



1 **Dynamic CO₂ evasion and colloidal control of trace metals**
2 **in the Lower Lena River**

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32 **Abstract**

33 Large Arctic rivers integrate carbon and element fluxes across vast permafrost-dominated
34 landscapes, yet the lower reaches of these systems remain poorly constrained in terms of greenhouse gas
35 (GHG) emissions and solute organization. We investigated the Low Lena River over ~800 km during the
36 beginning of summer baseflow, combining continuous in situ pCO₂ measurements, floating chamber flux
37 determinations, and analyses of major and trace elements including colloidal size fractionation. CO₂
38 concentrations exhibited pronounced short-distance variability and weak northward decrease along the
39 main stem. Diffusive CO₂ fluxes (0.1–1.3 g C m⁻² d⁻¹) were comparable to values reported for other large
40 Siberian rivers, confirming the Lena as a persistent but moderate atmospheric CO₂ source during the
41 open-water season. In contrast, CH₄ concentrations were low and spatially uniform, contributing <0.5%
42 to total carbon emissions. Notably, bulk DOC and DIC concentrations remained remarkably stable along
43 the transect and were consistent with long-term monitoring records and previous expeditions, indicating
44 strong buffering of dissolved carbon pools despite dynamic CO₂ evasion.

45 Major and trace elements segregated into two geochemical groups. Highly mobile major ions, Si,
46 and selected oxyanion-forming trace elements were predominantly present in truly dissolved form (0–
47 20% colloidal fraction) and reflected groundwater connectivity and water–rock interaction. In contrast,
48 lithogenic low-solubility elements—including trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates—were strongly
49 associated with Fe–Al–organic colloids (>70%), indicating surface and supraperafrost mobilization
50 pathways. Multivariate statistics confirmed this dual organization of solute transport. These findings
51 reveal a functional decoupling between structurally buffered dissolved carbon pools and dynamically
52 regulated CO₂ exchange, a pattern likely characteristic of large Arctic rivers. Under ongoing warming,
53 shifts in hydrological connectivity, discharge regime, and permafrost thaw may alter this balance, with
54 implications for pan-Arctic carbon and element export to the Arctic Ocean.

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59 **Introduction**

60 Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from inland waters in permafrost-affected regions constitute a
61 critical component of the Arctic carbon cycle and represent one of the most important positive feedbacks
62 to ongoing climate warming (Schuur et al., 2015). Permafrost thaw mobilizes large reservoirs of
63 previously frozen organic carbon (OC), increasing its susceptibility to microbial degradation and
64 atmospheric release, or promoting its lateral export to rivers and lakes (Frey and Smith, 2005; Vonk et
65 al., 2019). Once transferred to aquatic systems, this carbon can be rapidly mineralized to CO₂ and CH₄
66 or transported downstream to the Arctic Ocean. In addition, macro- and micronutrients can be released
67 from progressively thawing soils via surface flow or enhanced underground influx due to increasing
68 connectivity with deep reservoirs therefore affecting coastal productivity and exerting biogeochemical
69 control at the land – ocean interface (Frey et al., 2007; Tank et al., 2023).

70 For this reason, the biogeochemistry of dissolved organic carbon, major ions, and trace elements
71 in Arctic rivers has been intensively investigated (Gordeev et al., 1996, 2004; Holmes et al., 2000, 2001;
72 Tank et al., 2012; Drake et al., 2018; Kipp et al., 2020; Savenko and Savenko, 2024). Numerous studies
73 have constrained seasonal export fluxes of dissolved and particulate constituents in major rivers (Holmes
74 et al., 2012; Gordeev et al., 2024; Juhls et al., 2025), as well as in mid-sized systems and tributaries
75 (Chupakov et al., 2020, 2023; Pokrovsky et al., 2010, 2022; Bagard et al., 2011; Krickov et al., 2025).
76 These efforts have clarified how hydrological regime, permafrost thaw, and watershed characteristics
77 regulate solute mobilization. However, much less attention has been paid to the spatial variability of CO₂
78 and CH₄ within river networks, and to their coupling with hydrochemistry and landscape structure during
79 peak discharge. Furthermore, although this land–water–atmosphere continuum is widely recognized, in-
80 situ data on GHG concentrations and emissions from major Siberian rivers—particularly during
81 hydrologically dynamic periods—remain scarce.

82 Among the six great Arctic rivers, the Lena River is particularly emblematic. Draining nearly 2.5
83 million km² and flowing almost entirely within the continuous permafrost zone, it exhibits extreme
84 seasonal discharge variability and documented increases in annual runoff (Yang et al., 2002; McClelland
85 et al., 2004; Smith and Pavelsky, 2008; Ahmed et al., 2020). The basin encompasses extensive peatlands



86 and yedoma deposits rich in ancient OC that are increasingly affected by thaw (Zhang et al., 2005; Wild
87 et al., 2019). These landscapes provide both modern and aged carbon to aquatic systems, potentially
88 enhancing in-river GHG production during periods of intense lateral connectivity. While Lena River
89 discharge (Berezovskaya et al., 2005; Ye et al., 2009; Tananaev et al., 2016; Gautier et al., 2018; Suzuki
90 et al., 2018; Tananaev and Lotsari, 2022), sediment transport (Rachold et al., 1996; Dudarev et al., 2006),
91 OC dynamics (Lara et al., 1998; Semiletov et al., 2011; Goncalvez-Araujo et al., 2015; Griffin et al.,
92 2018; Ogneva et al., 2023), and hydrochemistry (Gordeev and Sidorov, 1993; Huh et al., 1998a,b;
93 Georgiadi et al., 2019; Juhls et al., 2020) have been extensively documented, direct assessments of in-
94 situ CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations and emissions along the main stem and its tributaries remain
95 fragmentary. Existing GHG studies are largely confined to the Lena Delta (Kutzbach et al., 2007; Franz
96 et al., 2016; Eckhardt et al., 2019; Beckebanze et al., 2022; Wegner et al., 2022) or upper reaches south
97 of the Aldan River (Vorobyev et al., 2021a, b), leaving the ~800-km middle reach between Yakutsk and
98 Kyusyur and several major tributaries (Vilyui, Muna, Molodo, Kyusyur) poorly constrained. This
99 contrasts with more spatially integrated assessments conducted for the Yukon (Striegl et al., 2012),
100 Mackenzie (Horan et al., 2019), and Ob (Pipko et al., 2019; Karlsson et al., 2021; Vorobyev et al., 2024).

101 Here, we present the first spatially integrated assessment of CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations and
102 diffusive emissions along the Low Lena River main stem and key tributaries during the post-freshet
103 recession period—a period of high hydrological connectivity and lateral carbon transfer. By coupling
104 high-resolution hydrochemical measurements of major and trace solutes, in-situ CO₂ evasion, and
105 colloidal assessment of trace element speciation in the main stem and tributaries, we evaluate spatial
106 pattern of hydrological control on the main features of fluvial C and metal transport. We specifically test
107 whether (i) tributaries draining peat- and yedoma-rich terrains act as disproportionate GHG hotspots
108 relative to the main stem, and (ii) spatial patterns of CO₂ and CH₄ are systematically linked to DOC,
109 major solutes, and trace-element signatures reflecting landscape controls. By resolving GHG dynamics
110 across an 800-km river transect, this study provides the first spatially explicit evaluation of post-
111 springtime carbon emissions from the lower Lena River system. Integrating gas fluxes with
112 hydrochemistry and colloidal transport of solutes allowed us to identify the dominant controls on aquatic



113 carbon transformation and to improve predictions of how warming-induced permafrost change may alter
114 coupled carbon and solute cycling in one of the largest Arctic river basins.

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116 **2. Study Site, Materials and Methods**

117 *2.1. Lena River and its tributaries*

118 The Lena River basin has an extremely cold continental climate, with winter air temperatures
119 frequently below $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ from December to February. Positive mean air temperatures are generally
120 limited to a short thaw period of about five months (May–September). Winter precipitation is low and
121 mostly stored as snow, whereas most annual precipitation occurs in summer, coinciding with peak
122 biological activity and river discharge. Permafrost is predominantly continuous, with discontinuous and
123 sporadic zones in the southern basin (Brown et al., 2002). Along the main stem, mean annual air
124 temperature (MAAT) decreases northward from about $-9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the central basin to $-13.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the north,
125 while tributaries span a broader MAAT range from -4.7 to $-15.9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Mean annual precipitation in the
126 northern basin is low, $200\text{--}250\text{ mm yr}^{-1}$ (Chevychelov and Bosikov, 2010), reinforcing strong runoff
127 seasonality and snowmelt dominance.

128 The lithology of the Lena basin upstream of Yakutsk is highly diverse and includes Archean and
129 Proterozoic crystalline and metamorphic rocks, Upper Proterozoic to Ordovician carbonate formations,
130 Permo–Triassic volcanic rocks, and widespread Phanerozoic terrigenous silicate sedimentary units. This
131 geological heterogeneity exerts a major control on riverine major ions, trace elements, and inorganic
132 carbon. More detailed descriptions of basin landscapes, vegetation, and geology are available elsewhere
133 (Rachold et al., 1996; Huh et al., 1999a, b; Huh and Edmond, 1999; Pipko et al., 2010; Semiletov et al.,
134 2011; Kutscher et al., 2017; Ogneva et al., 2023; Juhls et al., 2020, 2025). Together, these climatic,
135 permafrost, and lithological gradients provide the framework for interpreting spatial variability in solute
136 export, greenhouse gas dynamics, and weathering regimes along the Lena River continuum and its
137 tributaries.

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140 2.2. *Sampling strategy*

141 In the middle and lower Lena (Yakutsk to Kysyr), peak annual discharge typically occurs in June
142 and is mainly driven by rapid snowmelt across the permafrost-dominated basin. Sampling was conducted
143 from 5 to 22 July 2022, shortly after peak flow, during the early post-freshet recession. At this stage,
144 river levels remain high but hydrological conditions are more stable than during peak flood, allowing
145 integration of basin-wide snowmelt inputs while reducing short-term variability linked to flood-wave
146 propagation and bank erosion. July conditions also correspond to active-layer deepening and enhanced
147 subsurface connectivity, which promote mobilization of solutes, dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC),
148 dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and greenhouse gases from soils and permafrost-affected terrains.

149 During the campaign, we navigated ~1500 km aboard the research vessel *Merzlotoved*, from
150 Yakutsk (62.15 °N) to Samoilov Island (72.38 °N) in the Lena Delta (Fig. 1A). A total of 33 sites were
151 sampled along the main stem, together with two major tributaries (Aldan and Vilyui) and four smaller
152 tributaries (Seen-Yurekh, Undyulyung, Byusyuttak, and Molodo). Regular stops at ~50 km intervals
153 along the main channel enabled systematic sampling of major hydrochemical parameters and greenhouse
154 gases (GHG) along the longitudinal river gradient. This transect design aimed to resolve changes in solute
155 composition, carbon speciation, and CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations in relation to northward permafrost
156 gradients, lithological transitions, and contrasting tributary inputs. At selected confluences, sampling was
157 performed 200–500 m upstream of the mixing zone to obtain representative tributary water and avoid
158 backwater and incomplete mixing effects. Longitudinal transect sampling is widely used to assess river
159 water chemistry in large and climatically extreme basins (Huh and Edmond, 1999; Spence and Telmer,
160 2005). Sampling during the high-flow season also provides the closest agreement with annual flux
161 estimates derived from time series, because this period accounts for a large share of annual water and
162 solute export (Qin et al., 2006).

163

164 2.3. *Hydrology and water surface area estimation*

165 July corresponds to the high-flow period of the Lena River, representing the recession phase of
166 the spring freshet. Although peak discharge typically occurs in June, river levels remain elevated in July



167 due to delayed snowmelt from northern and high-elevation sub-basins and continued active-layer
168 development in permafrost-dominated terrains. Hydrographs for the studied large rivers were constructed
169 using discharge data from the Automated Information System of the State Monitoring of Water Bodies
170 (<https://gmvo.skniivh.ru/>). These time series were used to position the sampling campaign within the
171 seasonal hydrograph and to assess deviations from long-term mean discharge during the sampling period.
172 To characterize hydrological and geomorphological controls on river chemistry, watershed-scale
173 parameters were calculated for each sampling point (Fig. 1A), including total watershed area, river
174 network density, and total watercourse length. These parameters were derived from HydroSHEDS
175 shapefiles (<https://www.hydrosheds.org/>) using standard GIS procedures.

176 Water surface area was quantified from Landsat 8–9 Level-2 surface reflectance products
177 (Collection 2) acquired during 5–22 July 2022. Cloud-free scenes were atmospherically corrected,
178 orthorectified, mosaicked, and processed in ArcGIS. Water bodies were delineated using the Normalized
179 Difference Water Index (NDWI) and Modified NDWI (MNDWI), based on green, near-infrared, and
180 shortwave infrared bands, with thresholds calibrated for Lena River conditions, including turbid waters.
181 Classified rasters were converted to polygon shapefiles and manually corrected along shorelines, shallow
182 areas, and zones affected by suspended sediments or aquatic vegetation. In total, 269 water polygons
183 were identified. To improve area accuracy, polygons were subdivided using the Fishnet tool, and surface
184 areas were calculated individually using planar geometry within appropriate WGS 84 / UTM projection
185 zones. Delineation accuracy was visually checked against high-resolution imagery (e.g., Google Earth)
186 and river morphology.

187 Water discharge at each sampling point and date was estimated from gauging-station data by
188 linear interpolation and hydraulic scaling along the main stem and tributaries, accounting for incremental
189 drainage area and tributary inflows. Surface water discharge, watershed area, river network length, and
190 latitude (used as an integrative proxy of climatic and permafrost gradients) were then compared with
191 surface-water chemistry to assess controls on dissolved major elements, trace elements, and carbon
192 species.

193



194 *2.2. CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations*

195 Dissolved CO₂ in surface waters was measured in situ using a portable infrared gas analyzer
196 (IRGA; GMT222 CARBOCAP® probe, Vaisala®; accuracy ±1.5%) operating in two ranges (0–2,000
197 and 0–10,000 ppm). The sensor was installed in the vessel's Kingston water intake system, where
198 continuous flow (~20 L min⁻¹) ensured constant renewal of river water during navigation. For aqueous
199 deployment, the probe was protected by a gas-permeable, waterproof expanded polytetrafluoroethylene
200 (PTFE) membrane, which allows rapid CO₂ diffusion while preventing water intrusion (Johnson et al.,
201 2009). A copper mesh was added to reduce potential biofouling (Yoon et al., 2016), although such effects
202 were expected to be minimal in the cold, low-impacted Lena waters.

203 At each station, the sensor was equilibrated for ~10 min before measurement. CO₂ concentration
204 (ppm), water temperature (°C), and atmospheric pressure (mbar) were logged every minute using a
205 Campbell data logger during 5-min measurement sequences repeated every 30 min, yielding 153
206 individual records. For the main stem, values were averaged over three consecutive 5-min sequences,
207 each representing ~1.25 km of river distance. At tributary confluences, measurements were performed
208 200–500 m upstream of the mixing zone. Sensors were calibrated before and after the expedition against
209 certified gas standards (0, 800, 3,000, and 8,000 ppm), yielding linear relationships with R² > 0.99.
210 Instrumental drift ranged from 0.03 to 0.06% d⁻¹, and post-processing corrections for temperature and
211 pressure followed Johnson et al. (2009). Overall uncertainty of individual pCO₂ measurements was
212 ≤10%.

213 Methane concentrations were determined from unfiltered water collected in 60 mL serum bottles
214 without headspace, preserved with 0.2 mL saturated HgCl₂, and analyzed in the laboratory by headspace
215 equilibration with ultra-high-purity N₂. Two 0.5 mL aliquots of the equilibrated headspace were
216 measured on a Bruker GC-456 gas chromatograph equipped with flame ionization and thermal
217 conductivity detectors. Calibration was performed every 10 samples using certified standards (Air
218 Liquide; 145 ppmv), and duplicate injections showed reproducibility within ±5%. Dissolved CH₄
219 concentrations were calculated from headspace measurements using temperature-dependent solubility
220 coefficients (Yamamoto et al., 1976) and mass-balance equations. Combined uncertainty of CH₄



221 concentrations was estimated at 7–12%. These analytical uncertainties are small relative to the observed
222 spatial gradients in CO₂ and CH₄ and do not affect the interpretation of longitudinal and tributary-scale
223 patterns.

224

225 *2.3. Flux measurement and calculation*

226 Diffusive CO₂ fluxes (F_{CO_2}) were measured using two floating chambers (ca. 30 cm diameter,
227 ~10 L volume) equipped with non-dispersive infrared CO₂ sensors (SenseAir). Sensors were calibrated
228 in the laboratory against certified N₂–CO₂ gas mixtures prior to field deployment. During measurements,
229 chambers floated freely at the water surface, and headspace CO₂ was logged continuously over 5-min
230 intervals. Fluxes were calculated from the initial linear accumulation phase using the first 30 min of
231 deployment (Serikova et al., 2018; Vorobyev et al., 2024).

232 In addition to direct chamber measurements, diffusive CO₂ fluxes were independently estimated
233 using the bulk gas exchange equation of Cai and Wang (1998):

$$234 F_{CO_2} = K_h k_{CO_2} (C_{water} - C_{air}), \quad (1)$$

235 where K_h is the Henry's constant corrected for temperature and pressure (mol L⁻¹ atm⁻¹), k_{CO_2} is the gas
236 exchange velocity at a given temperature, C_{water} is the water CO₂ concentration, and C_{air} is the CO₂
237 concentration in the ambient air. Conversion between dissolved concentration and partial pressure
238 followed Wanninkhof et al. (1992) and Lauerwald et al. (2015). Atmospheric CO₂ for July 2022 was
239 taken as 417.9 ppm from the WMO global monitoring network, consistent with the nearest Tiksi station
240 (422.5 ppm; <https://community.wmo.int/wmo-greenhouse-gas-bulletins>;
241 <https://www.meteorf.gov.ru/product/infomaterials/90/>). Temperature-dependent solubility constants
242 followed Wanninkhof et al. (1992).

243 A median gas transfer velocity of 4.46 m d⁻¹ was adopted from measurements in four major
244 Western Siberian rivers (Karlsson et al., 2021), consistent with previous estimates for the Lena River
245 (Vorobyev et al., 2021a), the Kolyma (Denfeld et al., 2013), the Yukon (Striegl et al., 2012), and global
246 syntheses for large rivers (Alin et al., 2011; Raymond et al., 2013). Wind speeds during sampling were



247 below 3.7 m s^{-1} and water surfaces were visually smooth, supporting the use of this literature-constrained
248 K_T value (Jähne et al., 1987; Alin et al., 2011; Guérin et al., 2007).

249 Instantaneous diffusive CH_4 fluxes were calculated using an equation analogous to Eq. (1), with
250 gas transfer velocities derived from chamber-measured CO_2 fluxes and in situ CO_2 concentrations,
251 following approaches used for Western Siberian rivers (Serikova et al., 2018; Lim et al., 2022; Vorobyev
252 et al., 2024). Dissolved CH_4 concentrations were combined with atmospheric equilibrium concentrations
253 assuming a background atmospheric $p\text{CH}_4$ of 1.8 ppm and the 2022 mean atmospheric CH_4 concentration
254 from Mauna Loa Observatory (http://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/products/trends/ch4/ch4_annmean_gl.txt),
255 following Serikova et al. (2018, 2019). Flux uncertainty was dominated by variability in gas transfer
256 velocity rather than by analytical uncertainty in dissolved gas concentrations. Concentration uncertainty
257 contributed comparatively little ($\leq 10\%$ for CO_2 and 7–12% for CH_4), whereas k_{CH_4} may vary by ± 40 –
258 60% depending on hydraulic conditions (Raymond et al., 2013). Sensitivity analysis showed that using
259 a conservative k_{CH_4} value of 3 m d^{-1} instead of 4.46 m d^{-1} would decrease calculated CO_2 emissions by
260 about 30%, while preserving the spatial patterns along the transect. Because the objective of this study is
261 to resolve relative gradients between tributaries and main-stem sections rather than derive absolute
262 annual budgets, the adopted k_{CH_4} parameterization provides a robust and internally consistent basis for
263 comparative flux analysis.

264

265 *2.4. Physicochemical parameters and laboratory analyses*

266 In situ dissolved oxygen, specific conductivity, and water temperature were measured at ~ 20 cm
267 depth using a WTW 3320 multimeter equipped with a CelloX 325 oxygen probe ($\pm 5\%$), a TetraCon 325
268 conductivity sensor ($\pm 1.5\%$), and a temperature sensor (± 0.2 °C). pH was measured with a portable
269 Hanna instrument fitted with a combined Schott glass electrode, calibrated daily with NIST-traceable
270 buffers (pH 4.01, 6.86, and 9.18 at 25 °C), yielding an uncertainty of ± 0.01 pH units. Buffer temperatures
271 were kept within ± 5 °C of river water temperature.

272 Surface water was collected from 20–30 cm depth near the channel center into pre-cleaned
273 polypropylene bottles and immediately filtered through sterile single-use Sartorius filters ($0.45 \mu\text{m}$). The



274 first 50 mL of filtrate were discarded. Milli-Q blanks confirmed negligible DOC contamination from the
275 filters. Filtered samples were split into aliquots: one was acidified to 2% (v/v) with bidistilled HNO₃ in
276 pre-cleaned polypropylene vials for major and trace element analyses; the second, non-acidified fraction
277 was used for DOC, DIC, and UV absorbance. Samples were stored at 4 °C and analyzed within 30 days.
278 DOC and DIC were measured with a Shimadzu TOC-VSCN analyzer (detection limit 0.1 mg L⁻¹;
279 precision ±3%). Nutrients were analyzed on frozen filtered samples by ion chromatography (Dionex ICS-
280 5000+) with ±2% uncertainty; certified reference materials Ion-915 and Ion-964 were within 10% of
281 certified values. Major and trace elements were determined in acidified samples by ICP-MS (Agilent
282 8500ce, Ar and He modes). Precision ranged from 5–10% at 1–1000 µg L⁻¹ to 10–20% at 0.001–0.1 µg
283 L⁻¹. Accuracy and reproducibility were checked using SLRS-6 and three in-house multi-element
284 standards every 20 samples (Yeghicheyan et al., 2019), with agreement within 10–15% for 40 elements.

285 Ten selected samples were additionally processed by dialysis (1 kDa cutoff) to distinguish low-
286 molecular-weight (<1 kDa) and colloidal (1 kDa–0.45 µm) fractions. River water was pre-screened
287 through a 20 µm nylon mesh and placed in cleaned 5 L polyethylene containers; pre-cleaned 50 mL
288 dialysis bags were immersed for 3–5 days following established procedures (Vasyukova et al., 2010;
289 Pokrovsky et al., 2016b; Kolesnichenko et al., 2021). Containers were kept dark at near in situ
290 temperature and gently agitated. Dissolved solute concentrations before and after dialysis differed by
291 <10% ($p < 0.01$), indicating negligible alteration of dissolved and colloidal composition during
292 incubation.

293 Total bacterial cell concentration (TBC) was measured by flow cytometry after fixation with
294 glutaraldehyde, following Marie et al. (1999).

295

296 *2.5. Statistical treatment of the data*

297 Depending on data distribution, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to assess linear
298 relationships between variables, and statistical significance was evaluated at $p < 0.05$. To further identify
299 the dominant drivers of dissolved carbon variability (CO₂, DIC, and DOC), multivariate statistical
300 analysis was performed using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This approach allowed us to assess



301 the combined influence of hydrochemical parameters (major ions, nutrients, trace elements), hydrological
302 variables (discharge, watershed area), and climatic factors (e.g., latitude as an integrative proxy) on
303 spatial patterns of dissolved carbon in river waters. Prior to PCA, all variables were standardized to zero
304 mean and unit variance to eliminate bias related to differences in measurement units and value ranges.
305 The analysis was performed using STATISTICA 7 (StatSoft Inc., <http://www.statsoft.com>). Principal
306 components were extracted from the raw data matrix using the covariance structure of standardized
307 variables.

308 The number of significant components was determined using a scree plot analysis, where
309 eigenvalues were plotted in descending order against component number. A pronounced decrease in
310 eigenvalues between the first (F1) and second (F2) components indicated that the majority of explained
311 variance was captured by the first two factors. Consequently, only these two principal components were
312 retained for interpretation.

313

314 **3. Results**

315 *3.1. Hydrological parameters*

316 Hydrograph analysis (**Fig. 1 B**) indicates that river discharge during the study period was
317 primarily sustained by groundwater contributions and rainfall inputs following the spring snowmelt peak.
318 By July, the Lena River was in the recession phase of the freshet, characterized by gradually declining
319 but still elevated discharge sustained by subsurface flow and delayed runoff from northern and high-
320 latitude sub-basins. The estimated water travel time between the upstream gauging station at Tabaga and
321 the downstream station at Kyusur was approximately 12 days under the observed hydrological
322 conditions. This relatively short transit time implies efficient downstream propagation of water masses
323 and associated solutes along the main stem during high-flow conditions.

324 The drainage network of the Lena basin is well developed, with a mean river network density of
325 0.22 km km^{-2} . According to Strahler's classification, stream order within the basin ranges from first-
326 order headwater streams to ninth-order channels along the main stem, reflecting the hierarchical
327 organization and large spatial integration of tributary inputs. Hydrologically, 2022 corresponded to a



328 relatively high-flow year when compared to long-term records prior to the 1970s. Mean annual discharge
329 reached $10,501 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at Tabaga and $19,745 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at Kyusur, placing 2022 among the upper range of
330 historical values. However, in the context of the past two decades, these values fall within the range of
331 average annual discharge reported by the Russian Federal Service for Hydrometeorology and
332 Environmental Monitoring (Roshydromet), consistent with recent assessments (Juhls et al., 2025). Thus,
333 while elevated relative to early historical records, hydrological conditions during the expedition were
334 representative of contemporary flow regimes in the Lena River. The combination of high discharge, rapid
335 downstream water transit (~ 12 days), and strong tributary integration created conditions favorable for
336 efficient longitudinal transport of dissolved carbon species and greenhouse gases, setting the framework
337 for interpreting spatial gradients in CO_2 , CH_4 , DIC, DOC, and associated emission fluxes.

338

339 *3.2. Dissolved carbon species and greenhouse gases along the Lena continuum*

340 Under the elevated but hydrologically representative discharge conditions of July 2022, the Lena
341 River system provides an opportunity to evaluate how basin-wide connectivity, tributary integration, and
342 northward climatic gradients regulate dissolved carbon pools and greenhouse gas dynamics. Below, we
343 describe the spatial distribution of pCO_2 , CH_4 , DIC, and DOC along the main stem and tributaries, and
344 quantify associated diffusive carbon fluxes.

345 The principal hydrochemical carbon parameters of the Lena River main stem (pCO_2 , CH_4 , pH,
346 O_2 , E.C., DIC, and DOC) are summarized in **Table 1**. Along the main stem, concentration of DIC
347 increased by a factor of 1.5 from south to north (**Fig. 2 A**) whereas DOC did not exhibit any systematic
348 longitudinal trends (**Fig. 2 B**). Mean concentrations were $8.4 \pm 2.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for DOC and $7.5 \pm 2.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$
349 for DIC. These values are consistent with previous observations during summer baseflow conditions,
350 when DOC concentrations averaged around 5 mg L^{-1} (range $2\text{--}12 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$; Cauwet and Sidorov, 1996;
351 Lara et al., 1998; Lobbes et al., 2000; Kuzmin et al., 2009; Kutscher et al., 2017). Similarly, DIC
352 concentrations are comparable to reported summer values ($\sim 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$; range $5\text{--}50 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) and agree
353 with measurements from Yakutsk in July (Sun et al., 2018; Juhls et al., 2025). These values are also
354 consistent with measurements carried out in late August-early September 1995 a shipboard investigation



355 along a 1700 km section from Yakutsk to Stolb Island - beginning of the Lena Delta: average
356 concentrations of DOC and DIC were around 7 and 10 mg L⁻¹, respectively (Semiletov et al., 2011).

357 Discrete pCO₂ measurements along the main stem indicated a weak northward decrease (**Fig. 2**
358 **C**). The mean pCO₂ during July 2022 was 1020 ± 420 μatm (median 892 μatm; range 600–2600 μatm),
359 exceeding values previously reported for the lower Lena during late summer. For example, Semiletov
360 (1999) and Semiletov et al. (2011) reported an average pCO₂ of 538 ± 96 μatm (range 380–727 μatm)
361 for August–September 1995, while Pipko et al. (2010) measured 559 μatm in July 2003. Thus, pCO₂
362 levels during the present study were approximately twofold higher than earlier late-summer assessments.
363 Floating chamber measurements yielded CO₂ fluxes (FCO₂) ranging from 0.11 to 0.82 g C–CO₂ m⁻² d⁻¹
364 along the main stem (**Fig. 2 D**). Using measured pCO₂ values and a literature-constrained gas transfer
365 velocity of 4.46 m d⁻¹ (Karlsson et al., 2021; Vorobyev et al., 2021a), CO₂ fluxes were calculated along
366 the entire studied main stem (1153 km). Estimated fluxes ranged from near-zero or slightly negative
367 values (atmospheric uptake in the Aldan River) to between 0.1 and 1.3 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ in most main stem
368 and tributary sections (**Fig. 2 D**).

369 Methane concentrations in the main stem were low (mean 0.22 μmol L⁻¹; median 0.08 μmol L⁻¹)
370 and displayed no significant longitudinal trend (**Fig. 2 E**). These values closely match CH₄ concentrations
371 reported during the spring flood in the upper and middle Lena (0.059 ± 0.006 μmol L⁻¹; interquartile
372 range 0.025–0.199 μmol L⁻¹; Vorobyev et al., 2021) and are also consistent with data from the lower
373 Lena (0.03–0.085 μmol L⁻¹; Bussmann, 2013). With the exception of one floodplain lake sample—
374 characterized by both elevated pCO₂ and CH₄—no systematic difference was observed between the main
375 stem and tributaries (**Table S1**). As previously reported (Vorobyev et al., 2021), CH₄ concentrations were
376 approximately 100–500 times lower than CO₂ concentrations. Consequently, diffusive CH₄ emissions
377 accounted for less than 0.5% of total carbon emissions (**Fig. 2 F**) and are not further considered in the
378 overall catchment-scale carbon budget.

379 When continuous pCO₂ measurements along the main stem (153 individual data points, with
380 mean distance of 7.25 km) are examined along the south–north transect together with discrete
381 observations from tributaries (**Fig. 3 A**), major tributary confluences emerge as clear discontinuities in



382 the longitudinal pattern. These zones are characterized by abrupt increases or decreases in CO₂
383 concentration, reflecting the input of waters with contrasting biogeochemical signatures. A similar
384 pattern is observed for calculated continuous CO₂ fluxes (**Fig. 3 B**). The Vilyui River exhibited the
385 highest emissions (up to 1.3 g C-CO₂ m⁻² d⁻¹), highlighting its role as a major localized source of CO₂
386 to the main stem. In contrast, the Aldan River acted as a weak net CO₂ sink during the sampling period,
387 indicating substantial spatial variability in tributary influence. Despite this pronounced local
388 heterogeneity, the main stem displayed relatively stable bulk carbon characteristics. DOC concentrations
389 remained spatially uniform, and DIC showed only a weak longitudinal trend, whereas pCO₂ and FCO₂
390 exhibited dynamic variability controlled by tributary inputs and in-stream processes. As a result, the Lena
391 River functioned as a persistent net source of CO₂ to the atmosphere during July 2022. In contrast, CH₄
392 concentrations were low and spatially invariant, contributing only marginally to total carbon emissions.
393 This pattern further supports the decoupling between bulk dissolved carbon pools and CO₂ evasion, with
394 tributaries acting as primary modulators of short-scale variability along the river continuum.

395

396

397 *3.3. Areal emission from the Low Lena River basin*

398 Previous assessments of areal CO₂ emissions from lotic waters of the Lena River basin (Vorobyev
399 et al., 2021a) were based on estimates of total river surface coverage for the entire watershed (28,197
400 km² in 2016, including 5,022 km² of seasonal water; Global SDG database). This estimate agrees well
401 with the Global River Widths from Landsat (GRWL) Mask database value of 22,479 km². In contrast,
402 the present study focuses specifically on the Low Lena sector, between Yakutsk and Kyusur (1,551,445
403 km² land area), encompassing 12,904 km² of water surface including the main stem (7529 km²) and
404 the two largest tributaries, the Aldan and the Vilyui (2377 and 2998 km², respectively).

405 For emission calculations, we adopted conservative summer baseflow conditions corresponding
406 to the hydrological period of our expedition. Earlier work on Lena basin carbon emissions (Vorobyev et
407 al., 2021) identified a major uncertainty in regional flux estimates due to the absence of direct pCO₂
408 measurements over ~1000 km of the northern main stem downstream of the Aldan confluence, including



409 the large Vilyui tributary. The present dataset fills this gap through continuous in situ pCO₂ measurements
410 and direct chamber-based flux determinations in this hydrologically and climatically sensitive section of
411 the basin. During the spring flood, the Aldan River—contributing up to 70% of Lena discharge during
412 peak freshet (Pipko et al., 2010)—was previously reported as a strong CO₂ source ($3.2 \pm 0.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$),
413 compared to $1.69 \pm 0.08 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ upstream of the confluence (Vorobyev et al., 2021). In contrast,
414 during July 2022, the Aldan did not act as a significant CO₂ emitter (measured FCO₂ = $-0.03 \text{ } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
415 s^{-1} ; pCO₂ = 1014 μatm), indicating strong seasonal contrasts in carbon evasion dynamics. Conversely,
416 the Vilyui River exhibited the highest chamber-measured emissions ($1.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$; pCO₂ = 1340 μatm),
417 exceeding main-stem values by more than a factor of three. Note that calculated fluxes for these two
418 tributaries were much more similar, amounting to 0.31 and 0.485 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively.

419 For areal emission calculations along the main stem, we used the chamber-derived mean CO₂
420 flux of $0.33 \pm 0.20 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ($n = 12$) measured along the south–north transect. By comparison, fluxes
421 calculated from continuous and discrete pCO₂ measurements (mean $957 \pm 230 \text{ } \mu\text{atm}$, $n = 153$) using a
422 gas transfer velocity of $K_T = 4.46 \text{ m d}^{-1}$ —consistent with previous applications to large Siberian rivers
423 (Karlsson et al., 2022; Vorobyev et al., 2021a)—yielded nearly identical values ($0.32 \pm 0.20 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).
424 The experimentally derived piston velocity obtained from paired chamber flux and pCO₂ measurements
425 averaged $K_T = 8.82 \pm 6.76 \text{ m d}^{-1}$, indicating spatially variable and locally enhanced gas exchange
426 conditions in the Low Lena reaches. Such elevated values likely reflect periods of increased turbulence
427 associated with strong northerly winds aligned with the main river channel, producing long fetch and
428 enhanced surface mixing. Despite this variability, the agreement between chamber-derived fluxes and
429 those calculated using $K_T \approx 4 \text{ m d}^{-1}$ suggests that the globally averaged gas transfer velocity proposed by
430 Raymond et al. (2013), and applied in previous studies of large Siberian rivers (Karlsson et al., 2022;
431 Vorobyev et al., 2021a), provides a reasonable and robust approximation for estimating CO₂ emissions
432 from the lower Lena River.

433 Therefore, for basin-scale calculations, we adopted fluxes derived using a gas transfer velocity of
434 $K_T = 4.464 \text{ m d}^{-1}$, consistent with chamber-constrained estimates and representative of the full variability
435 observed along the main stem between Yakutsk and Kyusur (**Fig. 2 C, D** and **Fig. 3**). Emission estimates



436 were area-weighted by accounting for the relative water surface occupied by the main stem (58% of the
437 total Low Lena water area) and by incorporating the contributions of the two largest tributaries, the Vilyui
438 and Aldan Rivers, which represent 23% and 18% of the total water surface area, respectively. The
439 resulting water-area-weighted CO₂ emission estimate for the Low Lena during the transition from the
440 end of the spring flood to the onset of baseflow equals $0.36 \pm 0.15 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. These revised emission
441 estimates, constrained by direct chamber measurements and hydrodynamic adjustment of gas transfer
442 velocity, provide a refined carbon budget for the Low Lena and set the stage for examining how spatial
443 variability in major and trace solutes reflects the lithological, hydrological, and permafrost controls
444 underlying these carbon dynamics.

445

446 3.4. Spatial pattern of major and trace solutes

447 All measured hydrochemical parameters for the Low Lena River and its tributaries are reported
448 in Table S1 (Supplementary Excel file). Based on longitudinal trends along the main stem, three principal
449 groups of solutes were identified: (i) Low-solubility trivalent and tetravalent elements and strong
450 hydrolysates, exhibiting a significant northward decrease in concentration (**Fig. 4**). This group includes
451 Al, Sc, Ga, Y, rare earth elements (REEs), Ti, Th, U, Be, and Nb. These elements are typically associated
452 with particulate or colloidal phases and display conservative removal or dilution along the river
453 continuum. (ii) Labile major cations and anions (including carbonate-related species), showing
454 increasing concentrations from south to north (**Fig. 5**). This group comprises DIC, SO₄²⁻, B, Mg, P, Ca,
455 Sr, As, Se, and Sb, consistent with progressive downstream integration of groundwater inputs and
456 lithological controls. (iii) Components without statistically significant longitudinal trends, defined by
457 correlation coefficients $|r| < 0.3$ ($p > 0.05$) with the latitude (**Table S2**). This category includes DOC,
458 greenhouse gases (CO₂ and CH₄), major anions (Cl⁻, F⁻, NO₃⁻), Si, K, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, Co, Cd,
459 Rb, Mo, Cs, Ba, Hf, W, Tl, Pb, and Bi. These solutes exhibited spatial variability but no systematic south–
460 north gradient along the main channel.

461 In addition to longitudinal patterns, distinct local anomalies were observed in certain tributaries.
462 For example, Mn concentrations in the Undyulyung River (LIV 17) exceeded adjacent main-stem values



463 by a factor of 27. Similarly, Fe and Mn concentrations in the Byusyuttakh and Molodo tributaries (LIV
464 28 and LIV 29) were elevated relative to the main channel by factors of approximately 2 and 5,
465 respectively. However, such deviations were not widespread. For most elements, concentrations in
466 tributaries were comparable to those measured in neighboring main-stem sections, typically within $\pm 30\%$
467 of adjacent values. This overall similarity indicates efficient mixing and strong integration of tributary
468 inputs within the large-channel hydrodynamic framework of the Low Lena. The contrasted longitudinal
469 behavior of solutes reflects the superposition of at least two first-order controls along the Low Lena
470 continuum: (i) progressive hydrological integration and groundwater contributions enhancing mobile,
471 carbonate-related species (DIC, Ca, Mg, Sr, SO_4^{2-}), and (ii) downstream dilution and/or sedimentation
472 of low-solubility hydrolysates and colloid-associated trivalent–tetravalent elements (Al, REEs, Ti, Th,
473 U). In contrast, the majority of elements and DOC displayed spatial variability without a systematic
474 northward gradient, suggesting compensation between source inputs, in-stream processing, and
475 hydrodynamic mixing within the large-channel system.

476

477 *3.5. Correlations and multiparametric treatment*

478 Multivariate statistical treatment was restricted to the Lena main stem ($n = 27$), as the number of
479 sampled tributaries ($n = 6$) was insufficient for robust statistical analysis. Pairwise Pearson correlation
480 analysis revealed several significant ($p < 0.05$) relationships among dissolved constituents. pCO_2 showed
481 positive correlations with labile major ions, including F^- , Cl^- , and Na^+ , suggesting linkage to water–rock
482 interaction and/or groundwater inputs. Diffusive CO_2 flux was positively correlated with DOC ($R^2 =$
483 0.40; **Fig. 6 A**), nutrients (P, K), and selected trace metals (V, Ni), as listed in **Table S2**. In contrast, CH_4
484 concentrations did not exhibit statistically significant correlations with any measured hydrochemical
485 parameter. DIC concentrations correlated positively with mobile anions (e.g., Br^-), nutrients (Si, P, Rb),
486 and redox-sensitive or labile oxyanions such as As, with a strong linear relationship shown in **Fig. 6 B**.
487 Aluminum, representing low-solubility lithogenic elements, displayed strong positive correlations with
488 trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates including Ti, Ga, Y, and REEs (**Fig. 6 C, D**), and to a lesser extent



489 with Th and U. These relationships indicate a shared lithogenic origin and likely transport in colloidal or
490 fine particulate form.

491 To further disentangle the structure of covariation among solutes, Principal Component Analysis
492 (PCA) was applied to the standardized dataset. Two principal components explained 23% and 13% of
493 the total variance, respectively (**Fig. 7; Table S3**). The first factor (F1) was positively loaded on
494 lithogenic, low-solubility elements including Be, Al, Ti, Ga, Y, Nb, REEs, and Th, consistent with a
495 common refractory mineral source and transport via colloidal phases (see next Section 3.6). This factor
496 exhibited negative loadings for highly soluble and mobile constituents such as B, SO_4^{2-} , DIC, Mg, and
497 Sr, suggesting an opposing control linked to groundwater connectivity and carbonate weathering inputs.
498 The second factor (F2) primarily captured latitudinal variability and was associated with DOC, labile
499 nutrients (P, K, V, Mo), and several mobile trace elements (Co, Ni, As, Sb, Cs), but also included
500 refractory elements such as Sc, Zr, and Hf. This mixed loading pattern indicates combined influence of
501 surface-derived sources (e.g., plant litter leaching and soil organic matter mobilization) and lithogenic
502 contributions, potentially mediated by interaction with suspended particulate matter, as previously
503 observed in other Siberian river systems (Kolesnichenko et al., 2022; Lim et al., 2024). Notably, a
504 comparable PCA structure—distinguishing lithogenic/colloidal elements from soluble weathering-
505 derived constituents—was reported for the upper and middle Lena during peak spring flood conditions
506 (Vorobyev et al., 2021), suggesting persistent large-scale controls on solute organization across
507 hydrological seasons. The strong covariation among low-solubility lithogenic elements identified by
508 correlation and PCA analyses suggests a dominant role of colloidal transport; this hypothesis is directly
509 evaluated below using operational size-fractionation by dialysis.

510

511 *3.6. Colloidal Status of Major and Trace Elements in the Lena River and Tributaries*

512 Dialysis (1 kDa cutoff) enabled operational separation of nominal low-molecular-weight ($\text{LMW}_{<1}$
513 kDa) and colloidal (1 kDa–0.45 μm) fractions within the dissolved pool (<0.45 μm). The colloidal
514 proportion of each element was calculated as the percentage of its concentration in the 1 kDa–0.45 μm
515 fraction relative to its total dissolved concentration (< 0.45 μm). Across the northern Lena basin, the



516 relative contribution of colloidal forms was remarkably consistent between the main stem and tributaries
517 (**Fig. 8**). The colloidal fraction ranged from negligible values (0–10%) for highly soluble species such as
518 DIC, Li, and Si, to dominant proportions (80–90%) for trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates. Based on
519 colloidal abundance, three principal groups of solutes were distinguished: (1) Predominantly truly
520 dissolved species (0–20% colloidal fraction): Alkali and alkaline-earth metals (Li, Na, K, Rb, Mg, Ca,
521 Sr), major inorganic carbon (DIC), Si, and selected trace oxyanions (Mo, As). These elements are largely
522 present in low-molecular-weight forms and exhibit minimal association with colloidal phases. (2) Mixed
523 LMW–colloidal species (20–60% colloidal fraction): P, Al, and several trace metals (Cu, V, Sc, Ni, Cr,
524 Co, U) showed intermediate colloidal contributions. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) exhibited a mean
525 colloidal proportion of $41 \pm 14\%$, indicating that a substantial fraction of riverine organic carbon is
526 associated with supramolecular or organo-mineral colloidal structures. (3) Predominantly colloidal
527 elements (80–90% colloidal fraction): Certain divalent metals (Mn, Ba, Zn, Pb) and refractory lithogenic
528 hydrolysates (Fe, Ga, Y, REEs, Ti, Zr, Hf, Th, Be, Nb) were largely transported in colloidal form,
529 consistent with strong hydrolysis tendencies and association with Fe- and Al-rich mineral or organo-
530 mineral particles. No major difference in colloidal partitioning was observed between the main stem and
531 tributaries. In particular, DOC exhibited a remarkably uniform colloidal proportion ($41 \pm 14\%$) across
532 the main stem and four tributaries, including the largest ones (Vilyui and Aldan). The only notable
533 deviation occurred in a floodplain lake hydrologically disconnected from the main channel, where DOC,
534 Al, and Co displayed 20–30% higher colloidal fractions relative to fluvial waters. Overall, the Lena River
535 system exhibited a highly structured and spatially homogeneous colloidal organization, with refractory
536 lithogenic elements transported predominantly in colloidal form, mobile weathering-derived solutes
537 remaining largely truly dissolved, and DOC occupying an intermediate and remarkably stable colloidal
538 niche across the basin.

539

540

541



542 **4. DISCUSSION**

543 The Low Lena River during the post-freshet high-flow period exhibits a structured but internally
544 consistent hydrobiogeochemical organization. While bulk dissolved carbon pools (DOC and DIC)
545 remain relatively stable along the main stem, CO₂ persists in a state of supersaturation, sustaining
546 moderate but spatially variable atmospheric evasion. In parallel, major and trace solutes segregate into
547 distinct longitudinal patterns: mobile weathering-derived species progressively increase downstream,
548 low-solubility lithogenic hydrolysates decline, and the majority of redox-sensitive and nutrient elements
549 show no systematic gradient. Multivariate statistics and size-fractionation analyses further demonstrate
550 that this organization is governed by the interplay of groundwater connectivity, lithological control, and
551 colloidal transport, which together regulate both dissolved carbon dynamics and trace-element mobility.
552 Below, we place these observations into the broader context of Arctic river biogeochemistry and evaluate
553 the mechanisms controlling solute and greenhouse gas transport in the Low Lena basin.

554

555 *4.1. Latitudinal pattern of dissolved C in the Low Lena River basin*

556 The chamber-derived CO₂ emissions measured along ~800 km of the Low Lena main stem (0.1–
557 1.3 g C m⁻² d⁻¹) fall within the lower range of values previously reported for large Arctic and boreal
558 rivers. The resulting water-area-weighted CO₂ emission estimate for the Low Lena during the transition
559 from the end of the spring flood to the onset of baseflow equals 0.36 ± 0.15 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ (range 0.1 to 1.3
560 g C m⁻² d⁻¹) which is substantially lower than the 1.65 ± 0.5 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ (range 0.8 to 1.7 g C m⁻² d⁻¹)
561 previously reported for the upper and middle Lena during peak freshet (Vorobyev et al., 2021). This
562 seasonal difference likely reflects shifts in dominant metabolic and hydrological processes. During peak
563 snowmelt, large inputs of CO₂-rich soil and groundwater promote strong supersaturation and enhanced
564 outgassing. In contrast, later in the season, reduced lateral inputs combined with increasing in-stream
565 primary production, partial CO₂ uptake by photosynthesis, and degassing along the river continuum may
566 collectively decrease the net areal CO₂ flux.



567 The emissions of Low Lena main stem and tributaries during this period are also below those
568 reported for the Ob River main channel in permafrost-free regions ($1.32 \pm 0.14 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$; Karlsson et
569 al., 2021), small rivers within the continuous permafrost zone of western Siberia ($0.98 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$;
570 Serikova et al., 2018), and the Low Ob River during spring flood peak ($1.56 \pm 0.47 \text{ g C-CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$;
571 Vorobyev et al., 2024). At the same time, Lena's fluxes are very similar to those of the Kolyma River
572 main stem ($0.35 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$; Denfeld et al., 2013). Thus, under post-freshet summer conditions, the Low
573 Lena behaves as a moderate but persistent CO_2 source to the atmosphere, consistent with the broader
574 Arctic riverine carbon paradigm.

575 As previously documented for the upper and middle Lena during peak spring discharge
576 (Vorobyev et al., 2021), pCO_2 along the main stem exhibited marked short-distance variability (**Fig. 3**
577 **A**), reflecting the interplay of external inputs and in-stream processing. Tributary inflows with
578 contrasting CO_2 signatures are widely recognized as primary drivers of spatial heterogeneity in Arctic
579 river systems (Crawford et al., 2013; Leith et al., 2014, 2015; Hotchkiss et al., 2015; Dean et al., 2020;
580 Vonk et al., 2023). Superimposed on this lateral variability, internal riverine processes—including
581 turbulence-controlled gas exchange (Raymond et al., 2013; Rocher-Ros et al., 2023), sediment
582 resuspension and benthic respiration (Hopkinson, 1985; Humborg et al., 2010), and mineralization of
583 organic carbon in the water column (Cole et al., 2007; Attermeyer et al., 2018)—can modify CO_2
584 concentrations over short spatial scales. In permafrost-dominated catchments, additional variability
585 arises from lateral inflow of CO_2 -rich suprapermafrost waters derived from thawed active layers and
586 shallow groundwater pathways (Bagard et al., 2011; Vonk et al., 2015; Raudina et al., 2018; Vorobyev
587 et al., 2024; Krickov et al., 2026). Given that our measurements were averaged over $\sim 1.5 \text{ km}$ segments,
588 the observed fluctuations cannot be attributed to analytical noise but instead reflect genuine spatial
589 heterogeneity in CO_2 dynamics along the main channel.

590 Among all dissolved carbon variables, only pCO_2 displayed a statistically significant latitudinal
591 pattern, decreasing from south to north. This gradient likely reflects a combination of interacting controls.
592 First, southern reaches receive substantial contributions from the Aldan and Vilyui tributaries, whose
593 watersheds encompass extensive forested and more productive landscapes, promoting higher terrestrial



594 CO₂ inputs. Second, vegetation density and soil organic carbon stocks generally decline northward,
595 potentially reducing lateral CO₂ supply from soils. Third, progressive hydrological disconnection
596 between soil water and the river network toward the delta, together with increased channel width and
597 reduced turbulence, may enhance degassing efficiency and decrease downstream pCO₂. Collectively,
598 these factors suggest that the south-to-north decline in pCO₂ integrates shifts in terrestrial carbon supply,
599 tributary influence, and hydrodynamic processing along the Low Lena continuum.

600 Notably, the spatial behavior of pCO₂ is largely decoupled from that of bulk dissolved carbon
601 pools. Neither DOC nor DIC exhibited significant longitudinal trends ($R^2 < 0.18$), whereas pCO₂ declined
602 systematically northward ($R^2 > 0.52$) and showed pronounced local variability. This pattern indicates that
603 CO₂ supersaturation in the Lena main stem is not directly governed by total dissolved carbon
604 concentration but rather by the balance between production, lateral supply, and evasion processes. In
605 large Arctic rivers, DIC represents an integrated signal of carbonate weathering, groundwater inputs, and
606 in-stream carbon transformations, while pCO₂ responds more sensitively to short-term respiration,
607 suprapermfrost inflows, and hydrodynamic degassing (Mu et al., 2025). The absence of a clear coupling
608 between DOC or DIC concentrations and pCO₂ therefore suggests that CO₂ dynamics are controlled
609 primarily by process rates and hydrological connectivity rather than by the standing stock of dissolved
610 carbon. Such functional decoupling between carbon pools and gas supersaturation has been increasingly
611 recognized in high-latitude river systems, where rapid lateral exchange and efficient degassing can
612 maintain relatively stable DOC and DIC concentrations despite substantial CO₂ evasion (Crawford et al.,
613 2013; Karlsson et al., 2021; Vorobyev et al., 2024). In summary, while DOC and DIC remain relatively
614 uniform along the Low Lena main stem, CO₂ exhibits pronounced local variability and a coherent
615 latitudinal decrease, indicating that atmospheric evasion in this large Arctic river is primarily controlled
616 by spatial heterogeneity in terrestrial inputs and hydrodynamic processing rather than by bulk dissolved
617 carbon concentrations alone. To place these latitudinal carbon dynamics into a broader geochemical
618 context, it is essential to discuss other solute concentrations and compare them with long-term monitoring
619 records and to evaluate the mechanisms governing major and trace element export in the Low Lena basin.

620



621 4.2. Comparison with Other Data on Element Concentration in the Lena River and its Tributaries,
622 Possible Carriers and Mechanisms of Major and Trace Solute Export

623 4.2.1. Long-term consistency of major solutes and comparison with recent spatial surveys

624 Several datasets document major solute concentrations in the Lena main stem during summer baseflow.
625 The concentrations of major solutes measured in the present study (Na, Cl, Si, Ca, Mg, SO₄, DIC) agree
626 within 30% with values reported for the Yakutsk–Kjusur sector during July–August (Kuzmin et al.,
627 2009; Juhls et al., 2020). Similarly, comparison with long-term hydrochemical monitoring at the Kjusur
628 gauging station (Gordeev and Sidorov, 1993), as well as more recent datasets from the PARTNERS and
629 ARCTIC GRO programs (Cooper et al., 2008; Holmes et al., 2012; McClelland et al., 2015; Gordeev et
630 al., 2024) and high-frequency sampling at Samoylov Island (Juhls et al., 2025), demonstrates agreement
631 within 20–30% for Si, SO₄, Cl, F, Ca, K, Mg, Na, Al, Mn, and Sr at the northernmost sampling points.
632 Fe concentrations measured here were approximately two times higher, whereas NO₃ concentrations
633 were up to six times lower than previously reported. These deviations may reflect local redox conditions,
634 biological uptake, and space- and seasons-dependent partitioning of Fe between colloidal and particulate
635 phases (Hirst et al., 2020).

636 The most spatially extensive recent surveys of the lower Lena north of Yakutsk were conducted
637 by Swedish research teams (Murphy et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2018; Hirst et al., 2017, 2020; Mavromatis
638 et al., 2024). Dissolved concentrations of Li, Na, K, Mg, Si, Al, and Fe measured in this study fall within
639 the ranges reported for July–August conditions by these authors. This agreement across independent
640 expeditions underscores the reproducibility of Lena hydrochemistry during the open-water season and
641 suggests that contemporary climatic warming has not yet induced drastic shifts in bulk solute export
642 during summer baseflow. Variability in most solutes rarely exceeded a factor of 2–3, reinforcing the view
643 that the Low Lena behaves as a hydrologically integrated and chemically buffered system during this
644 period. Overall, the consistency across datasets spanning more than five decades and ~800 km of the
645 main stem indicates remarkable temporal and spatial stability of major solute concentrations during
646 summer baseflow conditions. Such stability is characteristic of large Arctic rivers where deep
647 groundwater inputs and basin-scale integration of surface flux buffer short-term variability.



648 4.2.2. Colloidal carriers and trace element mobility

649 Dissolved organic matter and DOM-stabilized Fe and Al oxyhydroxides are widely recognized
650 as dominant colloidal carriers of trace elements in boreal and permafrost-affected humic waters (Loiko
651 et al., 2017; Raudina et al., 2021; Stolpe et al., 2013a,b; Cuss et al., 2017, 2018, 2020; Vasyukova et al.,
652 2010; Ilina et al., 2016). Although based on a limited number of dialysis samples, our results confirm
653 that low-solubility trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates, as well as U, Cr, V, Pb, Mn, Zn, and Ba, are
654 predominantly transported in the colloidal (1 kDa–0.45 μ m) fraction.

655 Pairwise correlations further reveal two distinct geochemical associations. Nutrients and
656 relatively labile metals (Si, P, Li, K, Rb, V, Ni, Cu) correlate strongly with DOC, suggesting common
657 mobilization from organic-rich surface soils and plant litter followed by lateral transport along the
658 hydrological continuum (Krickov et al., 2026). In contrast, Al correlates with refractory lithogenic
659 elements (Ti, Y, REEs), consistent with mobilization from deeper mineral horizons or aluminosilicate
660 weathering (Bagard et al., 2011; Vasyukova et al., 2019), and possibly with release from reactive
661 suspended particulate matter (Krickov et al., 2020; Lim et al., 2024). Al shows negative relationships
662 with labile cations and anions (DIC, Ca, Mg, P, As), indicating contrasting source domains and transport
663 pathways between mineral-groundwater-derived solutes and colloid-associated lithogenic elements.

664 Colloids exert strong control on trace-element export due to their dual organic–mineral character.
665 Organic ligands of predominantly fulvic composition efficiently complex divalent transition metals,
666 whereas association of trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates—including uranyl species—with Fe and Al
667 oxyhydroxides stabilized by organic polymers represent highly effective pathways for enhancing the
668 apparent mobility of otherwise insoluble lithogenic elements (Vasyukova et al., 2010; Krickov et al.,
669 2019, 2025). Importantly, the colloidal organization observed in the Low Lena—entirely located within
670 the continuous permafrost zone—does not differ substantially from patterns reported for the Ob River
671 (Kolesnichenko et al., 2021), western Siberian rivers spanning a permafrost gradient (Krickov et al.,
672 2019), the permafrost-free Severnaya Dvina (Pokrovsky et al., 2010), or boreal rivers of northwestern
673 European Russia (Ilina et al., 2016; Vasyukova et al., 2010). The proportion of colloidal forms of
674 individual major and trace solutes within the three principal geochemical groups identified here varies



675 by less than $\pm 20\%$ relative to these systems. This convergence suggests that permafrost presence alone
676 does not fundamentally alter the colloidal transport architecture of large boreal and Arctic rivers during
677 summer baseflow, despite its strong influence on hydrological routing and active-layer dynamics. A
678 similar conclusion was reached in earlier studies of Fe-rich colloids in the Lena basin (Hirst et al., 2017).

679

680 4.2.3. Multivariate confirmation of transport structure

681 PCA results corroborate pairwise correlations and confirm the dual (colloidal versus dissolved)
682 control on solute export. The first factor separates lithogenic, low-solubility elements (Al and associated
683 trivalent/tetravalent trace elements) from highly soluble weathering-derived constituents (B, SO₄, DIC,
684 Mg, Sr), reflecting the contrast between colloidal transport and groundwater connectivity. The second
685 factor captures latitudinal variability in DOC and labile nutrients, highlighting the surface-derived
686 contribution to solute patterns. Similar factorial structures have been reported in rivers across western
687 Siberia (Kolesnichenko et al., 2021; Pokrovsky et al., 2016a, 2020, 2022a, b; Krickov et al., 2019, 2025,
688 2026; Vorobyev et al., 2024) and in the upper and middle Lena during spring flood (Vorobyev et al.,
689 2021b), indicating persistent large-scale controls on Arctic river solute organization across hydrological
690 seasons. Taken together, the agreement with long-term monitoring data and independent spatial surveys,
691 combined with size-fractionation and multivariate analyses, demonstrates that major solute export in the
692 Low Lena is buffered and groundwater-dominated, whereas trace-element mobility is largely governed
693 by stable organic and organo-mineral colloidal carriers, yielding a transport structure that is remarkably
694 consistent with other Arctic and boreal river systems.

695 Importantly, the dominance of stable organic–mineral colloidal carriers provides a mechanistic
696 explanation for the apparent decoupling between bulk dissolved carbon pools and CO₂ supersaturation
697 observed along the Low Lena main stem. While DOC and associated trace elements are largely
698 transported within organic supramolecular and organo-mineral colloids that buffer their concentrations
699 over long distances, CO₂ reflects the instantaneous balance between lateral supply, in-stream respiration,
700 and hydrodynamic evasion. In other words, the colloidal matrix stabilizes carbon and trace-element
701 stocks within the rather inert dissolved pool, whereas gaseous CO₂ responds rapidly to metabolic and



702 physical processing at very short temporal and spatial scale. This functional separation between
703 structurally buffered dissolved carbon and dynamically regulated CO₂ supersaturation may be a
704 characteristic feature of large Arctic rivers, where extensive basin integration and colloidal transport
705 dampen longitudinal variability in bulk solutes despite active atmospheric carbon exchange.

706

707 **5. Conclusions**

708 Large Arctic rivers are key regulators of lateral carbon transfer and atmospheric carbon exchange.
709 By combining continuous in situ pCO₂ measurements, chamber-based fluxes, multivariate statistics, and
710 size-fractionation analyses along ~800 km of the Low Lena main stem and its major tributaries, this study
711 provides an integrated view of carbon dynamics and solute transport in one of the world's largest
712 permafrost-dominated river systems.

713 During the post-freshet recession, CO₂ concentrations and emissions showed strong local
714 variability but no systematic south–north gradient. Fluxes were comparable to those reported for the
715 middle Lena, the Low Ob, and other large Siberian rivers, confirming the Lena as a moderate but
716 persistent CO₂ source during the open-water season. The highest emissions occurred in the Vilyui
717 tributary, underlining the role of large sub-basins in regulating main-stem carbon evasion. In contrast,
718 DOC and DIC remained relatively stable along the transect, highlighting a functional decoupling between
719 dissolved carbon pools and gaseous CO₂ dynamics.

720 Size-fractionation, correlation analysis, and PCA revealed a dual geochemical structure of
721 dissolved solutes. Mobile major ions, Si, and oxyanion-forming trace elements were mainly present in
722 truly dissolved form and reflected groundwater connectivity and interaction with soluble lithologies. By
723 contrast, lithogenic low-solubility elements, especially trivalent and tetravalent hydrolysates, were
724 transported predominantly in organo-mineral colloidal form and were associated with Al, Fe, and DOC,
725 indicating mobilization via surface and suprapermfrost flow pathways.

726 This organization is consistent with patterns reported for other Arctic and boreal rivers,
727 suggesting that colloidal buffering of refractory elements is a generic feature of organic-rich fluvial
728 systems. Continuous permafrost does not fundamentally alter this summer transport architecture, but



729 mainly controls hydrological routing and exchange with deeper groundwater. Under ongoing Arctic
730 warming, changes in discharge, vegetation, and surface-flow connectivity are therefore likely to affect
731 Lena hydrochemistry more strongly than direct thermal effects, while winter talik development may exert
732 stronger influence on labile solutes and inorganic carbon export.

733

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735 O.S.P, Y.Ya.K, S.N.V. performed the analyses; S.N.V and I.P.S. contributed to the interpretation of the
736 results. Y.Ya.K., I.P.S and O.S.P took the lead in writing the manuscript. All authors
737 provided critical feedback and helped shape the research, analysis and manuscript.

738

739 **Data availability:** All primary data are presented in the Supplementary Material

740

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746

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1212 **Table 1.** Hydrochemical parameters of the Lena River main stem averaged across the entire transect
 1213 from Yakutsk to Kuyusur. Elemental concentrations (Li to U) are in $\mu\text{g/L}$.

Parameter	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	Median	Minimum	Maximum
pH	19	7.19	0.19	7.18	6.78	7.70
T _{water} , °C	26	17.56	1.32	17.60	15.30	20.20
O ₂ , mg/L	26	9.25	0.35	9.19	8.61	9.92
CO ₂ , μatm	26	1019	419	892	609	2646
FCO ₂ , $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	11	0.29	0.17	0.25	0.11	0.68
CH ₄ , $\mu\text{mol/L}$	26	0.22	0.44	0.08	0.02	2.20
E.C., $\mu\text{S/cm}$	26	114	13	115	82	145
DIC, mg/L	26	8.42	2.66	8.47	4.07	18.45
DOC, mg/L	26	7.54	2.74	7.19	5.47	20.30
F ⁻ , mg/L	26	0.0665	0.02	0.07	0.03	0.12
Cl ⁻ , mg/L	26	3.52	2.13	3.41	0.60	9.71
Br ⁻ , mg/L	26	0.0028	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
N-NO ₃ ⁻ , mg/L	26	0.0155	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.03
S-SO ₄ ²⁻ , mg/L	26	3.35	1.54	2.97	1.49	6.50
P-PO ₄ ³⁻ , mg/L	18	0.0019	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
TBC, cells/mL	25	448680	383520	316930	59880	1341000
Li, $\mu\text{g/L}$	26	1.22	0.18	1.25	0.75	1.55
Be	26	0.0128	0.0029	0.0124	0.0086	0.022
B	26	9.58	2.81	8.63	3.30	17.4
Na	26	3411	1316	3580	1238	6526
Mg	26	2735	641	2706	1742	4120
Al	26	39.6	16.2	35.6	19.5	90.7
Si	26	1491	120	1501	1223	1780
P	26	5.55	2.09	4.9	3.1	10.8
K	26	530	238	432	338	1429
Ca	26	11160	4040	11040	6880	27380
Sc	26	0.0247	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.07
Ti	26	0.48	0.23	0.42	0.22	1.33
V	26	0.32	0.10	0.31	0.18	0.71
Cr	26	0.17	0.03	0.16	0.14	0.22
Mn	26	3.62	3.11	2.84	1.74	17.33
Fe	26	72.3	19.6	66.8	47.8	145
Co	26	0.056	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.15
Ni	26	0.54	0.29	0.45	0.33	1.76
Cu	26	1.30	0.78	0.95	0.73	4.50
Zn	26	70	160	25	4	835
Ga	26	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.08
As	26	0.16	0.05	0.17	0.09	0.34
Se	26	0.042	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.08
Rb	26	0.36	0.13	0.37	0.20	0.78
Sr	26	82.1	18.2	80.4	56.2	123.9
Y	26	0.17	0.05	0.17	0.10	0.34
Zr	26	0.12	0.08	0.11	0.06	0.51
Nb	26	0.0308	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.09
Mo	26	0.21	0.09	0.19	0.14	0.64



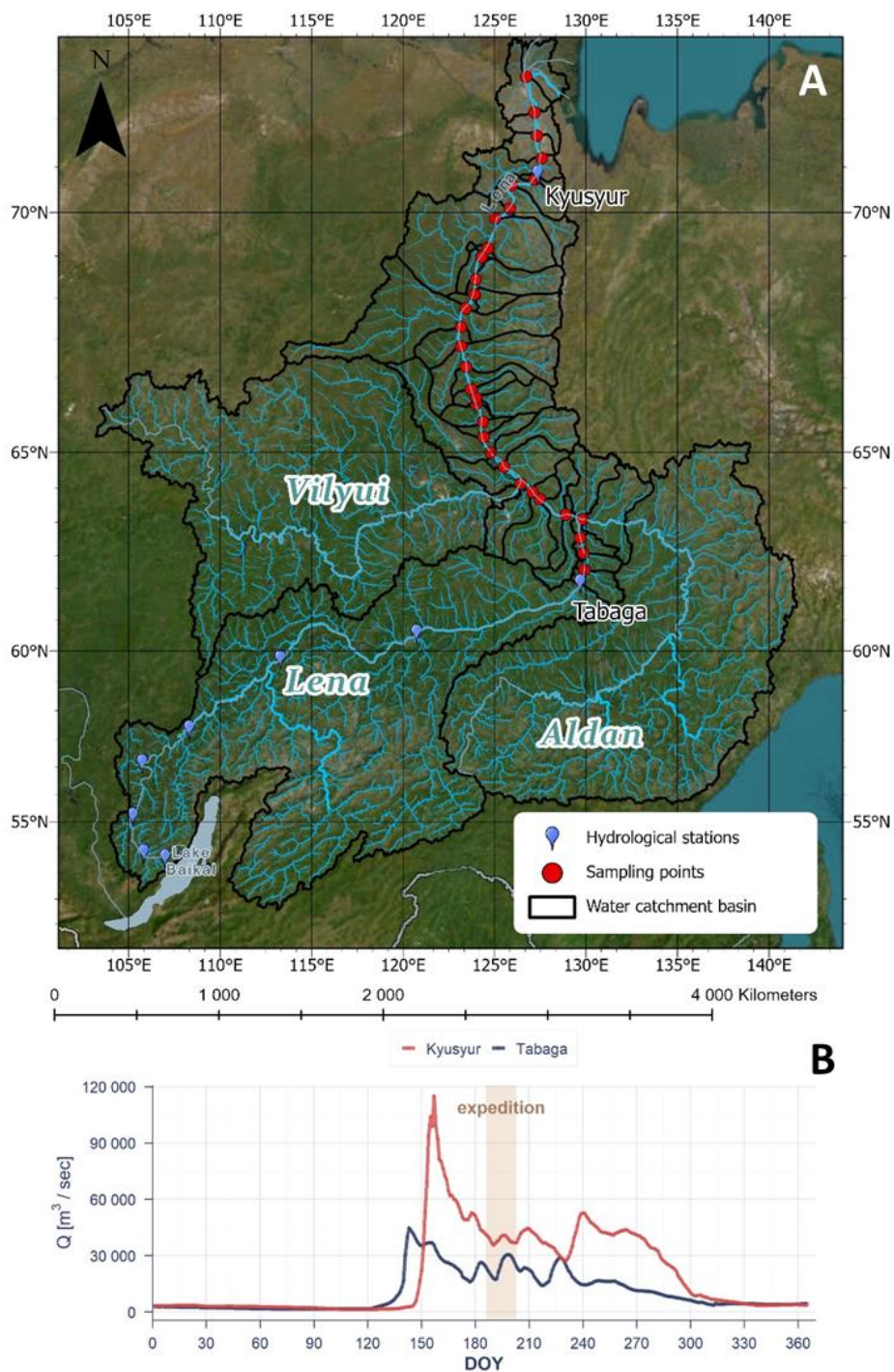
Cd	26	0.0199	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.10
Sn	25	0.33	1.12	0.04	0.00	5.52
Sb	26	0.029	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.07
Cs	26	0.0017	0.0007	0.0014	0.0008	0.0028
Ba	26	60.0	17.8	63.6	9.58	92
La	26	0.23	0.14	0.18	0.099	0.64
Ce	26	0.36	0.22	0.26	0.16	1.01
Pr	26	0.056	0.029	0.04	0.025	0.14
Nd	26	0.20	0.098	0.17	0.092	0.48
Sm	26	0.0435	0.016	0.04	0.022	0.086
Eu	26	0.0142	0.0025	0.01	0.010	0.019
Gd	26	0.0403	0.012	0.04	0.021	0.068
Tb	26	0.0055	0.0016	0.01	0.003	0.0089
Dy	26	0.0319	0.0093	0.03	0.017	0.055
Ho	26	0.0062	0.0018	0.01	0.0034	0.011
Er	26	0.0174	0.0052	0.02	0.0095	0.031
Tm	26	0.0024	0.0007	0.00	0.0014	0.0044
Yb	26	0.0162	0.0048	0.02	0.009	0.03
Lu	26	0.0024	0.0007	0.00	0.0013	0.0041
Hf	26	0.0890	0.049	0.08	0.049	0.31
W	26	0.0057	0.0025	0.01	0.0021	0.011
Tl	26	0.0015	0.0005	0.002	0.0007	0.003
Pb	26	0.090	0.038	0.08	0.05	0.19
Bi	26	0.0008	0.0002	0.00	0.0007	0.0013
Th	26	0.0309	0.024	0.02	0.0063	0.09
U	26	0.15	0.062	0.12	0.096	0.33

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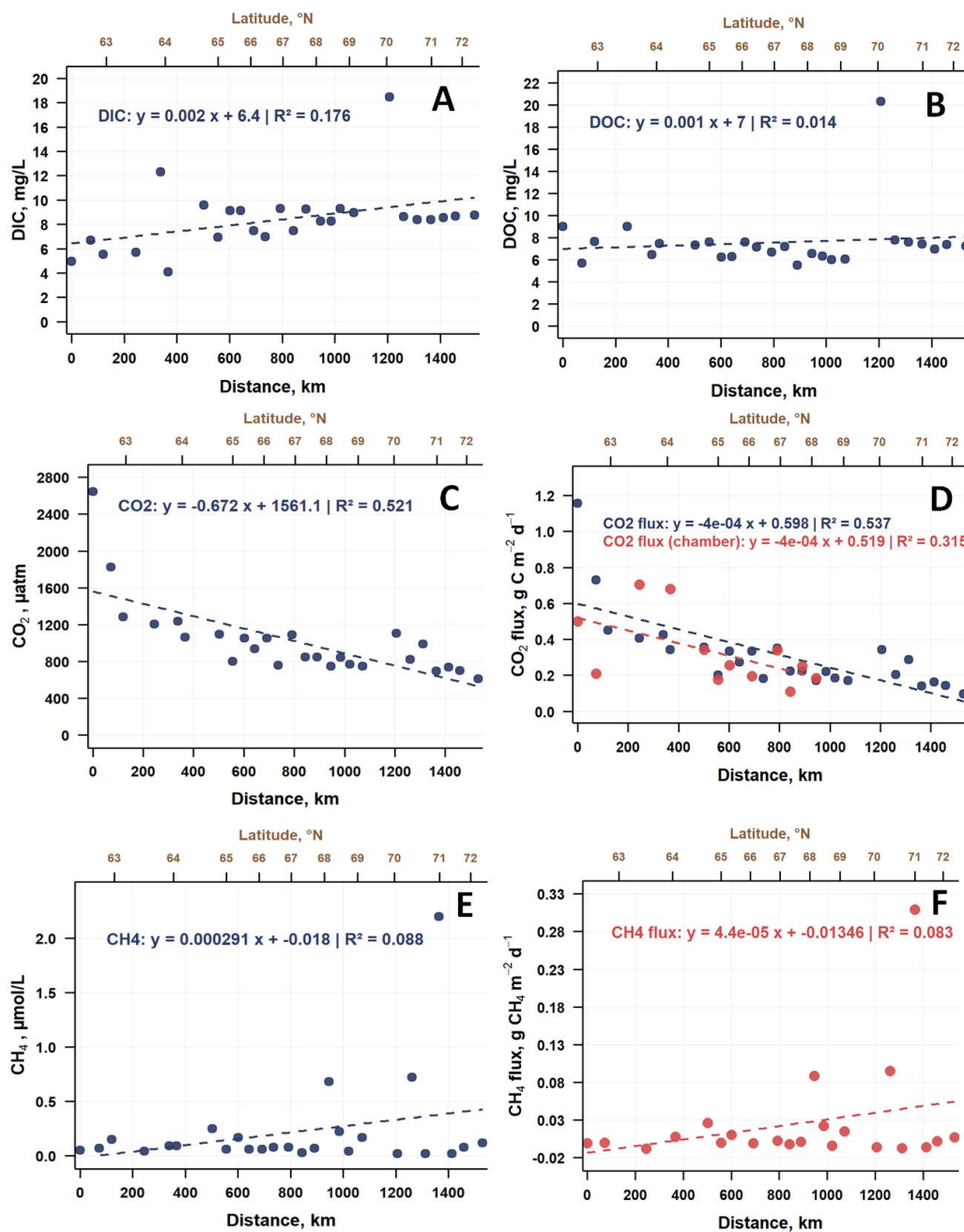
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1219 **Fig. 1. A:** The Lena River watershed and the position of sampling points of this study and **B:**
1220 **Hydrograph of the Lena River in 2022 for the period of expedition (highlighted in pink).**



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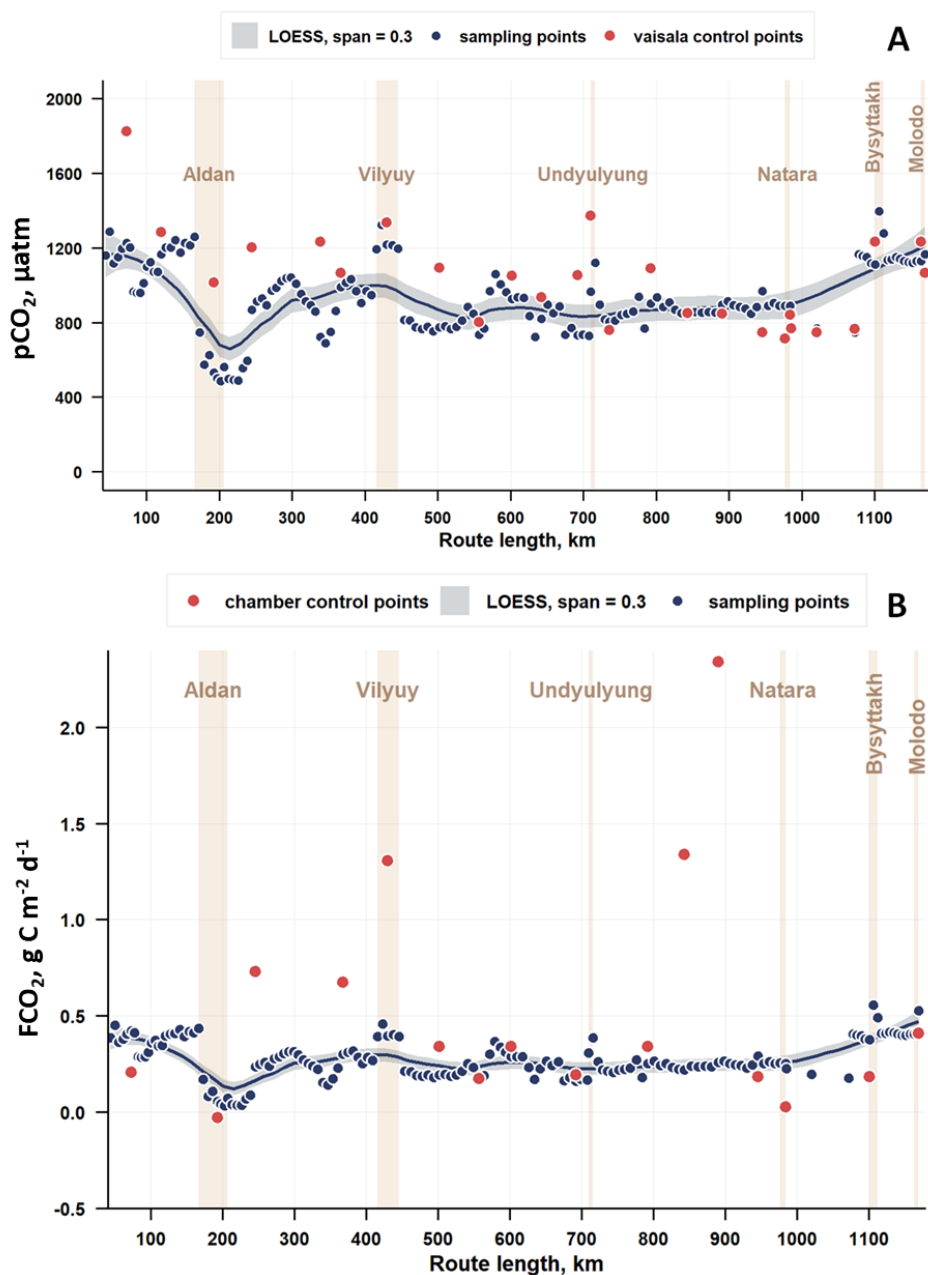
1223 **Fig. 2.** Spatial variations of DIC (A), DOC (B), pCO_2 (C), FCO_2 (D), CH_4 concentration (E) and FCH_4

1224 (F) in the main stem of the Low Lena River, from Yakutsk to Kyusur. The dots represent discrete

1225 sampling points and dashed line is a linear regression with equation parameters given on each panel.

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1229 **Fig. 3.** Spatial variation of $p\text{CO}_2$ (A) and diffusive CO_2 flux (FCO_2) (B) along the Low Lena River
 1230 main stem during the south–north transect. Blue symbols represent continuous in situ measurements,
 1231 whereas red symbols denote control measurements obtained using an independent system (Vaisala
 1232 probe for $p\text{CO}_2$ in A; floating chambers for FCO_2 in B). Shaded vertical bands indicate the locations of
 1233 major tributaries (Aldan, Vilyui, Undyulyung, Natara, Bysyttakh, Molodo). Solid lines represent
 1234 LOESS (locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) fits: span = 0.3 for continuous measurements and
 1235 span = 0.8 for control datasets due to their lower number of observations ($n = 24$).



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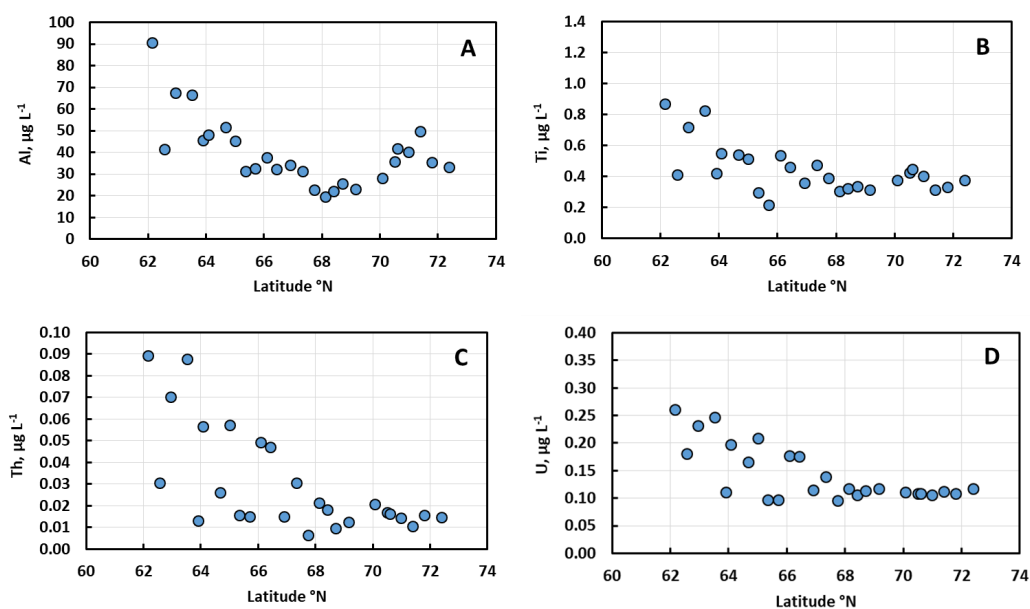
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1246 **Fig. 4.** Examples of low-soluble, essentially colloidal elements whose concentration in the Lena River

1247 main stem decreased northward, from Yakutsk to Kyusur: **A**, Al; **B**, Ti; **C**, Th and **D**, U.

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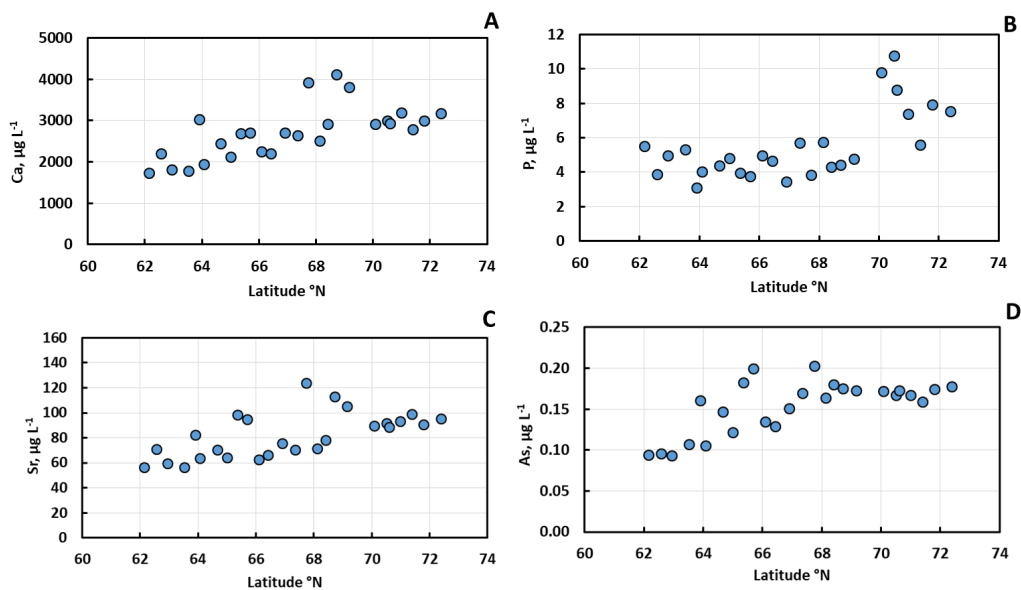
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1261 **Fig. 5.** Examples of labile, low colloidal elements whose concentration in the Lena River main stem

1262 increase northward, from Yakutsk to Kyusur: **A**, Ca; **B**, P; **C**, Sr and **D**, As.

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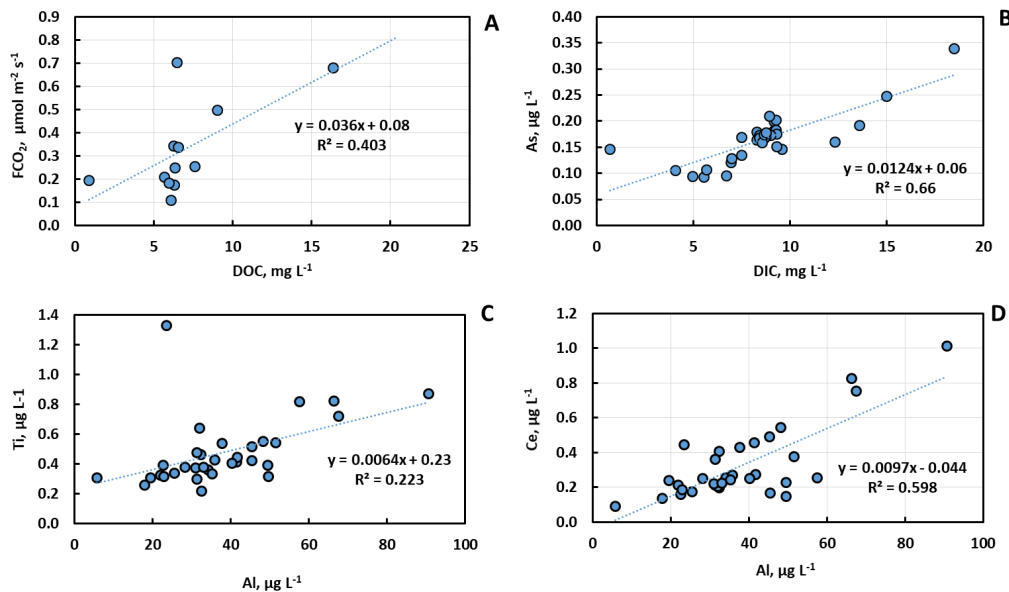
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1282 **Fig. 6.** Linear relationships in the Lena River and tributaries, between concentrations of DOC and FCO₂

1283 (A), DIC and As (B) and dissolved Al as indicator of Ti (C) and Ce (D) mobility.

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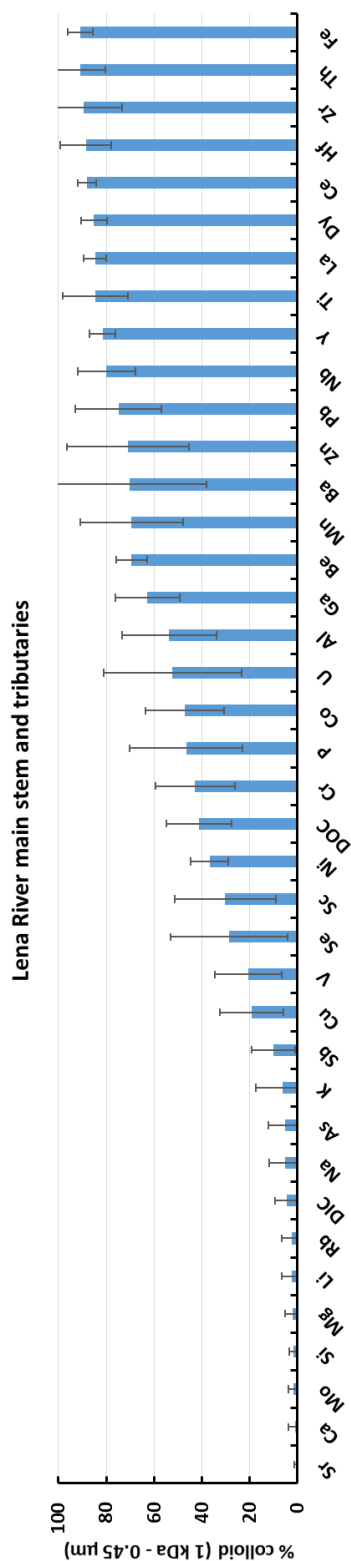
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1311 **Fig. 8.** Average (\pm s.d., $n = 12$) proportion of colloidal forms of major and trace elements in the Lena River and tributaries measured by dialysis procedure.