

1 **Pan-Arctic soil element bioavailability estimations**

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20 **Abstract.** Arctic soils store large amounts of organic carbon and other elements such as amorphous silicon, silicon,  
21 calcium, iron, aluminium, and phosphorous. Global warming is projected to be most pronounced in the Arctic leading  
22 to thawing permafrost, which in turn is changing the soil element availability. To project how biogeochemical cycling  
23 in Arctic ecosystems will be affected by climate change, there is a need for data on element availability. Here, we  
24 analysed the amorphous silicon (ASi) content as solid fraction of the soils, as well as Mehlich III extractions for  
25 bioavailability of silicon (Si), calcium (Ca), iron (Fe), phosphorus (P), and aluminium (Al) from 574 soil samples  
26 from the circumpolar Arctic region. We show large differences in ASi fraction and Si, Ca, Fe, Al, and P availability  
27 among different lithologies and Arctic regions. We summarized these data in pan-Arctic maps of ASi fraction and  
28 available Si, Ca, Fe, P, and Al concentrations focussing on the top 100 cm of Arctic soil. Furthermore, we provide  
29 values for element availability for the organic and the mineral layer of the seasonally thawing active layer as well as  
30 for the uppermost permafrost layer. Our spatially explicit data on differences in the availability of elements between  
31 the different lithological classes and regions now and in the future will improve Arctic Earth system models for  
32 estimating current and future carbon and nutrient feedbacks under climate change.

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46 **1 Introduction**

47 Temperatures in northern high latitude region have risen more than twice as fast as the global average within the last  
48 decades (IPCC, 2021). This warming leads to thawing of perennially frozen ground known as permafrost (Brown and  
49 Romanovsky, 2008; Romanovsky et al., 2010). Frozen conditions prevent organic matter (OM) from microbial  
50 degradation and also limits fluvial export of soil-bound nutrients to the sea by runoff (Mann et al., 2022). Thawing of  
51 permafrost soils may in turn accelerate global warming by potentially releasing potent greenhouse gases such as  
52 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) through soil organic carbon mineralization (Schuur et al., 2015). The frozen  
53 ground of the Arctic-boreal regions (hereafter called 'Arctic', but also including subarctic regions) are the largest pool  
54 of soil organic carbon worldwide. Approximately, 1014 - 1035 ± max. 194 Pg of organic carbon is stored within the  
55 upper 3 m of permafrost region soils (Hugelius et al., 2014; Mishra et al., 2021) (Hugelius et al., 2014; Mishra et al.,  
56 2021). To full depth, ca. 1460 - 1600 Pg of organic carbon is stored in the permafrost region (Strauss, 2021), and  
57 approximately one third of this is in ice rich Yedoma deposits, exceeding 3 m depth (Fuchs et al., 2018; Strauss et al.,  
58 2017b). The Yedoma deposits formed in unglaciated areas of the northern hemisphere during the glacial period, when  
59 melt water from glacial areas and eolian processes transported fine sediment to the unglaciated lowlands (Schuur et  
60 al., 2013; Strauss, 2021; Strauss et al., 2013). Yedoma deposits are characterized by high carbon and water content.  
61 The water is mostly bound in massive ice in ice wedges as well as segregated ice and pore ice in sediment columns  
62 (Schirmermeister et al., 2011). Thus, Yedoma soils are highly vulnerable to thawing as the loss of the high ice volume  
63 leads to surface subsidence and thermokarst processes, which can accelerate thaw and remobilize deep elemental  
64 stocks.

65 Low temperatures in the Arctic systems slow down biological and chemical processes and preserve OM for millennia  
66 (Sher et al., 2005). Due to Arctic warming these processes are accelerated by an increased nutrient and OM  
67 mobilization from the permafrost (Salmon et al., 2016). Consequently, OM may become vulnerable to respiration  
68 (Hugelius et al., 2020; Strauss et al., 2017b). The temperature and near-surface water content in the Arctic soils have  
69 changed rapidly in the last decades and further changes are expected in future (Box et al., 2019). An important effect  
70 of Arctic warming is a deepening of the seasonally-thawed active layer and related thermokarst processes, which may  
71 lead to a mobilization of nutrients from permafrost soil layers (Abbott et al., 2015). Additionally, increased  
72 temperatures in the Arctic regions may accelerate weathering, potentially enhancing nutrient availability in terrestrial  
73 Arctic ecosystems and export to freshwater systems, and finally to the nearshore zone and sea (Goldman et al., 2013).

74 As the Arctic features a mineral composition of the soils that is different from many other global soils (Monhonval et  
75 al., 2021), the availability (for microbes and plants) of elements in Arctic soils may differ as well. Yedoma deposits,  
76 for example, are important pools of OM in the Arctic. Because Yedoma deposits include materials transported from  
77 nearby mountains, the mineral compositions of these Yedoma deposits depend on the original geology of the  
78 mountains (Schirmermeister et al., 2011). Further, sediments of marine origin are often rich in available calcium (Ca),  
79 phosphorus (P) and silicic acid (Si), while magmatic rocks such as granite or basalt contain large amounts of Si, iron  
80 (Fe), aluminum (Al), and P. The complex mineral composition of fluvial and marine sediments is reflected in the  
81 element availability of the soils formed from these deposits. The availability of these elements in soils is the complex  
82 product of soil genesis, nutrient release and plant cycling. The soil properties and the vegetation type interact in terms

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99 of *Sphagno-Eriophorum vaginatum* potentially lead to Si accumulation in the uppermost soil layer of the moist acidic  
100 tundra, whereas in the moist non-acidic tundra the *Dryado integrifoliae-Caricetum* may lead to an accumulation of  
101 Ca in the uppermost soil layer (Walker et al., 2001). Further, external inputs, e.g. by fluvial transport in Yedoma  
102 regions, may alter soil genesis and element availability (Monhonal et al., 2021; Strauss et al., 2017a). These processes  
103 depend on physical and chemical conditions including temperature, water content and pH. In this context, Si, Ca, Fe,  
104 Al or P are bound in or on mineral phases and are released via enzymatic activity or weathering. Ongoing Arctic  
105 climate warming now threatens to disturb the pools that have equilibrated to conditions characteristic for the past  
106 millennia.

107 Nutrient availability (easily available share of elements for potential uptake in plants within short time span e.g. days,  
108 not month) is important to meet the plants requirements in terms of nutrition as only optimal nutrition will result in  
109 high biomass production. The availability of elements such as P, Fe, Ca, and Si in soils are known controls for soil  
110 OM respiration (Weil and Brady, 2017). A release of inorganic nutrients such as P or Si can lead to increased  
111 greenhouse gas production and potentially to further export of these elements to the fresh and seawaters. In marine  
112 systems, P, Fe, Ca, and Si are well-known to control carbon (C) fixation in terms of algae biomass productivity  
113 (Tremblay et al., 2015). In terrestrial systems, P availability is positively related to Si (Schaller et al., 2019) or its  
114 polymers, which mobilize from, e.g., ASI (Stimmler et al., 2021). The mobilization of P by Si was shown to occur due  
115 to competition for binding at Fe-minerals (Schaller et al., 2019), which tend to strongly bind P under condition of low  
116 Si availability (Gérard, 2016). Contrary to Si, Ca binds P by calcium phosphate co-precipitation with calcium  
117 carbonate, at least under high soil pH conditions (Otsuki and Wetzell, 1972). Like P, OM is also binding to Ca, Fe and  
118 Al-phases (Kaiser and Zech, 1997; Wiseman and Püttmann, 2006) but being mobilized from those phases by Si  
119 (Hömberg et al., 2020). If the Fe availability in soils is low, the binding of P may be related to Al-minerals (Eriksson  
120 et al., 2015).

121 Despite the important role of soil elements in driving soil and ecosystem processes and the potential for rapid changes  
122 in the Arctic due to climate change, the spatial distribution of elemental stocks (beyond C, N) is not well understood.  
123 An ecologically based classification of soil Ca concentrations was proposed by (Walker et al., 2001), differentiating  
124 between a Ca rich non-acidic tundra and a Ca poor acidic tundra based on differences in vegetation types for the  
125 Alaskan Arctic region. This classification system was further used to estimate pan-Arctic soil OM stocks (Hugelius et  
126 al., 2014), which proved to be a useful approach as vegetation is tightly connected to OM stocks (Quideau et al., 2001).  
127 Based on the work of (Hugelius et al., 2014), (Alfredsson et al., 2016) related vegetation cover to ASI concentration  
128 to scale up Arctic ASI stocks. However, in contrast to OM stocks being clearly related to vegetation (Hugelius et al.,  
129 2014), the vegetation might have an effect on mineral availability in soils (Villani et al., 2022). It is known that soils  
130 dominated by sedges may become enriched in available Si, whereas soils dominated by shrub vegetation may become  
131 enriched in available Ca (Maucler et al., 2022). Climate change driven alterations in vegetation communities may lead  
132 to changed element availabilities in Arctic soils. Other elements like P and Ca are cycled by plant intensively and by  
133 this becoming enriched in the uppermost soil layer (Jobbágy and Jackson, 2001). This points to the importance of  
134 biogeochemical interactions between vegetation and soil. However, this approach does not account for the inorganic  
135 element pool, dominated by the bedrock geology initially. Therefore, the extrapolation of circum-polar Arctic maps

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163 of element availability for P, Fe, Ca, Al, and Si based on vegetation distribution alone may be associated with high  
164 uncertainties. A much stronger driver of element availability could be parent material and lithology (Alloway, 2013).  
165 In this study, we aim to map pan-Arctic soil element bio-availability (for microbes and plants) by applying a lithology-  
166 based extrapolation of plot level sampling data on nutrient availability. We provide maps for [the solid ASi fraction](#)  
167 [and available](#) Si, Ca, Fe, P and Al [concentrations](#) as these elements have direct effects on OM binding and greenhouse  
168 gas (GHG) emission from the circumpolar Arctic. [In addition, these elements, once transported to the marine systems,](#)  
169 [may affect primary production by diatoms and coccolithophores, as some of those nutrients are limiting for those algae](#)  
170 [and hence limiting CO<sub>2</sub> binding due to algae biomass production](#). Better understanding of element availability is  
171 crucial to reduce uncertainties for reliable modelling of future scenarios on how Arctic system may respond to global  
172 warming.

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**Gelöscht:** In addition, these elements are limiting nutrients for CO<sub>2</sub> binding in terms of primary production in Arctic marine systems by Fe and P being main nutrients and both Si and Ca are important for biomass production of either diatoms or coccolithophores or interfere with those.

180 **2 Material and Methods**

181 **2.1 General approach**

182 Based on the Geological Map of the Arctic (Harrison et al., 2011), we estimate the bio-availability and potential  
183 mobility of Si, Ca, Fe, Al and P as well as solid ASi fraction in Arctic soils. We analyzed soil samples from organic,  
184 mineral and permafrost layers from pan-Arctic sampling campaigns. We used the biological available element  
185 concentrations for mineral Si, Ca, Fe, Al, P and solid ASi fraction of certain lithologies to compile pan-Arctic maps  
186 covering 7.6x106 km².

187 **2.2 Sampling and storage**

188 In total, we analyzed 574 Arctic soil samples from 25 locations taken over a period of one decade (Fig. 1). To ensure  
189 a pan-Arctic coverage we analyzed samples from Siberia (222 samples from six locations), North America (115  
190 samples from six locations), Greenland (111 samples from nine locations), Northern Europe (13 samples from one  
191 location) and Svalbard (103 samples from three locations) (Fig. 1 and S1, Table S1). We analyzed samples from the  
192 thawed near-surface organic layer (252 soil samples, mainly 0-20 cm in depth), mineral layer (208 soil samples,  
193 mainly 20-50 cm depth) and permafrost layer (104 soil samples, mainly 50-100 cm depth). The sampling designs  
194 accounted for the spatial variation of single locations, (several samples were taken on ~1 km transects, Repeated  
195 sampling of month to decades was not possible. We split the annually thawed active layer in the upper organic layer  
196 and the mineral layer below by C content, except for soils where the organic layer corresponds to the active layer. The  
197 organic layer contained mainly organic matter (OM) in different mineralization states. The mineral soil layer has  
198 variable OM content depending on which soil processes have affected this layer and reaches to the perennially frozen  
199 permafrost layer. We took samples using an auger or a spade and stored them frozen until analysis or as described  
200 before (Faucherre et al., 2018; Kuhry et al., 2020). Samples consisted of 5-50 g frozen soil. Before analysis, the  
201 samples were freeze dried for 48 hours and ground. The freeze drying inhibits thermal degradation of the soil material  
202 and is standard for the Mehlich III extraction and alkaline extraction described below.

204 **2.3 Extraction and analysis**

205 Mehlich III extractions for available element concentrations.  
206 Available concentrations of Si, Ca, Fe, Al and P were quantified using the Mehlich III method (Sims, 1989). The  
207 Mehlich III is extracting the silicic acid which is adsorbed to the soil particle surface and the free silicic acid. For the  
208 elements Ca, Fe, Al and P, the extract is defined as biological available share of the analysed elements, in the script  
209 labelled as "available". This fraction includes the element concentrations solved in the pore water and the fraction  
210 adsorbed to organic and inorganic soil particles. Microbes and plants care able to mobilize this adsorbed share of  
211 nutrients. We defined the extraction method Mehlich III to reflect this available element concentrations. Briefly, we  
212 extracted 0.5 to 5 g of freeze-dried soil using 10 ml g-1 Mehlich III solution (0.015 M NH<sub>4</sub>F, 0.001 M EDTA, 0.25 M

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245 NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, 0.00325 M HNO<sub>3</sub>, 0.2 M HAc). The samples were shaken for 5 min at 200 min<sup>-1</sup> and centrifuged for 5 min  
 246 at 10.000 x g. Afterwards, the supernatant was filtered using a 0.2 µm cellulose acetate filter. The concentration of Si,  
 247 Ca, Fe, Al and P was measured by inductive coupled plasma with optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) (Vista-  
 248 PRO radial, Varian Medical Systems, Palo Alto, California).  
 249 Alkaline extraction for solid fraction of amorphous silicon.  
 250 For extraction of solid amorphous silicon (ASi) fraction an alkaline extraction was used (DeMaster, 1981), extracting  
 251 ASi from 30 mg of freeze-dried soil using 40 ml 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution at 85°C for 5 h. After 1 h, 3 h and 5 h the  
 252 suspension was mixed, and 10 ml of the supernatant was subsampled, filtered by a 0.2 µm cellulose acetate filter and  
 253 analyzed by ICP-OES (Vista-PRO radial, Varian Medical Systems, Palo Alto, California). The ASi concentration was  
 254 calculated using a linear regression of ASi concentration in solution over time and the intersection with the Y-axis  
 255 was used as concentration of available concentration according to (DeMaster, 1981). The Mehlich III extract was used  
 256 to determine the available concentrations of the elements and the alkaline extraction was used to determine the pool  
 257 of particulate amorphous silicon in the soil. To determine the dry weight (DW) of the samples 0.5-2 g of frozen  
 258 material was freeze dried until weight constancy.

## 259 2.4 Statistics

### 260 2.4.1 Statistics and graphics

261 Data were analyzed using the R Studio (R Core Team, 2022). We extracted the original data (lithology, location,  
 262 geometry) given for GIS polygons (shape files from the different regions, Greenland, Can\_USA, Ice,  
 263 N\_Europa\_Russia) of the Geological Map of the Arctic containing locations. We extracted 14 lithological classes in  
 264 total. We matched the soil sampling locations for which we obtained data for element availability by extraction (see  
 265 above) with the GIS polygons (geology) by ARCVIEW\_GIS\_3.2 extensions “Spatial Analyst” command “analysis:  
 266 tabulate Areas”. The sum of areas with the same map label was extracted by map label “shape area”. We considered  
 267 only terrestrial areas. For every location, we calculated the mean available element concentrations for ASi, Si, Ca, Fe,  
 268 Al and P with bootstrapping (boot=1000) for the organic, mineral and permafrost layer. We calculated quantiles, mean  
 269 and standard error using “summarise” from the “dplyr” R package. We clustered available element concentration data  
 270 for all locations by lithological class and calculated mean and standard error for organic, mineral and permafrost layer.  
 271 The number of samples for each lithological class is given in Fig. 1.

### 272 2.4.2 Element concentration maps

273 We used the “Geological Map of the Arctic (1:5,000,000 scale, in the Arctic polar region, north of latitude 60°N”) as  
 274 the basis for our maps. We calculated the weighted numeric mean concentration for each element in the first 100 cm  
 275 from the soil surface using equation (1). The mean mass fraction (w<sub>m</sub>) of an element (X) is the sum of the products  
 276 of the mass fractions in organic (OL), mineral (ML) and permafrost (PL) layer and the thickness (d) of each layer in  
 277 cm divided by 100 cm. We colored the represented area based on the element concentration.

$$278 w_m(X) \left[ \frac{mg}{g} \right] = \frac{(w_{OL}(X) \left[ \frac{mg}{g} \right] * d_{OL} [m] + w_{ML}(X) \left[ \frac{mg}{g} \right] * d_{ML} [m] + w_{PL}(X) \left[ \frac{mg}{g} \right] * d_{PL} [cm])}{100 [cm]} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

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## 298 3 Results

### 299 3.1 Geographical and lithological representation

300 Our sampling locations represent 13 out of 17 original geographic domains (missing: North Asia and North America,  
301 ice, none assigned), defined by the base map (76.5 %) (Table 1, Fig. S1 and Table S2) of the Arctic. The single areas  
302 and shares for the maps of Canada/Alaska, Greenland and North Europe/Russia are given in Table S3. Our data  
303 represent 17 periods of the Geological Map of the Arctic. The age ranged between 2.6 and 2,500 mya. The number of  
304 samples per age code are shown in Fig S2. Our data represent 14 lithological classes of the “Geological Map of the  
305 Arctic” (Table S4). These 14 lithological classes represent  $7.63 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}^2$  out of  $1.57 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^2$  (48.49 % of the area  
306 represented by the Geological Map of the Arctic, including ice sheets). Sediments cover  $1.03 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^2$  of the Arctic.  
307 Our data represent sedimentary classes that cover  $6.77 \times 10^{12} \text{ m}^2$  (65.9 % of the Arctic sediment cover) (Fig. S3). In  
308 total  $3.68 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^2$  of  $7.37 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}^2$  (49.9 %) of Yedoma deposits were represented (Fig. S4). The 14 lithological  
309 classes can be observed in the igneous type (extrusive: mafic. class 1, n=26), type unclassified (Metamorphic  
310 undivided: class 2, n=21) and the sedimentary type (Carbonate: class 3, n=24; class 4, n=58; class 5, n=64; Clastic:  
311 shallow marine: class 6, n=13; Clastic: deltaic and nearshore: class 7, n=68; Sedimentary: undivided: class 8, n=38;  
312 class 9, n=39; Clastic: shallow marine: class 10, n=91; class 11, n=60; Sedimentary and/or volcanic: undivided: class  
313 12, n=21; and Slope and deep water: class 13, n=43; class 14, n=8).

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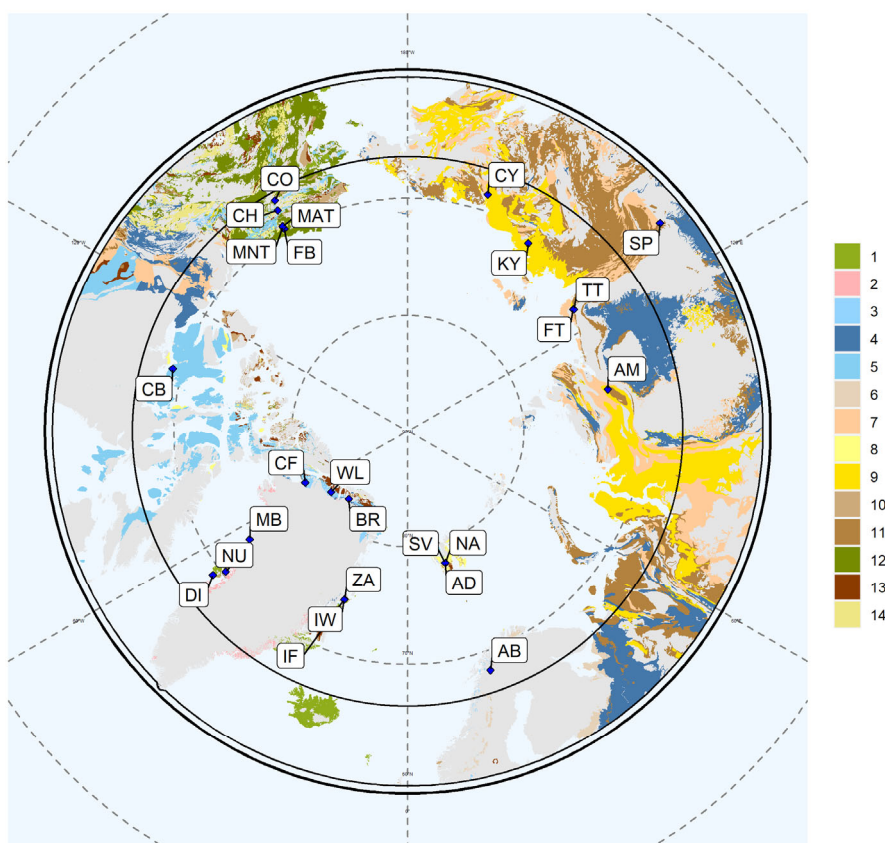
317 **Table 1: Coverage of the areas of geographical domain, epochs, represented area, lithological class, sediments and**  
 318 **Yedoma deposition by our data.** First column lists original parameters given by the Geological Map of the Arctic  
 319 (Harrison et al., 2011) and Yedoma deposits (Strauss et al., 2021). The column “Represented” gives absolute numbers  
 320 for chronological or lithological classes extrapolated by this study. The represented area is the share of the entire area  
 321 of the Arctic according to the Geological map used in this study for the listed parameters.

Parameter	Represented	Explanation	Example
<b>Geographic domain</b>	13 (76.5%)	“Phanerozoic regions are based on major physiographic features of the Arctic” (Harrison et al., 2011)	Interior western Alaska
<b>Epochs</b>	17 (2.6 – 2,500 mya)	“Standardization of map-unit attributes has been facilitated by the International Stratigraphic Chart (August 2009 version) published by the International Commission on Stratigraphy (ICS)” (Harrison et al., 2011)	Neogene (23.0 - 2.6 Ma)
<b>Represented area</b>	7.63×10 <sup>12</sup> m <sup>2</sup> (43.03%)	Area of the Geological Map of the Arctic (Harrison et al., 2011) containing own data to element concentrations (Fig. 3-8).	
<b>Lithological class</b>	14	Specification and examples of rock type	Lithological class 2: Gneiss, migmatite; reworked amphibolite and granulite facies rocks
<b>Sediments</b>	6.77×10 <sup>12</sup> m <sup>2</sup> (65.9%)	Areas with lithological classes of the sedimentary type	Lithological class 7: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, coal; plant fossils; metamorphic grade not identified
<b>Yedoma deposition</b>	3.68×10 <sup>11</sup> m <sup>2</sup> (49.9%)	Areas that contain Yedoma deposits defined by Strauss et al. (2021b)	

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334 Fig. 1: Map of represented lithologies. The Arctic Circle (66.6°N) is included as a black circle. Each color represents  
 335 a bedrock lithology: 1: Basalt, olivine basalt, tholeiite, alkali basalt, basanite, pillow basalt, flood basalt (n=26); 2:  
 336 Gneiss, migmatite; reworked amphibolite and granulite facies rocks (n=11); 3: Limestone, dolostone, shale,  
 337 evaporites, chalk; carbonate reefs or metamorphosed equivalent (n=24); 4: Limestone, dolostone, shale, evaporites,  
 338 chalk; carbonate reefs; metamorphic grade not identified (n=58); 5: Limestone, dolostone, shale, evaporites, chalk;  
 339 carbonate reefs (n=64); 6: Quartz sandstone, siltstone, claystone, limestone, dolostone, conglomerate, tillite (n=13);  
 340 7: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, coal; plant fossils; metamorphic grade not identified (n=68); 8: Sandstone, siltstone,  
 341 shale, limestone (n=38); 9: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, limestone; metamorphic grade not identified (n=39); 10:

**Gelöscht:** extrapolated element concentrations

343 Sandstone, siltstone, shale; marine fossils (n=91); 11: Sandstone, siltstone, shale; marine fossils; metamorphic grade  
344 not identified (n=60); 12: Sedimentary and/or volcanic rock: undivided (n=21); 13: Shale, chert, iron-formation,  
345 greywacke, turbidite, argillaceous limestone, matrix-supported conglomerate (n=43); 14: Shale, chert, iron-formation,  
346 greywacke, turbidite, argillaceous limestone, matrix-supported conglomerate or metamorphosed equivalent (n=8).  
347 Grey color means areas of base map that are not represented by our data on element concentrations. Abbreviations for  
348 locations: CH: Alaska, Chandalar; CO: Alaska, Coldfoot; FB: Alaska, Franklin Bluff-Dry; MAT: Alaska, Moist acidic  
349 tundra; MNT: Alaska, Moist non-acidic tundra; CB: Canada, Cambridge Bay; BR: Greenland, Brønlund; CF:  
350 Greenland, Cass Fjord; DI: Greenland, Disko; MB: Greenland, Melville Bay; NU: Greenland, Nussuaq; WL:  
351 Greenland, Warming Land; ZA: Greenland, Zackenberg; IW: Greenland, Zackenberg, Ice Wedge; IF: Greenland,  
352 Zackenberg, Infilling Fan; AM: Russia, Ary-Mas; CY: Russia, Chersky; KY: Russia, Kytalyk; FT: Russia, Lena delta,  
353 first terrace; TT: Russia, Lena Delta, third terrace; SP: Russia, Spasskaya; AB: Sweden, Abisko; AD: Svalbard,  
354 Adventalen; NA: Svalbard, Adventalen; SV: Svalbard. This map is based on the Geological Map of the Arctic  
355 (Harrison et al., 2011).  
356

357 **3.2 Element availabilities across lithological classes at 0-1 m depth**

358 The lithological classes differed substantially in their element availabilities (Fig. 2; Fig S5):

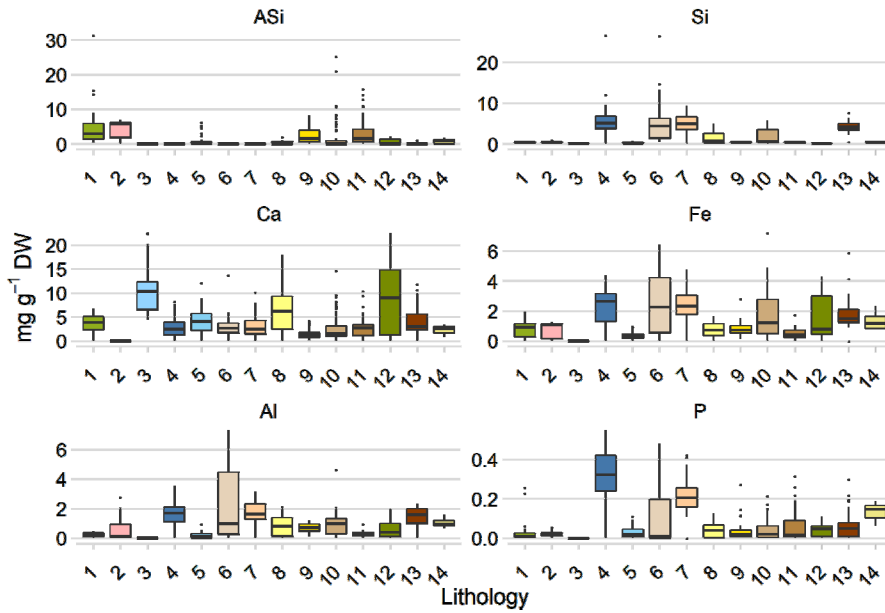
- 359 • We found a large range in **ASi concentrations** in the Arctic covering values from  $0.03 \pm 0$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi to  
360  $6.68 \pm 1.17$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi. The highest concentrations of ASi were found in basalt and associated rock (class 1:  
361  $6.68 \pm 1.17$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi), Gneiss and associated rock (class 2:  $4.11 \pm 1.24$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi), Sandstone and  
362 associated rock (class 9:  $2.01 \pm 0.24$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi, class 10:  $2.06 \pm 0.01$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi). ASi concentrations  
363 were lowest in Limestone (class 3:  $0.03 \pm 0$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW ASi) (Fig. 2).
- 364 • **Available Si concentrations** were highest in Limestone and associated rock including shale (class 4:  
365  $5.65 \pm 0.78$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Si), Quartz sandstone (class 6:  $6.61 \pm 1.83$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Si) and Sandstone (class 7:  
366  $5.46 \pm 0.66$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Si). Si concentrations were lowest in Limestone and associated rock (class 3:  
367  $0.1 \pm 0.02$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Si) (Fig. 2). Differences in available Si concentrations in the two classes of Limestone is  
368 mainly driven by the presence of shale in one class of the Limestone that acts as source for silicic acid.
- 369 • The highest **available Ca concentrations** were observed in Limestone (which consist of CaCO<sub>3</sub>) and associated  
370 rock (class 3:  $10.73 \pm 2.15$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Ca), Sedimentary and/or volcanic rock (class 12:  $8.77 \pm 0.12$  mg g<sup>-1</sup>  
371 DW Ca) and Sandstone and associated rock (class 8:  $8.06 \pm 0.36$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Ca). Ca concentrations were  
372 lowest in Gneiss (class 2:  $0.05 \pm 0.02$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Ca) (Fig. 2). The data consists with the expectations of highest  
373 Ca availability in Ca containing bedrock.
- 374 • **Available Fe concentrations** were highest in shale and associated rock (class 13:  $2.93 \pm 0.45$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Fe),  
375 Limestone (class 4:  $2.28 \pm 0.32$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Fe) and Quartz sandstone (class 6:  $2.49 \pm 0.69$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Fe). The  
376 lowest Fe concentrations were observed in lithological Limestone and associated rock (class 3:  
377  $0.01 \pm 0.001$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Fe) (Fig. 2).
- 378 • The highest **available concentrations of Al** were observed in to quartz sandstone (class 6:  $2.52 \pm 0.70$  mg g<sup>-1</sup>  
379 DW Al), Sandstone (class 7:  $1.63 \pm 0.20$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Al) and shale and associated rock (class 13:  
380  $1.5 \pm 0.23$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Al). The lowest Al concentrations were observed in limestone and associated rock (class 3:  
381  $0.02 \pm 0$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Al) (Fig. 2).
- 382 • High **available P concentrations** were observed in limestone and associated rock (class 4:  $0.31 \pm 0.04$  mg g<sup>-1</sup>  
383 DW P), Sandstone (class 7:  $0.19 \pm 0.02$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW P) and Shale and associated rock (class 14:  $0.15 \pm 0.05$  mg g<sup>-1</sup>  
384 DW P). P concentrations were lowest in Basalt and associated rock (class 1:  $0.0116 \pm 0.002$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW P)  
385 (Fig. 2).
- 386

Gelöscht: Limestone

Gelöscht: Sandstone

Gelöscht: fit

Gelöscht: being highest



393 Fig. 2: Element concentrations related to lithology. **Lithology 1 is igneous, class 2 is metamorphic and the rest are**  
 394 **sedimentary, or sedimentary and mixed.** Each color represents a bedrock lithology: 1: Basalt, olivine basalt, tholeiite,  
 395 alkali basalt, basanite, pillow basalt, flood basalt (n=26); 2: Gneiss, migmatite; reworked amphibolite and granulite  
 396 facies rocks (n=11); 3: Limestone, dolostone, shale, evaporites, chalk; carbonate reefs or metamorphosed equivalent  
 397 (n=24); 4: Limestone, dolostone, shale, evaporites, chalk; carbonate reefs; metamorphic grade not identified (n=58);  
 398 5: Limestone, dolostone, shale, evaporites, chalk; carbonate reefs (n=64); 6: Quartz sandstone, siltstone, claystone,  
 399 limestone, dolostone, conglomerate, tillite (n=13); 7: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, coal; plant fossils; metamorphic  
 400 grade not identified (n=68); 8: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, limestone (n=38); 9: Sandstone, siltstone, shale, limestone;  
 401 metamorphic grade not identified (n=39); 10: Sandstone, siltstone, shale; marine fossils (n=91); 11: Sandstone,  
 402 siltstone, shale; marine fossils; metamorphic grade not identified (n=60); 12: Sedimentary and/or volcanic rock:  
 403 undivided (n=21); 13: Shale, chert, iron-formation, greywacke, turbidite, argillaceous limestone, matrix-supported  
 404 conglomerate (n=43); 14: Shale, chert, iron-formation, greywacke, turbidite, argillaceous limestone, matrix-supported  
 405 conglomerate or metamorphosed equivalent (n=8). All values are given in mean and standard error. The distribution  
 406 of the lithological classes is shown in Fig. 1, the assignment to the geographic domain is given in Table S5.

Gelöscht: color

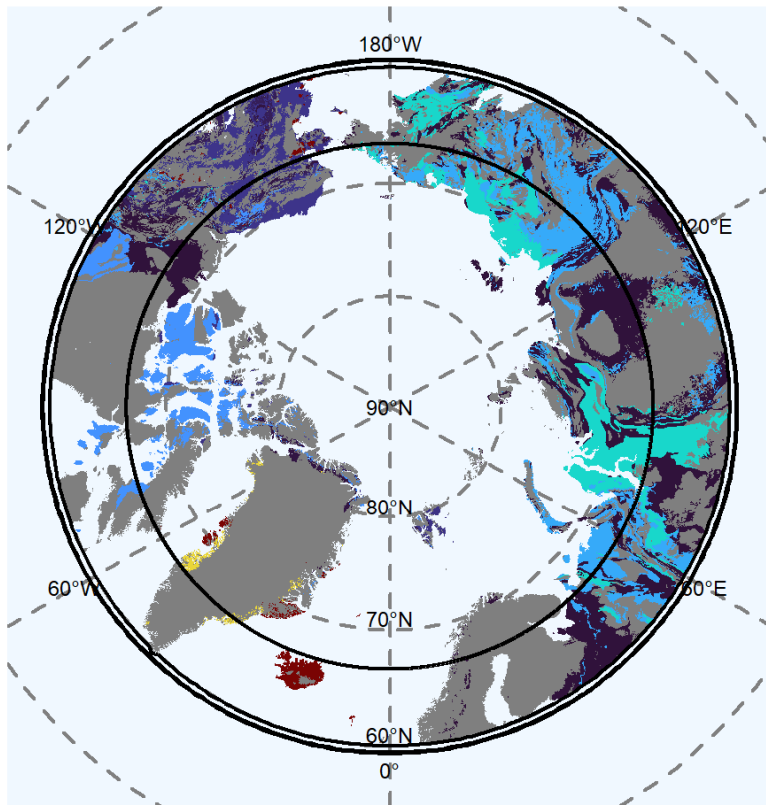
Gelöscht: ¶

409 **3.3 Maps of element concentration in 1 m depth**

410 **3.3.1 Amorphous silicon in top 1 m**

411 • We found the highest concentrations of ASi located in the Arctic-North Atlantic region (Fig. 3). Here, basalt  
412 and Gneiss are dominant (lithological class 1 and 2) and contained concentrations of  $4.11 \pm 1.24$  to  
413  $6.68 \pm 1.17$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW. Other high concentrations of ASi were found for the Brooks Range (Alaska),  
414 Chukotka, Arctic Shelf (eastern Siberia) and the West Siberian Basin. Those soil contained  
415  $2.01 \pm 0.24$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 9). The Verkhoyansk-Kolyma region showed a lower  
416 concentration of  $1.48 \pm 0.16$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 11). We found similar concentrations  
417 ( $1.24 \pm 0.14$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW; lithological class 5) for the Canadian Shield. We found low concentrations of  
418  $0.31 \pm 0.01$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 12) in interior western Alaska and western parts of Brooks  
419 Range, Alaska, Chukotka and Arctic Shelf. Increasing active layer depth will potentially release higher ASi  
420 concentrations from permafrost soils (Fig. S6) in the Canadian Shield as the concentration in the permafrost  
421 layer is  $2.80 \pm 2.50$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 5) compared to the  $1.24 \pm 0.14$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW in the  
422 current active layer (Table S4). A further increase in ASi concentration can be expected for the Arctic, North-  
423 Atlantic region by permafrost thaw as the concentration is  $8.68 \pm 2.51$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW in the permafrost layer  
424 compared to the  $4.11 \pm 1.24$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW of the current active layer (lithological class 1) (Fig. S6 Table S4).  
425 However, the permafrost layer in Siberia contains lower concentrations of ASi ( $0.77 \pm 0.23$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW,  
426 lithological class 9 and  $1.38 \pm 0.28$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 11) compared to the current active layer  
427 with  $2.01 \pm 0.24$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 9) and  $1.48 \pm 0.16$  mg ASi g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 11)  
428 probably leading to lower overall ASi concentrations with proceeding thaw. The variability of the ASi data is  
429 high for the lithological class 1, 2, 9 and 11.

- Gelöscht: silica
- Gelöscht: mafic
- Gelöscht: metamorphic
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: were found
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±



447  
 448 Fig. 3: Map of mean concentration of amorphous silicon (ASi) in the top 100 cm of soils. For each lithological class  
 449 the mean concentration is shown. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data.

Gelöscht: silica

451 **3.3.2 Silicon in 0-1 m depth**

452 Available Si (**Mehlich III extractable**) (Fig. 4), **extracted as silicic acid**, showed a different distribution than **the solid**  
453 **fraction of ASi** (Fig. 3). High **available** Si concentrations were generally associated with sediments. **The available Si**  
454 **extracted by the Mehlich III extraction is water soluble Si plus Si bound to the surface of soil particles** (Schaller et al.,  
455 2021). We found high concentrations ( $5.65 \pm 0.78$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW) for lithological class 4, the West Siberian basin and  
456 the Siberian plain. Other regions with high **available** Si concentrations were the East European plain, the Ural  
457 Mountains and the Canadian Shield. Another lithological class with high **available** Si concentrations  
458 ( $4.51 \pm 0.69$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW) is class 13, located in the Inuitian Region, North Greenland and in Alaska. In Alaska  
459 lithological class 10 with moderate high concentrations of **available** Si ( $2.06 \pm 0.03$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW) is also abundant.  
460 We found low concentration of **available** Si ( $0.36 \pm 0.05$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 9) for Brooks Range,  
461 Chukotka, Arctic shelf, the West Siberia Basin and the Siberian Plain. In addition, the Verkhoyansk-Kolyma-Region  
462 and the East-European Plain and the Ural Mountains were poor in **available** Si ( $0.39 \pm 0.04$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological  
463 class 11). Lowest **available** concentrations ( $0.15 \pm 0.01$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 12) were observed in Interior  
464 Western Alaska. Increasing thawing depth may potentially increase **available** Si concentrations in the western  
465 Verkhoyansk-Kolyma-Region to the east European Platform as the concentration in the permafrost layer is  
466  $6.26 \pm 1.52$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 4) compared to the lower **available** Si concentration of the current active  
467 layer with  $5.56 \pm 0.78$  mg Si g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 4) (Figure S6, Table S4). **The variability of the data of available**  
468 **Si is high for the lithological class 4, 6 and 7.**

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

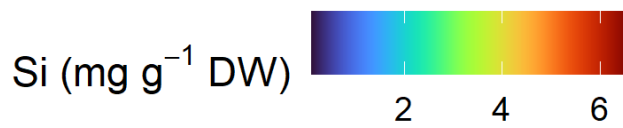
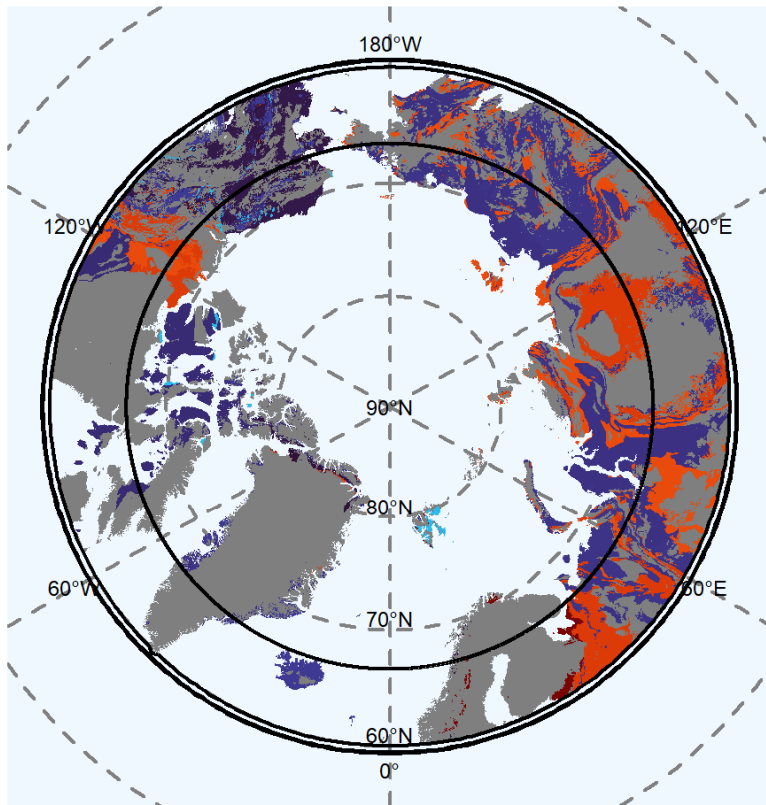
Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

470



479  
 480 Fig. 4: Map of mean concentration of [available silicon \(Si\)](#) ([Mehlich III extractable](#)) for the uppermost 100 cm of  
 481 soils. For each lithological class the mean concentration is shown. Blue colors represent low concentrations of  
 482 [available Si](#); red colors represent high concentrations. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data.

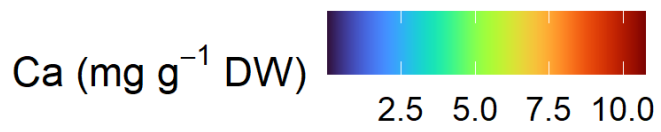
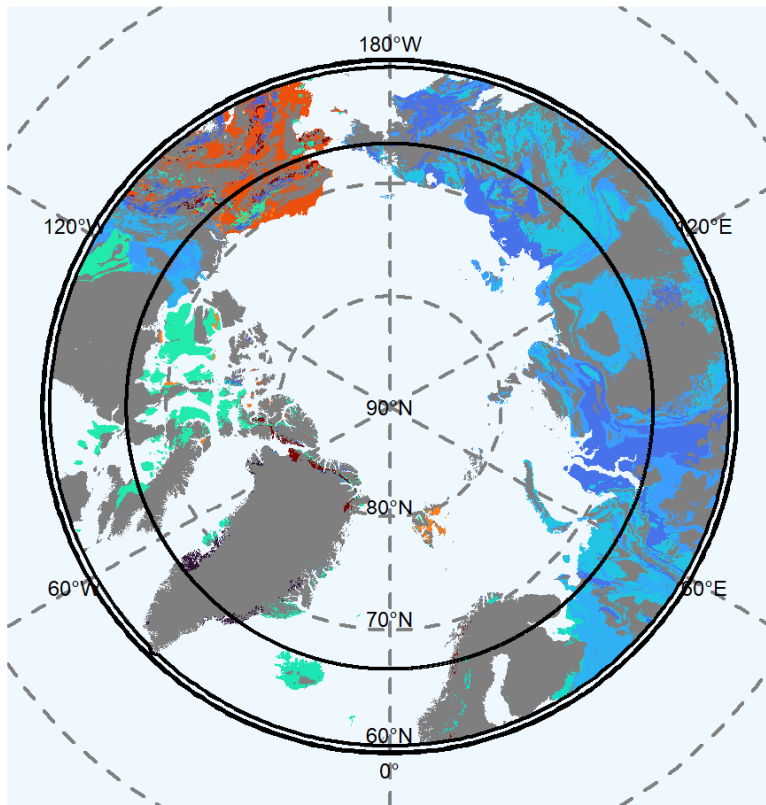
Gelöscht: mineral  
 Gelöscht:



485 3.3.3 Calcium in 0-1m depth

486 The highest available Ca concentrations (Mehlich III extractable) in soils was in limestone and associated rock (class  
487 3:  $10.73 \pm 2.15$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW) in North Greenland, Alaska and the Canadian Shield ( $3.79 \pm 0.45$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW,  
488 lithological class 5) (Fig. 5). Particular limestone shows a high solubility under acidic conditions used in the Mehlich  
489 III extraction and by this shows high available Ca concentrations. In addition, supracrustal rocks in Alaska contained  
490 very high available concentrations of Ca ( $8.77 \pm 0.12$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 12). Mafic rocks in the Arctic  
491 North Atlantic region ( $3.65 \pm 0.70$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 1) contained moderate available Ca  
492 concentrations. We found moderate to low available Ca concentrations ( $2.88 \pm 0.32$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class  
493 11) for the soils of the Verkhoyansk-Kolyma-Region, the East European Plain and the Ural Mountains. Large regions  
494 of eastern and western Siberia and the Siberian Plain were poor in available Ca ( $1.51 \pm 0.14$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW,  
495 lithological class 9;  $2.56 \pm 0.34$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 4). The available Ca concentrations of the permafrost  
496 layer for Alaska ( $10.42 \pm 2.08$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 12) is higher than in the active layer  
497 ( $2.93 \pm 0.45$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW) (Fig. S6). In the largest part of Siberia and the Canadian Shield the available Ca  
498 concentrations are slightly lower in the permafrost layer with  $2.15 \pm 0.96$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 4) and  
499  $1.59 \pm 0.32$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 7) than in the active layer with  $2.56 \pm 0.34$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological  
500 class 4) and  $1.51 \pm 0.14$  mg Ca g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 7) (Figure S6, Table S4). The variability of the data of  
501 available Ca is high for the lithological class 1, 3, 5 and 6.

- Gelöscht: ±
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519

520 Fig. 5: Map of mean concentration of available calcium (Ca) (Mehlich III extractable) for the uppermost 100 cm of  
 521 soils. For each lithological class the mean concentration is shown. Blue colors represent low concentrations of Ca, red  
 522 colors represent high concentrations. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data.

523

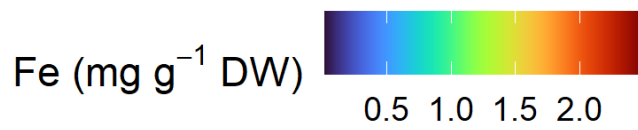
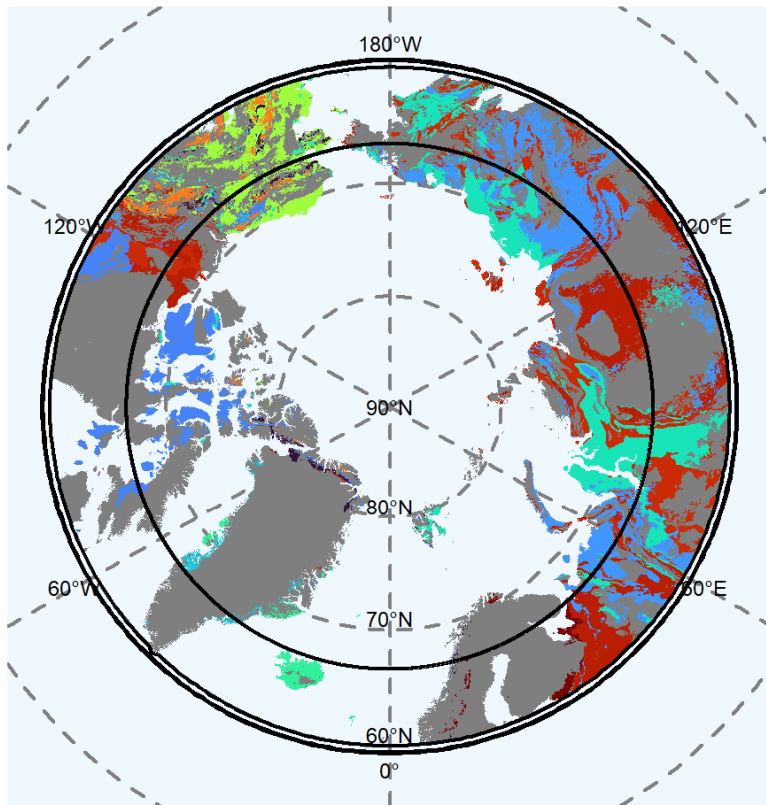
Gelöscht: mineral

Gelöscht:

526 **3.3.4 Iron (Fe) in 0-1 m depth**

527 Available Fe concentrations (Mehlich III extractable) were higher in the eastern Arctic, than in the western Arctic  
528 (Fig. 6). We found highest concentrations in northern Greenland (lithological class 13 contained  $2.93 \pm 0.45 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1}$   
529  $\text{DW}$ ). The soils of the lithological class 4 in the western Siberian Basin, Siberian and Canadian plain contained  
530  $2.28 \pm 0.32 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ . The Verkhoyansk-Kolyma region showed similar Fe concentrations ( $2.21 \pm 0.27 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1}$   
531  $\text{DW}$ , lithological class 7). Moderate to high Fe concentration we found for igneous mafic rocks in Iceland and  
532 Greenland ( $0.94 \pm 0.18 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 1) and for supracrustal rocks in Alaska ( $1.24 \pm 0.14 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1}$   
533  $\text{DW}$ , lithological class 12). The Chukotka region and western Siberia were relatively poor in Fe ( $0.83 \pm 0.13 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1}$   
534  $\text{DW}$ , lithological class 9). Eastern Siberia and North Europe contained even lower Fe concentrations  
535 ( $0.49 \pm 0.04 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 11). Available Fe concentrations in the Canadian Shield were similarly  
536 low ( $0.41 \pm 0.06 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 12). We expect increasing Fe concentrations at the Canada and  
537 Greenland shield due to predicted future thaw of the permafrost layer as the concentration in the permafrost layer  
538 ( $0.61 \pm 0.15 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 5) and in parts of Alaska ( $1.97 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class  
539 14) is higher compared to the current active layer with ( $0.41 \pm 0.05 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 5) and in parts  
540 of Alaska ( $1.08 \pm 0.38 \text{ mg Fe g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ , lithological class 14) (Fig. S7, Table S4). The variability of the data of available  
541 Fe is high for the lithological class 2 and 6.

- Gelöscht: ±
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- Gelöscht: ±
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- Gelöscht: ±
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- Gelöscht: Fe
- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±
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- Gelöscht: ±
- Gelöscht: ±



560

561 Fig. 6: Map of mean concentration of [available iron \(Fe\) \(Mehlich III extractable\)](#) for the uppermost 100 cm of soils.

562 For each lithological class the mean concentration is shown. Blue colors represent low concentrations of Fe, red colors  
 563 represent high concentrations. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data.

Gelöscht: mineral

Gelöscht:

566 **3.3.5 Aluminum in 0-1 m depth**

567 Northern Europe contained highest concentrations of available Al (**Mehlich III extractable**) ( $2.52 \pm 0.7$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 6) (Fig. 7). Relative high concentrations of **available** Al were distributed over Siberia and the Canadian Shield ( $1.63 \pm 0.02$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 7;  $1.57 \pm 0.22$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW lithological class 4). Parts of Alaska contained moderate **available** Al concentrations ( $0.94 \pm 0.06$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 10;  $1.5 \pm 0.23$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 13), while areas represented by supracrustal rocks were poor in **available** Al ( $0.47 \pm 0.06$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 12). We found relative low concentrations ( $0.73 \pm 0.01$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW) of **available** Al for Chukotka, eastern and western Siberia observed in lithological class 9. The Verkhoyansk-Kolyma Region and the East European plain showed the lowest **available** Al concentrations ( $0.26 \pm 0.02$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 11), together with the Canada plain ( $0.21 \pm 0.03$  mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW Al, lithological class 5). Increasing thawing depth may increase the **available** Al concentration by the predicted thaw of the permafrost layer in North Europe as the concentration in the permafrost layer is  $4.88 \pm 1.02$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 6) and across the Greenland and Canadian shield it is  $0.3 \pm 0.07$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 5) compared to the current active layer with  $2.52 \pm 0.7$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 6) and across the Greenland and Canadian shield it is  $0.21 \pm 0.03$  mg Al g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 5) (Fig. S7, Table S4). **The variability of the data of available Al is high for the lithological class 2 and 6.**

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: 0

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

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Gelöscht: ±

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Gelöscht: ±

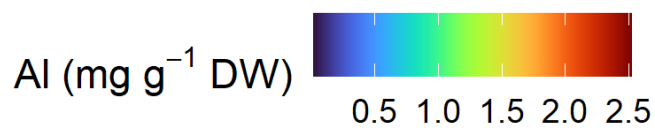
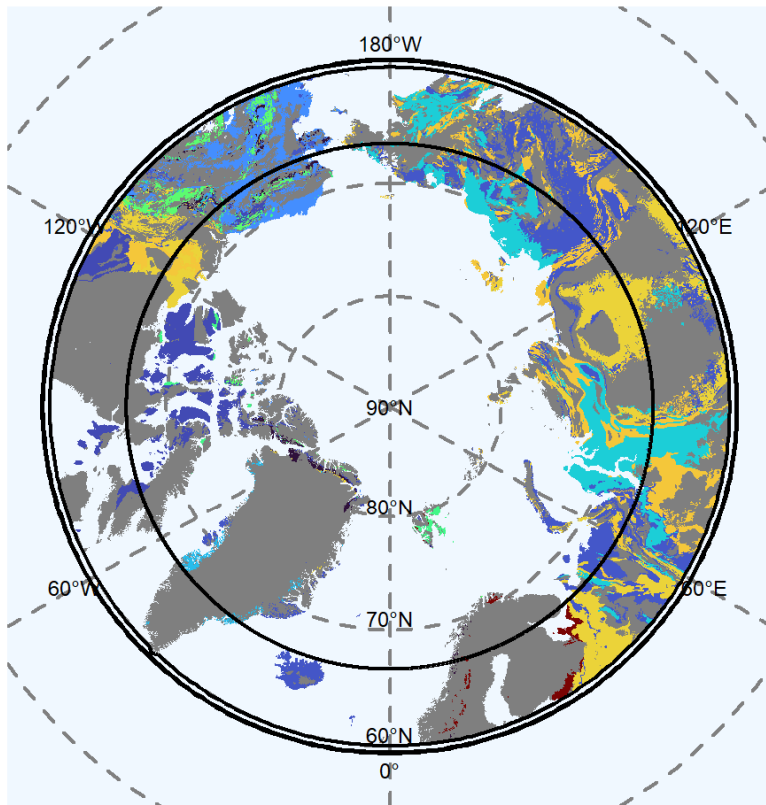
Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±



596

597 Fig. 7: Map of mean concentration of available aluminium (Al) (Mehlich III extractable) for the uppermost 100 cm of  
 598 soils. For each lithological class the mean concentration is shown. Blue colors represent low concentrations of Al, red  
 599 colors represent high concentrations. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data .

Gelöscht: mineral aluminum

Gelöscht:

602 **3.3.6 Phosphorous in 0-1 m depth**

603 We found the highest [available](#) P concentrations ([Mehlich III extractable](#)) we found for the West Siberian Basin, the  
604 Canadian Shield and the Siberian and East European Plain ( $0.306 \pm 0.042$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 4) (Fig. 8).  
605 In the Chukotka region the [available](#) P concentrations were  $0.189 \pm 0.023$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 7. We found  
606 moderate [available](#) P concentration for Northern Europe ( $0.123 \pm 0.034$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 6) and in  
607 Alaska ( $0.153 \pm 0.054$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 14). Wide areas of supracrustal rocks in Alaska were poor in  
608 [available](#) P ( $0.024 \pm 0.004$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 12). The Canadian shield ( $0.037 \pm 0.005$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW,  
609 lithological class 5), the Verkhoyansk-Kolyma region, the east European Plain ( $0.017 \pm 0.002$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW,  
610 lithological class 11) and the Chukotka region ( $0.030 \pm 0.003$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW, lithological class 9) were poor in P. Due  
611 to permafrost thaw we expect increasing [available](#) P concentrations the Canadian shield as the [available](#) P  
612 concentrations in the permafrost layer is  $0.06 \pm 0.01$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 5) compared to the current active  
613 layer with  $0.04 \pm 0.005$  mg P g<sup>-1</sup> DW (lithological class 5) (Fig. 7, Table S4). [The variability of the data of available](#)  
614 [P is high for the lithological class 4, 6 and 7.](#)

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

Gelöscht: ±

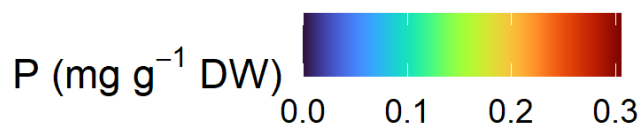
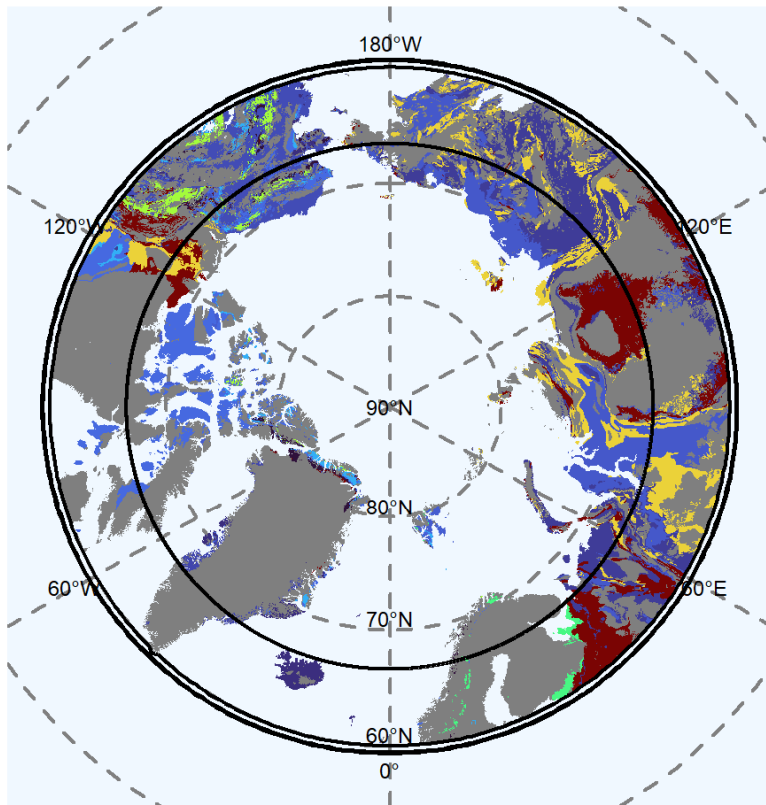
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626 Fig. 8: Map of mean concentration of available phosphorous (P) (Mehlich III extractable) for the uppermost 100 cm  
 627 of soils. For each lithological class the mean concentration is shown. Blue colors represent low concentrations of P,  
 628 red colors represent high concentrations. Grey shaded areas are not represented by our data .

Gelöscht: mineral

Gelöscht:



631 **4 Discussion**

632 **4.1 Element availability in relation to lithology and geography**

633 We found large differences in the availability of all analysed elements between the different lithology classes of the  
634 Arctic. The igneous lithological type for example is dominated by alkaline and Ca-rich basaltic rocks from Alaska.  
635 Sedimentary rocks covers a wide range of pH, as sediments of diverse origin can contribute to form a sedimentary  
636 rock (Schirmeister et al., 2011). In regions with fluvial deposition, e.g. in Yedoma affected areas, the soil forming  
637 material may differ from the underlying bedrock (Kokelj et al., 2017). Limestone sediments for example differ in their  
638 content of available Fe and P, depending if their origin is biological (lithological class 4), physical or chemical.  
639 Sandstone can contain high available Fe concentrations, too, but it contains available Si as the main element  
640 (lithological class 7-8) (Yurchenko et al., 2019). Previously, there was no map existing for availability of Si, Ca, Fe,  
641 P, and Al in Arctic soils, and only a map on ASi stocks but not concentrations. Our maps show element concentration  
642 available for plants and microbes together. We further show potential changes in element availability by deepening of  
643 the active layer, element export by run-off from thawed soil and thermokarst processes.

645 **4.2 Relevance of element availability in a dynamic Arctic**

646 Nutrient cycles and limitations were identified as important for improving of high latitude ecosystems estimations  
647 vegetation functional parameter like gross primary production (GPP) (Chadburn et al., 2017). The dataset presented  
648 in our study could therefore serve as a basis for providing soil nutrient concentrations for biogeochemical models that  
649 are capable of considering nutrient limitations in permafrost ecosystems. Our maps cover nearly the half of the Arctic  
650 area. The distribution of ASi in Arctic regions was first estimated by (Alfredsson et al., 2016). Alfredsson et al. (2016)  
651 showed maps of ASi stocks (not concentrations) related to vegetation cover, covering 30 soil profiles. Elements like  
652 Si and Ca are accumulated by plants, depending on the vegetation type (Jobbágy and Jackson, 2001; Mauclet et al.,  
653 2022). By this the effect of current vegetation on element availability in soils is associated with high uncertainties as  
654 the vegetation involved in forming the soil ASi pool may be different from the current vegetation (Andreev Andrei A.  
655 et al., 2003; ANDREEV et al., 2016; Schweger, 1982). A more appropriate measure of element availability may be  
656 parent material and lithology (Alloway, 2013). It was shown, that geochemical element concentration in Arctic  
657 permafrost soil allow to distinguish geologies (Reimann and Melezhik, 2001). Consequently, our lithology-based  
658 extrapolation of nutrient availability will help to reduce the so far uncertainties in pan-Arctic soil element availability.  
659 Due to deepening of the active layer, as for example at the Canadian Shield and in the North-Atlantic region, our data  
660 suggest higher ASi concentrations in the active layer in future, as the concentration in the permafrost layer is higher  
661 compared to current active layer (Fig. S6). This higher ASi concentrations may increase P and OM availability  
662 (Reithmaier et al., 2017; Schaller et al., 2019) by polysilicic acid competing for binding sites on the surface of minerals  
663 subsequently mobilizing both P and OM as ASi is a main source for polysilicic acid, potentially increasing the leaching  
664 of both elements to the sea. It was also shown that available Si leads to a release of P from minerals of Arctic soils  
665 and increases OM decomposition, increasing soil greenhouse gas release (Schaller et al., 2019; Schaller et al., 2021b).

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Gelöscht: Rocks built up by sedimentation are often more complex or variable in their chemical composition than igneous rocks.

Gelöscht: Sedimentary rocks covers a wide range of pH, as

Gelöscht: the parent material is more diverse

Gelöscht: generating

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Gelöscht: what

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Gelöscht: permafrost thaw

Gelöscht: and we discuss these changes in element availability in regard to occurring nutrient limitations and Arctic C-fluxes

Gelöscht: .

Gelöscht: Low temperatures in the Arctic systems slow down biological and chemical processes and preserve OM for millennia (Sher et al., 2005). Due to Arctic warming these processes are accelerated by an increased nutrient and OM mobilization from the permafrost (Salmon et al., 2016). Consequently, OM may become vulnerable to respiration (Hugelius et al., 2020; Strauss et al., 2017). However, OM is not the single driving force regarding the acceleration of Arctic soil respiration. Available eElements like Si, Ca, Fe, P and Al may also interfere this process (Monhonval et al., 2021a; Monhonval et al., 2021b). ¶

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Gelöscht: mineral

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Gelöscht: observed

Gelöscht: shield

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Gelöscht: soil layers

Feldfunktion geändert

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702 Available Ca can immobilize OM by cation bridging and by this preserve OM from microbial decomposition (Sowers  
 703 et al., 2020). Available Ca is relevant for the mineral formation because it can bind CO<sub>2</sub> as Ca(HCO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in soil with pH  
 704 higher than 7 (Dessert et al., 2003; Köhler et al., 2010). The concentration of soluble Ca in Yedoma soils is mainly  
 705 driven by thermokarst processes (Monhonval et al., 2022). In permafrost layers, the data presented in Fig. S6 shows  
 706 Ca concentrations are in most locations lower than in the current active layers, which is in accordance to other studies  
 707 (Kokelj and Burn, 2005). Consequently, a future increase in temperatures may lead to a widespread decrease in  
 708 available Ca concentrations in average at 0-1 m depth, especially in the Yedoma regions. Iron minerals are important  
 709 electron acceptors under anaerobic conditions and available Fe is essential for microbial methane production  
 710 (Colombo et al., 2018). After being released from rocks by weathering, Al forms amorphous aluminosilicates that  
 711 crystallize slowly (Schaller et al., 2021a). The Mehlich III extract contains all soluble forms of Al(OH)(H<sub>2</sub>O) that are  
 712 bioavailable for organisms, with Al being toxic (Rengel, 2004). Thawing permafrost may be a source for available Al,  
 713 especially across Canada, the Greenland shield and Northern Europe. Increasing P availability, as predicted for  
 714 Greenland and the Canadian shield (Fig. 7) may for example increase CO<sub>2</sub> release to the atmosphere by increasing the  
 715 mineralization rates of OM (Street et al., 2018; Yang and Kane, 2021).

717 **4.3 Importance of element interactions for nutrient availability**

718 In permafrost layers, the mineralization of OM by microbial activity is negligible due to frozen conditions. Like in  
 719 temperate soils, binding of OM on mineral phases can prevent OM from mineralization (Dutta et al., 2006; Mueller et  
 720 al., 2015). Mineral phases may bind parts of soil OM reducing the amount of OM for microbial respiration. A large  
 721 share of OM may be associated with iron and aluminium oxides/hydroxides. In particular iron minerals may strongly  
 722 bind OM, whereby a high stability of stored carbon is likely (Herndon et al., 2017). Thereby the binding between OM  
 723 and the minerals is determined by the quantity of minerals that can bind OM (Wiseman and Püttmann, 2006). This  
 724 would imply that a higher concentration of available Fe, Al and Ca in Arctic soils due to permafrost thaw may lead to  
 725 a lower GHG emission from Arctic soils due to complexation of OM with those elements. Such increase in element  
 726 availability binding OM and with this resulting in potentially lower GHG emissions may happen for Alaska (higher  
 727 available Ca and available Fe concentration in permafrost layer compared to current active layer), Canadian Shield  
 728 and Greenland (higher available Fe and available Al concentration in permafrost layer compared to current active  
 729 layer), and North Europe (higher available Al concentration in permafrost layer compared to current active layer) (see  
 730 results part). However, lower available Ca concentrations can be expected in large parts of Siberia and the Canadian  
 731 Shield, as the concentrations in the permafrost layer are lower compared to the current active layer. Available silicon  
 732 however, can potentially mobilize OM from those phases under slight acidic to alkaline and also from oxic to anoxic  
 733 conditions, by binding competition of silicic acid with some functional groups of organic material (Hömborg et al.,  
 734 2020), potentially increasing GHG emissions. An increase in Si availability upon permafrost thaw can be expected in  
 735 the western Verkhoyansk-Kolyma-Region to the east European Platform as the concentration in the permafrost layer  
 736 is higher compared to the current active layer (see results part). Available P competes with OM for binding on soil  
 737 minerals (Schneider et al., 2010). Such increasing P concentration due to permafrost thaw can be expected for the

- Gelöscht:** Calcium
- Gelöscht:** Calcium reduces the osmotic stress for microbes (Läuchli and Grattan, 2007) by decreasing the freezing point of water and increasing the availability of liquid pore water (Jessen et al., 2014).
- Gelöscht:** deeper soil
- Gelöscht:** usually
- Gelöscht:** upper soil
- Formatiert:** Affiliation Char, Schriftfarbe: Automatisch
- Gelöscht:** In deeper soil layers, Ca concentrations are usually lower than in upper layers.
- Gelöscht:** Fe Iron is also of high importance for ecosystems as it is a key element in microbial activity (Colombo et al., 2014) and nitrogen fixation (Jasniewski et al., 2019).
- Gelöscht:** Fe
- Gelöscht:** silica
- Gelöscht:** mineralizes
- Gelöscht:** Aluminium extracted by
- Gelöscht:** is
- Gelöscht:** respiration
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- Feldfunktion geändert**
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- Gelöscht:** some

760 Canadian Shield (results part). Based on the differences in element (Si, Fe, Al, Ca and P) available concentration, the  
761 stability of OM differs in Arctic regions, depending on the dominating mineral composition, lithology and element  
762 availability. Also the availability of nutrients (P in this case) is modified by mineral composition. For example, P is  
763 often strongly bound to Fe mineral phases, reducing P availability (Gérard, 2016). Silicic acid, however, is able to  
764 mobilize P from strong binding to Fe mineral by competing for binding sites in a wide range of conditions (Schaller  
765 et al., 2019). Unlike Si, Ca binds P by calcium phosphate precipitation at alkaline conditions (Cao and Harris, 2008)  
766 or as calcium carbonate/phosphate co-precipitation (Otsuki and Wetzel, 1972). Under conditions of low Fe availability  
767 in soils, the binding of P may be related to Al-minerals (Eriksson et al., 2015). A lack of available P leads also to a  
768 reduction of the physiological activity of microbes (Walker et al., 2001), thus potentially reducing microbial  
769 respiration of OM. Mobile Si in forms of silicic acid and its polymers may potentially limit the availability of ions  
770 like Fe, Al, or Ca by precipitating those elements in amorphous or crystalline phases (Schaller et al., 2021a). Hence,  
771 the mobilization of elements like Si, Ca, Fe and Al strongly interfere with both P and OM availability and thus  
772 potentially with GHG emissions. To unravel the dominant processes upon permafrost thaw, or which element  
773 mobilization is dominant in terms of OM binding or mobilization and with this affecting GHG emission, future studies  
774 are urgently needed.

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#### 776 4.4 Transport of elements to the Arctic Ocean

777 With the ongoing deepening of the active layer in Arctic soils, an increased leaching of elements and nutrients may  
778 occur (Mann et al., 2022; Sanders et al., 2022), which may substantially impact marine biodiversity and ecosystem  
779 function. We have shown for several regions of the Arctic that there will be regional differences in element  
780 mobilization upon permafrost thaw. For example, increased export of Fe and P, which are the main limiting nutrients  
781 for marine net primary production (NPP); (Zabel and Schulz, 2006), has already contributed to a 30% increase in NPP  
782 in the Arctic Ocean between 1998 and 2009 (Arrigo and van Dijken, 2011). Increased available Fe concentrations at  
783 the depth of 0-1 m in the soils upon permafrost thaw can be expected for soils developed on the Canadian Shield,  
784 Greenland and Alaska, whereas increased P mobilization may occur only in the Canadian Shield, according to the  
785 sites studied within these lithological classes. Silicon and Ca also have a crucial role in marine primary production.  
786 Both elements are components of the inorganic spheres of diatoms (Si) and coccolithophores (Ca), which fix CO<sub>2</sub> in  
787 the Arctic Ocean, an important global carbon sink (Krause et al., 2018). At the Arctic Canadian coast, Si inputs led to  
788 an increase of diatoms from 2% to 37% (Terhaar et al., 2021). Diatoms and coccolithophores are the basis of the  
789 marine food chain, and therefore, shifts in their populations may have widespread implications for the marine  
790 ecosystem (Daniels et al., 2018). Permafrost thaw is likely to accelerate inputs of available Si and Ca to Arctic waters.  
791 Increased Si availability in soils can be expected in the western Verkhoyansk-Kolyma-Region to the east European  
792 Platform as the concentration in the permafrost layer is higher compared to the current active layer, (see Results  
793 section). Calcium mobilization may increase or decrease depending on the Arctic region. Increase Ca mobilization  
794 can be expected for Alaska, whereas a slight decrease in Ca mobilization may occur in large parts of Siberia and the  
795 Canadian Shield (see Results section). Yedoma deposits readily leach soluble ions, including Si and Ca, as a result of

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803 thaw degradation (Strauss et al., 2017b). Alaskan soils store huge amounts of [available](#) Ca in the mineral layer (see  
804 above) that could be transported to the Beringia Sea with increasing soil degradation, promoting the growth of  
805 coccolithophores. In Siberia, the Lena River could transport large amounts of [available](#) Si to the Laptev Sea increasing  
806 the growth of diatoms. The same could happen at the East European plain. In the same way P concentrations in these  
807 regions of the Arctic Sea could rise, too, as P concentrations in the permafrost layer of the Canadian Shield are higher  
808 compared with the current active layer (see results part). During the transport to the ocean the elements may be bound  
809 to soil particles potentially decreasing the further transport or may interact with other elements (see paragraph before)  
810 also potentially affecting the further transport. In summary, in many areas of the Arctic with high [available](#) Si, Ca and  
811 P storage, there could be increased inputs to Arctic waters with permafrost thaw potentially increasing CO<sub>2</sub> fixation  
812 by marine primary production.

#### 813 [4.5. Limitations of data and statistics](#)

815 Despite sample number of our study being quite high and reflecting a broad range of the pan-Arctic regions, this study  
816 has still some limitations. The density of data points is not homogeneous over the whole area and in some remote  
817 areas the sample number is low. To reduce potential uncertainties and variance in the presented data on available  
818 element concentrations we did bootstrapping for the single layers within the lithological classes. Our data does not  
819 give total element pools, but biological available concentrations.

## 821 5 Data availability

822 The data for element availability from all single locations, soil profiles, transects, lithology's, as well as bootstrap data  
823 for location and lithology can be can be downloaded via the open-access MPG repository EDMONT under  
824 <https://doi.org/10.17617/3.8KGQUN> (Schaller and Goeckede, 2022). During review process, the data is available  
825 under: <https://edmond.mpdl.mpg.de/privateurl.xhtml?token=8cbb0bd8-790f-4719-8cd1-a3df4ff99477> to allow  
826 corrections based on reviewer comments (Schaller and Goeckede, 2022). The repository contains a readme file ("Read  
827 me.docx"). In this file, all necessary information can be found, including all columns descriptions need to use the data.  
828 The element availability from all single locations, soil profiles, transects, lithology's labelled (loction\_samples.txt)  
829 with following parameters: geological map of the Arctic, individual ID of the polygon, official name of the sampling  
830 site, study internal name of the soil sample, soil horizon, coordinates of sampling sites, concentration of alkaline  
831 extractable [amorphous](#) silicon (ASi), Mehlich-3 extractable Si, Ca, Fe Al and P, thickness of the layer, original depth  
832 where soil was taken, size of the polygon that contains the sampling site, age code, scientific name of the age, where  
833 bedrock was formed, scientific name of the eon, where bedrock was formed, scientific name of the era, where bedrock  
834 was formed, scientific name of the period, where bedrock was formed, maximal and minimal age of bedrock,  
835 information if lithogenesis was of the supracrustal, sedimentary or igneous type, most common rock types in the  
836 cluster group of the setting, code of metamorphic type, code of domain region, name of tectonic and geographic  
837 domain, as well as name of region within geographic domain.

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846 In the location\_bootstrap.txt file the bootstrapped means of concentration of alkaline extractable silicon, Mehlich-3  
847 extractable Si, Ca, Fe Al and P for the organic, mineral active and permafrost layer of the single locations are given  
848 in mg/g DW.

849 In the file "lithology\_bootstrap.txt" element concentration for the first 1 m, including organic, mineral and permafrost  
850 layer are given as bootstrapped mean with standard deviation for alkaline extractable silicon as well as Mehlich-3  
851 extractable Si, Ca, Fe Al and P.

## 853 6 Conclusion

854 Here, we identified large differences in **concentrations in available Si, Ca, Fe, P, Al and the solid ASi fraction** between  
855 different Arctic regions. With the future projected warming of the Arctic and the associated thaw of permafrost **soils**  
856 **by deepening the active layer, the available concentration of the elements will change, which will likely lead to**  
857 **difference in their availability according to our data.** Depending on dominance or limitation of certain elements,  
858 biogeochemical processes such as OM mineralization may increase or decrease. Moreover, not only microbial  
859 processes like OM respiration may be affected by changes in Si, Ca, Fe, P, and Al availability, but also processes such  
860 as primary production (CO<sub>2</sub> fixation by plants) in terrestrial systems. This could be stabilizing soil OM, but may also  
861 trigger elevated biomass production of plants due to increased nutrient supply. In addition, marine systems will receive  
862 higher loads of leached elements, which could increase algae biomass production due to larger nutrient transport to  
863 the sea. Our spatially data product including the differences in elements availability between the different lithological  
864 classes and regions will help improving models of Arctic biogeochemical cycles for estimating future carbon feedback  
865 under the predicted climate change.

866 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing  
867 interests.

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872 project [#03F0806A (BMBF)]. Grant NSF-1417700 to SMN.  
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**Gelöscht:** availability

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**Gelöscht:** the availabilities of the elements will change

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