soils, necessarily excluding lowland, organic-rich landforms such as 625 permafrost peatlands or drained lake basins that have co-developed under different climate, geomorphologic and ecosystem conditions (Kokelj et al., 2026; Wolfe et al., 2020; Zoltai, 1993). However, we demonstrate a high degree of variability within sediment types, particularly in those that have undergone past thaw, highlighting important considerations for upscaling and support for using a landsystem approach that considers geological legacy and permafrost history as drivers of variation in permafrost sediment properties (Kokelj et al., 2026). Biogeochemical 630 conditions within recipient freshwater ecosystems will also impact the stability of organo-mineral interactions; for example, via cleavage of existing organo-mineral bonds under anoxic conditions, and subsequent release of DOM and redox-sensitive metals (Lau et al., 2024; Peter et al., 2016). Given their role in protecting OM from biodegradation over centuries to millennia (Jastrow et al., 1996; Kleber et al., 2011; Rasmussen et al., 2005), the potential for organo-mineral interactions should be explored broadly, under different biogeochemical conditions reflective of the variation 635 in sediment properties and manifestation of thaw across permafrost environments.

## 5 Conclusions

Through controlled batch sorption and bio-incubation experiments, we addressed three key objectives, examining organo-mineral interactions between dissolved organic matter and thawed permafrost sediments from northwestern Canada. First, we documented substantial variation in sediment biogeochemical properties linked to geologic origin 640 and thaw history. Second, we experimentally demonstrated interactions between dissolved organic matter and permafrost-origin sediments, resulting in shifts in DOM composition and DOC concentrations. Third, we confirmed that exposure to thawed permafrost sediments increased biodegradation rates, driven by shifts in DOM composition and nutrient concentrations. Contrary to our hypotheses, syngenetic yedoma sediments did not exhibit the highest sorption potential; instead, these sediments released substantial concentrations of DOC and had limited sorption 645 potential compared to glaciogenic sediment types. However, our hypotheses regarding enrichment of the DOM pool in bioavailable compounds were supported by our batch sorption and bio-incubation experiments. The simultaneous sorption of high molecular weight, aromatic compounds and release of low molecular weight, aliphatic compounds, combined with the release of bioavailable nutrients from sediments, resulted in increased biodegradation rates.



650 Our experiments demonstrate that exposure to thawed permafrost sediments has the potential to increase  
biodegradation rates of DOM in the short-term, contributing to our understanding of aquatic biogeochemical and  
biological responses to thaw. The influence of organo-mineral interactions on DOC concentrations and DOM  
composition varied within and across geographic regions, indicating the importance of incorporating geologic origin  
and past thaw history in understanding the composition of permafrost and thaw-driven impacts on northern aquatic  
655 ecosystems. Further, our experiments demonstrate the protection of a portion of permafrost-origin carbon from  
biodegradation, supporting the consideration of stabilization via organo-mineral interactions as a potential pathway  
for permafrost carbon upon thaw in carbon cycle models.

#### **Data Availability**

Sediment characteristics and water chemistry data from experiments are available on the Borealis Dataverse repository  
660 (DOI: 10.5683/SP3/NFOPAF, Hatten et al., 2026).

#### **Author Contributions**

GKFH and SET designed the study, with contributions from all authors. Field samples were collected by GKFH, SET,  
SVK, AA, JMY, and DGF. GKFH led data analysis and manuscript writing, with contributions from all authors.  
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#### **665 Competing Interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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