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Simulation of CO₂ and attribution analysis at six European peatland sites using the ECOSSE model

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46 **Abstract**

47

48 In this study, we simulated heterotrophic CO₂ (Rh) fluxes at six European peatland sites
49 using the ECOSSE model and compared them to estimates of Rh made from eddy covariance
50 (EC) measurements. The sites are spread over four countries with different climates,
51 vegetation and management. Annual Rh from the different sites ranged from 110 to 540 g C
52 m⁻². The maximum annual Rh occurred when the water table (WT) level was between -10
53 and -25 cm and the air temperature was above 6.2°C. The model successfully simulated
54 seasonal trends for the majority of the sites. Regression relationships (r²) between the EC-
55 derived and simulated Rh ranged from 0.28 to 0.76 and the root mean square error and
56 relative error were small, revealing an acceptable fit. The overall relative deviation value
57 between annual EC-derived and simulated Rh was small (-1%) and model efficiency ranges
58 across sites from -0.25 to +0.41. Sensitivity analysis highlighted that increasing temperature,
59 decreasing precipitation and lowering WT depth could significantly increase Rh from soils.
60 Thus, management which lowers the WT could significantly increase anthropogenic CO₂, so
61 from a carbon emissions perspective, should be avoided. The results presented here
62 demonstrate a robust basis for further application of the ECOSSE model to assess the impacts
63 of future land management interventions on peatland carbon emissions, to help guide best
64 practice land-management decisions.

65

66 **1 Introduction**

67

68 Peatlands are spread over 175 countries and represent approximately 4 million km² or
69 3% of the world's land area (Global Peat lands Initiative, 2002). Most of the wetlands (60%)
70 contain peat soils of which about 7% are under crop production and forestry. European
71 peatlands cover about 515,000 km², mostly in the north of the continent (Figure 1). The
72 biggest areas of peatlands in Europe are found in Finland (1/3) and Sweden (1/4). The rest are
73 in European Russia, Poland, the UK, Norway, Germany, Ireland, Estonia, Latvia, the
74 Netherlands and France. However, other countries like Denmark, the Czech Republic,
75 Hungary and Lithuania contain small areas of peaty-top soils (Montanarella et al., 2006). In a
76 review, Yu (2012) found that sequestration of more than 50% of carbon (C) (>270 Gt C) in
77 peatlands took place during the Holocene, about 7000 years ago.

78 Peatlands are one of the biggest terrestrial C stores that contain one third of the global
79 soil C stock (Joosten et al., 2013) and thus an essential component of the global greenhouse

80 gas (GHG) budget at the Holocene time scale (Frolking et al., 2006). Under natural,
81 unmanaged conditions, peatlands could represent a sink ecosystem for atmospheric carbon
82 dioxide (CO₂), due to the absence of aerobic decomposition and associated CO₂ emissions
83 under waterlogged soil conditions, resulting in the accumulation of soil organic matter
84 (SOM) (Dise, 2009). Nevertheless, managed peatlands show a higher variability in GHG
85 emissions at both spatial and temporal levels due to active systems in soil moisture dynamics,
86 redox potential, availability of substrate materials and man-made alterations to hydrology and
87 vegetation (Ward et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2008; Schrier-Uijl et al., 2010). Practices like
88 drainage and cultivation of peatlands allow more oxygen to enter the soil, which increases the
89 aerobic decomposition of the stored organic material, and in turn, increases CO₂ emissions
90 (Kasimir-Klemedtsson et al., 1997; Couwenberg, 2011). The attribution of CO₂ emissions to
91 anthropogenic and natural drivers is a great challenge, and is a prerequisite to successfully
92 assess the potential to reduce CO₂ emissions from peatlands in Europe.

93 Eddy covariance (EC) (McMillen, 1988; Aubinet et al., 2012) is a technique
94 developed to estimate land-atmosphere exchange of gas and energy at ecosystem scale. This
95 technique is based on three-dimensional wind speed measurements along with gas
96 concentration and temperature measurements at high frequency (5-20 Hz). By calculating the
97 covariance between vertical wind speed and the scalar of interest (e.g. CO₂), the land-
98 atmosphere flux can be computed. The measured CO₂ flux, known as net ecosystem
99 exchange (NEE), includes ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) which consists of heterotrophic (from
100 living micro-organisms + decomposition of old C sources i.e. saprotrophic) and autotrophic
101 (from plants + plant roots) respiration, and gross primary production (GPP) at ecosystem
102 scale which is C assimilated by the plants during photosynthesis. As photosynthesis only
103 occurs during daylight hours, the night time flux is typically used to partition the NEE signal
104 between GPP and R_{eco} (Reichstein et al., 2005). A flux partitioning algorithm that defines a
105 short-term temperature sensitivity of ecosystem respiration, to avoid the bias introduced by
106 confounding factors in seasonal data was applied to extrapolate from night to day (Reichstein
107 et al., 2005). This algorithm performs gap filling of the covariance between fluxes and
108 meteorological parameters and the temporal autocorrelation of the fluxes. However, the
109 daytime data can also be used to calculate the parameters of the vegetation light response
110 curve accounting for the temperature sensitivity of R_{eco} and water vapour pressure deficit
111 limitation of GPP (Lasslop et al., 2010). Respiration can then be extrapolated into the night
112 time using the temperature relationship curve. The use of isotopes as a partitioning technique
113 is popular (Schuur and Trumbore, 2006) and can provide valuable information on terrestrial

114 carbon cycling (Ehleringer et al., 2000; Harrison et al., 2000). In an isotopic experiment
115 (Hardie et al., 2009), annual heterotrophic respiration (Rh) due to soil microorganisms for
116 temperate bogs, was found to be approximately 36% of R_{eco} . Annual CO_2 derived from the
117 older sources of C in the catotelm (saprotrophic) ranged from 10 to 23% of R_{eco} (Hardie et al.,
118 2009). Therefore, the total Rh from the whole soil profile could contribute between 46 and
119 59% of the total R_{eco} as shown in equation (1) below (Hardie et al., 2009).

120 The ECOSSE model was developed to simulate C and nitrogen (N) cycling and GHG
121 fluxes in organic soils, using principles initially used for mineral soils in the two mother
122 models, RothC (Jenkinson and Rayner, 1977; Jenkinson et al., 1987; Coleman and Jenkinson,
123 1996) and SUNDIAL (Bradbury et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1996). Following these established
124 models, ECOSSE uses a pool type approach, describing SOM as pools of inert organic
125 matter, humus, biomass, resistant plant material and decomposable plant material (Smith et
126 al., 2010a, b). In summary, during the decomposition process, material is exchanged between
127 the SOM pools according to first order rate equations, characterised by a specific rate
128 constant for each pool, which are dependent on the temperature, moisture, crop cover and pH
129 of the soil.

130 The objectives of this study were to 1) simulate Rh from selected European peatland
131 sites with their respective climate, vegetation and management using the ECOSSE model,
132 and 2) obtain a more comprehensive understanding of the terrestrial C cycle and attribution of
133 Rh to variability in natural and anthropogenic drivers (climate and management) in European
134 peatland ecosystems.

135

136 **2 Materials and Methods**

137

138 **2.1 The study sites**

139

140 Six European peatland sites were investigated in this study (Figure 1). These sites
141 were part of the GHG-Europe project. The sites are spread over four northern European
142 countries: Auchencorth Moss (Scotland, UK), Horstermeer (the Netherlands), Fäjemyr
143 (Sweden), Degerö Stormyr (Sweden), Kaamanen (Finland) and Lompolojänkka (Finland).
144 Full site descriptions can be found in Drewer et al. (2010), Hendricks et al. (2007), Lund et
145 al. (2007), Sagerfors et al. (2008), Maanavilja et al. (2010) and Aurela et al. (2009),
146 respectively. The sites have different climatic conditions, vegetation and management.
147 Average annual temperatures and precipitation ranged from -1.4 to 10°C and from 441 to

148 1155 mm, respectively. Coordinates, annual mean climatic conditions as well as peat types
149 and management are given in Table 1. The soil type for all sites is histosol (FAO, 1998)
150 which generally has a surface or shallow subsurface histic or folic horizon, consisting of
151 moderately decomposed plant debris with / without mixed sand, silt and / or clay. A histic
152 horizon is wet for about one month in almost all years, and is consequently badly aerated.
153 These soils, have >12% organic carbon (OC), which is >20% SOM by weight, but contain
154 approximately 18% OC (30% SOM) if there is a mineral portion with >60% clay (FAO,
155 1998). SOM were estimated using soil % C, bulk density and peat depth. Details of peat
156 depth and soil characteristics can be found in Table 2.

157

158 2.2 Flux measurements

159

160 The R_{eco} data were obtained from EC measurements (McMillen, 1988; Aubinet et al.,
161 2012) using either open or closed path infra-red gas analysers (Table 1). Meteorological data
162 were collected during the period 2002 to 2010; however, measurement durations differed
163 between sites and ranged from 2 to 8 years. All details regarding the EC data corrections,
164 quality control, footprint and gap filling procedures can be found in Aurela et al. (2002),
165 Hendricks et al. (2007), Lund et al. (2007), Aurela et al. (2009), Drewer et al. (2010) and
166 Sagerfors et al. (2008). The night time fluxes (photosynthetic active radiation (PAR)
167 threshold of $5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) were used to partition NEE flux measurements into GPP and R_{eco}
168 (Reichstein et al., 2005), and the approach of Hardie et al. (2009) was applied to estimate Rh
169 from R_{eco} as shown in equation (1) below.

170

$$171 \text{Rh} = \text{Rh}_{(\text{from surface peat})} + \text{Rh}_{(\text{from catotelm})} = 46\text{-}59\% R_{eco} \quad (1)$$

172

173 To represent the variations in Rh throughout the year, Rh was assumed to be at the
174 lowest value of the range (46% R_{eco}) during the summer (June-August), highest value (59%
175 R_{eco}) during the winter (December-February) and mean value (52.5% R_{eco}) during the rest of
176 the year (March-May and September-November). Because we are using a relatively crude
177 method for estimating Rh from R_{eco} , for comparison with modelled Rh values, we are
178 providing a challenging test for the model.

179

180 2.3 ECOSSE model and input data

181 In this study we applied the latest version (v. 5.0.1) of the ECOSSE model to simulate Rh
182 (from surface peat + decomposition of old C sources i.e. saprotrophic). Model outputs were
183 compared to EC-derived Rh values (as estimated from R_{eco} measured by the EC, as described
184 in Section 2.2). The ECOSSE model uses a pool type approach, and all of the major
185 processes of C and N turnover in the soil are included and described using simple equations
186 driven by readily available input variables. It can be used to carry out site-specific
187 simulations with detailed input data, or national-scale simulations using the limited data
188 typically available at larger scales. Data describing SOC, soil water, plant inputs, nutrient
189 applications and timing of management operations are used to run the model for each site
190 (Tables 1 and 2).

191 The water module in ECOSSE is based on SUNDIAL (Wu and McGechan, 1998),
192 where water streams through the soil pores as ‘piston flow’. The soil profile is divided into 5
193 cm layers. Each layer is filled with water until saturation: the water then either drains to the
194 layer below or evaporates from the topmost layer. Addition or loss of C and N from different
195 vegetation types are estimated using the C and N amounts in different parts of the plant (and
196 harvest index for crops). Potential evapotranspiration is calculated on a daily basis using the
197 Thornthwaite equation (Thornthwaite, 1948). Total soil organic carbon (SOC) and inert
198 organic C amounts are added as inputs. The ECOSSE model then estimates the amount of
199 organic matter (OM) input from plant materials if information on plant yield is not provided.
200 This is carried out using the amount of SOC as an input. The total SOC estimated by a
201 steady-state (10,000 year) run using default plant inputs is compared to the total measured
202 SOC, and a revised estimate is made of the OM inputs so that simulated steady state SOC
203 matches the measured values. Plant material is divided into resistant and decomposable
204 material, based on a decomposable plant material (DPM): resistant plant material (RPM) ratio
205 of 1.44 (as used in the RothC model). More details about the ECOSSE approach is found in
206 Smith et al. (2010c).

207

208 2.4 ECOSSE sensitivity and attribution

209

210 The sensitivity of ECOSSE and the attribution of Rh to anthropogenic and natural
211 drivers were quantified to assess the impacts of these factors on the gas flux. This was done
212 separately for each site. We altered only one input value at a time, whilst all other
213 parameters were kept constant (Smith and Smith, 2007). Simulations were run to assess how
214 Rh was affected by changes in climate variables: mean temperature (increasing/ decreasing

215 the daily mean temperature by 1 to 6°C with an increment of 1°C) and precipitation (altering
216 the daily precipitation over a range from -50 to +50% with an increment of 10%).
217 Simulations were also run to assess how Rh was affected by changes in soil physical
218 properties and management i.e. SOC, pH and WT depth. SOC and pH were altered over a
219 range from -50 to +50% with an increment of 10% whilst WT was lowered up to 50 cm with
220 an increment of 10 cm.

221

222 2.5 Statistics and Model validations

223

224 Statistical analyses were carried out using the PRISM (GraphPad, San Diego CA, USA)
225 software package. 1-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to compare the mean
226 annual EC-derived Rh of different sites. Annual cumulative Rh for model outputs were
227 calculated as the sum of simulated daily fluxes (Cai et al., 2003). Multi-criteria evaluation of
228 the EOSSE model was applied to identify how well it predicted EC-derived Rh. Comparisons
229 of simulated with EC-derived Rh were undertaken for each site separately. Analysis was
230 carried out to detect the coincidence and association between measured and simulated values,
231 following methods described in Smith et al. (1997) and Smith and Smith (2007). Model
232 accuracy and performance were evaluated by calculating the relative deviation (RD),
233 regression coefficient (r^2) to measure correlation, root mean square error (RMSE) to measure
234 total error, and relative error (RE) to measure bias. The Model Efficiency (ME; Nash and
235 Sutcliffe, 1970) compares the squared sum of the absolute error with the squared sum of the
236 difference between the observations and their mean value. It compares the ability of the
237 model to reproduce the daily data variability with a much simpler model that is based on the
238 arithmetic mean of the measurements. Negative ME value shows a poor performance, a value
239 of 0 indicates that the model does not perform better than using the mean of the observations,
240 and values close to 1 indicate a ‘near-perfect’ fit (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970; Huang et al.,
241 2003).

$$242 \text{ RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \quad (2)$$

243

$$244 \text{ RE} = \frac{100}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(P_i - O_i)}{O_i} \quad (3)$$

245

$$ME = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \bar{O})^2} \quad (4)$$

247

248 O_i is the observed value, P_i is the simulated value, n are the total number of observations and
 249 i the current observation.

250

251 **3 Results**

252 3.1 EC-derived Rh

253

254 Seasonal and annual changes in temperature and precipitation at the experimental
 255 sites, in the period 2002-2010, are shown in Appendix 1. The temperatures and precipitation
 256 totals showed significant variation between years at each site and between sites. However,
 257 R_{eco} for all sites were strongly correlated with annual precipitation ($y = 0.66x + 49.8$; $r^2 =$
 258 0.42) and temperature ($y = 212e^{0.12x}$; $r^2 = 0.72$) as shown in Figure 2. The dynamics of EC-
 259 derived daily Rh followed these seasonal and annual patterns of temperature and
 260 precipitation, in addition to management and vegetation type (Figure 3). However, in all
 261 cases, the highest peak of Rh was recorded during the late summer and autumn, whilst the
 262 lowest emissions were measured during cold periods in the winter (Appendix 1 and 3).
 263 Overall, across sites, the flux ranged from 0 to $4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. The annual average daily fluxes
 264 for each site were 0.85 g C m^{-2} (Auchencorth Moss), 1.60 g C m^{-2} (Horstermeer), 0.69 g C
 265 m^{-2} (Fäjemyr), 0.34 g C m^{-2} (Degerö Stormyr), 0.31 g C m^{-2} (Kaamanen) and 0.48 g C m^{-2}
 266 (Lompolojännkä) (Table 3), which equates to average annual calculated Rh between 110 to
 267 559 g C m^{-2} (Table 4). Generally, the maximum annual Rh occurred when the WT level was
 268 between -10 and -25 cm and the average annual air temperature was above 6.2°C . Annual Rh
 269 values at the sites were significantly different from each other ($p < 0.05$) (Table 4).

270

271 3.2 ECOSSE model simulation and evaluation

272

273 The ECOSSE model was evaluated by comparing the outputs to the EC-derived Rh
 274 fluxes from the six sites described in Section 2.1. Relationships between Rh estimated from
 275 measured NEE and modelled Rh are shown in Figure 3. In all cases, ECOSSE was able to
 276 predict the timing of the Rh peaks correctly (Figure 3). The regressed relationships between
 277 the daily measured and predicted values of Rh are shown in Figure 4. Generally, the model
 278 was able to predict seasonal trends in Rh at most of the sites with r^2 ranging from 0.28 to

279 0.76. However, the model often over / under-estimated the flux values during the warm
280 weather in spring and summer. The differences in Rh between the daily EC-derived and
281 simulated values were compared by calculating RMSE and RE as shown in Table 3. The
282 RMSE values ranged from 0.23 to 1.10 g C m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 3). The RE ranged from -31 to +26
283 and the model efficiency from -0.25 to +0.41. The cumulative annual simulated Rh at most of
284 the sites agreed reasonably with the EC-derived values (Table 4), where the RD ranged from
285 -38 to +38% showing variable performance for individual sites, but an overall RD of -1%
286 indicates overall good fit. The modelled Rh at these peatland sites and the estimated Rh using
287 the Hardie et al (2009) are close, despite the latter being a relatively crude method to estimate
288 Rh from R_{eco}, thus providing a challenging test for the model.

289

290 3.3 Attribution and model sensitivity

291

292 The ECOSSE sensitivity / attribution analysis reveals similar responses to input
293 factors at almost all sites (Figure 5). The Rh flux increased with increasing (decreased with
294 decreasing) mean daily air temperature, depth to WT, SOC and soil pH but decreased with
295 increasing (increased with decreasing) annual precipitation. Significant increases in Rh
296 fluxes, of 30% to 224% and 60% to 142% were calculated when SOC and temperature were
297 increased by 50%, respectively. Decreasing SOC by 50% decreased the flux by 29% to 68%
298 and decreasing temperature by 50%, compared to present temperature, decreased the flux by
299 41% to 61%. Increasing the precipitation by 50% compared to present precipitation,
300 decreased Rh by 7% to 51% whilst decreasing the precipitation by 50% increased the flux by
301 4% to 90%. Lowering WT by 50 cm increased Rh by >130% whilst a 50% higher pH,
302 increased the flux by 22% to 120%, and a 50% lower pH decreased the flux by 74% to 79%.

303

304 **4 Discussion**

305

306 4.1 EC-derived Rh

307

308 In this study, Rh from the six investigated peatland sites varied due to differences in
309 climates, vegetation types and management (Table 1; Appendix 1). Previous studies using the
310 same data sets reported that the fluxes were controlled by a set of parameters including
311 temperature, ground water level and plant biomass and growth (Aurela et al., 2002;
312 Hendricks et al., 2007; Lund et al., 2007; Aurela et al., 2009; Dinsmore et al., 2009; Sagerfors

313 et al., 2008). Nevertheless, these ecosystem processes are different from one site to another
314 and difficult to describe using simple linear models (Lloyd, 2006; Lund et al., 2010). The
315 higher Rh, from the investigated sites, during the late summer and autumn was mainly due to
316 the high soil temperature and moist soil conditions during this period (Appendix 1 and 3).
317 Higher air temperature also affects evapotranspiration rate and has a direct effect on Rh
318 (Christensen et al., 1999). In this study, higher annual Rh was mostly reported at sites of
319 higher average annual temperature and lower WT depth (Tables 1 and 4). In a meta-analysis,
320 Yi et al. (2010) found that the sensitivity of NEE to mean annual temperature stops at $\sim 16^{\circ}\text{C}$,
321 above which CO_2 uptake was not sensitive to temperature and the influence of soil moisture,
322 overrides the influence of soil temperature. In a study by Lindroth et al. (2007), in northern
323 Europe, the southernmost, warmest, site (Fäjemyr in the present study) was found to have the
324 highest ecosystem respiration and highest GPP as compared to the northernmost, coldest site
325 (Kaamanen in the present study).

326 Water table plays an important role in plant community structure, peat accumulation,
327 and decomposition dynamics of OM (Reiley and Page, 2005; Wu et al., 2013). When WT
328 level is near to the surface, the decomposition of OM within the peat profile is constrained by
329 low O_2 availability resulting in low Rh. A high WT causes anaerobic conditions which are
330 unfavourable for oxidation of soil OM and plant debris (Hendricks et al., 2007).
331 Management practices, such as drainage, restoration, re-wetting, peat extraction and grazing
332 also influence the flux. Drainage increases CO_2 from peat decomposition, whilst restoration
333 and re-wetting decrease the flux (Van Huissteden et al., 2006). Peat extraction leads to on-site
334 flux from peat deposits during the extraction phase and off-site flux due to the use of peat,
335 either for producing energy or for agricultural uses (IPCC, 2006). In the UK, grazing and
336 trampling of peat soils have been shown to alter C exchange gas and GHG emissions (Ward
337 et al., 2007; Clay and Worrall, 2013).

338

339 4.2 ECOSSE simulations and evaluation

340

341 Evaluation of the ECOSSE model showed that it was able to predict broad seasonal
342 and annual changes in Rh from the peatland sites (Figure 3), despite use of a simple generic
343 method to estimate “measured Rh” from R_{eco} . Although some studies reported differences in
344 ecological responses to climatic drivers between fens and bogs (Sulman et al 2010,
345 Humphreys et al 2006, Lund et al 2010), we considered the differences between them
346 negligible due to the lack of comparative studies. We applied Hardie et al. (2009) approach,

347 which was the only available method at the time of this study, to partition autotrophic and
348 heterotrophic respiration from both fens and bogs sites. The ECOSSE was able to predict
349 seasonal trends in Rh at most of the sites with r^2 ranging from 0.28 to 0.76. The model
350 satisfactorily simulated seasonal trends for Auchencorth Moss, Fäjemyr, Lompolojännkä and
351 Kaamanen with RE ranging from -13 to +13. However, for Horstermeer and Degerö Stormyr
352 the model performance was poorer (RE was -31 and +26, respectively). Total model error
353 values, as indicated by RMSE were small compared to daily mean fluxes and ME was
354 positive for all sites except Horstermeer, revealing a reasonable fit between the measured and
355 predicted fluxes for most of the measurement periods. The larger discrepancies between the
356 predicted and EC-derived Rh values for Horstermeer and Degerö Stormyr resulted in higher
357 RD values at the two sites however, the overall RD value for all sites was small (-1%) (Figure
358 3; Table 4). Generally, predicted results agree well with the annual EC-derived Rh estimated
359 from fluxes measured using the EC method (particularly considering the relatively crude
360 estimate of Rh from R_{eco} using the Hardie et al (2009) method), with similar uncertainty
361 estimations for both methods (Oren et al., 2006; Rannik et al., 2006). The ECOSSE model
362 responded appropriately to changes in air temperature, timing of precipitation events, land
363 use and system management, which have strong impacts on Rh. Both EC measurements and
364 model simulations showed that Rh was clearly controlled by a combination of factors, as
365 discussed in Section 4.1. The sensitivity test suggests that ECOSSE is capable of simulating
366 responses of these ecosystems to field WT manipulations. Nevertheless, although the model
367 results were reasonable, some limitations of the ECOSSE model are revealed, such as the
368 lack of explicit peatland vegetation types in the model. Improving the plant parameters in
369 ECOSSE will improve the utility of the model for spatially simulating GHG emissions from
370 peatlands. Additionally, some processes like soil-root interactions and transport of labile
371 carbon through the soil profile, which could affect decomposition, are not fully considered in
372 ECOSSE, and more work on these is required.

373

374 4.3 Model sensitivity and attribution

375

376 Sensitivity analysis of the ECOSSE model showed that Rh from peat soils increased
377 with increasing temperature. The model simulated a significant increase in Rh when
378 temperature rose by up to 6°C. Therefore, the future C sink potentials of peatlands will be
379 affected by changes in temperature and the hydrological cycles, in addition to higher nitrogen
380 (N) deposition and levels of atmospheric CO₂ which would all be expected all increase C

381 losses (Zhuang et al., 2003; Carrasco et al., 2006; Fan et al., 2008). Rh is sensitive to changes
382 in SOC and pH. Increasing SOC increased Rh. In a simulation study using the Dynamic
383 Organic Soil Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (peatland DOS-TEM), Fan et al. (2013) predicted
384 that sequestration of SOC in a rich fen will become higher for the next 50 years. This is due
385 to increased C uptake by the vegetation under a warmer climate. The increased Rh with
386 increasing pH is in agreement with the findings of Bergman et al. (1999) and Ye et al. (2012)
387 who suggested that low pH of a peatland ecosystem limited microbial metabolism. The sites
388 we investigated had pH's range from 3.9 to 5.5.

389 The sensitivity analysis to water-table depth shows that lowering of the WT increases
390 the Rh from these peat soils. Conversely, raising the WT reduced the Rh. The model results
391 suggest that lowering WT, e.g. through drainage, could have a significant effect on Rh.
392 Similar conclusions were drawn by Lund et al. (2012), who found that a temperate peatland
393 (Fäjemyr in the present study) acted as an annual source for atmospheric CO₂ during years
394 with prolonged periods of drought. Drainage increases oxidation and therefore increases CO₂
395 production from decomposing peat (Van den Bos, 2003; Van Huissteden et al., 2006), whilst
396 re-wetting or restoration may reduce the flux (IPCC, 2006). However, following re-wetting,
397 higher CH₄ flux is expected, which may (partially) counterbalance the reduction in CO₂
398 emissions.

399 Many studies have suggested that raising the WT to near the surface of the peat soils
400 (i.e. reversal of drainage) is a suitable future solution for improving C sequestration in
401 peatlands (Alm et al., 1999; Moore, 2002; Belyea and Malmer, 2004; Tarnocai, 2006, Aurela
402 et al., 2007, Lund et al., 2012). However, converting arable land back to natural peatland
403 vegetation (sometimes *via* grassland), reducing the intensity of land-use, or maintaining the
404 ground WT to its original level may increase C sequestration in peatlands (Freibauer et al.,
405 2004, Drösler et al., 2008).

406

407 **5 Conclusions**

408

409 In this study, Rh from six peatland sites was found to be controlled by a set of
410 parameters, including temperature, vegetation and ground water level. Higher Rh was mostly
411 reported at sites of higher average annual temperature and lower WT. Despite using rather
412 simple methods to estimate Rh from R_{eco} measured by EC, the Rh from peatlands was
413 reasonably well estimated using the ECOSSE model. The regression relationships (r^2)
414 between the EC-derived and simulated Rh fluxes ranged from 0.28 to 0.76, RE and RMSE

415 were small, and the model efficiency ranged from -0.25 to +0.41, revealing a reasonable fit,
416 particularly considering the relatively crude method of estimating Rh from R_{eco} . The overall
417 relative deviation (RD) value between the annual EC-derived and annual simulated Rh was
418 small (-1%). The sensitivity analysis highlighted that increasing temperature, pH, SOC and
419 lowering WT depth could significantly increase Rh, whilst higher annual precipitation
420 decreased the flux. Thus, management which lowers the WT, such as drainage could
421 significantly increase anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and therefore, alternative strategies at a
422 regional level are required. The ECOSSE model can be applied to investigate the impacts of
423 potential future land management strategies on peatland C emissions, and contribute to shape
424 land-management decisions.

425

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427

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434

435

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666 **Figure's captions**

667

668 Figure 1: Relative cover (%) of peat and peat-topped soils (0–30cm) in Europe (Adapted from Montanarella et al., 2006). Investigated
669 sites are Auchencorth Moss (a), Horstermeer (b), Fäjemyr (c), Degerö (d), Kaamanen (e) and Lompolojänkkä (f).

670

671 Figure 2: Correlations between R_{eco} and annual temperature (a) and rainfall (b). For the annual temperature $y = 212e^{0.12x}$ and $r^2 = 0.72$;
672 for annual rainfall $y = 0.66x + 49.8$ and $r^2 = 0.42$.

673 Figure 3: Eddy Covariance derived (Filled circle) and modeled (solid line) daily heterotrophic CO_2 (Rh) during the measurements
674 period 2002-2010.

675 Figure 4: Regression relationships (1:1) between the Eddy Covariance-derived and modeled heterotrophic CO_2 (Rh) from
676 Auchencorth Moss (a), Horstermeer (b), Fäjemyr (c), Degerö (d), Kaamanen (e) and Lompolojänkkä (f).

677

678 Figure 5: The attribution/ sensitivity response of the heterotrophic CO_2 (Rh) to variations in soil properties and climate input factors at
679 Auchencorth Moss (a), Horstermeer (b), Fäjemyr (c), Degerö (d), Kaamanen (e) and Lompolojänkkä (f). Currently = model Rh at the
680 present climate and soil parameters.

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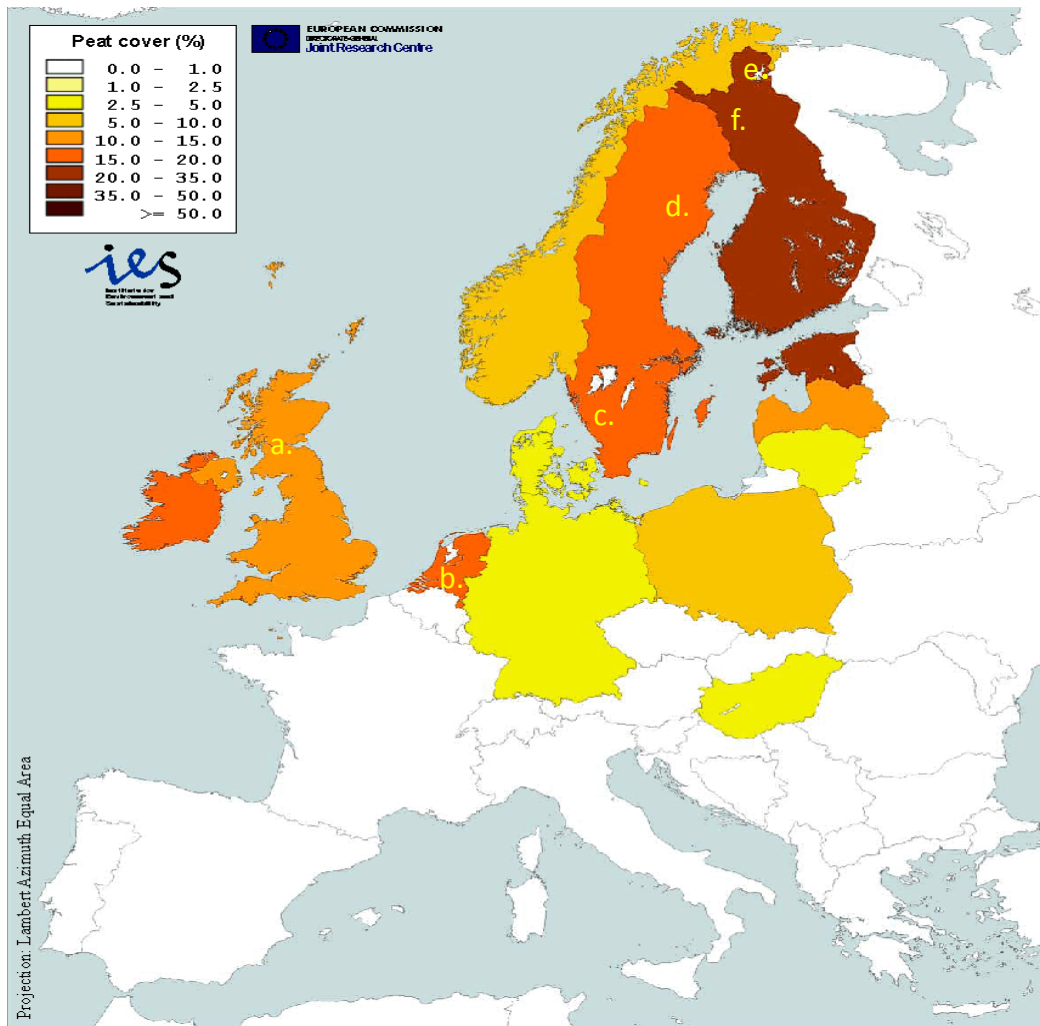
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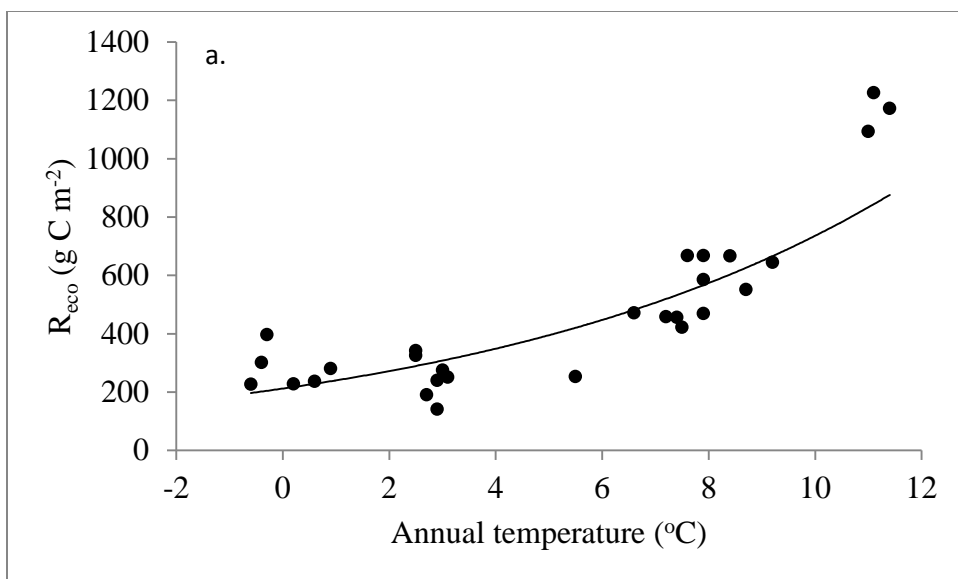
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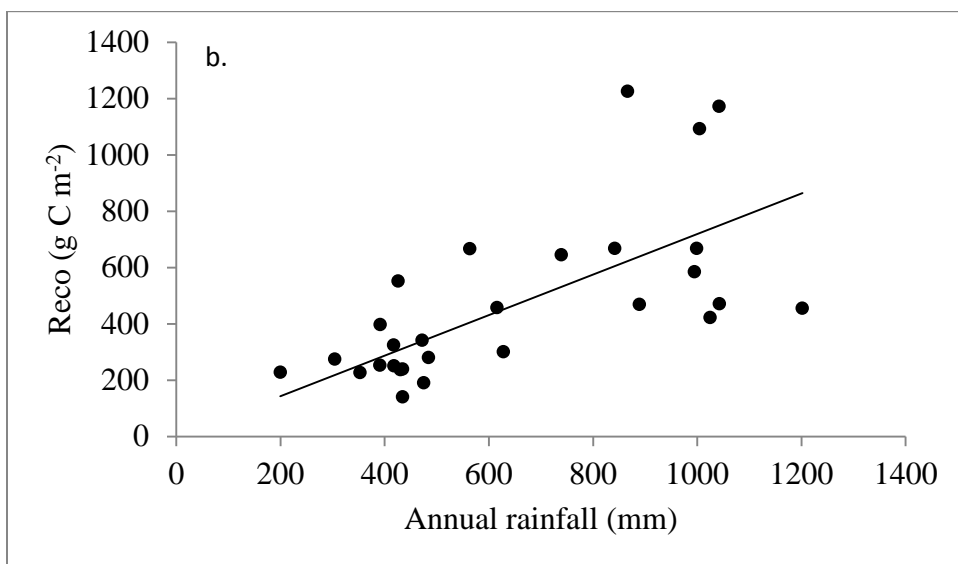
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691 Figure 1: Relative cover (%) of peat and peat-topped soils (0–30cm) in Europe (Adapted from Montanarella et al., 2006).

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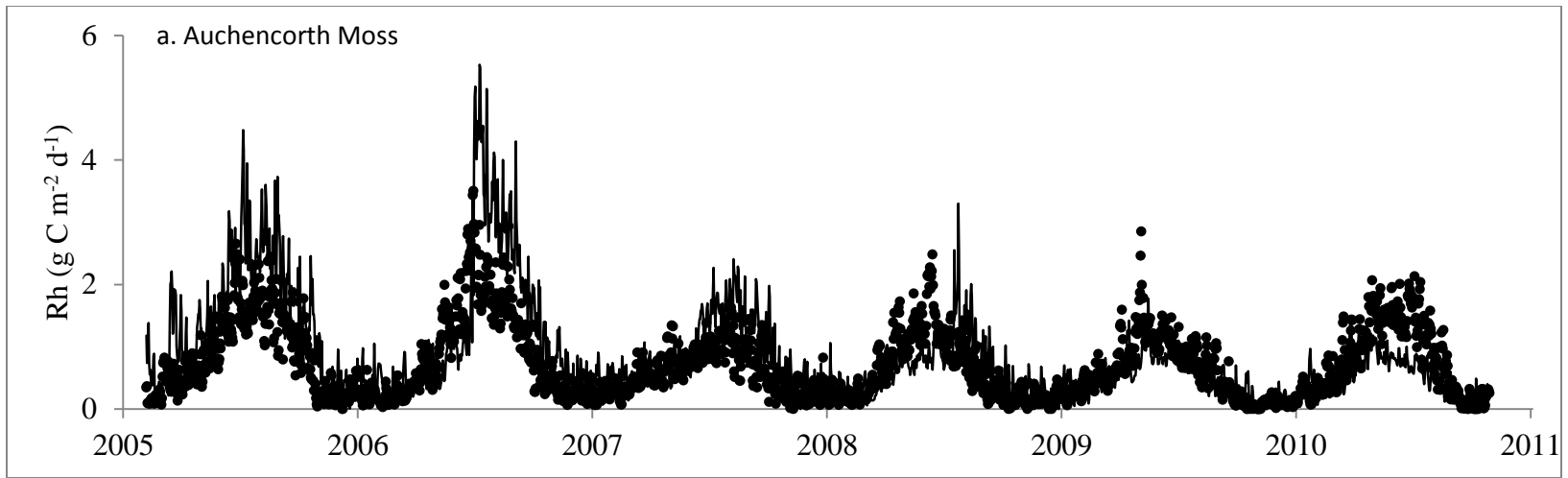
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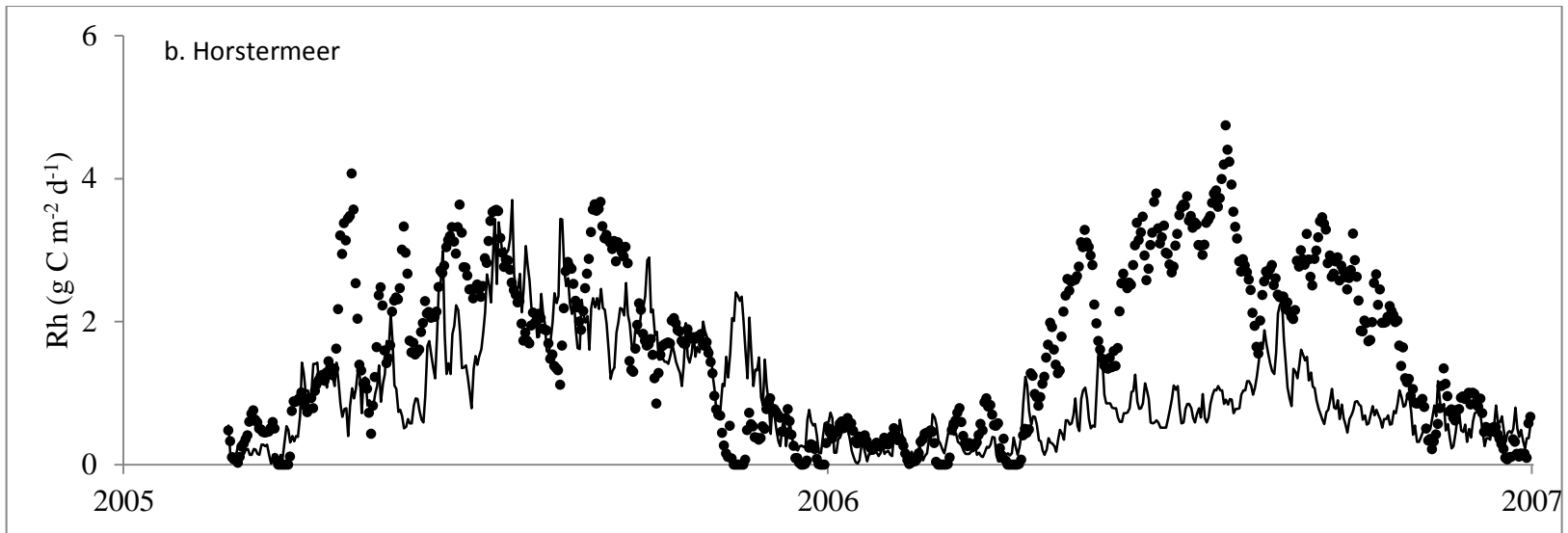
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695 Figure 2: Correlations between R_{eco} and annual temperature (a) and rainfall (b).

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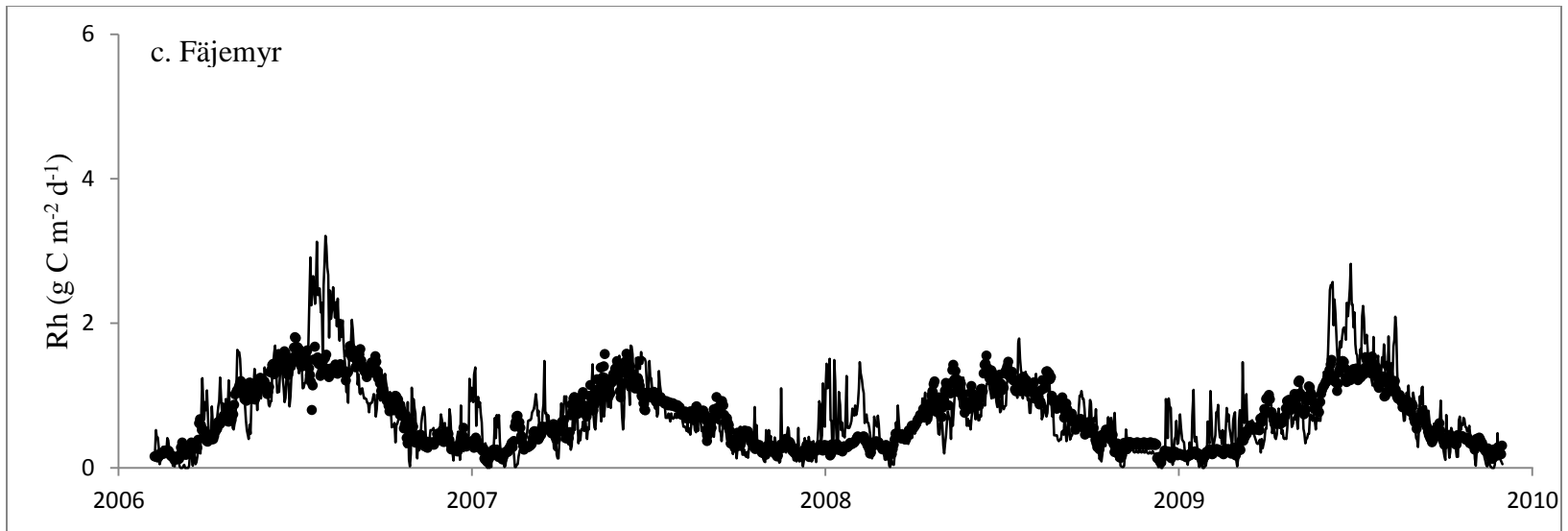


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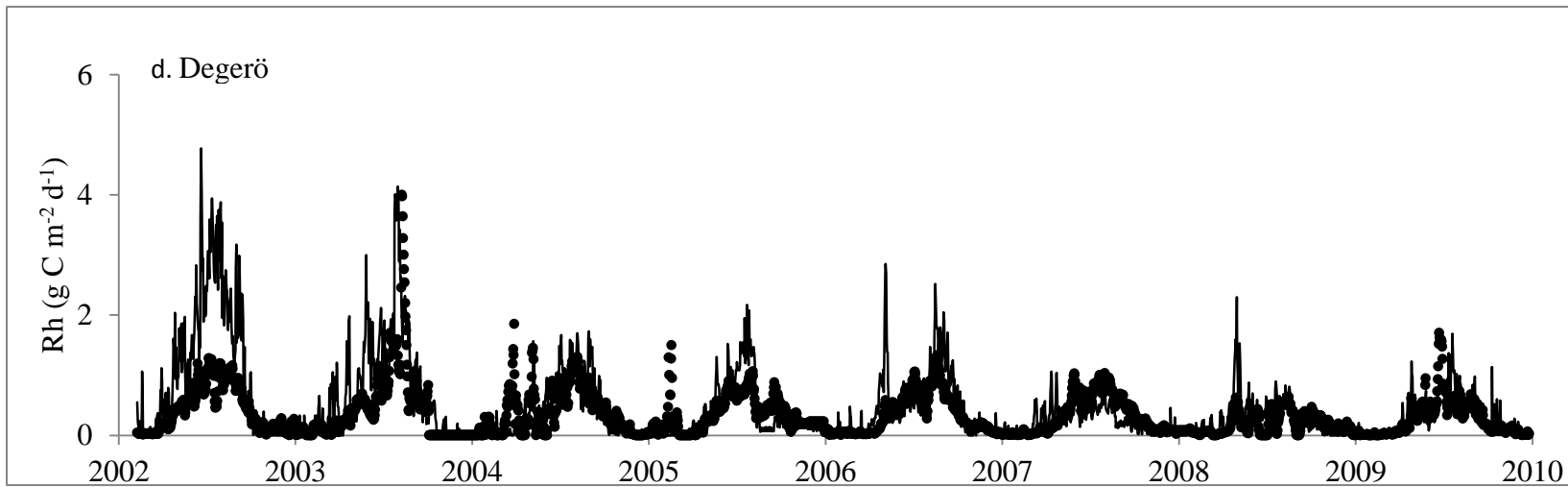


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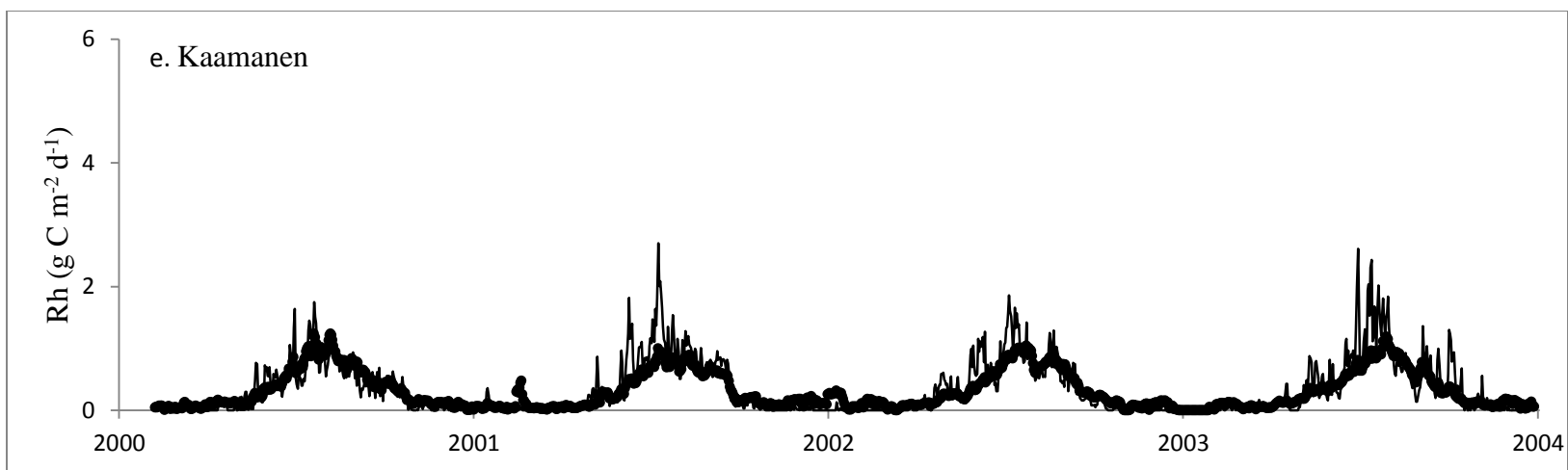
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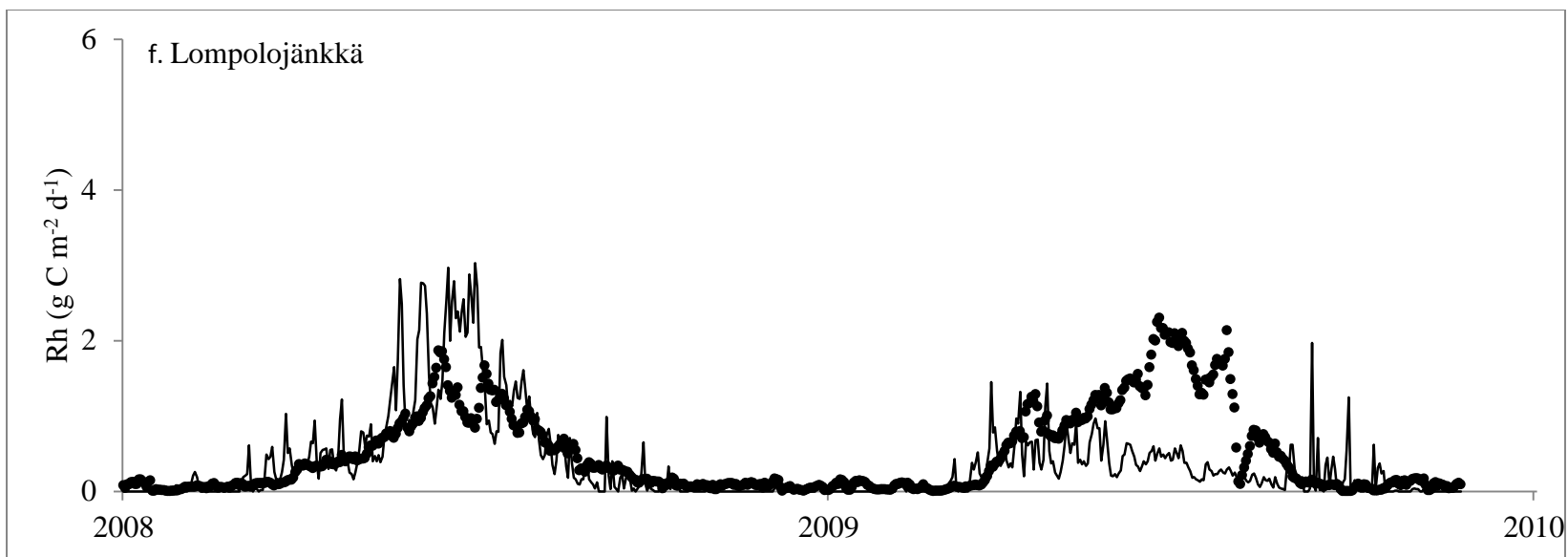
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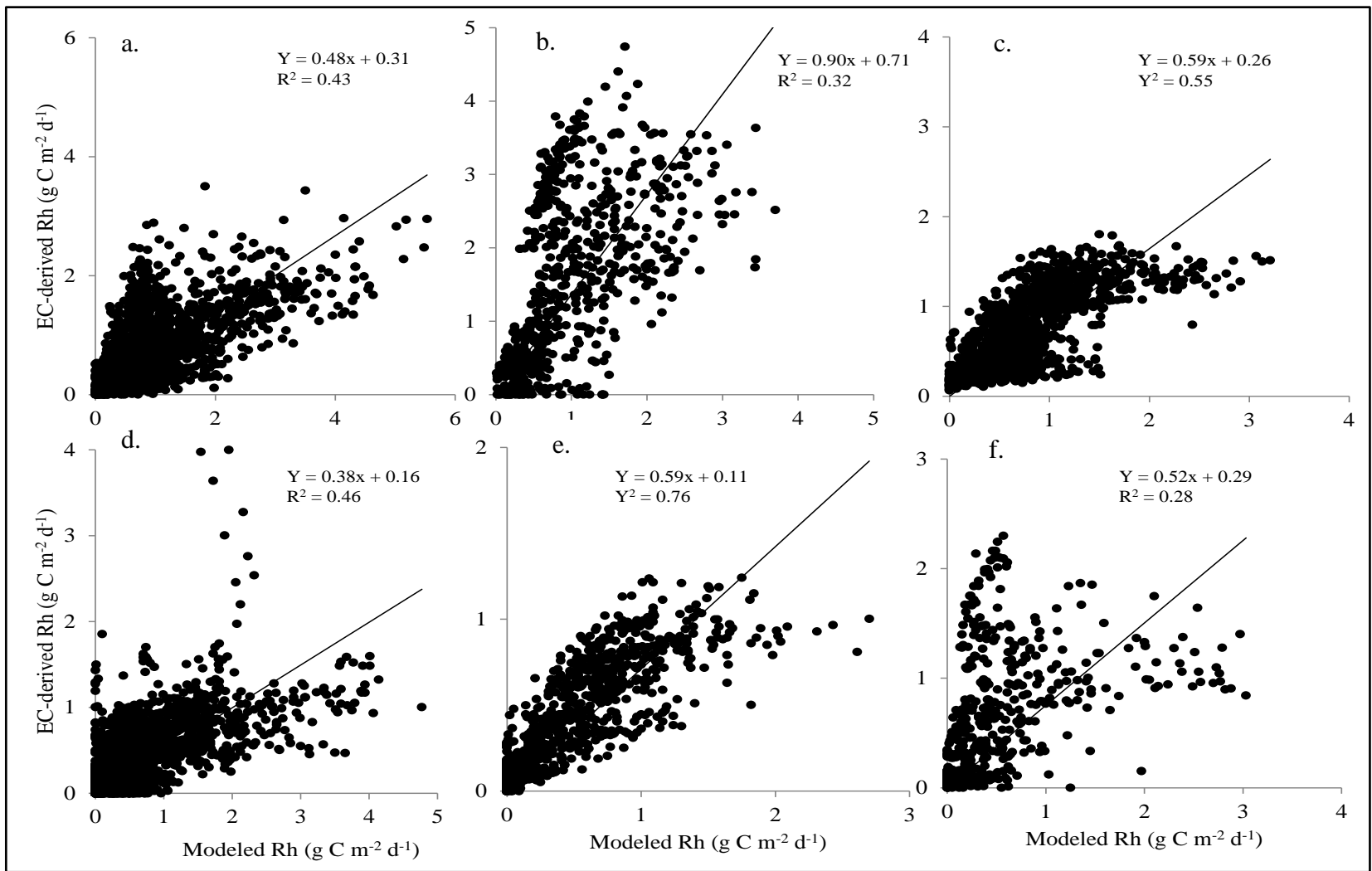
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703 Figure 3: Eddy Covariance derived (Filled circle) and modeled (solid line) daily heterotrophic CO₂ (Rh).



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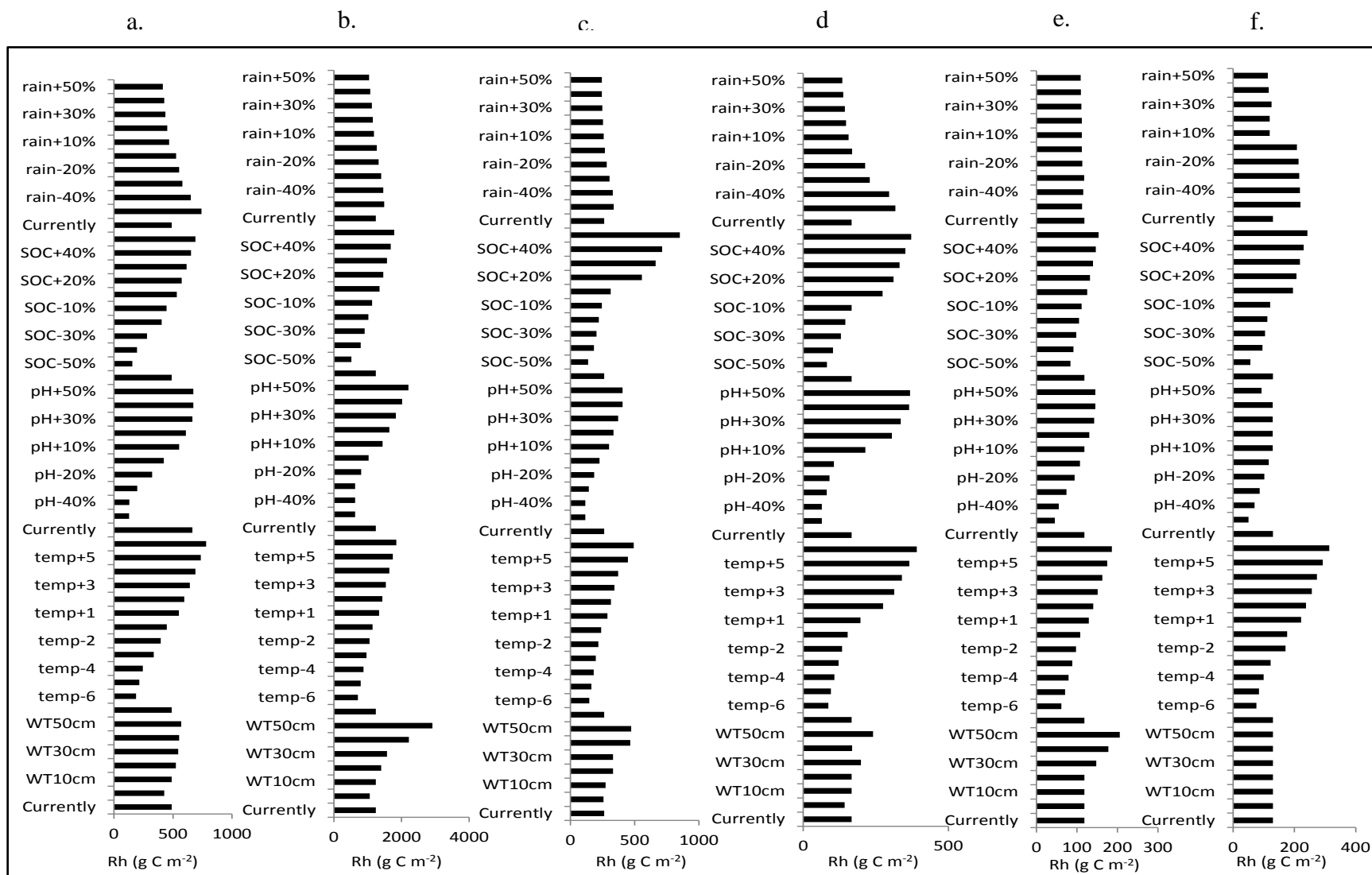
705 Figure 4: Regression relationships (1:1) between the Eddy Covariance-derived and modeled heterotrophic CO₂ (Rh).

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711 Figure 5: The attribution/ sensitivity response of the heterotrophic CO₂ (Rh) to variations in soil properties and climate input.

649 **Tables**

650

651 Table 1: Site coordinates, water table (WT) depth, type of peatland and management and annual mean climatic conditions.

Ecosystem/ location	Coordinates	WT depth (cm)	Peatland type	Management	Average Precipitation (mm)	Average temperature	Method of CO ₂ flux measurements
Auchencorth, UK*	55°79'N, 3°24'W	0-25	Bog	drainage ditches, restored; sheep grazing	1155	10°C	EC (closed path) (Li-COR 7000 IRGA)
Horstermeer, NL	52°15'N, 05°05'	0-10	Fen	restored; nature reserve	800	9.8°C	EC (open path) (Li-COR7500)
Fäjemyr, SWE	56°25'N, 13°33'E	0-16	Bog	natural mire	700	6.2°C	EC (closed path) (Li-COR 6262 IRGA)
Degerö, SWE	64°18'N, 19°55'	5-15	Fen	natural mires.	523	1.2°C	EC (closed path) (Li-COR 6262 IRGA)
Kaamanen, FIN	69°14'N, 27°17'E	0-10	Fen	natural mire	441	0.4°C	EC (closed path) (Li-COR 7000 IRGA)
Lompolojänkkä, FIN	67°59'N, 24°12'E	0-10	Fen	natural mire	484	-1.4°C	EC (closed path) (Li-COR 7000 IRGA)

652 *UK is United Kingdom; NL is the Netherlands; FIN is Finland and SWE is Sweden.

653

654 Table 2: Characteristics of the peatland soils (histosol).

Ecosystem and location	Peat depth (m)	Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	pH	Estimated soil organic matter to 50 cm depth (t C ha ⁻¹)
Auchencorth, UK*	0.5-5	0.2	4.2	512
Horstermeer, NL	2	0.5	5.3	621
Fäjemyr, SWE	4-5	0.4	3.9	810
Degerö, SWE	3-4	0.1	3.9	450
Kaamanen, FIN	1-2	0.1	4.5	240
Lompolojänkkä, FIN	2-3	0.1	5.5	190

655 *UK is United Kingdom; NL is the Netherlands; FIN is Finland and SWE is Sweden.

656

657 Table 3: Measurement period, average daily measured and modeled heterotrophic CO₂ (g C m⁻²d⁻¹), root mean square error (RMSE)
 658 (g C m⁻² d⁻¹), regression coefficient (R²), relative error (RE) and model efficiency (ME) for the peatland sites.

Site	Measurement period	EC-derived Rh*	Modelled Rh	RMSE	R ²	RE	ME
Auchencorth	2005-2010	0.85	0.71	0.60	0.43	+13	+0.38
Horstermeer	2005-2006	1.60	0.97	1.10	0.32	-31	-0.25
Fäjemyr	2006-2009	0.69	0.74	0.36	0.55	+5	+0.23
Degerö	2002-2009	0.34	0.46	0.44	0.46	+26	+0.41
Kaamenen	2000-2003	0.31	0.33	0.23	0.76	+7	+0.11
Lompolojänkkä	2008-2009	0.48	0.37	0.54	0.28	-13	+0.04

659 * derived from NEE measured by Eddy Covariance and then partitioned into GPP and Reco. Reco was then further partitioned into
 660 autotrophic and heterotrophic (Rh) respiration respectively according to Hardie et al. (2009).

661

662 Table 4: Statistical analysis of annual heterotrophic CO₂ respiration (Rh; g C m⁻²y⁻¹) for the peatland sites during the experimental
 663 period (2002-2010). RD is the average relative deviation between the measured and annual modeled flux. Different letters in the
 664 column mean that Rh values are significantly different (p<0.05). n is the number of years.

Site	Measured Rh	Modeled Rh	n	RD (%)
Auchencorth	256a	305	6	+19
Horstermeer	540b	334	2	-38
Fäjemyr	312d	262	4	-6
Degerö	121f	167	8	+38
Kaamenen	110e	118	4	+8
Lompolojänkkä	166c	129	2	-22

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