

1 Simulating ~~soil-atmosphere exchanges and ecosystem~~ ~~carbon dioxide~~ Θ_2

2 ~~fluxes and their associated influencing factors~~ for a restored peatland

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 Restoration of drained and extracted peatlands can potentially return them to carbon ~~dioxide~~

15 ~~(CO₂) sinks, thus acting as significant climate change mitigation. However, whether the~~

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16 restored sites will remain ~~C~~-sinks or switch to sources with a changing climate is unknown.

17 Therefore, we adapted the CoupModel to simulate ~~ecosystem CO₂ fluxes soil-atmosphere~~

18 ~~exchanges~~ and the associated ~~influencing factors~~ ~~ecosystem CO₂ fluxes~~ of a restored bog. The

19 study site was a peatland in eastern Canada that was extracted for eight years ~~and left for 20~~

20 ~~years~~ before restoration. The model outputs were first evaluated against three years

21 (representing 14-16 years post restoration) of eddy covariance measurements of net ecosystem

22 exchange (NEE), surface energy fluxes, soil temperature profiles, and water table depth data.

23 A sensitivity analysis was conducted to evaluate the response of the simulated CO₂ fluxes to

24 the thickness of the newly grown mosses. The validated model was then used to assess the

25 sensitivity ~~of~~ ~~to~~ changes in climate forcing. CoupModel reproduced the measured surface

26 energy fluxes and showed high agreement with the observed soil temperature, water table depth,
27 and NEE data. The simulated NEE varied slightly when changing the thickness of newly grown
28 mosses and acrotelm from 0.2 to 0.4 m but showed significantly less uptake for a 1 m thickness.
29 The simulated NEE was $-95 \pm 19 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ over the three evaluation years, and $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g}$
30 $\text{C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, ranging from -219 to $+54 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with an extended 28-year climate data. After
31 14 years of restoration, the peatland has a mean CO_2 uptake rate similar to pristine sites, but
32 with a much larger interannual variability, and ~~under-in~~ dry years, the restored peatland can
33 switch back to a temporary CO_2 source.~~-~~ The model predicts a moderate reduction of CO_2
34 uptake, but still a reasonable sink under future climate change conditions if the peatland is
35 ecologically and hydrologically restored. The ability of CoupModel to simulate the CO_2
36 dynamics and its thermal-hydro drivers for restored peatlands has important implications for
37 emission accounting and climate-smart management of drained peatlands.

38

39 **Keywords:** Restored peatland; climate variability; net ecosystem exchange; water table
40 depth; emission factor; simulation

41 **1 Introduction**

42 Degradation of peatlands through land use change and drainage is currently estimated to emit
43 ~ 4% of global annual anthropogenic carbon dioxide (United Nations Environment Programme,
44 2022). Therefore, restoring drained peatlands so that they return to carbon (C) sinks has been
45 identified as an emerging priority for climate change mitigation (Leifeld and Menichetti, 2018).
46 When ecologically restored successfully, peatlands can generally return to their carbon (C)
47 uptake function after a decade or two following the recolonization of peatland vegetation and
48 a decrease in water table depth (Nugent et al., 2018; González and Rochefort, 2014; Richardson
49 et al., 2023; Tuittila et al., 1999; Wilson et al., 2016; Beyer and Höper, 2015). However, the C
50 uptake function of restored peatlands is sensitive to climate conditions, particularly in drier
51 years (Wilson et al., 2016). Therefore, changing climate can potentially weaken the sink
52 strength or even switch the restored peatlands into C sources.

53

54 In North America, about a quarter of drained peatlands that were earlier used for horticultural
55 peat extraction have been restored by the Moss Layer Transfer Technique (MLTT) (Chimner
56 et al., 2017; Quinty and Rochefort, 2003). Ecosystem-scale flux measurements indicate
57 peatlands remain a CO₂ source (~200 to 500 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) the first few years of restoration
58 (Petrone et al., 2001; Petrone et al., 2003), but after a decade or two, peat vegetation recovers,
59 and the restored bogs return to CO₂ sinks with uptake rates similar to pristine sites (Nugent et
60 al., 2018). While the C accumulation function can generally be fully restored within a decade
61 or two, full restoration of the peat soil structure and ecohydrology takes a much longer time
62 (Loisel and Gallego-Sala, 2022) with centuries to millennia required for the restored peatland
63 to accumulate the C that was extracted. Restoration creates a novel ecosystem in transition to
64 a rewetted steady state and the altered ecohydrology decreases peatland ecological resilience
65 (Kreyling et al., 2021).

67 The ecological function of peatlands is strongly linked to ecohydrology (Waddington et al.,
68 ~~Recently, He and Roulet, (in review) applied the conceptual four functional layers of~~
69 ~~peatlands (i.e., green; peat litter; collapse; peat proper) introduced by~~ Clymo (1992) ~~outlined~~
70 ~~four functional layers of pristine peatlands (i.e. green- peat litter- collapse- peat proper, Fig. 1~~
71 ~~in his paper) and how the peat structure interacts with ecohydrology, thus regulating the growth~~
72 ~~and function of peatlands. Briefly, the bulk density of the green and peat litter layer is low,~~
73 ~~typically below 0.05 g cm⁻³. The increasing load of new growth above and the mass proportion~~
74 ~~cause~~ ~~of water, as well as the decomposition of plant material causes the moss structure to collapse,~~
75 ~~typically increasing the bulk density gradually along the peat profile to ~0.1 g cm⁻³. The result~~
76 ~~is a reduction in the space between dead leaves and stems and the soil pore sizes, increasing~~
77 ~~the capillary force for vertical water movement, thus sustaining the water supply for sphagnum~~
78 ~~mosses and the growth of the peatlands. to two well studied bog sites in eastern Canada, and~~
79 ~~showed a wider range of water table fluctuation and a larger frequency of water table drops~~
80 ~~below the annual mean in the restored bog compared to that of the pristine bog, mainly due to~~
81 ~~the lack of the mesotelm collapse layer (Clymo and Bryant, 2008). For extracted peatlands, the~~
82 ~~MLTT gives a jump start for mosses colonization at the residual catotelmic peat surface, with~~
83 ~~time, a new layer of acrotelm is formed and thicken. However, These~~ newly regenerated
84 ~~mosses~~ with low bulk density forms large pores directly above the dense residual peat
85 remaining after extraction (catotelmic peat) and does not have the negative interstitial pressures
86 required to draw pore water, causing a capillary barrier effect (Gauthier et al., 2022; Gauthier
87 et al., 2018). The capillary barrier decreases the ability of the new moss to draw water from the
88 deeper compacted catotelmic peat, thus causing an overall lower surface moisture content for
89 restored sites compared to natural peatlands (McCarter and Price, 2015). As a result, the new
90 moss layer may become stressed quickly ~~and even die off~~ during dry periods. Synthesis studies

91 have shown that vegetation colonization is much slower after restoration over warm and drier
92 years (González and Rochefort, 2014), and data from a restored Irish extracted bog show a less
93 resilient C uptake function over the drier years (Wilson et al., 2016).

94

95 Under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), countries
96 with peatlands managed for extraction are required to report greenhouse gas emissions annually

97 (IPCC, 2014). ~~However, Currently National Inventory Report (NIR) of Canada report~~ tonnes or t
98 ~~emissions from restored peatland separately and an emission factor (EF) of +2.07 ton CO₂ C~~

99 ~~ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (positive meaning source) generated from data of three sites (all restored less than 10~~
100 ~~years) is used uptake and/or emissions from the restored peatlands so far have not been~~

101 ~~accounted for in Canada (National Inventory Report of Canada; (ECCC, 2021). However, the~~
102 ~~CO₂ emissions change develops switching to CO₂ uptake~~
103 ~~emission changes with time as the peatland development and gradually switch to an uptake~~

104 Currently, there is a discussion that restoration can create C credits and thus could be used to
105 offset the C emissions during the drainage phase (Tanneberger and Wichtman, 2011).

106 ~~Moreover, The IPCC and Canadian NIR report for restored peatlands uses default EFs (i.e.,~~
107 ~~Tier 1) based on literature data (IPCC, 2019). An emission factor based on empirical~~

108 ~~observations (i.e., Tier 2) offers improvement as it is subject to the environmental conditions~~
109 ~~and the time of year the measurements were done. Yet, most of the observed data is of short~~

110 ~~duration and thus can not capture interannual variations in emissions and associated~~
111 ~~environmental variables. Process-based modeling of restored peatlands (i.e., Tier 3) can be~~

112 ~~used to determine the ‘representativeness’ of the empirical EFs by examining the coupled~~
113 ~~hydrological-C dynamics and how they vary over within and between years. He and Roulet~~

114 ~~(2023) showed that directly using literature data to generate emission factors can be biased~~

115 ~~because it does not account for seasonality and interannual climate variability.~~

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117 Existing studies using models for restored peatlands are few. Lees et al. (2019) applied a
118 satellite-based, temperature-driven gross primary productivity (GPP) model over peatland sites
119 at various stages of restoration in the UK and Ireland and found that the model can simulate
120 the GPP measured by eddy covariance. Premrov et al. (2021) modified the drainage function
121 in the ECOSSE model to simulate the water table and CO₂ flux for drained and rewetted
122 extracted bogs, but their model evaluations showed that ECOSSE still requires further
123 development to accurately simulate the water table depth for the rewetted sites. Recently,
124 Lippmann et al. (2023) introduced a dynamic vegetation scheme in the PVN model, driven by
125 input water table data, and evaluated the model for the measured CO₂ flux together with the
126 vegetation competitions in two restored nutrient-rich peatlands in the Netherlands. However,
127 none of these models consider the coupled ecohydrology and C dynamics for restored peatlands
128 (Silva et al., 2024). Previous research showed that CoupModel could successfully simulate
129 peatland CO₂ dynamics associated with various land-use options (e.g., drained peatlands for
130 forestry; (He et al., 2016a; He et al., 2016b; Kasimir et al., 2021), land-use change of afforested
131 peatlands (Kasimir et al., 2018) and five European peatlands with various land-uses, including
132 restored sites (Metzger et al., 2015). Recently, the model was applied to simulate the CO₂ fluxes
133 of a pristine continental bog (He et al., 2023a) and an active peat extraction site (He et al.,
134 2023b). These studies provide a basis for further use of the model to simulate restored peatlands
135 to close the land use cycle from pristine peatlands, drainage for different land uses to final
136 restoration.

137

138 The overall aim of this study is to simulate the soil-atmosphere exchanges of heat, water, and
139 CO₂ ~~fluxes~~ for a bog restored by the MLTT technique. More specifically, we aim to:

140 1) adapt and evaluate the CoupModel to simulate net ecosystem exchange (NEE) and its hydro-
141 thermal drivers, including surface energy fluxes, soil temperature profile, and water table depth;
142 2) test the model sensitivity to varying thickness of newly grown mosses and the acrotelm;
143 3) evaluate the impact of interannual climate variability on the simulated ecosystem CO₂ flux
144 and discuss its implications for emission factor calculation; and,
145 4) predict the impact of future climate change on the C uptake function of restored peatlands.

146

147 **2 Site and methods**

148 **2.1 Site Description**

149 The Bois-des-Bel (BDB) peatland is located 11 km northeast of Riviere-du-Loup, Quebec
150 (47°58'1.95"N 69°25'43.10"W). The peatland complex covers an area of 202 ha with a mean
151 peat depth of 2.2 m. A small sector of 11 ha was extracted for horticulture peat by vacuum
152 harvesting between 1972 and 1980. After the extraction, there was two-meter residual peat left
153 where the top 0.8 m characterize a *Sphagnum* bog peat (Lavoie et al., 2001). In the autumn of
154 1999, an 8.1 ha area was restored using the MLTT. The The climate of the region is cool-
155 temperate with an average long-term (1981-2010 climate normal St-Arsene) annual
156 temperature of 3.5 °C and annual precipitation of 962 mm (Environment and Climate Change
157 Canada, 2023). BDB is well studied and detailed descriptions of the restoration procedure and
158 site characteristics can be found in several publications (McCarter and Price, 2015; Strack and
159 Zuback, 2013; Waddington and Day, 2007; Poulin et al., 2013). Nugent et al. (2018) measured
160 the soil-atmosphere exchanges by eddy covariance between 2013-2016, i.e., 14-17 years after
161 the restoration. In this study, we used their measured meteorological data (Table 1) for model
162 forcing, and measured water table depth, peat temperatures, and flux data for model evaluation.

163

164 **2.2 Brief Model Description**

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165 The CoupModel (coupled heat and mass transfer model for soil–plant–atmosphere systems)
166 platform is a process-based model designed to simulate water and heat fluxes, along with the
167 C–N–P cycle, in terrestrial ecosystems (Jansson, 2012; He et al., 2021). The main model
168 structure is a one-dimensional multi-layered soil profile. Model forcing is measured weather
169 data (Table 1). The model and technical description are freely available at
170 www.coupmmodel.com. CoupModel was previously applied to simulate ecohydrology and CO₂
171 exchanges for a pristine bog, Mer Bleue that resembled, though with fewer trees, the BDB site
172 before opening for extraction (He et al., 2023a), and recently successfully simulated one
173 ongoing peat extraction site, Riviere-du-Loup in the same region as BDB (He et al., 2023b).
174 The setup and model structure of the BDB simulation were thus built on the base of the upper
175 aerobic peat layer and vegetation characteristics of Mer Bleue and the residual extracted peat
176 layer of Riviere-du-Loup. [The details of model parameter configuration for BDB are reported](#)
177 [in the supplementary Table S1](#). Here, we report the model setup unique for the BDB site. More
178 detailed process descriptions, model structure, and parameters are reported in He et al. (2023b)
179 and He et al. (2023a).

180

181 **2.3 Simulation Design, Model Structure, Initial and Boundary Conditions**

182 CoupModel was used to simulate the soil vegetation processes and linked hydrology and
183 energy flows of BDB in a 30-minute time-step from 2013-07-14 to 2016-11-01.

184

185 Nugent et al. (2018) conducted a detailed vegetation survey [and spatial distributions](#) at BDB in
186 2013 and [their results show the vegetation at the site is quite homogenous across the major](#)
187 [survey direction](#). These data were used to initialize the vegetation conditions in CoupModel.
188 The survey showed *Sphagnum* mosses and *Polytricum strictum* cover more than 90% of the
189 surface with a new acrotelm thickness of ~ 0.3 m, sedges (*Eriophorum vaginatum* and *Carex*

190 spp.) cover 33%, and ericaceous shrubs (*Chamaedaphne calyculata*, *Rhododendron*
191 *groenlandicum*, *Kalmia angustifolium*, *Vaccinium oxycoccus*, and *V. angustifolium*) cover 39%
192 of the soil surface (Nugent et al., 2018). Trees (*Picea mariana* and *Larix laricina*) were few
193 but were also beginning to expand across the site. *Typha latifolia* from the filled remnant
194 ditches covers 4% of the total site area. In our simulation, we grouped vegetation into three
195 plant functional types or modeled vegetation layers: the first group represents the Ericaceous
196 shrubs and the trees, that cover ~40% of the surface, with an assumed lowest root depth of 0.5
197 m. The second group represents the sedges, which cover 33% of the surface and lowest root
198 depth of 0.35 m. The third group represents the *Sphagnum* mosses and other non-vascular
199 vegetation (*Polytricum strictum*) at the soil surface which cover 90% of the soil surface with
200 no roots. These three modeled vegetation layers were described in the model using the
201 “multiple-big-leaves” concept considering dynamic competition in terms of interception of
202 light and uptake of water. For each vegetation layer, plants were conceptually divided into leaf,
203 stem, coarse root and fine root. For the moss layer, the live capitulum was conceptually viewed
204 as leaf and the rest as stem in the model (He et al., 2023a). C and the dynamics of the plant
205 development (e.g. leaf area index, height) are simulated as the interactions between plant and
206 physical driving forces; e.g., how the plant cover influences both aerodynamic conditions
207 conductance for both heat and momentum transfer in the atmosphere and the radiation balance
208 at the soil surface. Since these are oligotrophic ecosystems, the influence of nutrients on C was
209 not considered in this study. The three vegetation groups were pre-run for fourteen years to
210 spin up and reach a quasi-steady state (defined as no abrupt takeover or die-offs of one
211 vegetation group).

212

213 For the peat soil, we simulated the first 1.8 m of peat in BDB which includes 0.3 m of the
214 surface newly developed acrotelm and mosses and 1.5 m of the residual extracted peat. We

215 divided the peat soil profile into nine layers: from 0.05 m per layer at the top to 0.80 m per
216 layer at the bottom. For each simulated layer, the peat soil water retention curve and unsaturated
217 hydraulic conductivity were estimated by the Mualem-van Genuchten model (Mualem, 1976;
218 van Genuchten, 1980). The physical and hydraulic properties used in this study were compiled
219 from the measured data from BDB (Table 2). Water flow between soil layers follows Darcy's
220 law as generalized for unsaturated flow by Richards (1931). We additionally simulated bypass
221 flow to account for preferential water flow in the root channels, and macro-pores by using an
222 empirical bypass flow scheme (Jansson et al., 2004). Soil heat flow between soil layers was
223 assumed to be mainly driven by conduction. CoupModel solves water and heat equations
224 simultaneously within the soil-plant-atmosphere continuum, and water and heat are coupled in
225 a dynamic way to the plant vegetation layers; accounting for feedback interactions between the
226 plant and the environment.

227

228 The initial conditions for water and heat were from measured data (Nugent et al., 2018). The
229 initial condition for soil C stocks for each soil layer was calculated from the measured bulk
230 density and C concentration (assumed 50%). The total C in the 1.8 m soil profile was 101.8 kg
231 C m⁻² (Table 2). Similar to He et al. (2023b), we used two soil C pools which differed in
232 substrate quality and hence decomposition rate to model the impact of organic matter quality
233 on soil respiration: labile and refractory soil C. The partitioning ratio between these two pools
234 from Riviere-du-Loup was used for the bottom 1.5 m at BDB, while for the top 0.3 m of newly
235 grown peat, 80% was assumed to be in the labile pool. The decomposition rate coefficient
236 (Table S1) and its response to temperature and water were kept the same as He et al. (2023a).

237

238 We assumed no vertical water flow for the lower boundary condition (i.e., at 1.8 m depth) due
239 to the very low saturated hydraulic conductivity (Table 2) and assumed a small thermal heat

240 flow across the lower boundary condition for heat. The site was also drained laterally to the
241 outflow at a distance of ~200 m (Shantz and Price, 2006). The model parameter values were
242 primarily obtained from the measured data, and where not available, literature values used in
243 previous model applications were applied (Table S1).

244

245 **3 Results**

246 **3.1 CoupModel evaluation for restored peatland**

247 CoupModel simulated the half-hourly surface energy balances well, as shown by the high
248 agreement with the measured total radiation, sensible and latent fluxes (coefficient of
249 determination, $r^2 > 0.7$ for all, Figs. 1a, b, c), and surface soil heat flux ($r^2 = 0.4$, Fig. 1d).

250 However, the model tended to overestimate the sensible heat flux and underestimate the latent
251 heat flux, particularly over the periods of spring and earlier summer, where the model simulated
252 a smaller and delayed (~ 1 month) increase of latent heat fluxes compared to the measured data
253 (Fig. S1). ~~The lower agreement with soil surface heat flux is due to its residual energy flux,~~
254 ~~thus small in flux size, i.e., one order of magnitude lower compared to the turbulent energy~~
255 ~~fluxes (Figs. 1d and S1), plus the energy balance closure calculated with measured data over~~
256 ~~the three years is ~90% while CoupModel has full energy conservation.~~

257

258 The model simulates the measured soil temperature profile over 5-20-80 cm depth generally
259 well, with $r^2 > 0.9$ for all three soil layers, (Figs. 1e, f, g) however, the model showed difficulty
260 in precisely simulating the soil thawing (i.e., zero curtain effect Fig. S2). The simulated
261 temperature started to increase above zero a half month earlier than did the measured data for
262 the 20-80 cm depth in 2015 but was delayed for almost one month for 2016 (Fig. S1).

263 ~~CoupModel probably overestimated the soil frozen depth as higher heat flow was partitioned~~

264 ~~into the soil surface over May to June every year (Figs. 1d, S1), thus extra heat was needed for~~
265 ~~thawing in the spring and delayed the increase of latent heat fluxes and temperature increase.~~

266
267 Model performance for water table depth was generally less good compared to the energy and
268 temperature variables. However, the model still captured 50% of the measured variations (r^2
269 = 0.5, Fig. 1h). CoupModel generally simulated a smaller magnitude fluctuation compared to
270 the measured data and the model data agreement was better over the summer than the winter
271 (Fig. 2a). For instance, large infiltration from snow melt around May was simulated in the
272 model every year, but not represented in the measured data; ~~probably again reflecting the~~
273 ~~model's difficulty in precisely capturing the phase change over winter~~ (Fig. 2a).

274
275 Measured daily net ecosystem exchange data ranges from $\sim -3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (negative indicating
276 uptake) during July to a loss of $\sim +2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ during cloudy days or shoulder seasons (Fig.
277 2b; Note that the flux data is 30 min in Figures 1i and 2b). CoupModel reproduced the measured
278 half-hourly NEE data reasonably well ($r^2 = 0.64$; Figs. 1i and 2b). Nugent et al. (2018) gap-
279 filled the BDB eddy covariance data and estimated an annual C flux of -90 ± 10 ($\pm 95\%$ CI), -
280 105 ± 7 , and $-70 \pm 7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2014, 2015 and 2016, respectively. The corresponding
281 simulated annual fluxes are -89, -120 and $-75 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively. ~~The model simulated~~
282 ~~a delayed start of spring uptake during the years 2014 and 2016, which again can be explained~~
283 ~~by the delayed thawing in the model.~~

284
285 **3.2 Sensitivity to the thickness of the newly grown mosses**
286 We conducted a sensitivity analysis to evaluate the model responses to the thickness of the
287 newly grown mosses (i.e., new acrotelm) which partly represents the time since the restoration.
288 It has been argued that -100 mb is the limiting soil moisture pressure head for sustaining moss

289 growth (McCarter and Price, 2012). Three extra model simulations were made based on the
290 reference run (30 cm acrotelm) with new acrotelm thicknesses of 20 cm ([~10 years after](#)
291 [restoration](#)), 40 cm ([~30 years after restoration](#)), and 100 cm ([hypothetical, to test the empirical](#)
292 [threshold of -100 mb](#)). For the latter two model simulations, peat properties of the 20-30 cm
293 layer in the reference run (Table 2) were assumed for the future extra 10 and 70 cm acrotelm,
294 respectively. The vegetation was assumed to be the same as the reference run and the peat
295 compaction due to the growth of mosses and decomposition was not considered ([i.e., no](#)
296 [mesotelm collapse layer](#)).

297 Our sensitivity analysis showed that the simulated NEE uptake increased slightly when
298 changing the new acrotelm thickness from 20 to 40 cm but reduced (meaning less uptake)
299 significantly for the model run with an acrotelm of 100 cm (Fig. 3). The small changes of
300 simulated NEE can be explained by both increase of GPP and ecosystem respiration (ER) with
301 increasing new acrotelm thickness (20-40 cm). [The NPP \(net primary production\) of mosses](#)
302 [show a slight decrease trend with increasing acrotelm thickness \(Fig. 3\)](#). The reduction of CO₂
303 uptake in the 100 cm acrotelm thickness model run is because the model simulated that the
304 surface mosses start to die off because they [can't](#) take up water from the deep peat (Fig. 3).

305 Type text here

306 3.3 [Impact of interannual climate variability on CO₂ uptake of restored peatlands](#)

307 The BDB region shows large annual climate variability over the last 28 years from 1994 to
308 2021. The measured annual mean air temperature ranged from 2.6 to 5.7 °C and the annual
309 precipitation from 633 to 1488 mm (Figs. 4a, b). This can be compared to the 30-year annual
310 mean air temperature of 3.5 ± 2.9 °C and the precipitation of 962 mm for the climate normal
311 data (1981-2010) at St-Arsene station (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2023). Both
312 annual air temperature and precipitation showed increasing trends over the measured period
313 from 1994 to 2021, with a slope of 0.03 °C yr⁻¹ for air temperature and 1.69 mm yr⁻¹ ([Fig. 4](#))

314 indicating possible future warmer and wetter conditions in the region. The weather over the
315 three years of flux measurement ([shaded cycles in Fig. 4](#)) was generally around the mean
316 climate conditions (for more discussion see Nugent et al. (2018)).

317

318 We made an extra simulation (in daily time step) with a 28-year climate input based on the
319 2013-2016 BDB set up to represent the normal climate variability also including extreme years.
320 The simulated 28-year average of CO₂ uptake was $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, ranging from a
321 maximum uptake of $-219 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 1999 to a loss of $+54 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in 2015 (Fig. 5). At
322 the annual scale, CO₂ uptake seems to increase slightly with increasing air temperature,
323 although the relationship was not statistically significant ($p=0.19$). [Annual CO₂ flux did not](#)
324 [show correlation with annual precipitation but](#) ~~the~~ the model simulated the BDB peatland as an
325 atmospheric CO₂ source for three years 1995, 1997, and 2015, all of which had below-average
326 precipitation.

327

328 We further compared the simulated flux rates with long-term measurements at Mer Bleue, a
329 pristine shrub-*Sphagnum* bog within the same climate region. Over fifteen years of
330 measurement (2004 to 2018), Mer Bleue had an average uptake rate of $-108 \pm 33 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$
331 ([simulated value of \$-90 \pm 51 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}\$](#)) (He et al., 2023a), similar to the three-year BDB
332 uptake rate measured by the tower, $-90 \pm 18 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, and the current 28 year extended
333 simulation, $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 6). Therefore, after fourteen years of restoration, the
334 BDB peatland has switched back to C uptake and the uptake rate was similar to pristine sites
335 (for more discussion see Nugent et al. (2018)). However, our model simulations additionally
336 show that the C uptake at the restored peatland has larger interannual variability (S.D. 64 g C
337 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) compared to the pristine Mer Bleue site. Under certain dry years, the restored site can
338 potentially switch back to C sources while the pristine peatlands showed persistent C uptake

339 with a smaller interannual variation (S.D. $33 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). In other words, the restored peatlands
340 seem to have less ecological resilience compared to the pristine peatlands.

341

342 **3.4 Impact of Future climate change on CO₂ uptake of restored peatlands**

343 We evaluate the potential impact of future climate change on the CO₂ uptake function of the
344 restored bog using the 28-year simulation as the long-term reference run. Climate change
345 scenarios were designed as combinations of an increase of all-year-round air temperature for
346 the 28-year climate data by +1, +2 °C, and/or change all-year-round precipitation by ±10%, the
347 range of climate change expected for this area of Quebec (Zhang et al., 2019). Then,
348 equilibrium model runs using the 2013-2016 BDB setup for the future climate, were conducted
349 to evaluate the potential response of C uptake functions.

350

351 Our model simulations show that increasing air temperature will decrease the CO₂ uptake rate
352 of restored peatlands. Increasing air temperature alone by 1 °C decreases the annual C uptake
353 rate by 5% compared to the reference run, and ~16% when air temperature increased by 2 °C
354 (Fig. S3). A larger rate of CO₂ uptake decreases under the +2 °C scenario compared to
355 the +1 °C can be explained by the simulated more pronounced water table drop (Fig. S3). Our
356 model simulation shows a change of ±10% in precipitation alone only influences the CO₂ flux
357 marginally, with a reduction of uptake rate when precipitation decreases (Fig. S4). The BDB
358 region is humid (annual precipitation/potential evaporation ratio is ~ 1.5 to 2 (Hare and Thomas,
359 1979)). Thus, a 10% change in precipitation is predicted to influence the water table marginally
360 (Fig. S4). We made a climate scenario with an increase of air temperature by 2 °C and reduced
361 precipitation by 10%, i.e. the ‘extreme’ scenario. The restored bog still acts as a C sink overall,
362 with a slightly reduced (~ -6%) simulated mean uptake rate of $-95 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 7). The
363 modified climate causes both GPP and ER to increase (Fig. 7), thus effectively canceling each

364 other out. Our model simulations thus overall suggest the restored ~~bogs peatlands will likely~~
365 ~~maintain their~~~~may retain some capacity for CO₂~~ uptake ~~functions~~ under future climate change.

366

367 **4 Discussion**

368 Current model evaluation with the dataset from the BDB site shows ~~that~~ CoupModel can
369 simulate the coupled hydrology, heat, and CO₂ fluxes of a restored peatland. CoupModel has
370 been applied to Mer Bleue, a pristine bog (He et al., 2023a), and Riviere-du-Loup, an active
371 peat extraction site (He et al., 2023b). The ability of the model to simulate C dynamics
372 associated with ecohydrology for the restored system thus closes the land use cycle and shows
373 the model can now simulate all stages of land uses, from pristine peatlands, to drained for
374 extraction and finally restoration.

375

376 Our model evaluation highlights the model deficiencies in simulating the time of phase changes
377 in spring. This can be partly explained by the complex processes that occur during this period.
378 For instance, CoupModel probably overestimated the soil frozen depth as higher heat flow was
379 partitioned into the soil surface over May to June every year (Figs. 1d, S1), thus extra heat was
380 needed for thawing in the spring and delayed the increase of latent heat fluxes (Fig. S1),
381 temperature increase (Fig. S2) and the start of spring CO₂ uptake (Fig. 2b). Moreover, the
382 energy balance closure calculated with measured data over the three years is ~90% while
383 CoupModel has full energy conservation. Thus, uncertainties in distributing surface energy
384 fluxes can be carried over to the soil processes, e.g. soil surface heat flux. The~~The~~
385 data agreement with~~for~~ soil surface heat flux is due to its residual energy flux, thus small in
386 flux size, i.e., one order of magnitude lower compared to the turbulent energy fluxes (Figs. 1d
387 and S1); plus the energy balance closure calculated with measured data over the three years is
388 ~90% while CoupModel has full energy conservation.

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389

390 Our model performance for CO₂ flux is similar to previous models that have been applied to
391 restored sites, such as the ECOSSE model (Premrov et al., 2021) and the PVN model
392 (Lippmann et al., 2023). However, the advance of our current modeling exercise compared to
393 the earlier studies is its capability of accurately simulating both the water table depth and C
394 dynamics in a finer temporal resolution. CoupModel simulates the coupled C-hydrological
395 processes in half-hour resolution, while a daily time step was used for the earlier models. The
396 ability to simulate processes at a sub-daily scale is particularly important for the future
397 inclusion of CH₄ as the transport processes (e.g., ebullition) occur at a sub-daily scale (Walter
398 and Heimann, 2000). Empirical studies have shown that the water table is an important control
399 for greenhouse gas fluxes in restored peatlands (Evans et al., 2021; Järveoja et al., 2016; Koch
400 et al., 2023). Restoration is associated with management practices that change the hydrology
401 of the peatlands, such as blocking the drainage ditches at the beginning of restoration. With the
402 gradual recovery of peat vegetation and the development of ~~the mesotelm collapse layer~~^{peat}
403 soil structure, the water table fluctuations further reduce, and the mean level gradually moves
404 above the ~~mesotelm collapse layer~~ (Shantz and Price, 2006)(He and Roulet, in review).
405 Therefore, following restoration, the ecohydrology and vegetation co-evolve and feedback
406 between each other, co-regulating the overall C uptake function of the peatland. The ability of
407 CoupModel to simulate the coupled processes thus has important implications for
408 understanding the overall climate impacts of peatland restorations. Our study simulates the
409 time frame of 14 to 16 years after restoration, representing a stage of fully recovered vegetation.
410 However, the degree of vegetation recovery might vary across sites. Further, it needs to note
411 the influence of nutrients and the altered pH levels that can encourage invasive species
412 outcompeting mosses are not considered in our study. Future modeling research should include
413 different peatland types and cover the beginning of the restoration thus simulating the full

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414 dynamic coupling of vegetation development, hydrology management, and peat soil
415 development.

416

417 The extended model simulations show that restored peatlands have less resilience to climate
418 variability than do pristine peatlands (Figs. 5 and 6). Theoretical studies have argued that bogs
419 are complex adaptive systems based on the tight feedbacks among plant production,
420 decomposition, and water storage represented by water table depth (Eppinga et al., 2009;
421 Belyea and Clymo, 2001). ~~Due to the missing collapse layer, the ecohydrology of restored~~
422 ~~peatlands is not fully restored.~~ Water table frequency distribution can be a useful measure for
423 evaluating the success of ecohydrology restoration ([Shantz and Price, 2006](#)~~He and Roulet, in~~
424 ~~review~~). CoupModel predicts that the water table frequency distribution for BDB will gradually
425 recover to a state of a pristine bog when the newly grown mosses at the surface reach 40 cm
426 depth (data not shown). Our model sensitivity analysis shows that mosses cannot thrive under
427 a 100 cm acrotelm thickness which is in agreement with results from field studies that suggest
428 a tension of -100 ~~em water~~mb as the hydrologic threshold for *Sphagnum* establishment (Price,
429 1998; Price and Whitehead, 2001). The ability of CoupModel to reproduce such important
430 ecohydrology regulation has implications for future model applications to evaluate the impacts
431 of field management practices on greenhouse gas fluxes by changing boundary and lateral
432 hydrology conditions.

433

434 The current model exercise represents a series of studies towards developing CoupModel as an
435 IPCC Tier 3 methodology for estimating emissions from extracted and restored peatlands (He
436 et al., 2023b; He and Roulet, 2023). Our work to date has focused on bogs in eastern Canada
437 but should be expanded to include bogs and poor fens in western Canada and other
438 geographical and ecoclimate regions in the future. To date, there are few emission data from

439 restored peatlands in Canada, and those data are snapshots covering only sites restored within
440 10 years thus explaining the current EF, +2.07 ton CO₂ -C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ used in Canada NIR. We
441 argue this EF and thus does not reflect the temporal dynamics of greenhouse gases for restored
442 peatlands, particularly for those sites that have fully vegetation recovery (Kalhori et al., 2024).
443 Our long term28-year extended model simulations by considering the interannual climate
444 variation suggest an EF of -1.01 ± 0.64 t CO₂-C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for a bog 14-16 years post restoration
445 by the MLTT⁺. This should be included in the next revision of EF within NIR of Canada.
446 Moreover, our modelled EFthis is ~five times larger (meaning more uptake) than the default
447 IPCC Tier 1 EF for temperate nutrient-poor rewetted organic soils (-0.23 with CI -0.64 to +0.18
448 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (IPCC, 2014)⁺. The data used to generate the IPCC EF includes more degraded sites
449 in Europe and different rewetting methods. The Canadian practice of leaving a residual peat
450 layer at the end of extraction and using MLTT for restoration seems to be beneficial for the
451 recovery of peatland C uptake. The default IPCC EF has earlier been used to evaluate the
452 overall climate impacts for peatland restoration using a modeling approach (Gunther et al.,
453 2020). Our results thus suggest those studies might significantly underestimate the climate
454 cooling effects for Canadian bog sites that have been restored using MLTT.
455

456 Our climate change simulations show the important regulating affect of air temperature on the
457 CO₂ uptake of restored peatlands, where future global warming is predicted to moderately
458 weaken the sink strength (Fig. S3). However, it should be noted that future changes in seasonal
459 patterns and extremes were not accounted for in our climate change scenarios. Helbig et al.
460 (2022) analyzed flux measurements from northern peatlands and showed earlier summer
461 warming increases NEE uptake while late summer warming decreases it. The seasonal patterns
462 Controlling
463 and particularly extremes of climate can be additional factors control the CO₂ fluxes. For
mosses and peatland vegetations to develop, a stable water table is required. However, this can

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464 be challenging under the altered ecohydrological and climate condition, especially in areas Revise this sentence
465 where drainage has lowered groundwater levels causing less resilience of the ecosystem. Our
466 results show even water level drops temporarily, especially during dry periods or in warmer
467 climate this can lead to poor establishment and even die off mosses, reducing the restoration
468 success consequently ecosystem uptake of CO₂. Helbig et al. (2022) analyzed flux
469 measurements from northern peatlands and showed earlier summer warming increases NEE
470 uptake while late summer warming decreases it. In addition, fire there is also the possibility of
471 fire that would structurally alter the peatlands. Our simulations do not include fire, which is
472 much less common in eastern Canadian peatlands than in the west (Zoltai et al., 1998; Lavoie
473 and Pellerin, 2007). Thus, our climate change simulations probably overall represent a
474 conservative prediction which might in turn explain the moderate reduction of sink strength.
475 As our extended simulations show, it is possible that over extreme years the site can switch to
476 a small CO₂ source and that potentially the number of source years could increase in the future.
477

478 **5 Conclusion**

479 This study applied the CoupModel to a peatland site restored 14-16 years previously. We
480 conclude:

- 481 • CoupModel can describe the measured sub-daily CO₂ fluxes, hydrology, and heat for
482 the restored peatland bog system.
- 483 • Restored peatlands-bogs have less resilience to climate variability than pristine
484 bog systems peatlands.
- 485 • CoupModel simulation results in an emission factor of $-1.01 \pm 0.64 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for
486 Canadian bogs that have been restored for 14 to 16 years by the moss layer transfer
487 technique, ~ five times larger than the IPCC default emission factor and much smaller
488 than current emission factor used in the Canadian NIR.

489 • Moderate reduction of CO₂ uptake is predicted for restored bogs with fully vegetation
490 cover under future climate change conditions.

491 • CoupModel now simulates all stages of peat extraction and restoration, and can be used
492 for exploring land-use change issues, suggesting climate-smart management practices,
493 and Tier-3 emission reporting.

494

495 Table 1 Data from Bois-des-Bel peatland used for the CoupModel forcing and evaluation

Category	Variable	Unite	Resolution	Period	n	References
Model forcing - meteorological data	Global solar radiation	$J \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	59952	Nugent et al. (2018)
	Air temperature	°C				
	Relative humidity	%				
	Precipitation	mm d^{-1}				
	Wind speed	m s^{-1}				
Evaluation data	Total net radiation	$J \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	49964	Nugent et al. (2018)
	Soil heat flux	$J \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	56631	
	Latent heat flux	$J \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	23397	
	Sensible heat flux	$J \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	25511	
	Soil temperature profile					
	5-80 cm depth, thermocouples	°C	30 min	2013-2016	52892	
	Water table depth	m	30 min	2013-2016		Nugent et al. (2018)
	Net ecosystem exchange	$\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$	30 min	2013-2016	18920	

496

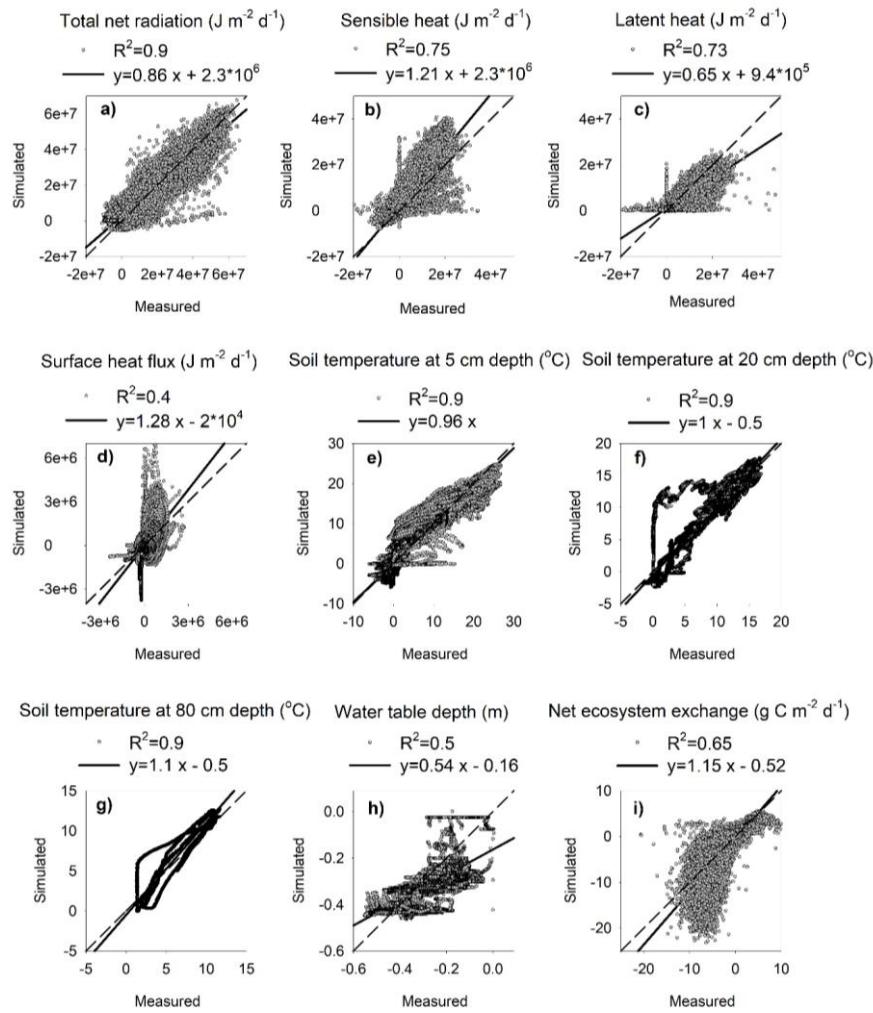
497 Table 2 Physical, hydraulic, and Mualem-van Genuchten coefficients for Bois-des-Bel site

Peat layer	Modeled layer (cm)	ρ_B (g cm^{-3})	θ_s (vol%)	θ_r (vol%)	α	n	k_{sat} (mm d^{-1})	$C stock$ (g C m^{-2})
Newly grown mosses	0-5	0.025	98.8	10	0.16	2.51	1×10^5	625
	5-10	0.03	98.5	14	0.09	2.96	1×10^5	683
	10-20	0.032	96	14	0.09	2.96	1×10^5	1588
	20-30	0.04	95	10	0.09	2.96	1×10^4	1888
Residual extracted peat	30 - 40	0.08	94	10	0.022	2.03	5×10^3	4025
	40-50	0.13	91	20	0.016	4.05	4×10^2	6500
	50 - 70	0.1	93	20	0.025	1.39	2×10^2	9500
	70-100	0.13	90	30	0.013	1.4	2×10^2	21000
	100 - 180	0.14	90	30	0.008	1.45	6×10^2	56000

498

499 Bulk density ρ_B , porosity θ_s and saturated conductivity k_{sat} data were from McCarter and Price (2013),
500 Gauthier et al. (2022) and Petrone (2002). Non-linear curving fitting was run with the empirical constant $m=1-$
501 $1/n$ with the wilting point θ_w set to 10 % for the topsoil layer, and 30% for the 40-150 cm layer (Menberu et al.,
502 2021).

503

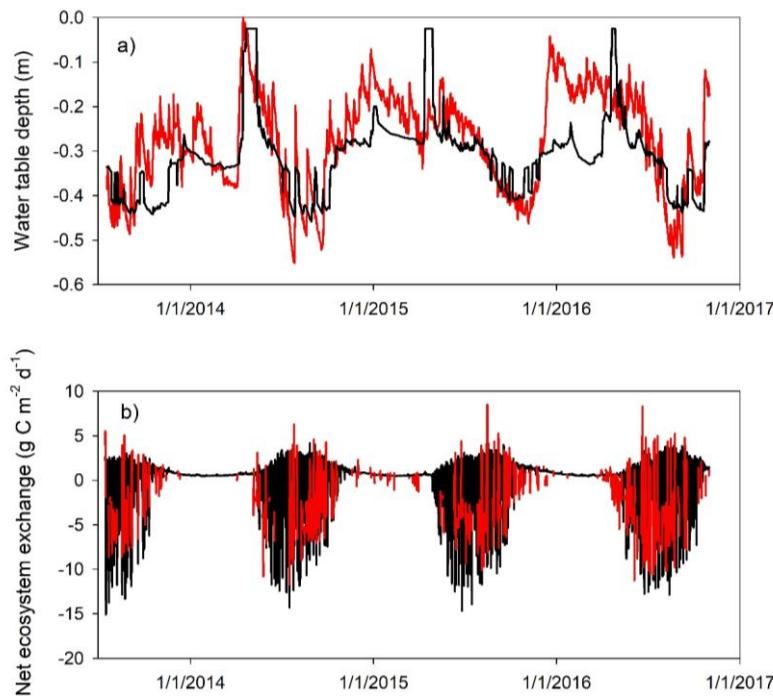


504

505 Figure 1 Relationship between simulated and measured 30-minute a) total net radiation, b)
 506 sensible heat, c) latent heat, d) soil surface heat flux, e) soil temperature at 5 cm depth, f) soil
 507 temperature at 20 cm depth, g) soil temperature at 80 cm depth, h) water table depth, and i) net
 508 ecosystem exchange over the period 2013 to 2016 (n=56600)

509

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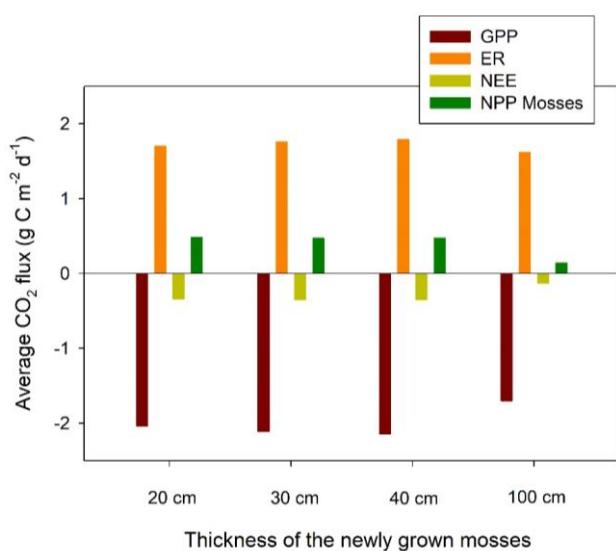
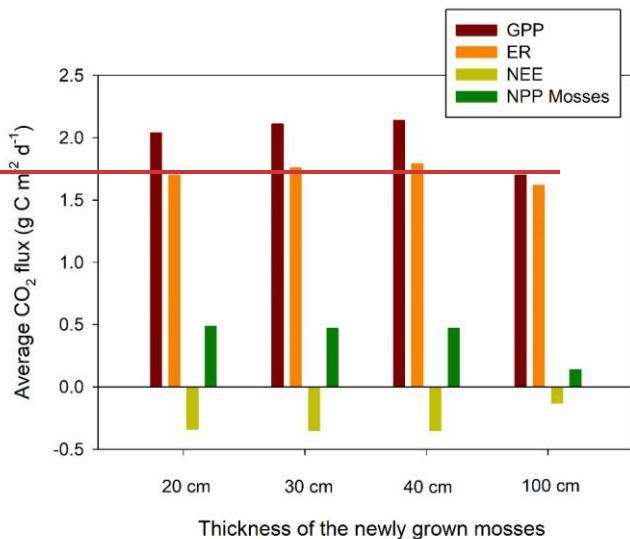


511

512 Figure 2 Measured (red) and simulated (black) 30-minute a) water table depth, b) net
 513 ecosystem exchange.

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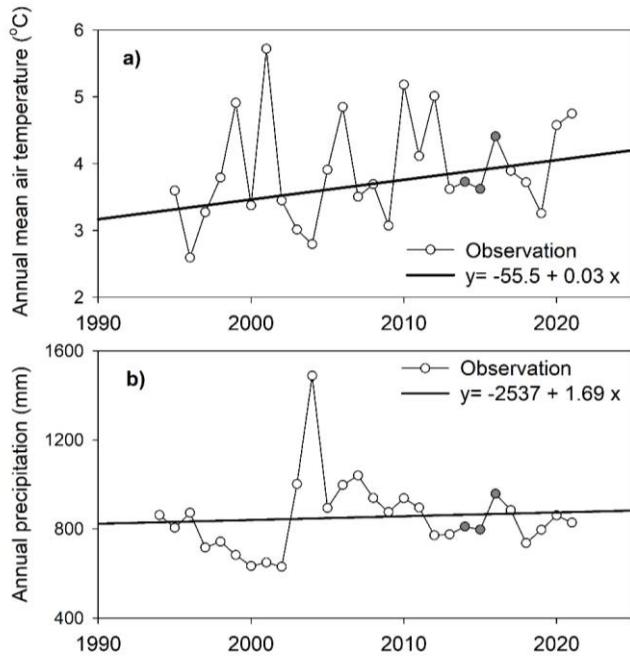
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518 Figure 3 The response of simulated average ecosystem CO_2 fluxes (2013-2016) to the
 519 simulated thickness of the newly grown mosses

520

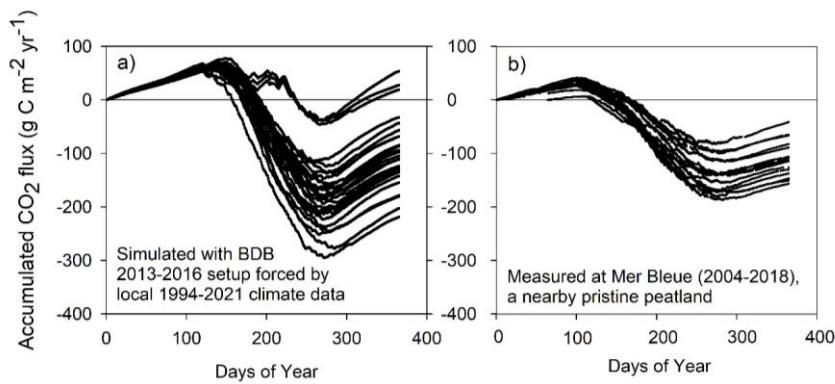
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523 Figure 4 Variability in a) annual mean air temperature; b) annual precipitation between 1994
 524 and 2021 as recorded at Rivière-du-Loup (ECCC historical climate data, 2022). The shaded
 525 circles indicate the measured period of the eddy covariance tower.

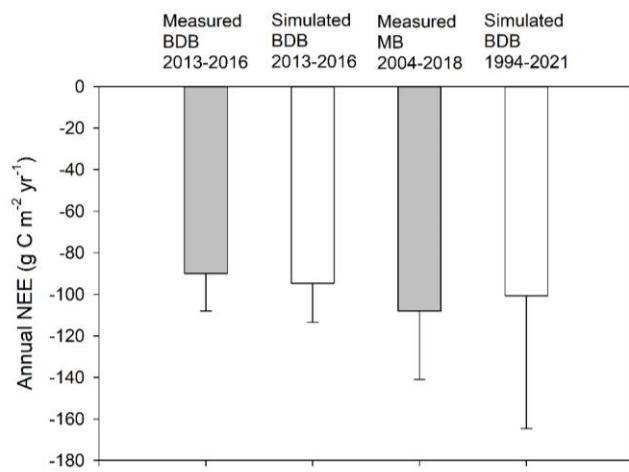
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527

528 Figure 5 Accumulated annual CO₂ flux a) simulated with BDB 2013-2016 setup forced by
 529 Rivi  re-du-Loup 1994-2021 climate data; b) measured over 2004-2018 at Mer Bleue (He et al.
 530 2023b), a pristine peatland in the same climate region.

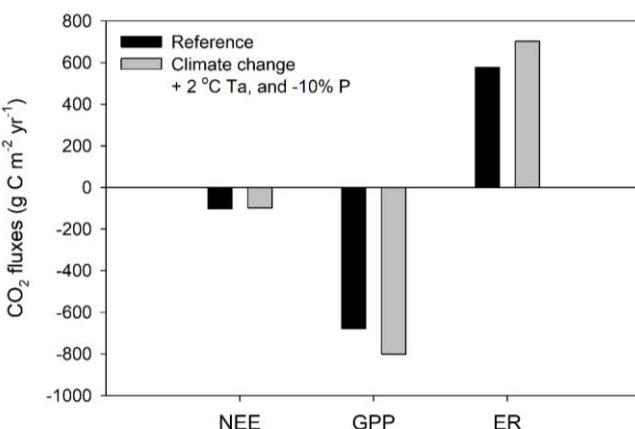
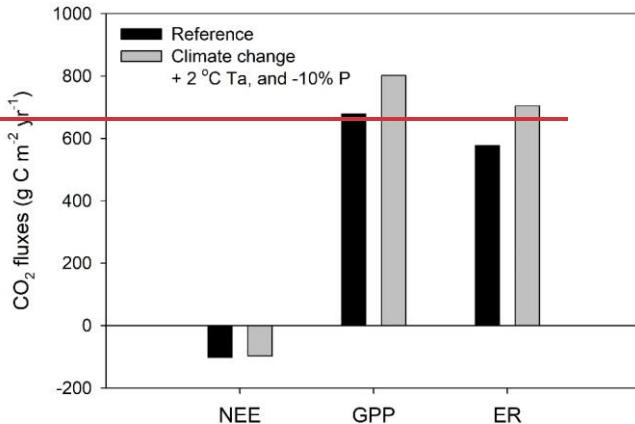
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532

533 Figure 6 Comparison of CO₂ fluxes and emission factors from the different approaches.

534



537 Figure 7 Simulated CO₂ fluxes under a scenario where air temperature is increased year
 538 around by 2 °C and precipitation is decreased by 10%. Equilibrium model runs used the BDB
 539 2013-2016 setup and Rivière-du-Loup 1994-2021 climate data.

540

541 Data Availability

542 The version of the CoupModel used to run the model simulations, including the source code
543 is hosted on Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/record/3547628>) and the executed CoupModel is
544 available at www.coupmodel.com. The meteorological and flux data from BDB is hosted on
545 Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/records/14455815>).

546

547 Author Contributions

548 HH and NTR led the work, IBS led the eddy covariance data component, HH did the
549 modeling, analysis and drafted the paper with help from NTR, all authors contributed to
550 editing and revision of the paper.

551

552 Competing Interests

553 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

554

555 Acknowledgements

556 HH was supported by funding to NTR through the National Science and Engineering Research
557 Council of Canada's Collaborative Research and Development grant, in partnership with the
558 Canadian Sphagnum Peat Moss Association (CSPMA) as well as a grant to NTR from the
559 Trottier Institute for Science and Public Policy at McGill University. We thank Dr. Kelly A.
560 Nugent for collecting and processing the data from the BDB site.

561

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