

1 **Simulating ~~soil-atmosphere-exchanges-and-ecosystem~~ carbon dioxide  $\Theta_2$**   
2 **fluxes and their associated influencing factors for a restored peatland**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Restoration of drained and extracted peatlands can potentially return them to carbon dioxide  
15 ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) sinks, thus acting as significant climate change mitigation. However, whether the

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  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes~~ soil-atmosphere  
18 exchanges and the associated influencing factors ~~ecosystem  $\text{CO}_2$  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  $\text{CO}_2$  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

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energy fluxes and showed high agreement with the observed soil temperature, water table depth, and NEE data. The simulated NEE varied slightly when changing the thickness of newly grown mosses and acrotelm from 0.2 to 0.4 m but showed significantly less uptake for a 1 m thickness. The simulated NEE was  $-95 \pm 19 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  over the three evaluation years, and  $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , ranging from -219 to +54  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  with an extended 28-year climate data. After 14 years of restoration, the peatland has a mean  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake rate similar to pristine sites, but with a much larger interannual variability, and ~~under-in~~ dry years, the restored peatland can switch back to a temporary  $\text{CO}_2$  source. The model predicts a moderate reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake, but still a reasonable sink under future climate change conditions if the peatland is ecologically and hydrologically restored. The ability of CoupModel to simulate the  $\text{CO}_2$  dynamics and its thermal-hydro drivers for restored peatlands has important implications for emission accounting and climate-smart management of drained peatlands.

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

## 1 Introduction

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

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

66

67 The ecological function of peatlands is strongly linked to ecohydrology (Waddington et al.,

68 2014). ~~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  $0.05 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ . The increasing load of new growth above and the mass proportion~~

74 ~~of water, as well as the decomposition of plant material~~ <sup>cause</sup> ~~causes the moss structure to collapse,~~

75 ~~typically increasing the bulk density gradually along the peat profile to  $\sim 0.1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ . 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~~  
98 ~~emissions from restored peatland separately and an emission factor (EF) of +2.07 ton CO<sub>2</sub> -C~~  
99 ~~ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (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 ~~CO<sub>2</sub> emissions change with time as the peatland develops switching to CO<sub>2</sub> uptake~~  
103 ~~(Nugent et al., 2018). mainly due to the large uncertainty in the emission factor (EF) calculation.~~

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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116  
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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> ~~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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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.coupmodel.com](http://www.coupmodel.com). CoupModel was previously applied to simulate ecohydrology and CO<sub>2</sub>  
 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*



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

212

For the peat soil, we simulated the first 1.8 m of peat in BDB which includes 0.3 m of the 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<sup>-2</sup> (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~~

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

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

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

### 3.2 Sensitivity to the thickness of the newly grown mosses

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

growth (McCarter and Price, 2012). Three extra model simulations were made based on the reference run (30 cm acrotelm) with new acrotelm thicknesses of 20 cm (~10 years after restoration), 40 cm (~30 years after restoration), and 100 cm (hypothetical, to test the empirical threshold of -100 mb). For the latter two model simulations, peat properties of the 20-30 cm layer in the reference run (Table 2) were assumed for the future extra 10 and 70 cm acrotelm, respectively. The vegetation was assumed to be the same as the reference run and the peat compaction due to the growth of mosses and decomposition was not considered (~~i.e., no mesotelm-collapse layer~~). Our sensitivity analysis showed that the simulated NEE uptake increased slightly when changing the new acrotelm thickness from 20 to 40 cm but reduced (meaning less uptake) significantly for the model run with an acrotelm of 100 cm (Fig. 3). The small changes of simulated NEE can be explained by both increase of GPP and ecosystem respiration (ER) with increasing new acrotelm thickness (20-40 cm). The NPP (net primary production) of mosses show a slight decrease trend with increasing acrotelm thickness (Fig. 3). The reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in the 100 cm acrotelm thickness model run is because the model simulated that the surface mosses start to die off because they can~~no~~<sup>t</sup> take up water from the deep peat (Fig. 3).

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### **3.3 Impact of interannual climate variability on CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands**

The BDB region shows large annual climate variability over the last 28 years from 1994 to 2021. The measured annual mean air temperature ranged from 2.6 to 5.7 °C and the annual precipitation from 633 to 1488 mm (Figs. 4a, b). This can be compared to the 30-year annual mean air temperature of  $3.5 \pm 2.9$  °C and the precipitation of 962 mm for the climate normal data (1981-2010) at St-Arsene station (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2023). Both annual air temperature and precipitation showed increasing trends over the measured period from 1994 to 2021, with a slope of 0.03 °C yr<sup>-1</sup> for air temperature and 1.69 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> (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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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, CO<sub>2</sub> uptake seems to increase slightly with increasing air temperature,  
323 although the relationship was not statistically significant ( $p=0.19$ ). Annual CO<sub>2</sub> flux did not  
324 show correlation with annual precipitation but the model simulated the BDB peatland as an  
325 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> 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.  $64 \text{ g C}$   
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 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). 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 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands**

343 We evaluate the potential impact of future climate change on the CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake decreased 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 7). The  
363 modified climate causes both GPP and ER to increase (Fig. 7), thus effectively canceling each

other out. Our model simulations thus overall suggest the restored ~~bogs peatlands will likely~~  
~~maintain their~~ may retain some capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> uptake ~~functions~~ under future climate change.

#### 4 Discussion

Current model evaluation with the dataset from the BDB site shows that CoupModel can simulate the coupled hydrology, heat, and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes of a restored peatland. CoupModel has been applied to Mer Bleue, a pristine bog (He et al., 2023a), and Riviere-du-Loup, an active peat extraction site (He et al., 2023b). The ability of the model to simulate C dynamics associated with ecohydrology for the restored system thus closes the land use cycle and shows the model can now simulate all stages of land uses, from pristine peatlands, to drained for extraction and finally restoration.

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

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389  
390 Our model performance for CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> 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~~  
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 ~~cm 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

restored peatlands in Canada, and those data are snapshots covering only sites restored within  
10 years thus explaining the current EF, +2.07 tonnes CO<sub>2</sub>-C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> used in Canada NIR. We  
~~argue this EF and thus~~ does not reflect the temporal dynamics of greenhouse gases for restored  
peatlands, particularly for those sites that have fully vegetation recovery (Kalhori et al., 2024).  
 Our ~~long-term~~ 28-year extended model simulations by considering the interannual climate  
variation suggest an EF of  $-1.01 \pm 0.64 \text{ t CO}_2\text{-C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for a bog 14-16 years post restoration  
 by the MLTT~~†~~. This should be included in the next revision of EF within NIR of Canada.  
Moreover, our modelled EF~~this~~ is ~five times larger (meaning more uptake) than the default  
 IPCC Tier 1 EF for temperate nutrient-poor rewetted organic soils (-0.23 with CI -0.64 to +0.18  
 $\text{t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (IPCC, 2014)~~†~~. The data used to generate the IPCC EF includes more degraded sites  
 in Europe and different rewetting methods. The Canadian practice of leaving a residual peat  
 layer at the end of extraction and using MLTT for restoration seems to be beneficial for the  
 recovery of peatland C uptake. The default IPCC EF has earlier been used to evaluate the  
 overall climate impacts for peatland restoration using a modeling approach (Gunther et al.,  
 2020). Our results thus suggest those studies might significantly underestimate the climate  
 cooling effects for Canadian bog sites that have been restored using MLTT.

Our climate change simulations show the ~~important~~ regulating affect of air temperature on the  
 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands, where future global warming is predicted to moderately  
 weaken the sink strength (Fig. S3). However, it should be noted that future changes in seasonal  
 patterns and extremes were not accounted for in our climate change scenarios. Helbig et al.  
(2022) analyzed flux measurements from northern peatlands and showed earlier summer  
warming increases NEE uptake while late summer warming decreases it. The seasonal patterns  
~~and particularly extremes of climate can be additional factors control the CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes. For~~  
mosses and peatland vegetations to develop, a stable water table is required. However, this can

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be challenging under the altered ecohydrological and climate condition, especially in areas where drainage has lowered groundwater levels causing less resilience of the ecosystem. Our

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results show even water level drops temporarily, especially during dry periods or in warmer climate this can lead to poor establishment and even die off mosses, reducing the restoration success consequently ecosystem uptake of CO<sub>2</sub>. Helbig et al. (2022) analyzed flux measurements from northern peatlands and showed earlier summer warming increases NEE uptake while late summer warming decreases it. In addition, there is also the possibility of

fire that would structurally alter the peatlands. Our simulations do not include fire, which is much less common in eastern Canadian peatlands than in the west (Zoltai et al., 1998; Lavoie and Pellerin, 2007). Thus, our climate change simulations probably overall represent a conservative prediction which might in turn explain the moderate reduction of sink strength. As our extended simulations show, it is possible that over extreme years the site can switch to a small CO<sub>2</sub> source and that potentially the number of source years could increase in the future.

## 5 Conclusion

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

- CoupModel can describe the measured sub-daily CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, hydrology, and heat for the restored peatland-bog system.
- Restored peatlands-bogs have less resilience to climate variability than pristine bog systems peatlands.
- CoupModel simulation results in an emission factor of  $-1.01 \pm 0.64 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for Canadian bogs that have been restored for 14 to 16 years by the moss layer transfer technique, ~ five times larger than the IPCC default emission factor and much smaller than current emission factor used in the Canadian NIR.

- Moderate reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake is predicted for restored bogs with fully vegetation cover under future climate change conditions.
- CoupModel now simulates all stages of peat extraction and restoration, and can be used for exploring land-use change issues, suggesting climate-smart management practices, and Tier-3 emission reporting.

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 m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	30 min	2013-2016	59952	Nugent et al. (2018)
	Air temperature	°C				
	Relative humidity	%				
	Precipitation	mm d <sup>-1</sup>				
	Wind speed	m s <sup>-1</sup>				
Evaluation data	Total net radiation	J m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	30 min	2013-2016	49964	Nugent et al. (2018)
	Soil heat flux	J m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	30 min	2013-2016	56631	
	Latent heat flux	J m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	30 min	2013-2016	23397	
	Sensible heat flux	J m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	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	g C m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup>	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)	$\rho_B$ (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$\theta_s$ (vol%)	$\theta_r$ (vol%)	$\alpha$	$n$	$k_{sat}$ (mm d <sup>-1</sup> )	$C_{stock}$ (g C m <sup>-2</sup> )
Newly grown mosses	0-5	0.025	98.8	10	0.16	2.51	1×10 <sup>5</sup>	625
	5-10	0.03	98.5	14	0.09	2.96	1×10 <sup>5</sup>	683
	10-20	0.032	96	14	0.09	2.96	1×10 <sup>5</sup>	1588
	20-30	0.04	95	10	0.09	2.96	1×10 <sup>4</sup>	1888
Residual extracted peat	30 - 40	0.08	94	10	0.022	2.03	5×10 <sup>3</sup>	4025
	40-50	0.13	91	20	0.016	4.05	4×10 <sup>2</sup>	6500
	50 - 70	0.1	93	20	0.025	1.39	2×10 <sup>2</sup>	9500
	70-100	0.13	90	30	0.013	1.4	2×10 <sup>2</sup>	21000
	100 - 180	0.14	90	30	0.008	1.45	6×10 <sup>2</sup>	56000

498

499 Bulk density  $\rho_B$ , porosity  $\theta_s$  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  $\theta_w$  set to 10 % for the topsoil layer, and 30% for the 40-150 cm layer (Menberu et al.,  
502 2021).

503

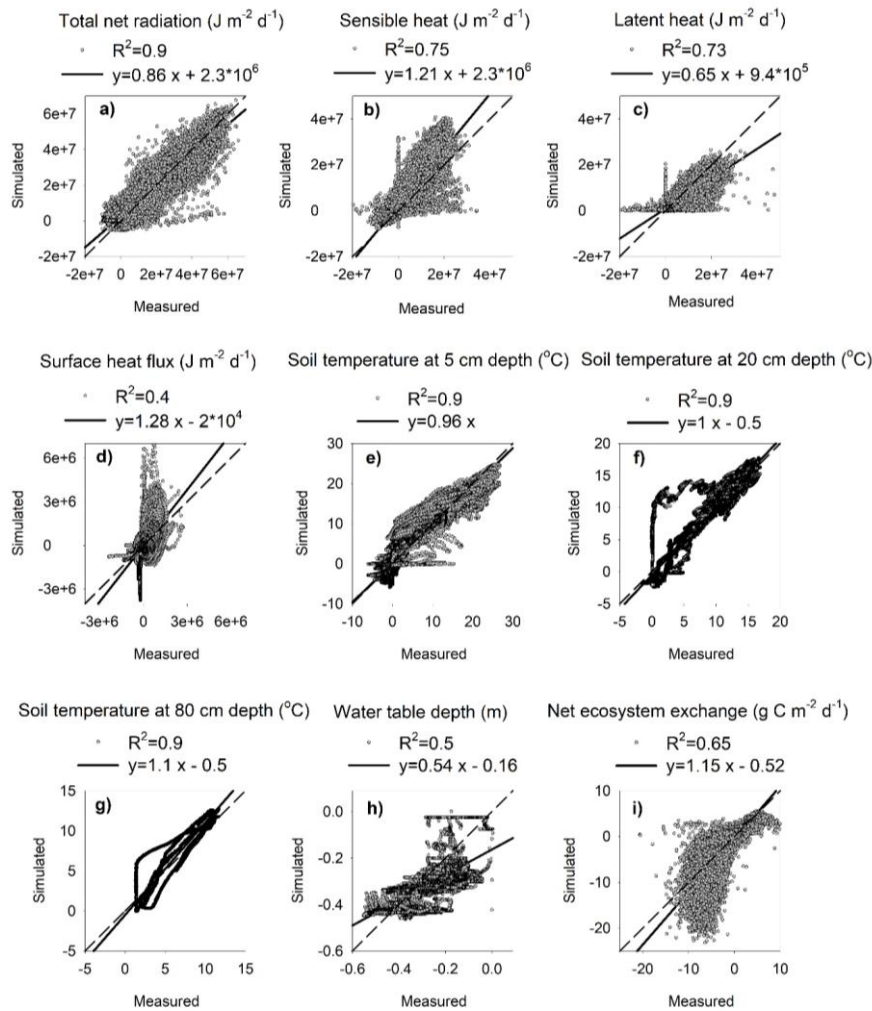
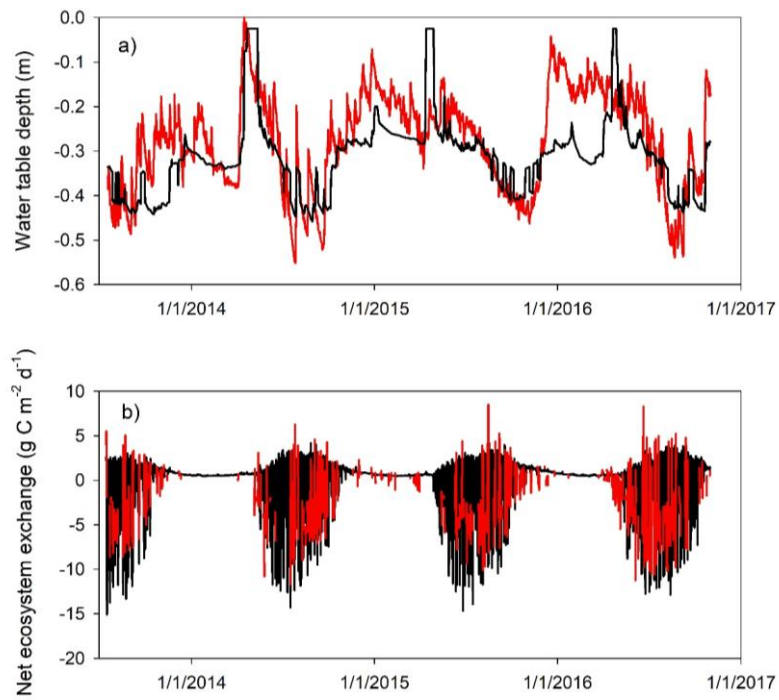


Figure 1 Relationship between simulated and measured 30-minute a) total net radiation, b) sensible heat, c) latent heat, d) soil surface heat flux, e) soil temperature at 5 cm depth, f) soil temperature at 20 cm depth, g) soil temperature at 80 cm depth, h) water table depth, and i) net ecosystem exchange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



511  
 512 Figure 2 Measured (red) and simulated (black) 30-minute a) water table depth, b) net  
 513 ecosystem exchange.

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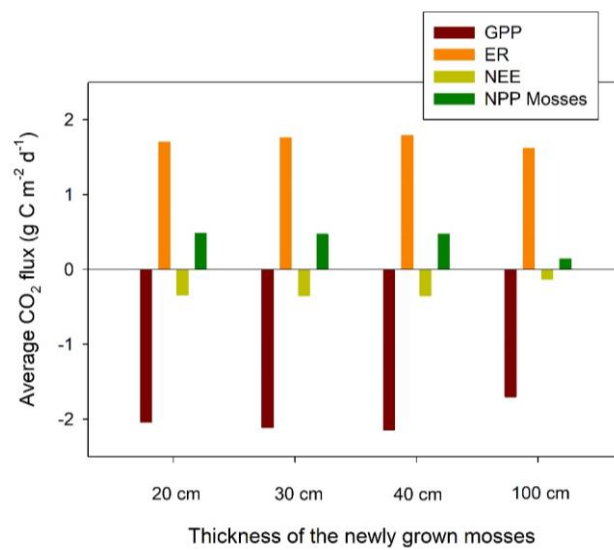
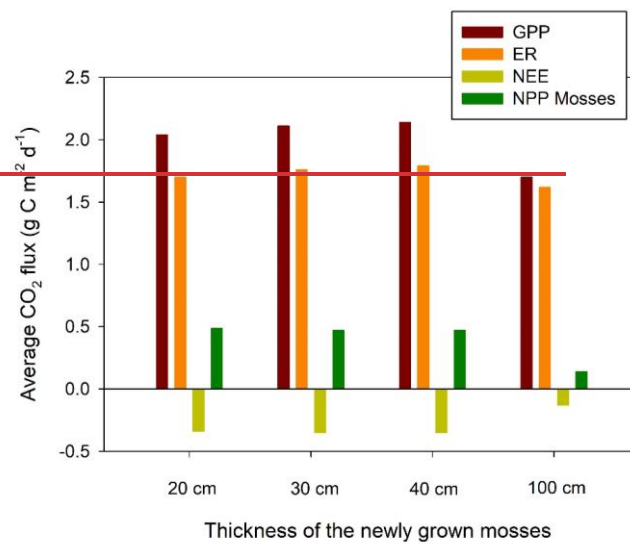
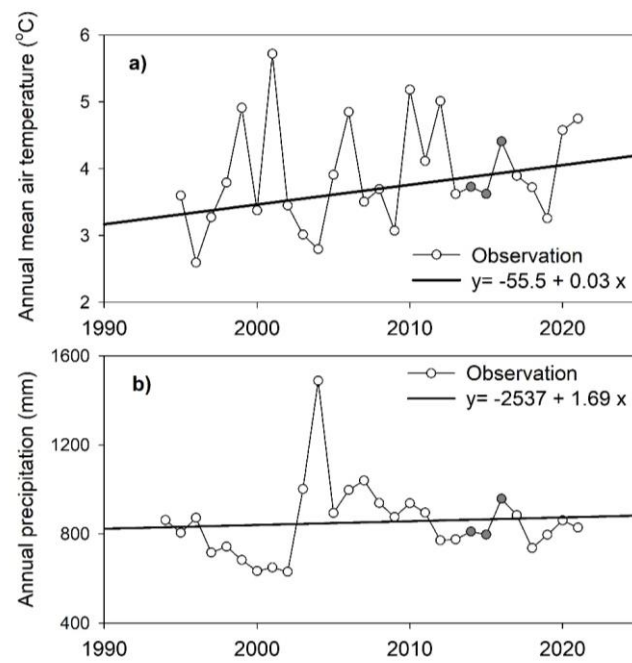
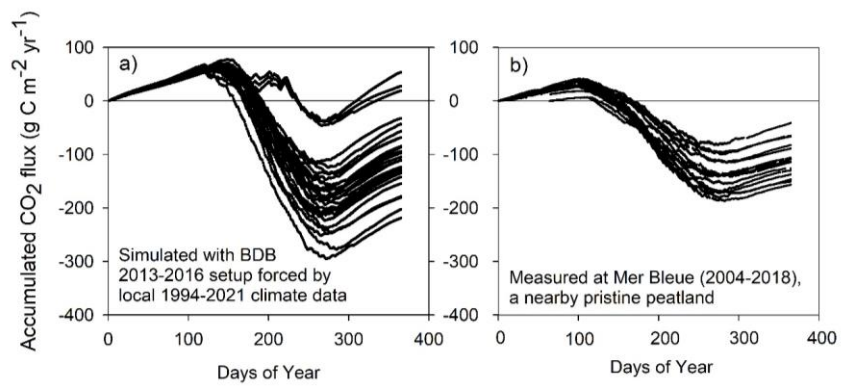


Figure 3 The response of simulated average ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (2013-2016) to the simulated thickness of the newly grown mosses



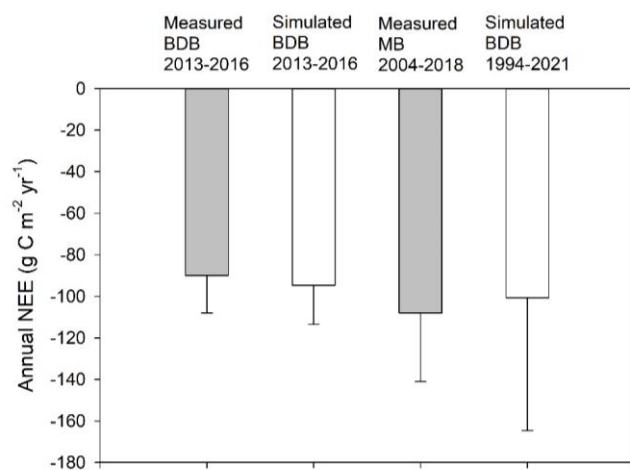
522  
 523 Figure 4 Variability in a) annual mean air temperature; b) annual precipitation between 1994  
 524 and 2021 as recorded at Rivière-du-Loup (ECCC historical climate data, 2022). The shaded  
 525 circles indicate the measured period of the eddy covariance tower.

526



527  
 528 Figure 5 Accumulated annual CO<sub>2</sub> flux a) simulated with BDB 2013-2016 setup forced by  
 529 Rivière-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.

531



532  
 533 Figure 6 Comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes and emission factors from the different approaches.  
 534

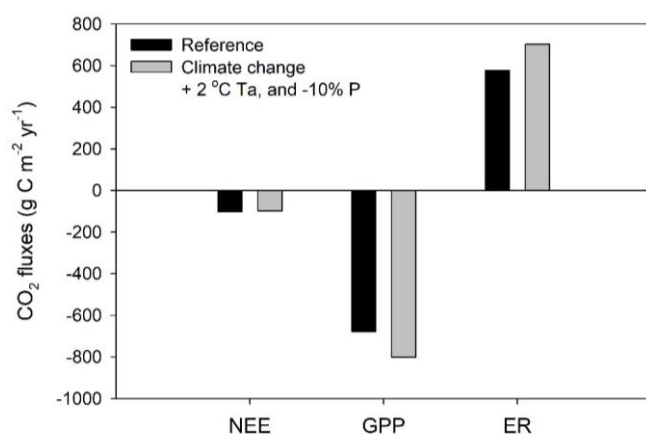
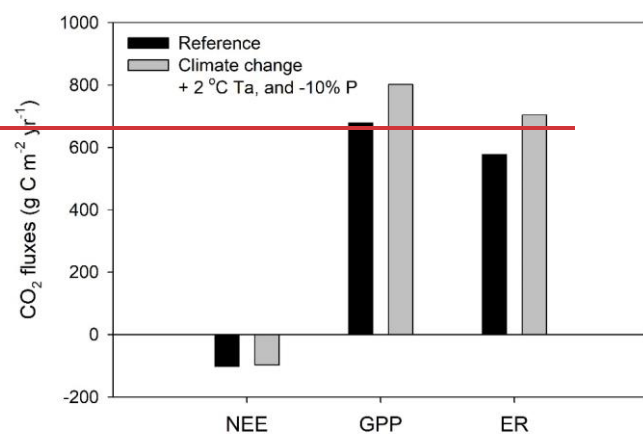


Figure 7 Simulated CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes under a scenario where air temperature is increased year around by 2 °C and precipitation is decreased by 10%. Equilibrium model runs used the BDB 2013-2016 setup and Rivière-du-Loup 1994-2021 climate data.

## 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](http://www.coupmodel.com). The meteorological and flux data from BDB is hosted on  
545 Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/records/14455815>).

## 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.

## 552 Competing Interests

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

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