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1 **The start of frozen dates over northern permafrost regions with**
2 **the changing climate**

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22

23 **Abstract:** The soil freeze-thaw cycle in the permafrost regions has a significant impact on
24 regional surface energy and water balance. Although increasing efforts have been made
25 to understand the responses of spring thawing to climate change, the mechanisms
26 controlling the global interannual variability of the start date of permafrost freezing (SOF)
27 remain unclear. Using long-term satellite observations of SOF between 1979–2020, and
28 analytical techniques, including partial correlation, ridge regression, structural equation
29 modelling (SEM), and machine learning, we explored the responses of SOF to multiple
30 climate change factors, including warming (skin and air temperature), start date of
31 permafrost thawing (SOT), soil properties (soil temperature and volume of water), and the
32 snow depth water equivalent (SDWE). Overall, climate warming exhibited the maximum
33 control on SOF, but SOT in spring was also an important driver of SOF variability; among
34 the 65.9% significant SOT and SOF correlations, 79.3% were positive, indicating an overall
35 earlier thawing. The machine learning analysis also suggested that apart from warming,
36 SOT ranked as the second most important determinant of SOF. Therefore, we identified
37 the mechanism responsible for the SOT-SOF relationship, and SEM analysis revealed that
38 soil temperature change exhibited the maximum effect on this relationship, irrespective of
39 the permafrost type. Finally, we analysed the temporal changes in these responses using
40 the moving window approach and found increased effect of soil warming on SOF. Therefore,
41 these results provide important insights into understanding and predicting SOF variations
42 with future climate change.

43 **Key words:** start date of freezing; permafrost; climate warming; start date of thawing

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Permafrost occupies 25% of land in the northern hemisphere and is highly sensitive
46 to climate change (Schuur et al., 2015; Obu et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2022). With warming
47 three times the global mean, significant changes have been observed in the permafrost
48 regions, which have affected the global carbon cycle and other environmental factors
49 because the permafrost regions could release approximately half of the global soil carbon
50 stock in the form of methane, carbon dioxide (Hugelius, et al., 2014; Vikhamar-Schuler et
51 al., 2016; McGuire et al., 2018; Biskaborn et al., 2019; Irrgang et al., 2022), and other
52 poisonous elements, such as mercury (Schaefer et al., 2020; Miner et al., 2021), that may
53 threaten the infrastructure and ecosystems of the region (Nielsen et al., 2022; Ran et al.,
54 2022a; Wang et al., 2022).

55
56 Several studies have reported the degradation of permafrost based on soil warming,
57 deepened active layers, reduced permafrost extent, and decreased surface freezing
58 duration (Biskaborn et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2005; Peng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022a; Ran
59 et al., 2022b). The soil freeze-thaw cycle has significantly changed due to permafrost
60 degradation, which has impacted the surface energy and water balance by influencing the
61 hydrothermal properties of the soil; therefore, it has been considered as an indicator of the
62 interactions between permafrost and climate change (Li et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2022).
63 Permafrost thawing triggers emission of soil organic carbon (SOC), which accelerates
64 global warming and impacts soil nutrients, river flow, and vegetation productivity (Grosse
65 et al., 2011; Olefeldt et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022; Rößger et al., 2022).
66 Previous studies have investigated the impact of climate change on the start date of

67 permafrost thawing (SOT) in spring (Chen et al., 2022), based on the importance of SOT
68 in characterising land surface change and its effect on climate (Miner et al., 2021; Domine
69 et al., 2022). For example, permafrost thawing causes a significant decline in water level,
70 which could restructure the regional energy balance (Webb, et al., 2022). However,
71 compared to the data on available on spring thawing, the start date of permafrost freezing
72 (SOF) has not been substantially investigated. Therefore, research on SOF as an
73 important permafrost-related factor will help in the elucidation of the underlying
74 mechanisms and factors causing permafrost degradation. Moreover, the link between
75 vegetation growth and SOF suggests that SOF plays an important role in bridging climate
76 change and carbon uptake by the permafrost regions (Li et al., 2022b).

77

78 Therefore, to understand the impact of climate change on SOF on the permafrost
79 regions of the northern hemisphere, we used long-term satellite-observed SOF data
80 between 1979–2020 and data pertaining to various climate change variables, including
81 skin temperature (T_{skin}), air temperature (T_{air}), SOT, soil temperature (T_{soil}), volume of water
82 in soil (SWV), and the snow depth water equivalent (SDWE), to comprehensively analyse
83 the response of SOF to climate change over the past four decades. The key objectives of
84 our study were (1) to understand the impacts of climate change on the interannual
85 variability of SOF; (2) to explore potential carry-over effects between thawing and freezing
86 and their mechanisms; and (3) to analyse the temporal evolution of the strength of these
87 climate change factors on SOF variability.

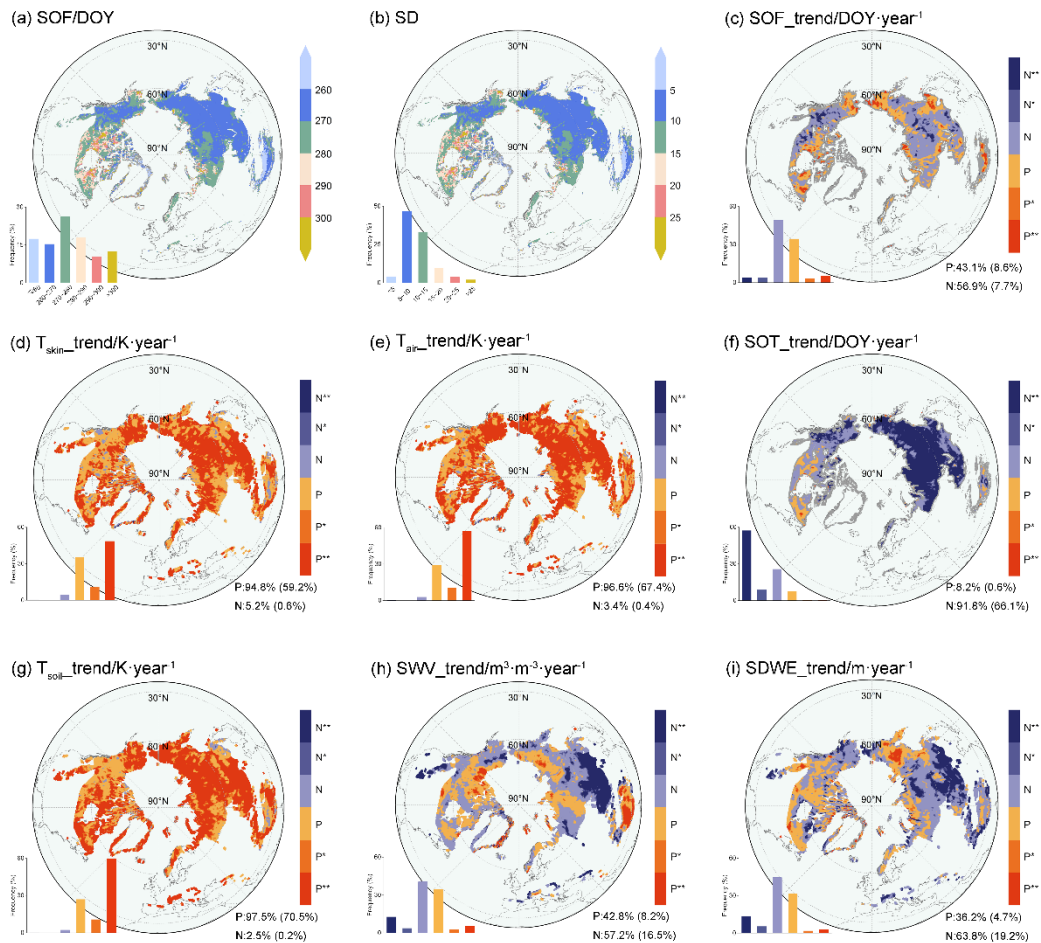
88 **3. Results**

89 3.1. Spatial and temporal patterns of SOF

90 We observed spatial variations in SOF over northern lands, with 75% SOFs ranging
91 between day of year (DOY) 260 and 290 (Figure 4a). SOFs earlier than DOY 260 were
92 observed in the northern Tibetan Plateau, whereas SOFs later than DOY 290 were mostly
93 found in the boreal regions of Canada. Overall, the regions with earlier SOFs exhibited
94 smaller standard deviations (SD). For example, large areas in Eurasia with an SOF
95 between DOY 260–280 exhibited a lower SD of <15 days (Figure 4b). Moreover, 7.7% of
96 the region exhibited significantly delayed SOF dates, whereas 8.6% of the region exhibited
97 earlier SOFs (Figure 4c). Nevertheless, high-latitude permafrost regions exhibited delayed
98 SOFs over the past four decades.

99

100 We also analysed climate change factors from 1979–2020 and found warming in all
101 permafrost regions analysed in this study based on significant increase in both T_{skin} (59.2%)
102 and T_{air} (67.4%) (Figure 4d–e). However, 91.8% of all regions exhibited earlier SOT, among
103 which data for 66.1% regions were significant (Figure 4f). Moreover, T_{soil} significantly
104 increased in 70.5% of the regions that underwent significant soil warming (Figure 4g). The
105 SWV exhibited an overall declining trend, with significant proportions for negative and
106 positive trends of 16.5% and 8.2%, respectively. Similar results were observed for SDWE;
107 19.2% of the regions exhibited significant decrease in SDWE, whereas 4.7% of the regions
108 exhibited an increasing trend (Figure 4i).



109

110 **Figure 4 Spatial and temporal patterns of the start date of permafrost freezing (SOF)**

111 **and trends in climate factors. a and b are SOF and its standard deviation (SD),**

112 **whereas c represents its temporal trends between 1979–2020. d–f represent trends**

113 **of skin temperature (T_{skin}), air temperature (T_{air}), start date of permafrost thawing**

114 **(SOT), soil temperature (T_{soil}), volume of water in soil (SWV), and the snow depth**

115 **water equivalent (SDWE). N and P indicate negative and positive correlations,**

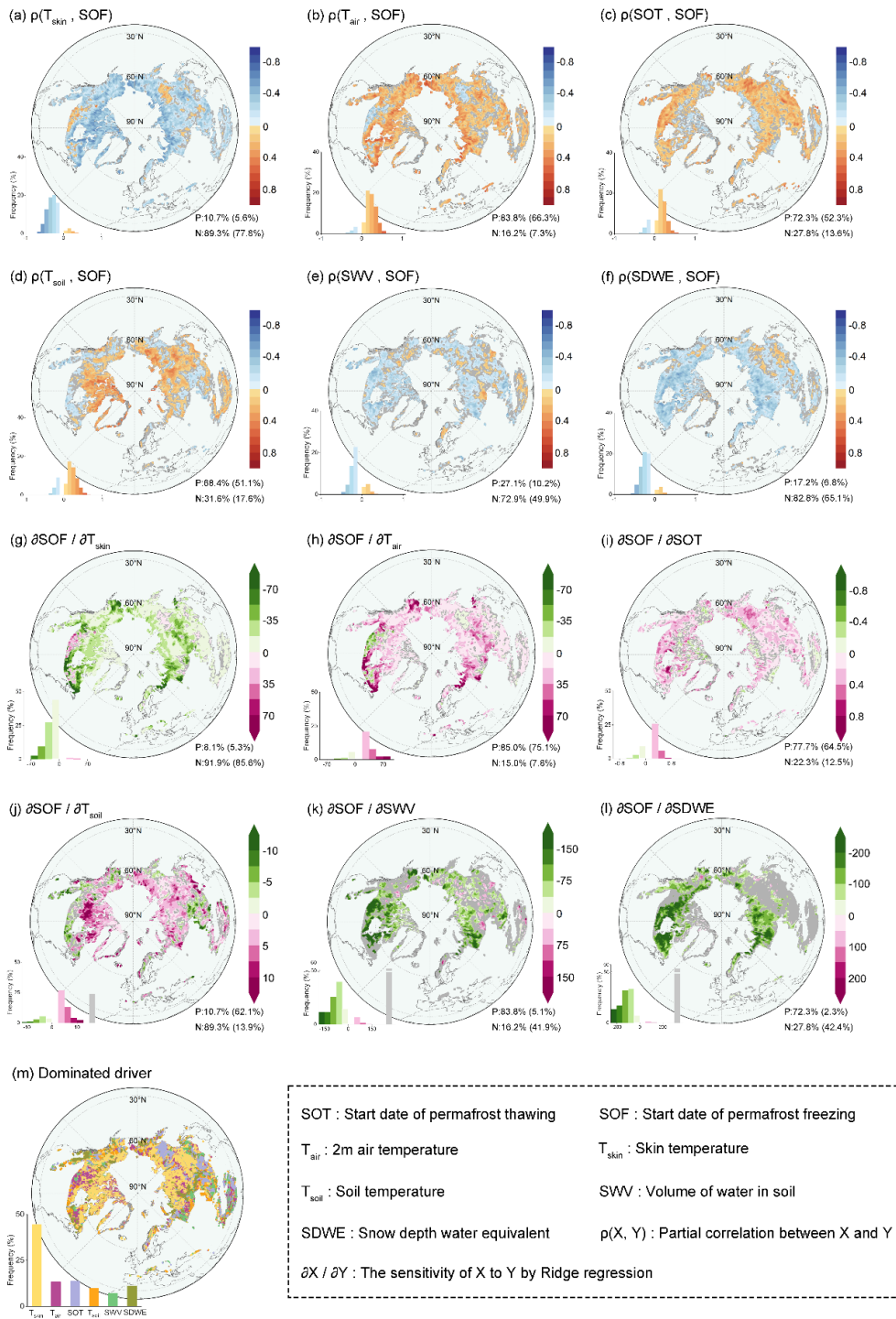
116 **respectively. ** and * represent significance at $p=0.01$ and $p=0.05$, respectively.**

117

118 **3.2. Relationship between SOF and climate change**

119 We elucidated the relationships between SOF and climate factors using partial

120 correlation analysis and found that T_{skin} was negatively correlated with SOF, and among
121 the 89.3% negative correlations, 77.8% were significant (Figure 5a). However, T_{air} was
122 positively correlated with SOF (Figure 5b). An overall positive correlation was also
123 observed between SOT and SOF; 52.3% (out of 72.3%) of the regions exhibited a
124 significant positive relationship between SOT and SOF (Figure 5c). Significant positive
125 correlations were also found between SOF and T_{soil} , but both SWV and SDWE were
126 negatively correlated with SOF (Figure 5d–f). We also determined the sensitivity of SOF to
127 these factors using ridge regression analysis (Figure 5 g–l). The signs of the sensitivity
128 values were consistent with those obtained through partial correlation analysis. For
129 example, the slopes of the SOT- T_{skin} correlations were mostly negative, whereas an
130 increase in T_{air} implied a later SOF, as shown by a positive sensitivity value. Moreover, we
131 used machine learning techniques and found that T_{skin} -dominated SOF changed in 42% of
132 the areas (Figure 5m). However, SOT was the second-most important determinant of SOF;
133 SWV exhibited the least effect on SOF among all variables.



134

135 **Figure 5 Partial correlations and sensitivities of the start date of permafrost freezing**

136 **(SOF) and climate change. a–f are partial correlations between SOF and skin**

137 **temperature (T_{skin}), air temperature (T_{air}), start date of permafrost thawing (SOT), soil**

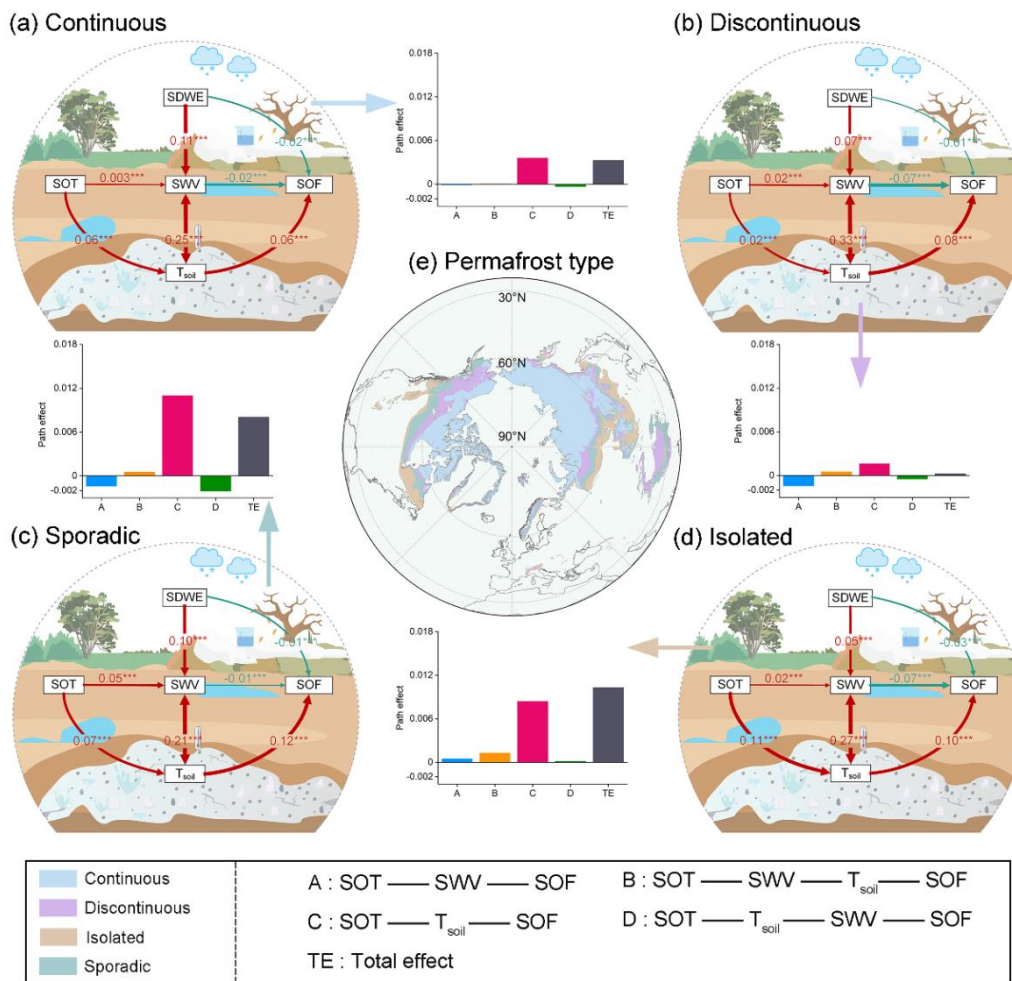
138 **temperature (T_{soil}), volume of water in soil (SWV), and the snow depth water**

139 equivalent (SDWE); g–l represent their sensitivities. m shows the dominant factors
140 for each grid as per the machine learning technique. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

141

142 3.3. Underlying mechanisms of the correlation between SOT and SOF

143 We used structural equation modelling (SEM) path analysis to elucidate the underlying
144 reasons for the correlation between SOT and SOF in different permafrost types to elucidate
145 the changes expected in SOF in the future (Figure 6). We found that among the four paths
146 through which SOT can be connected to SOF, the most important path was the positive
147 correlation of SOT with T_{soil} , and because T_{soil} was positively correlated with SOF, SOT
148 was positively correlated with SOF. These linkages were dominant in all paths and were
149 independent of the permafrost type. Although changes in SWV explained changes in SOF,
150 the overall impact of this path was minor.



151

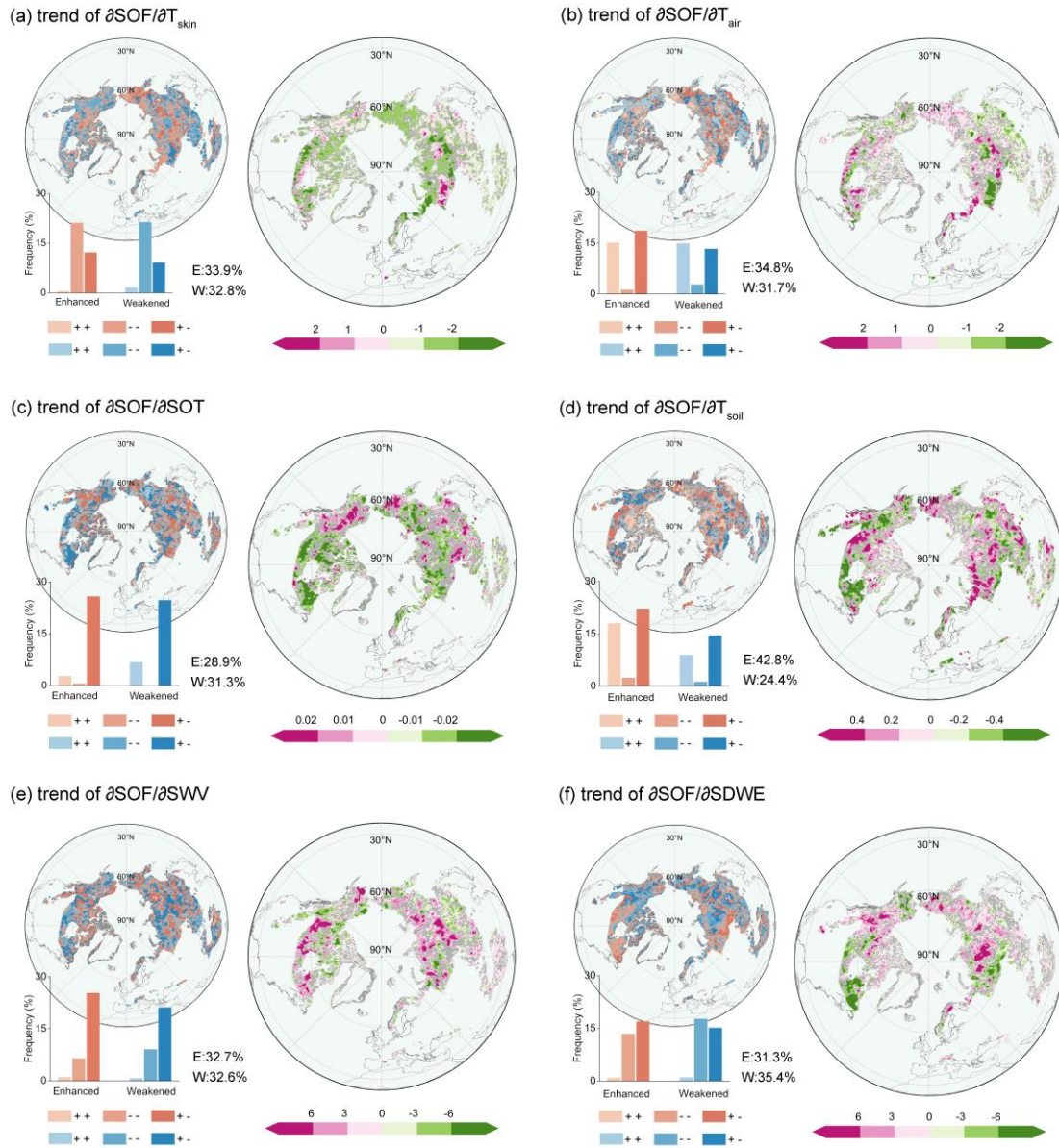
152 **Figure 6 Structural equation models for the correlation between the start date of**
 153 **permafrost thawing (SOT) and start date of permafrost freezing (SOF). a–d represent**
 154 **results for (e) continuous, discontinuous, isolated, and sporadic permafrost types,**
 155 **respectively. T_{soil}, SWV, and SDWE are soil temperature, volume of water in soil, and**
 156 **snow depth water equivalent, respectively. *** represent p <0.001.**

157

158 3.4. Temporal changes in the response of SOF to climate change

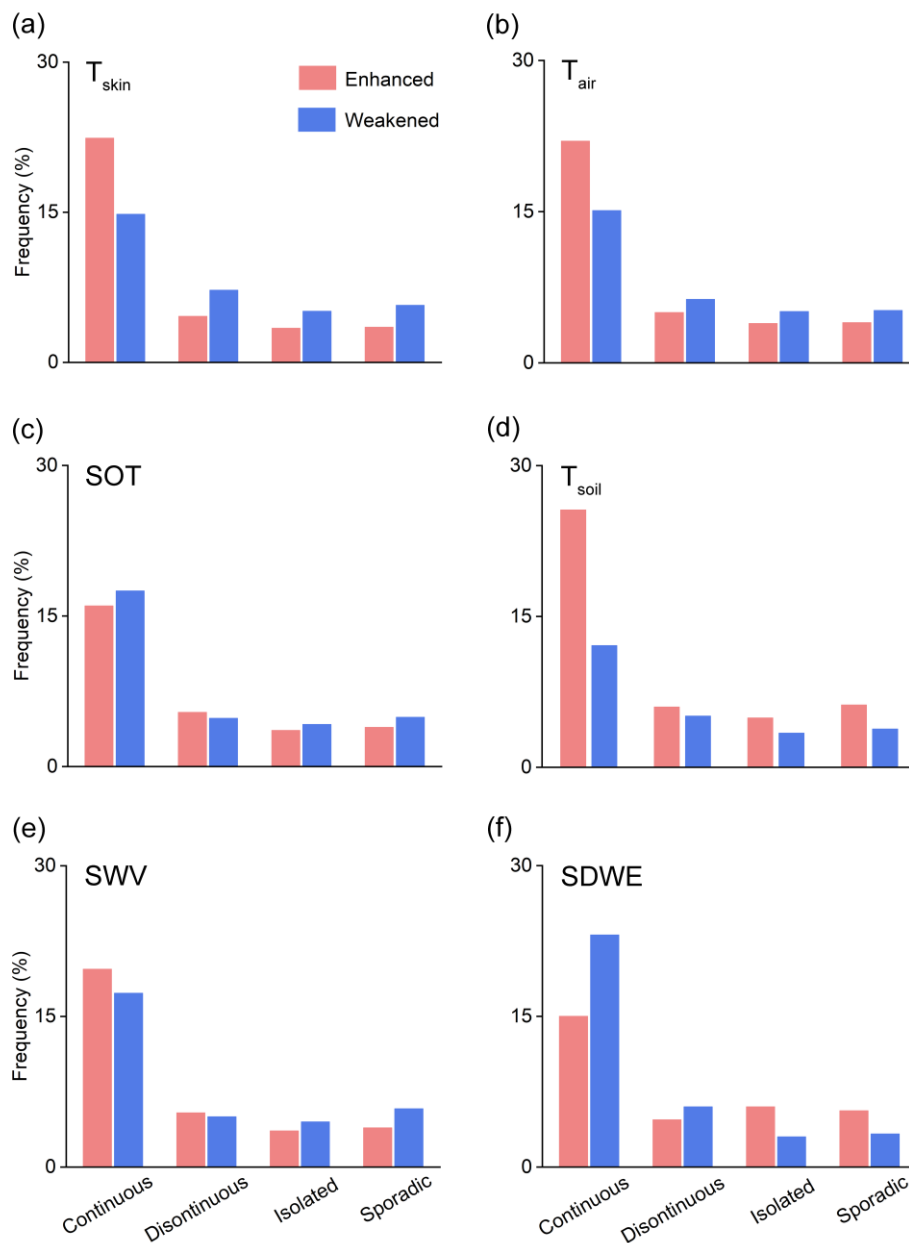
159 We further analysed the temporal trends in the effect of these factors on SOF and
 160 changes in their sensitivity towards SOF (Figure 7). Overall, we found divergent patterns

161 among (66.7%) regions where T_{skin} had a significant impact on SOF and 33.9% regions
162 exhibited increased effect of T_{skin} ; this proportion is comparable with that of the regions
163 with reduced effect of T_{skin} (Figure 7a). Most of the regions exhibiting enhanced control of
164 warming were located in the highlands of Eurasia (e.g. Siberia), whereas mid-latitude
165 regions exhibited weakened control. Similar results were observed for T_{air} , SOT, SWV, and
166 SDWE, but the proportion of the regions where these factors exhibited enhanced and
167 weakened control varied. For example, T_{air} exhibited enhanced control of SOF in 34.8% of
168 permafrost regions and 31.7% of counterparts. However, we found that the overall T_{soil}
169 exhibited increased control over SOF, and among the 67.2% of regions where T_{soil} trends
170 were significant, 42.8% exhibited enhanced control (Figure 7d). We further grouped the
171 enhanced/weakened trends by permafrost type (Figure 8). We found that most of these
172 factors, including T_{skin} , T_{air} , T_{soil} , and SWV, exhibited enhanced control on SOF for
173 continuous permafrost, whereas SOT and SDWE exhibited the opposite effect. For the
174 other three types (discontinuous, isolated, and sporadic), weakened control was more
175 evident. However, T_{soil} was an exception, as it exhibited enhanced control in case of all
176 permafrost types.



177

178 **Figure 7 Spatial distribution and sensitivity of the temporal changes in climate**
 179 **change factors on the start date of permafrost freezing (SOF). a–f are spatial**
 180 **distributions of the enhanced and weakened regions and their slopes for skin**
 181 **temperature (T_{skin}), air temperature (T_{air}), start date of permafrost thawing (SOT), soil**
 182 **temperature (T_{soil}), volume of water in soil (SWV), and the snow depth water**
 183 **equivalent (SDWE). Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.**



184

185 **Figure 8 Effect of temporal changes in climate change factors on the start of date of**
 186 **permafrost freezing (SOF) according to permafrost types. a–f are spatial**
 187 **distributions of the enhanced and weakened regions and their slopes for skin**
 188 **temperature (T_{skin}), air temperature (T_{air}), start date of permafrost thawing (SOT), soil**
 189 **temperature (T_{soil}), volume of water in soil (SWV), and the snow depth water**
 190 **equivalent (SDWE).**

191

192 **4. Discussion**

193 The timing of freezing represents a significant transition of the status of permafrost
194 soil, and changes in the frozen/thawing processes significantly influence the hydrothermal
195 properties of the soil, resulting in significant changes in the surface energy and water
196 balance (Guo et al., 2011; Li et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2022; Webb et al., 2023). Previous
197 studies have reported that permafrost thawing is highly sensitive to climate change, with
198 far-reaching implications on regional climate and vegetation that can mitigate or amplify
199 permafrost thawing (Jafarov et al., 2018; Polvani et al., 2020; Heijmans et al., 2022). Here,
200 we elucidated the impacts of climate change factors on SOF in late autumn and winter,
201 which has received much less attention than spring thawing in previous studies. We found
202 that that the proportion of regions with significantly delayed and advanced SOF was
203 comparable (8.6% vs. 7.7%, Figure 4c), but with clear spatial distribution. Delayed SOF
204 was mostly observed in the highlands and the Tibetan Plateau, i.e. in areas with more
205 pronounced warming, whereas earlier SOF was observed in the western boreal regions of
206 Canada. Several climate change indicators were analysed in this study, which exhibited
207 substantial impacts on SOF variability. These results contribute to a better understanding
208 of permafrost change, given that the timing of freezing could impact snow-related soil
209 warming in winter through biogeophysical feedbacks, such as changes in albedo and soil
210 moisture (Li et al., 2022b); this could cause uncertainty in the evaluation of consequences
211 of thaw-related disturbances (Heijmans et al., 2022). Moreover, SOF responded differently
212 to these climate factors, and complicated patterns were observed; besides warming, other

213 environmental cues (e.g. SWC, soil temperature) could also be responsible for SOF
214 variability in the changing climate (Guo et al., 2012; Koven et al., 2013).

215 Global warming is the main driver of permafrost change, as it deepens the thickness
216 of the active layer (Peng et al., 2018) and collapses the ground or thermokarst
217 (Farquharson et al., 2019; Turetsky et al., 2020). Our results confirm the importance of
218 global warming, as per the sensitivity of SOF to T_{skin} . Moreover, we identified the
219 importance of SOT in regulating SOF variability. The overall positive correlation between
220 SOF and SOT implies that an earlier thawing in spring could be associated with an earlier
221 timing of freezing. These carry-over effects have been reported in previous phenological
222 analyses (Fu et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2022); in accordance with these
223 results, we observed a linkage between the thawing/frozen phenology of permafrost, which
224 will be useful to obtain a comprehensive view of permafrost degradation. Using machine
225 learning analysis, we found that SOT in spring was ranked as the second most important
226 driver of SOF in the later years (Figure 5m), and this linkage can be explained by the
227 changes in soil temperature, using the SEM path analysis for all permafrost types. Although
228 the specific mechanism underlying this correlation is unclear, these results support
229 previous reports on the importance of complex soil hydrothermal processes underlying
230 permafrost degradation (Lawrence et al., 2005). Moreover, the positive correlation between
231 SOT and SOF established in this study demonstrates that freezing/thawing cycle of a
232 permafrost region can be understood based on soil warming and moisture changes
233 throughout the year (Figure 6). Moreover, we observed increased effect of SOT on SOF at
234 mid-low latitudes, where warming might not be that strong compared with highlands. This

235 is important because mid-low latitude ecosystems have larger productivity, and including
236 the SOT-SOF correlation could be useful in understanding the interaction between
237 permafrost degradation and vegetation change.

238 We further identified the temporal evolution of the effects of different climate change
239 factors on SOF variability; this will provide insights into the sensitivity of SOF to future
240 climate change, although our current prediction of future scenarios regarding permafrost
241 degradation could be biased (Webb and Liljedahl, 2023). We found differential changes in
242 the sensitivity of SOF to most factors, but the differences were spatially distributed.
243 Moreover, we observed a consistently increased control of T_{soil} on SOF, indicating an
244 urgent need to investigate soil warming trends with respect to future climate change. Since
245 warmer soil delays SOF (Figure 5d), the enhanced effect of T_{soil} on SOF could aggravate
246 later freezing and accelerate permafrost degradation in the future. Our results are in line
247 with the reported fast response of cold ice-rich permafrost to global warming (Nitzbon et
248 al., 2020), considering that the enhanced regions are more in continuous permafrost
249 (Figure 8d). Moreover, future studies should characterise soil types (Fisher et al., 2016),
250 soil nutrition (Mao et al., 2020), and soil age (Tanentzap et al., 2021) to understand
251 permafrost degradation under a changing climate.

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258

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