



**Table 1.** Porosity, Bulk Density, and Carbon Fraction for Different Organic Horizon Types in Soil Profiles of Black Spruce Stands<sup>a</sup>

		Live	Fibrous	Amorphous
Porosity (%)	Mean	98.26	96.16	90.05
	STD (n)	1.39 (77)	3.16 (113)	6.10 (56)
Bulk density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	Mean	0.028	0.070	0.179
	STD (n)	0.023 (78)	0.088 (114)	0.135 (58)
Carbon Fraction (%)	Mean	44.14	41.52	32.78
	STD (n)	4.28 (82)	7.20 (113)	10.36 (59)

<sup>a</sup>Results are aggregated across stand age classes (young and mature) and soil drainage classes (dry and wet). The mean, standard deviation (STD), and number of profiles (n) are indicated. Porosity, bulk density and carbon fraction are significantly different among horizon types at the 0.05 level.

and (2) a two-way unbalanced analysis with two factors (stand age and drainage) for total thickness and total C content for horizons aggregated within each soil profile. A posteriori comparisons of means were performed using Tukey-Kramer tests.

[5] The sample data were used to determine fitted parameters for the exponential relationship between C density and height above the mineral-organic boundary:

$$c_{den} = ae^{bh} + c_{min} \quad (1)$$

where  $h$  is height (cm),  $a$  and  $b$  are fitted parameters, and  $c_{min}$  is the minimum C density (gC/cm<sup>3</sup>);  $c_{min}$  was assumed to be 0.0025 gC/cm<sup>3</sup> based on the minimum C density among samples in the dataset.

[6] To develop relationships between C content and thickness of particular organic horizon type, the C content and thickness of the live, fibrous, or amorphous horizons were summed for each profile, and the relationships between the summed C content and summed thickness were expressed as:

$$C_{sum} = ax^b_{sum} \quad (2)$$

where  $C_{sum}$  and  $x_{sum}$  are summed C content (gC/cm<sup>2</sup>) and summed OL thickness (cm) of live, fibrous or amorphous horizons of a profile, respectively, and  $a$  and  $b$  are fitted parameters. The value of  $b$  was constrained to be greater than or equal to 1, so that the C content would increase at least linearly with an increase in horizon thicknesses.

[7] In this study, a dynamic OL version of Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (TEM) was used to demonstrate the effects of OL dynamics and drainages on the soil environment. To demonstrate how a dynamic OL influences active layer depth and water table depth, we analyzed the output from two TEM simulations over a 900 year period, one with a dynamic OL (DOL) and the other with a static OL (SOL) for black spruce

stands on dry and wet soils. More detailed information about implementation of dynamic OLs in TEM and the simulation procedures is provided in the auxiliary material section.

### 3. Results

[X] Porosity, bulk density and C fraction are best characterized by generalized horizon type (live, fibrous, and amorphous; Table 1). All three variables vary significantly among horizon types ( $p < 0.0001$ ; Data Sets S3, S4, and S5), and do not vary by other main effects or interactions among main effects, with the exception that bulk density also varies by drainage class ( $p = 0.0075$ ) and C fraction varies by stand age ( $p = 0.0020$ ). For both dry and wet soils, the mean porosity and C fraction of the live horizon are generally greater than those of the fibrous horizon, which are greater than those of the amorphous horizon (Data Sets S8, S9 and S10). For both dry and wet soils, the mean bulk density of the live horizon is less than that of the fibrous horizon, which is less than that of the amorphous horizon (Data Sets S8, S9 and S10).

[9] OL thickness varies among horizon types, between stand ages, and between drainage classes ( $p < 0.0001$ ; Data Set S6). There are also interactions among main effects ( $p < 0.0001$ ), with the exception of stand age and drainage. At the 0.05 significance level, there is no significant difference between stand ages or between drainage classes for the live horizon (Table 2). For the fibrous horizon, there is a significant difference between young and mature stands in both dry and wet drainage classes. The amorphous horizon thickness in the dry soils is significantly less than the thickness in wet soils, regardless of stand ages. The live thickness is always significantly less than that of the fibrous horizon, regardless of stand age and drainage class.

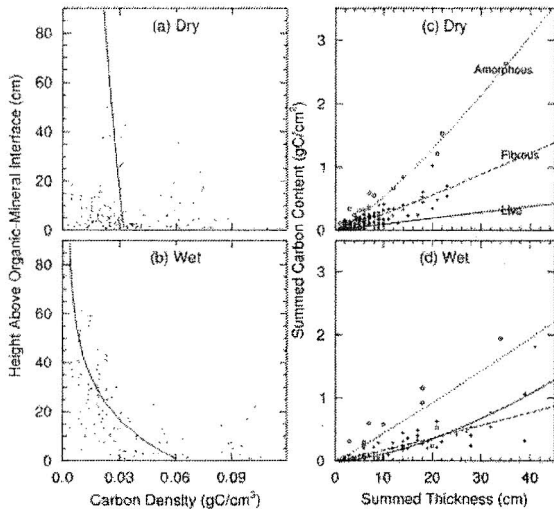
[10] The total OL thickness in a profile (i.e., the sum of the live, fibrous and amorphous horizons) varies by stand age and drainage ( $p < 0.001$ ), with no interactions. The average (standard deviation) of OLs in dry and wet soils of mature stands are 17 (6) and 34 (14) cm thick, respectively; and OLs in dry and wet soils of young stands are 8 (II) and 23 (13) cm thick, respectively.

[11] OL C content varies by horizon type, stand age, and drainage ( $p < 0.001$ ; Data Set S7). There is also an interaction between stand age \* horizon type ( $p = 0.0084$ ). The total organic C in the organic horizons of a soil profile (the sum of live, fibrous and amorphous horizons) varies by stand age and drainage with no interactions ( $p < 0.001$ ). The average (standard deviation) of total organic C in dry and wet organic soils of mature stands are 0.50 (0.27) and 0.89 (0.55) gC/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively; and the average (standard deviation) of total organic C in dry and wet organic soils of young stands are 0.23 (0.49) and 0.68 (0.36) g/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively.

**Table 2.** Mean, Standard Deviation, and Number of Profiles for Organic Layer Thickness (cm)<sup>a</sup>

		Live		Fibrous		Amorphous	
		Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet
Young	Mean	1.35 <sup>f</sup>	1.48 <sup>fa</sup>	5.68 <sup>l</sup>	9.26 <sup>l</sup>	<b>2.90</b>	<b>13.03<sup>l</sup></b>
	STD (n)	2.19 (110)	1.76 (36)	5.87 (107)	8.70 (36)	7.23 (98)	9.83 (25)
Mature	Mean	3.5 <sup>f</sup>	3.27 <sup>fa</sup>	<b>11.23<sup>l</sup></b>	<b>22.62<sup>la</sup></b>	<b>7.62</b>	<b>12.69<sup>lf</sup></b>
	STD (n)	1.49 (47)	2.64 (49)	5.29 (46)	10.02 (47)	10.05 (45)	11.02 (35)

<sup>a</sup>The superscript of the horizon type (e.g., l - Live, f - Fibrous, a - Amorphous) indicates that the thickness of that horizon is significantly different from the noted horizon. Bold values identify cases for which the thickness of dry soil is significantly different from wet soil. Underlined values identify cases for which the thickness of young stands is significantly different from that of mature stands.



**Figure 1.** Relationships between carbon density and (a and b) height above the mineral-organic boundary for black spruce stands analyzed in the data set. Dots represent samples. Lines represent regression lines for dry (Figure 1a) and wet (Figure 1b) soils, respectively; and (c and d) relationships between summed carbon content and summed organic layer thickness for three general horizons. Stars, pluses, and circles represent measured values for live, fibrous, and amorphous horizons, respectively, and solid, dashed, and dotted lines represent regression lines for live, fibrous, and amorphous horizons, respectively.

[12] In black spruce stands, C density is generally at a maximum near the boundary between the mineral and organic soil horizons, and decreases exponentially upward from that boundary (Figures 1a and 1b). The relationship between C density and height (equation (1)) had the poorest fit for organic horizons of dry soils ( $r = 0.06$ ; Table 3). The relationship was much stronger for organic horizons of wet soils ( $r = 0.60$ ; Table 3).

[u] Total C content of each horizon type is well predicted by summed OL thickness (Figures 1c and 1d and Table 4). Equation (2) and the thicknesses provided in Table 2 predict about 0.72 and 0.99 gC/cm<sup>2</sup> in the total OL of dry and wet soil of the mature stands, respectively. These equations predict 0.27 and 0.74 gC/cm<sup>2</sup> in the total OL of dry and wet soil of the young stands, respectively.

[14] In the static SOL simulation of TEM for dry soil (Figure 2a), the active layer depth (ALD) and water table depth (WTD) had little variability during the 900 years of simulation (Figures 2b and 2c). In contrast, the OL varied from 0.06 to 0.15 m in the DOL application of TEM, with the minimum OL immediately after fire and recovery of the OL occurring until the next fire (Figure 2a). In the DOL simu-

**Table 3.** Coefficients a and b, Correlation Coefficient (r), and Number of Samples (n) Used for Fitting Equations Between Carbon Density and Height Above Organic-Mineral Interface for Black Spruce Stands With Dry and Wet Soils

	a	b	r	n
Dry	0.029	-0.005	0.06	145
Wet	0.061	-0.047	0.60	105

**Table 4.** Coefficients a and b, Correlation Coefficient (r), and Number of Profiles (n) Used for Fitting Equations Between Summed Carbon Content and Summed Thickness of Generalized Horizons for Black Spruce Stands With Dry and Wet Soils

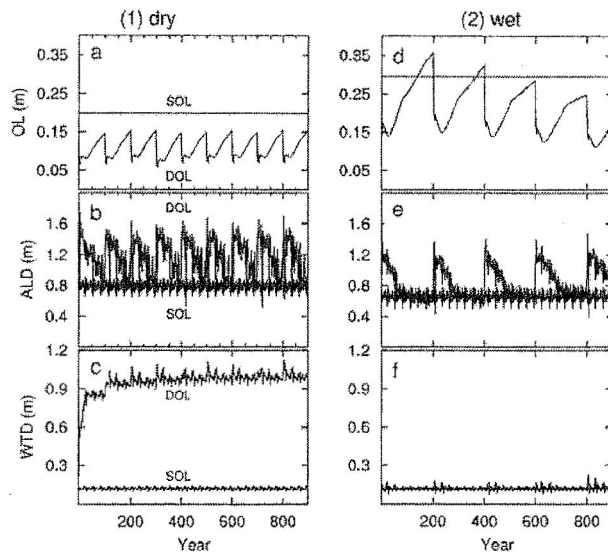
		a	b	r	n
Dry	Live	0.009	1.000	0.79	108
	Fibrous	0.019	1.125	0.87	93
	Amorphous	0.029	1.262	0.98	106
Wet	Live	0.003	1.621	0.87	48
	Fibrous	0.014	1.088	0.72	44
	Amorphous	0.036	1.080	0.89	21

lation for dry soil, ALD increased to about 1.5m immediately after fire and gradually decreased to 0.8 m in response to OL dynamics (Figure 2b). WTD responded in a different fashion to OL dynamics (Figure 2c) as increases in ALD caused enhanced subsurface drainage to cause an increase in WTD. Once WTD increased, it was not able to recover to the previous wetter condition. In contrast, in the SOL simulation the soil stayed very wet and WTD remained close to soil surface. For wet soil, the OL, ALD and WTD of the SOL simulation were similar to that of dry soil, except that OL and ALD of wet soil were thicker and shallower than that of dry soil, respectively (Figures 2d, 2e, and 2f). In contrast to the simulation for dry soil, the WTD simulated for wet soil were similar between the SOL and DOL simulations (Figure 2f).

4. Discussion

4.1. Implementation of Vertical Heterogeneity of Organic Layer in Models

[15] Our analysis in this paper identifies that the carbon density is lowest at the top of the organic layer and highest near the interface between the organic and mineral soil layers.



**Figure 2.** Comparisons of (a and d) organic layer thickness (OL), (b and e) Active layer depths (ALD), and (c and f) water table depths (WTD) between simulations with a dynamic organic layer (thick line; DOL) and a static organic layer (thin line; SOL) for black spruce stands with (left) dry and (right) wet soils.

In addition, the OL properties (porosity, bulk density, and C fraction) differ significantly among the three different horizon types. Porosity is an important factor that affects soil thermal and hydrological properties, e.g., thermal conductivity, matric potential, and hydraulic conductivity. The differences between the porosity of the fibrous and amorphous OLs indicate that modeling efforts should use at least two types of OLs [see *Letts et al.*, 2000], rather than one type [see *Beringer et al.*, 2001]. We also suggest the inclusion of a live moss surface horizon within land surface and ecosystem models due to its distinct physical and ecological properties (e.g., the live horizon has higher porosity and can photosynthesize). The mean values of porosity of different horizon types in Table 1 can be used in models, since there are no significant differences in porosity between stand ages at between drainage classes. However, differences in live moss properties between wet and dry soils need to be considered when simulating soil water dynamics. These differences are likely due, in part, to differences in species composition between drier and wetter soils. Wet sites tend to be dominated by different moss species, including *Sphagnum sp.*, whereas dry sites tend to be dominated by species other than *Sphagnum* [*Manies et al.*, 2006].

[16] In comparison to thermal properties of organic horizons (e.g., thermal conductivity and thermal capacity), there are more uncertainties in hydraulic properties (e.g., hydraulic conductivity and matric potential) [*Letts et al.*, 2000]. More accurate and precise measurements of hydraulic properties of organic horizons are needed to improve modeling of organic layer dynamics.

#### 4.2. Implementation of Spatial Heterogeneity of Organic Layer in Models

[17] The total OL thickness of dry soils is significantly less than that of wet soils, regardless of stand age. The amorphous layer is also thinner in dry soils, regardless of stand age. As discussed by *Harden et al.* [2006] and *Kane et al.* [2007], this difference is likely related to two factors: (1) increased decomposition of these layers in drier soils, which inhibits the accumulation of this horizon, and (2) more frequent and deeper burning fires in dry soils. After fire disturbance, a new OL with low C density forms directly over a high C density layer, as shown in Figure 1. The thickness of the fibrous horizon of wet soils in mature stands is significantly greater than that of dry soils, while the same pattern does not apply to young stands. This suggests that there are distinct differences in the burning and development of the fibrous horizon between drainage classes, which might be caused by different moss types and soil environments in the different drainage classes.

[18] Spatial variability was also found in the vertical distributions of C density. For black spruce stands on dry soils, equation (1) provided a poor fit of C density with height above the mineral-organic soil boundary. This is partly caused by fire disturbance, which can burn deeply into the amorphous horizon of dry soils. Ecological succession after fire causes the accumulation of a fibrous horizon with low C density over a higher density amorphous horizon. Thus, in dry soils there is generally a large difference between the C density at the depth of burning and the newly accumulating organic matter in the soil. Wetter soils, with their thicker fibrous horizon, prevent wildfire from burning into the

amorphous horizon. *Carrasco et al.* [2006] used a relationship that was similar to our equation (1) for organic horizons of wet soils to calculate the thickness of OL. based on simulated vertical soil C. The results of this study indicate that the relationship should only be used for black spruce stands with wet soils, but approaches based on equation (2) can be used for all drainage classes.

[19] Because there are distinct differences in fire disturbance and processes controlling organic soil development of black spruce stands across landscapes, the heterogeneity of OLs across landscapes needs to be considered in modeling studies. *Ju and Chen* [2005] implemented six drainage classes to simulate the soil carbon stocks of Canada. While it might be unrealistic to implement this many drainage classes, we recommend using at least two broad drainage classes, as in this study.

#### 4.3. Implementation of Temporal Dynamics of Organic Layer in Models

[20] The total OL thickness and total organic C content of a young stand is significantly less than that of a mature stand, regardless of drainage. With respect to the thermal buffering role of the organic horizons, we suggest that the successional development of organic horizons after fire needs to be considered for simulating the soil environment in cold regions. Here we suggest using the relationships between cumulative C content and cumulative thickness of different organic horizons (equation (2); see Figures 1c and 1d) to simulate the change of thickness of each generalized horizon, based on simulated organic C in that horizon. Our simulations with the DOL version of TEM indicates that the OL dynamics can (1) be simulated in an implementation that is based on equation (2), and (2) can substantially affect ALD and WTD of organic soils. Correctly predicting the dynamics of ALD and WTD of organic soils is important for properly modeling soil C dynamics.

[21] Acknowledgments. Our thanks to Eugenie Euskirchen and Ion O'Donnell for their help on statistical analysis; and to Merritt Turetsky, Stephanie Ewing, and two anonymous reviewers for their comments. This study was supported by USGS Earth Surface Dynamic program, the USGS Global Change Research Program, the National Science Foundation (Integrated Research Challenges in Environmental Biology, DEB-0077XR), and the NASA BOREAS program.

#### References

- Bauer, I. E., J. S. Bhatti, K. J. Cash, C. Tarnocai, and S. D. Robinson (2006), Developing statistical models to estimate the carbon density of organic soils, *Can. J. Soil Sci.*, 116, 295–304.
- Beringer, J., A. H. Lynch, F. S. Chapin III, M. Mack, and G. B. Bonan (2001), The representation of Arctic soils in the land surface model: The importance of mosses, *J. Clim.*, 14, 3324–3335.
- Boelter, D. H. (1969), Physical properties of peats as related to degree of decomposition, *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.*, 33, 606–609.
- Carrasco, J. J., J. C. Nell and I. W. Harden (2006), Modeling physical and biogeochemical controls over carbon accumulation in a boreal forest soil, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 111, G02004, doi:10.1029/2005.1J000057.
- Fan, Z., J. C. Neff, I. W. Harden, and K. P. Wickland (2003), Boreal soil carbon dynamics under a changing climate: A model inversion approach, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 108, G04116, doi: 10.1029/2003JG000723.
- Harden, J., S. E. Trumbore, B. J. Stocks, A. I. Hirsch, S. T. Clower, K. P. O'Neill, and E. Kasischke (2000), The role of fire in the boreal carbon budget, *Global Change Biol.*, 6, 174–184.
- Harden, J., K. L. Manies, M. R. Turetsky, and J. C. Neff (2006), Effects of wildfire and permafrost on soil organic matter and soil climate in interior Alaska, *Global Change Biol.*, 12, 2391–2403.
- Ju, W., and J. Chen (2005), Distribution of soil carbon stocks in Canada's forests and wetlands simulated based on drainage class, topography and remotely sensed vegetation parameters, *Hydro. Processes*, 19, 77–94.

- Kane, E. S., E. S. Kasischke, D. W. Valentine, M. R. Turetsky, and H. D. McGuire (2007), Topographic influences on wildfire consumption of soil organic carbon in interior Alaska: Implications for black carbon accumulation, *J. Geophys. Res.*, **112**, G07017, doi:10.1029/2007JG00045R.
- Lawrence, D. M., and H. G. Slater (2007), Incorporating organic soil into a global climate model, *Clim. Change*, **80**, 145–160, doi:10.1007/s00382-006-0271-1.
- Letts, M., N. Roulet, N. Comer, M. Skarupa, and D. Verseghy (2000), Parameterization of peatland hydraulic properties for the Canadian Land Surface Scheme, *Atmos. Ocean*, **38**, 141–160.
- Manics, K. L., I. W. Harden, and H. veldhuis (2006), Soil Data from a moderately well and somewhat poorly drained fire chronosequence near Thompson, Manitoba, Canada, *U.S. Geol. Surv. Open File Rep.*, **211116-1291**, 11 Pt.
- Viereck, L. L., and W. F. Johnston (1990), Black Spruce, in *Silvics of North America*, vol. 6, edited by R. M. Burns and B. H. Honkala, Pt. 227–237, U.S. Dept. of Agric., Washington, D. C.
- Vi, S., M. Woo, and M. A. Arain (2007), Impacts of peat and vegetation on permafrost degradation under climate warming, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **34**, L16504, doi:10.1029/2007GL030550.
- Zhang, Y., W. Chen, and D. W. Riseborough (2008), Disequilibrium response of permafrost thaw to climate warming in Canada over 1850–2100, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, **35**, L02502, doi:10.1029/2007GL032117.
- I. Harden and K. Manics, U.S. Geological Survey, 345 Middlefield Road, Menlo Park, CA 94025, USA.
- H. D. McGuire, U.S. Geological Survey, Alaska Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Unit, University of Alaska Fairbanks, 216 Irving I Building, Fairbanks, AK 99775, USA.
- S. Vi, Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, AK 99775, USA. (ff.sy@uaf.edu)