



1 **Simulating soil atmosphere exchanges and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes for a restored**  
2 **peatland**

3 Hongxing He<sup>1</sup>; Ian B. Strachan<sup>2</sup>; and Nigel T Roulet<sup>1</sup>

4 [hongxing.he@mcgill.ca](mailto:hongxing.he@mcgill.ca); [ian.strachan@queensu.ca](mailto:ian.strachan@queensu.ca); [nigel.roulet@mcgill.ca](mailto:nigel.roulet@mcgill.ca)

5 Hongxing He, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4953-7450>

6 Ian Strachan, <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6457-5530>

7 Nigel T Roulet, <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9571-1929>

8

9 <sup>1</sup> Department of Geography, McGill University, Montréal, Quebec, Canada

10 <sup>2</sup> Department of Geography and Planning, Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada

11 Correspondence, HH [hongxing.he@mcgill.ca](mailto:hongxing.he@mcgill.ca); [hongxing-he@hotmail.com](mailto:hongxing-he@hotmail.com)

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Restoration of drained and extracted peatlands can potentially return them to carbon (C) sinks,  
15 thus acting as significant climate change mitigation. However, whether the restored sites will  
16 remain C sinks or switch to sources with a changing climate is unknown. Therefore, we adapted  
17 the CoupModel to simulate soil atmosphere exchanges and the associated ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub>  
18 fluxes of a restored bog. The study site was a peatland in eastern Canada that was extracted for  
19 eight years before restoration. The model outputs were first evaluated against three years  
20 (representing 14-16 years post restoration) of eddy covariance measurements of net ecosystem  
21 exchange (NEE), surface energy fluxes, soil temperature profiles, and water table depth data.  
22 A sensitivity analysis was conducted to evaluate the response of the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes to  
23 the thickness of the newly grown mosses. The validated model was then used to assess the  
24 sensitivity of changes in climate forcing. CoupModel reproduced the measured surface energy  
25 fluxes and showed high agreement with the observed soil temperature, water table depth, and



26 NEE data. The simulated NEE varied slightly when changing the thickness of newly grown  
27 mosses and acrotelm from 0.2 to 0.4 m but showed significantly less uptake for a 1 m thickness.  
28 The simulated NEE was  $-95 \pm 19 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  over the three evaluation years, and  $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g}$   
29  $\text{C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , ranging from  $-219$  to  $+54 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  with an extended 28-year climate data. After  
30 14 years of restoration, the peatland has a mean C uptake rate similar to pristine sites, but with  
31 a much larger interannual variability, and under dry years, the restored peatland can switch  
32 back to a temporary C source. The model predicts a moderate reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake, but still  
33 a reasonable sink under future climate change conditions if the peatland is ecologically and  
34 hydrologically restored. The ability of CoupModel to simulate the  $\text{CO}_2$  dynamics and its  
35 thermal-hydro drivers for restored peatlands has important implications for emission  
36 accounting and climate-smart management of drained peatlands.

37

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



40        **1 Introduction**

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

52

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



65

66 The ecological function of peatlands is strongly linked to ecohydrology (Waddington et al.,  
67 2014). Recently, He and Roulet, (in review) applied the conceptual four functional layers of  
68 peatlands (i.e., green; peat litter; collapse; peat proper) introduced by Clymo (1992) to two  
69 well-studied bog sites in eastern Canada, and showed a wider range of water table fluctuation  
70 and a larger frequency of water table drops below the annual mean in the restored bog compared  
71 to that of the pristine bog, mainly due to the lack of the mesotelm collapse layer (Clymo and  
72 Bryant, 2008). The newly regenerated moss with low bulk density forms large pores directly  
73 above the dense residual peat remaining after extraction (catotelmic peat) and does not have  
74 the negative interstitial pressures required to draw pore water, causing a capillary barrier effect  
75 (Gauthier et al., 2022; Gauthier et al., 2018). The capillary barrier decreases the ability of the  
76 new moss to draw water from the deeper compacted catotelmic peat, thus causing an overall  
77 lower surface moisture content for restored sites compared to natural peatlands (McCarter and  
78 Price, 2015). As a result, the new moss layer may become stressed quickly during dry periods.  
79 Synthesis studies have shown that vegetation colonization is much slower after restoration over  
80 warm and drier years (González and Rochefort, 2014), and data from a restored Irish extracted  
81 bog show a less resilient C uptake function over the drier years (Wilson et al., 2016).

82

83 Under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), countries  
84 with peatlands managed for extraction are required to report greenhouse gas emissions annually  
85 (IPCC, 2014). However, CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and/or emissions from the restored peatlands so far have  
86 not been accounted for in Canada (National Inventory Report of Canada; (ECCC, 2021) mainly  
87 due to the large uncertainty in the emission factor (EF) calculation. Currently, there is a  
88 discussion that restoration can create C credits and thus could be used to offset the C emissions  
89 during the drainage phase (Tanneberger and Wichtman, 2011). The IPCC report for restored



90 peatlands uses default EFs (i.e., Tier 1) based on literature data (IPCC, 2019). An emission  
91 factor based on empirical observations (i.e., Tier 2) offers improvement as it is subject to the  
92 environmental conditions and the time of year the measurements were done. Yet, most of the  
93 observed data is of short duration and thus can not capture interannual variations in emissions  
94 and associated environmental variables. Process-based modeling of restored peatlands (i.e.,  
95 Tier 3) can be used to determine the ‘representativeness’ of the empirical EFs by examining  
96 the coupled hydrological-C dynamics and how they vary over within and between years. He  
97 and Roulet (2023) showed that directly using literature data to generate emission factors can  
98 be biased because it does not account for seasonality and interannual climate variability.

99

100 Existing studies using models for restored peatlands are few. Lees et al. (2019) applied a  
101 satellite-based, temperature-driven gross primary productivity (GPP) model over peatland sites  
102 at various stages of restoration in the UK and Ireland and found that the model can simulate  
103 the GPP measured by eddy covariance. Premrov et al. (2021) modified the drainage function  
104 in the ECOSSE model to simulate the water table and CO<sub>2</sub> flux for drained and rewetted  
105 extracted bogs, but their model evaluations showed that ECOSSE still requires further  
106 development to accurately simulate the water table depth for the rewetted sites. Recently,  
107 Lippmann et al. (2023) introduced a dynamic vegetation scheme in the PVN model, driven by  
108 input water table data, and evaluated the model for the measured CO<sub>2</sub> flux together with the  
109 vegetation competitions in two restored nutrient-rich peatlands in the Netherlands. However,  
110 none of these models consider the coupled ecohydrology and C dynamics for restored peatlands  
111 (Silva et al., 2024). Previous research showed that CoupModel could successfully simulate  
112 peatland CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics associated with various land-use options (e.g., drained peatlands for  
113 forestry; (He et al., 2016a; He et al., 2016b; Kasimir et al., 2021), land-use change of afforested  
114 peatlands (Kasimir et al., 2018) and five European peatlands with various land-uses, including



115 restored sites (Metzger et al., 2015). Recently, the model was applied to simulate the CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes  
116 of a pristine continental bog (He et al., 2023a) and an active peat extraction site (He et al.,  
117 2023b). These studies provide a basis for further use of the model to simulate restored peatlands  
118 to close the land use cycle from pristine peatlands, drainage for different land uses to final  
119 restoration.

120

121 The overall aim of this study is to simulate the soil-atmosphere exchanges of heat, water, and  
122 CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes for a bog restored by the MLTT technique. More specifically, we aim to:

- 123 1) adapt and evaluate the CoupModel to simulate net ecosystem exchange (NEE) and its hydro-  
124 thermal drivers, including surface energy fluxes, soil temperature profile, and water table depth;
- 125 2) test the model sensitivity to varying thickness of newly grown mosses and the acrotelm;
- 126 3) evaluate the impact of interannual climate variability on the simulated ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
127 and discuss its implications for emission factor calculation; and,
- 128 4) predict the impact of future climate change on the C uptake function of restored peatlands.

129

## 130 **2 Site and methods**

### 131 **2.1 Site Description**

132 The Bois-des-Bel (BDB) peatland is located 11 km northeast of Riviere-du-Loup, Quebec  
133 (47°58'1.95"N 69°25'43.10"W). The peatland complex covers an area of 202 ha. A small sector  
134 of 11 ha was extracted for horticulture peat by vacuum harvesting between 1972 and 1980. In  
135 the autumn of 1999, an 8.1 ha area was restored using the MLTT. The climate of the region is  
136 cool-temperate with an average long-term (1981-2010 climate normal St-Arsene) annual  
137 temperature of 3.5 °C and annual precipitation of 962 mm (Environment and Climate Change  
138 Canada, 2023). BDB is well studied and detailed descriptions of the restoration procedure and  
139 site characteristics can be found in several publications (McCarter and Price, 2015; Strack and



140 Zuback, 2013; Waddington and Day, 2007; Poulin et al., 2013). Nugent et al. (2018) measured  
141 the soil-atmosphere exchanges by eddy covariance between 2013-2016, i.e., 14-17 years after  
142 the restoration. In this study, we used their measured meteorological data (Table 1) for model  
143 forcing, and measured water table depth, peat temperatures, and flux data for model evaluation.

144

## 145 **2.2 Brief Model Description**

146 The CoupModel (coupled heat and mass transfer model for soil–plant–atmosphere systems)  
147 platform is a process-based model designed to simulate water and heat fluxes, along with the  
148 C-N-P cycle, in terrestrial ecosystems (Jansson, 2012; He et al., 2021). The main model  
149 structure is a one-dimensional multi-layered soil profile. Model forcing is measured weather  
150 data (Table 1). The model and technical description are freely available at  
151 [www.coupmodel.com](http://www.coupmodel.com). CoupModel was previously applied to simulate ecohydrology and CO<sub>2</sub>  
152 exchanges for a pristine bog, Mer Bleue that resembled, though with fewer trees, the BDB site  
153 before opening for extraction (He et al., 2023a), and recently successfully simulated one  
154 ongoing peat extraction site, Riviere-du-Loup in the same region as BDB (He et al., 2023b).  
155 The setup and model structure of the BDB simulation were thus built on the base of the upper  
156 aerobic peat layer and vegetation characteristics of Mer Bleue and the residual extracted peat  
157 layer of Riviere-du-Loup. Here, we report the model setup unique for the BDB site. More  
158 detailed process descriptions, model structure, and parameters are reported in He et al. (2023b)  
159 and He et al. (2023a).

160

## 161 **2.3 Simulation Design, Model Structure, Initial and Boundary Conditions**

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

164



165 Nugent et al. (2018) conducted a detailed vegetation survey at BDB in 2013 and these data  
166 were used to initialize the vegetation conditions in CoupModel. The survey showed *Sphagnum*  
167 mosses and *Polytricum strictum* cover more than 90% of the surface with a new acrotelm  
168 thickness of ~ 0.3 m, sedges (*Eriophorum vaginatum* and *Carex* spp.) cover 33%, and  
169 ericaceous shrubs (*Chamaedaphne calyculata*, *Rhododendron groenlandicum*, *Kalmia*  
170 *angustifolium*, *Vaccinium oxycoccus*, and *V. angustifolium*) cover 39% of the soil surface  
171 (Nugent et al., 2018). Trees (*Picea mariana* and *Larix laricina*) were few but were also  
172 beginning to expand across the site. *Typha latifolia* from the remnant ditches covers 4% of the  
173 total site area. In our simulation, we grouped vegetation into three plant functional types or  
174 modeled vegetation layers: the first group represents the Ericaceous shrubs and the trees, that  
175 cover ~40% of the surface, with an assumed lowest root depth of 0.5 m. The second group  
176 represents the sedges, which cover 33% of the surface and lowest root depth of 0.35 m. The  
177 third group represents the *Sphagnum* mosses and other non-vascular vegetation (*Ploytricum*  
178 *Strictum*) at the soil surface which cover 90% of the soil surface with no roots. These three  
179 modeled vegetation layers were described in the model using the “multiple-big-leaves” concept  
180 considering dynamic competition in terms of interception of light and uptake of water. For each  
181 vegetation layer, plants were conceptually divided into leaf, stem, coarse root and fine root.  
182 For the moss layer, the live capitulum was conceptually viewed as leaf and the rest as stem in  
183 the model (He et al., 2023a). C and the dynamics of the plant development are simulated as the  
184 interactions between plant and physical driving forces; e.g., how the plant cover influences  
185 both aerodynamic conditions in the atmosphere and the radiation balance at the soil surface.  
186 Since these are oligotrophic ecosystems, the influence of nutrients on C was not considered in  
187 this study. The three vegetation groups were pre-run for fourteen years to spin up and reach a  
188 quasi-steady state (defined as no abrupt takeover or die-offs of one vegetation group).

189





190 For the peat soil, we simulated the first 1.8 m of peat in BDB which includes 0.3 m of the  
191 surface newly developed acrotelm and mosses and 1.5 m of the residual extracted peat. We  
192 divided the peat soil profile into nine layers: from 0.05 m per layer at the top to 0.80 m per  
193 layer at the bottom. For each simulated layer, the peat soil water retention curve and unsaturated  
194 hydraulic conductivity were estimated by the Mualem-van Genuchten model (Mualem, 1976;  
195 van Genuchten, 1980). The physical and hydraulic properties used in this study were compiled  
196 from the measured data from BDB (Table 2). Water flow between soil layers follows Darcy's  
197 law as generalized for unsaturated flow by Richards (1931). We additionally simulated bypass  
198 flow to account for preferential water flow in the root channels, and macro-pores by using an  
199 empirical bypass flow scheme (Jansson et al., 2004). Soil heat flow between soil layers was  
200 assumed to be mainly driven by conduction. CoupModel solves water and heat equations  
201 simultaneously within the soil-plant-atmosphere continuum, and water and heat are coupled in  
202 a dynamic way to the plant vegetation layers; accounting for feedback interactions between the  
203 plant and the environment.

204

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

214



215 We assumed no vertical water flow for the lower boundary condition (i.e., at 1.8 m depth) due  
216 to the very low saturated hydraulic conductivity (Table 2) and assumed a small thermal heat  
217 flow across the lower boundary condition for heat. The site was also drained laterally to the  
218 outflow at a distance of ~200 m (Shantz and Price, 2006). The model parameter values were  
219 primarily obtained from the measured data, and where not available, literature values used in  
220 previous model applications were applied (Table S1).

221

### 222 **3 Results**

#### 223 **3.1 CoupModel evaluation for restored peatland**

224 CoupModel simulated the half-hourly surface energy balances well, as shown by the high  
225 agreement with the measured total radiation, sensible and latent fluxes (coefficient of  
226 determination,  $r^2 > 0.7$  for all, Figs. 1a, b, c), and surface soil heat flux ( $r^2 = 0.4$ , Fig. 1d).  
227 However, the model tended to overestimate the sensible heat flux and underestimate the latent  
228 heat flux, particularly over the periods of spring and earlier summer, where the model simulated  
229 a smaller and delayed (~ 1 month) increase of latent heat fluxes compared to the measured data  
230 (Fig. S1). The lower agreement with soil surface heat flux is due to its residual energy flux,  
231 thus small in flux size, i.e., one order of magnitude lower compared to the turbulent energy  
232 fluxes (Figs. 1d and S1), plus the energy balance closure calculated with measured data over  
233 the three years is ~90% while CoupModel has full energy conservation.

234

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



240 CoupModel probably overestimated the soil frozen depth as higher heat flow was partitioned  
241 into the soil surface over May to June every year (Figs. 1d, S1), thus extra heat was needed for  
242 thawing in the spring and delayed the increase of latent heat fluxes and temperature increase.

243

244 Model performance for water table depth was generally less good compared to the energy and  
245 temperature variables. However, the model still captured 50% of the measured variations ( $r^2$   
246 =0.5, Fig. 1h). CoupModel generally simulated a smaller magnitude fluctuation compared to  
247 the measured data and the model data agreement was better over the summer than the winter  
248 (Fig. 2a). For instance, large infiltration from snow melt around May was simulated in the  
249 model every year, but not represented in the measured data, probably again reflecting the  
250 model's difficulty in precisely capturing the phase change over winter (Fig. 2a).

251

252 Measured daily net ecosystem exchange data ranges from  $\sim -3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  (negative indicating  
253 uptake) during July to a loss of  $\sim +2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  during cloudy days or shoulder seasons (Fig.  
254 2b; Note that the flux data is 30 min in Figures 1i and 2b). CoupModel reproduced the measured  
255 half-hourly NEE data reasonably well ( $r^2 = 0.64$ ; Figs. 1i and 2b). Nugent et al. (2018) gap-  
256 filled the BDB eddy covariance data and estimated an annual C flux of  $-90 \pm 10$  ( $\pm 95\%$  CI), -  
257  $105 \pm 7$ , and  $-70 \pm 7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in 2014, 2015 and 2016, respectively. The corresponding  
258 simulated annual fluxes are -89, -120 and  $-75 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , respectively. The model simulated  
259 a delayed start of spring uptake during the years 2014 and 2016, which again can be explained  
260 by the delayed thawing in the model.

261

### 262 **3.2 Sensitivity to the thickness of the newly grown mosses**

263 We conducted a sensitivity analysis to evaluate the model responses to the thickness of the  
264 newly grown mosses (i.e., new acrotelm) which partly represents the time since the restoration.



265 It has been argued that -100 mb is the limiting soil moisture pressure head for sustaining moss  
266 growth (McCarter and Price, 2012). Three extra model simulations were made based on the  
267 reference run (30 cm acrotelm) with new acrotelm thicknesses of 20 cm, 40 cm, and 100 cm.  
268 For the latter two model simulations, peat properties of the 20-30 cm layer in the reference run  
269 (Table 2) were assumed for the future extra 10 and 70 cm acrotelm, respectively. The  
270 vegetation was assumed to be the same as the reference run and the peat compaction due to the  
271 growth of mosses and decomposition was not considered (i.e., no mesotelm collapse layer).  
272 Our sensitivity analysis showed that the simulated NEE uptake increased slightly when  
273 changing the new acrotelm thickness from 20 to 40 cm but reduced (meaning less uptake)  
274 significantly for the model run with an acrotelm of 100 cm (Fig. 3). The small changes of  
275 simulated NEE can be explained by both increase of GPP and ecosystem respiration (ER) with  
276 increasing new acrotelm thickness (20-40 cm). The reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in the 100 cm  
277 acrotelm thickness model run is because the model simulated that the surface mosses start to  
278 die off because they can't take up water from the deep peat (Fig. 3).

279

### 280 **3.3 Interannual climate variability on CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands**

281 The BDB region shows large annual climate variability over the last 28 years from 1994 to  
282 2021. The measured annual mean air temperature ranged from 2.6 to 5.7 °C and the annual  
283 precipitation from 633 to 1488 mm (Figs. 4a, b). This can be compared to the 30-year annual  
284 mean air temperature of  $3.5 \pm 2.9$  °C and the precipitation of 962 mm for the climate normal  
285 data (1981-2010) at St-Arsene station (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2023). Both  
286 annual air temperature and precipitation showed increasing trends over the measured period  
287 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> indicating  
288 possible future warmer and wetter conditions in the region. The weather over the three years



289 of flux measurement was generally around the mean climate conditions (for more discussion  
290 see Nugent et al. (2018)).

291

292 We made an extra simulation (in daily time step) with a 28-year climate input based on the  
293 2013-2016 BDB set up to represent the normal climate variability also including extreme years.  
294 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  
295 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  
296 the annual scale, CO<sub>2</sub> uptake seems to increase slightly with increasing air temperature,  
297 although the relationship was not statistically significant ( $p=0.19$ ). The model simulated the  
298 BDB peatland as an atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> source for three years 1995, 1997, and 2015, all of which  
299 had below-average precipitation.

300

301 We further compared the simulated flux rates with long-term measurements at Mer Bleue, a  
302 pristine shrub-*Sphagnum* bog within the same climate region. Over fifteen years of  
303 measurement (2004 to 2018), Mer Bleue had an average uptake rate of  $-108 \pm 33 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
304 (He et al., 2023a), similar to the three-year BDB uptake rate measured by the tower,  $-90 \pm 18$   
305  $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , and the current 28 year extended simulation,  $-101 \pm 64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Fig. 6).  
306 Therefore, after fourteen years of restoration, the BDB peatland has switched back to C uptake  
307 and the uptake rate was similar to pristine sites (for more discussion see Nugent et al. (2018)).  
308 However, our model simulations additionally show that the C uptake at the restored peatland  
309 has larger interannual variability (S.D.  $64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) compared to the pristine Mer Bleue site.  
310 Under certain dry years, the restored site can potentially switch back to C sources while the  
311 pristine peatlands showed persistent C uptake with a smaller interannual variation (S.D.  $33 \text{ g}$   
312  $\text{C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). In other words, the restored peatlands seem to have less ecological resilience  
313 compared to the pristine peatlands.



314

### 315 **3.4 Future climate change on CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands**

316 We evaluate the potential of future climate change on the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake function of the restored  
317 bog using the 28-year simulation as the long-term reference run. Climate change scenarios were  
318 designed as combinations of an increase of all-year-round air temperature for the 28-year  
319 climate data by +1, +2 °C, and/or change all-year-round precipitation by ±10%, the range of  
320 climate change expected for this area of Quebec (Zhang et al., 2019). Then, equilibrium model  
321 runs using the 2013-2016 BDB setup for the future climate, were conducted to evaluate the  
322 potential response of C uptake functions.

323

324 Our model simulations show that increasing air temperature will decrease the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake rate  
325 of restored peatlands. Increasing air temperature alone by 1 °C decreases the annual C uptake  
326 rate by 5% compared to the reference run, and ~16% when air temperature increased by 2 °C  
327 (Fig. S3). A larger rate of decrease under the +2 °C scenario can be explained by the simulated  
328 more pronounced water table drop (Fig. S3). Our model simulation shows a change of ±10%  
329 in precipitation alone only influences the CO<sub>2</sub> flux marginally, with a reduction of uptake rate  
330 when precipitation decreases (Fig. S4). The BDB region is humid (annual  
331 precipitation/potential evaporation ratio is ~ 1.5 to 2 (Hare and Thomas, 1979)). Thus, a 10%  
332 change in precipitation is predicted to influence the water table marginally (Fig. S4). We made  
333 a climate scenario with an increase of air temperature by 2 °C and reduced precipitation by  
334 10%, i.e. the ‘extreme’ scenario. The restored bog still acts as a C sink overall, with a slightly  
335 reduced (~ -6%) simulated mean uptake rate of -95 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 7). The modified climate  
336 causes both GPP and ER to increase (Fig. 7), thus effectively canceling each other out. Our  
337 model simulations thus overall suggest the restored peatlands will likely maintain their C  
338 uptake functions under future climate change.



339

#### 340 **4 Discussion**

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

348

349 Our model performance for CO<sub>2</sub> flux is similar to previous models that have been applied to  
350 restored sites, such as the ECOSSE model (Premrov et al., 2021) and the PVN model  
351 (Lippmann et al., 2023). However, the advance of our current modeling exercise compared to  
352 the earlier studies is its capability of accurately simulating both the water table depth and C  
353 dynamics in a finer temporal resolution. CoupModel simulates the coupled C-hydrological  
354 processes in half-hour resolution, while a daily time step was used for the earlier models. The  
355 ability to simulate processes at a sub-daily scale is particularly important for the future  
356 inclusion of CH<sub>4</sub> as the transport processes (e.g., ebullition) occur at a sub-daily scale (Walter  
357 and Heimann, 2000). Empirical studies have shown that the water table is an important control  
358 for greenhouse gas fluxes in restored peatlands (Evans et al., 2021; Järveoja et al., 2016; Koch  
359 et al., 2023). Restoration is associated with management practices that change the hydrology  
360 of the peatlands, such as blocking the drainage ditches at the beginning of restoration. With the  
361 gradual recovery of peat vegetation and the development of the mesotelm collapse layer, the  
362 water table fluctuations further reduce, and the mean level gradually moves above the  
363 mesotelm (He and Roulet, in review). Therefore, following restoration, the ecohydrology and



364 vegetation co-evolve and feedback between each other, co-regulating the overall C uptake  
365 function of the peatland. The ability of CoupModel to simulate the coupled processes thus has  
366 important implications for understanding the overall climate impacts of peatland restorations.  
367 Our study simulates the time frame of 14 to 16 years after restoration, representing a stage of  
368 fully recovered vegetation. Future modeling research should cover the beginning of the  
369 restoration thus simulating the full dynamic coupling of vegetation development, hydrology  
370 management, and peat soil development.

371

372 The extended model simulations show that restored peatlands have less resilience to climate  
373 variability than do pristine peatlands (Figs. 5 and 6). Theoretical studies have argued that bogs  
374 are complex adaptive systems based on the tight feedbacks among plant production,  
375 decomposition, and water storage represented by water table depth (Eppinga et al., 2009;  
376 Belyea and Clymo, 2001). Due to the missing collapse layer, the ecohydrology of restored  
377 peatlands is not fully restored. Water table frequency distribution can be a useful measure for  
378 evaluating the success of ecohydrology restoration (He and Roulet, in review). CoupModel  
379 predicts that the water table frequency distribution for BDB will gradually recover to a state of  
380 a pristine bog when the newly grown mosses at the surface reach 40 cm depth (data not shown).  
381 Our model sensitivity analysis shows that mosses cannot thrive under a 100 cm acrotelm  
382 thickness which is in agreement with results from field studies that suggest a tension of -100  
383 cm water as the hydrologic threshold for *Sphagnum* establishment (Price, 1998; Price and  
384 Whitehead, 2001). The ability of CoupModel to reproduce such important ecohydrology  
385 regulation has implications for future model applications to evaluate the impacts of field  
386 management practices on greenhouse gas fluxes by changing boundary and lateral hydrology  
387 conditions.

388





389 The current model exercise represents a series of studies towards developing CoupModel as an  
390 IPCC Tier 3 methodology for estimating emissions from extracted and restored peatlands (He  
391 et al., 2023b; He and Roulet, 2023). Our work to date has focused on bogs in eastern Canada  
392 but should be expanded to include bogs and poor fens in western Canada and other  
393 geographical and ecoclimate regions in the future. To date, there are few emission data from  
394 restored peatlands, and those data are snapshots covering only a few years and thus do not  
395 reflect the temporal dynamics of greenhouse gases (Kalhori et al., 2024). Our long-term model  
396 simulations suggest an EF of  $-1.01 \pm 0.64 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for a bog 14-16 years post restoration by  
397 the MLTT; this is ~five times larger (meaning more uptake) than the default IPCC Tier 1 EF  
398 for temperate nutrient-poor rewetted organic soils ( $-0.23$  with CI  $-0.64$  to  $+0.18 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
399 (IPCC, 2014). The data used to generate the IPCC EF includes more degraded sites in Europe  
400 and different rewetting methods. The Canadian practice of leaving a residual peat layer at the  
401 end of extraction and using MLTT for restoration seems to be beneficial for the recovery of  
402 peatland C uptake. The default IPCC EF has earlier been used to evaluate the overall climate  
403 impacts for peatland restoration using a modeling approach (Gunther et al., 2020). Our results  
404 thus suggest those studies might significantly underestimate the climate cooling effects for  
405 Canadian bog sites that have been restored using MLTT.

406

407 Our climate change simulations show the important regulating affect of air temperature on the  
408 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of restored peatlands, where future global warming is predicted to moderately  
409 weaken the sink strength (Fig. S3). However, it should be noted that future changes in seasonal  
410 patterns and extremes were not accounted for in our climate change scenarios. Helbig et al.  
411 (2022) analyzed flux measurements from northern peatlands and showed earlier summer  
412 warming increases NEE uptake while late summer warming decreases it. There is also the  
413 possibility of fire that would structurally alter the peatlands. Our simulations do not include



414 fire, which is much less common in eastern Canadian peatlands than in the west (Zoltai et al.,  
415 1998; Lavoie and Pellerin, 2007). Thus, our climate change simulations probably represent a  
416 conservative prediction which might in turn explain the moderate reduction of sink strength.  
417 As our extended simulations show, it is possible that over extreme years the site can switch to  
418 a small CO<sub>2</sub> source and that potentially the number of source years could increase in the future.  
419

## 420 **5 Conclusion**

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

- 423 • CoupModel can describe the measured sub-daily CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, hydrology, and heat for  
424 the restored peatland system.
- 425 • Restored peatlands have less resilience to climate variability than pristine peatlands.
- 426 • CoupModel simulation results in an emission factor of  $-1.01 \pm 0.64 \text{ t C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for  
427 Canadian bogs that have been restored for 14 to 16 years by the moss layer transfer  
428 technique, ~ five times larger than the IPCC default emission factor.
- 429 • CoupModel now simulates all stages of peat extraction and restoration, and can be used  
430 for exploring land-use change issues, suggesting climate-smart management practices,  
431 and Tier-3 emission reporting.

432



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

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

434

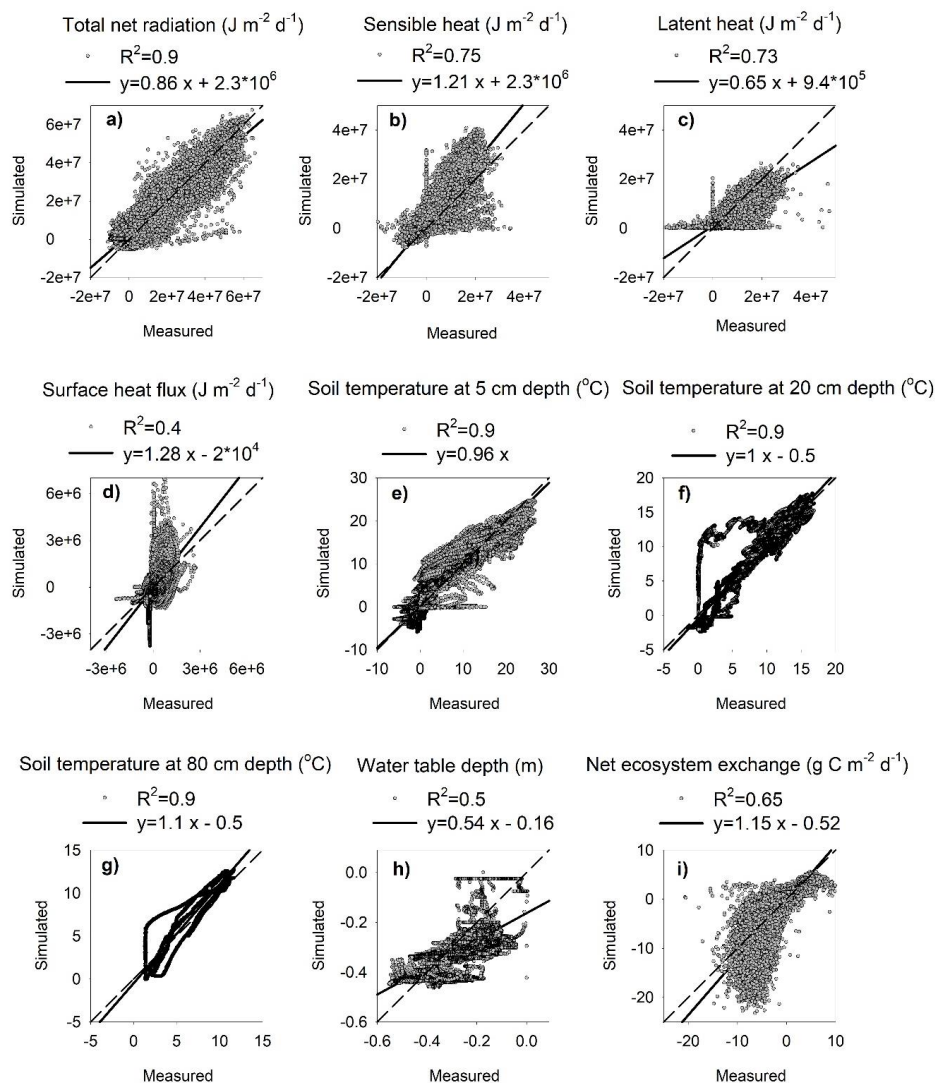
435 Table 2 Physical, hydraulic, and Mualem-van Genuchten coefficients for Bois-des-Bel site

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

436

437 Bulk density  $\rho_B$ , porosity  $\theta_s$  and saturated conductivity  $k_{sat}$  data were from McCarter and Price (2013),  
 438 Gauthier et al. (2022) and Petrone (2002). Non-linear curving fitting was run with the empirical constant  $m=1-$   
 439  $1/n$  with the wilting point  $\theta_w$  set to 10 % for the topsoil layer, and 30% for the 40-150 cm layer (Menberu et al.,  
 440 2021).

441



442

443 Figure 1 Relationship between simulated and measured 30-minute a) total net radiation, b)

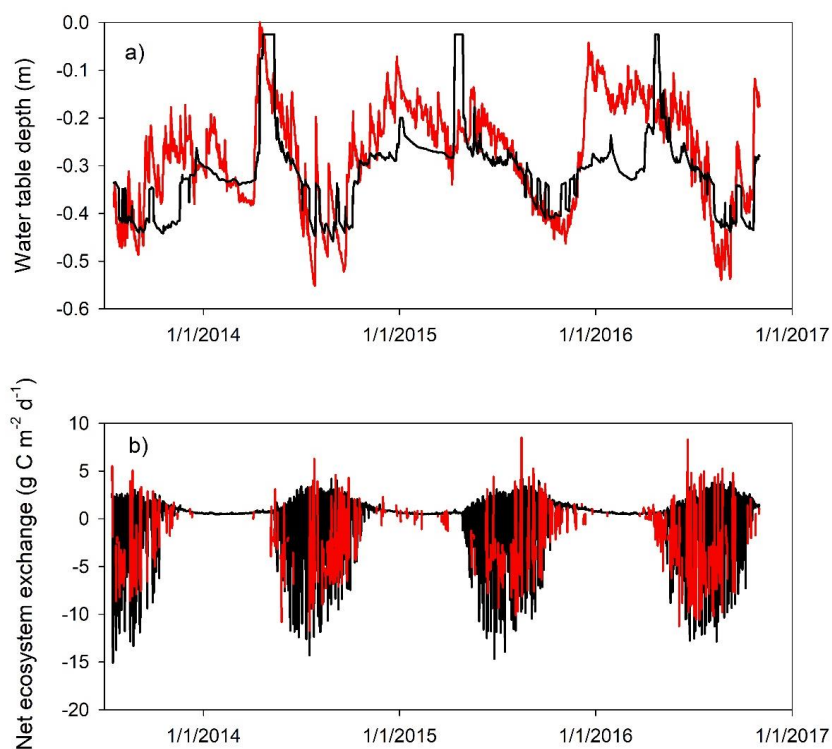
444 sensible heat, c) latent heat, d) soil surface heat flux, e) soil temperature at 5 cm depth, f) soil

445 temperature at 20 cm depth, g) soil temperature at 80 cm depth, h) water table depth, and i) net

446 ecosystem exchange over the period 2013 to 2016 (n=56600)

447

448

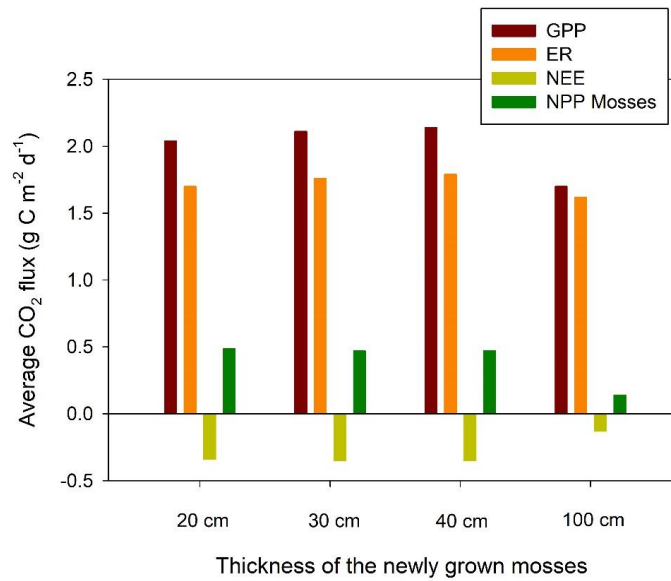


449

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

452

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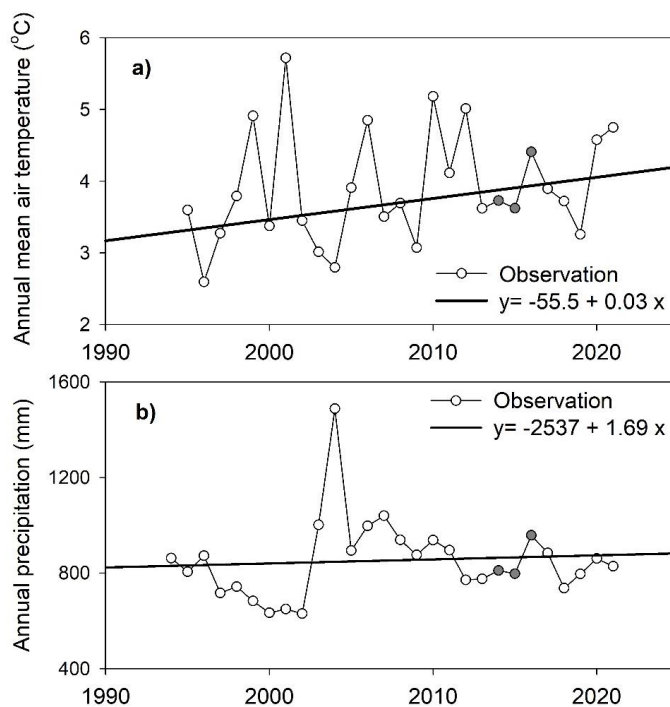


454

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

457

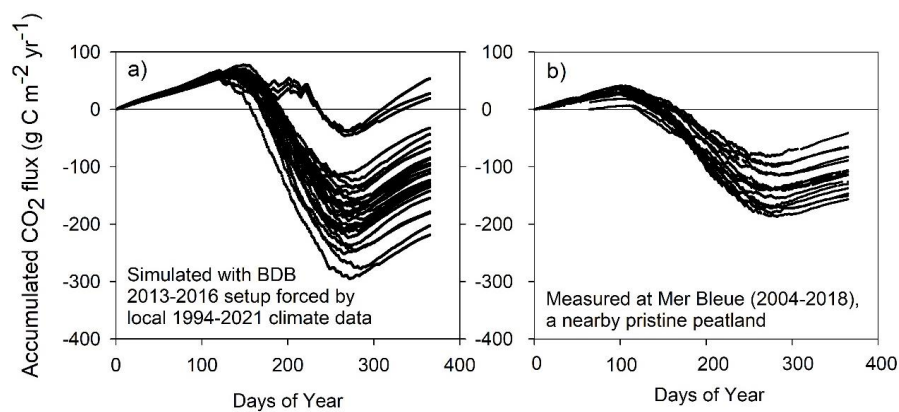
458



459

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

463

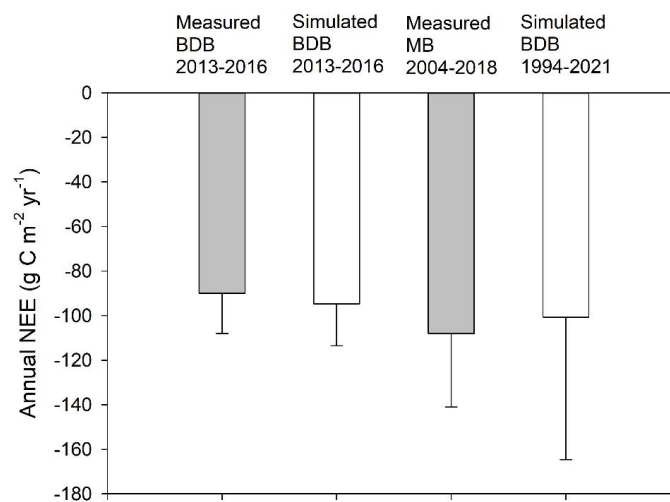


464

465 Figure 5 Accumulated annual CO<sub>2</sub> flux a) simulated with BDB 2013-2016 setup forced by  
466 Rivière-du-Loup 1994-2021 climate data; b) measured over 2004-2018 at Mer Bleue (He et al.  
467 2023b), a pristine peatland in the same climate region.

468

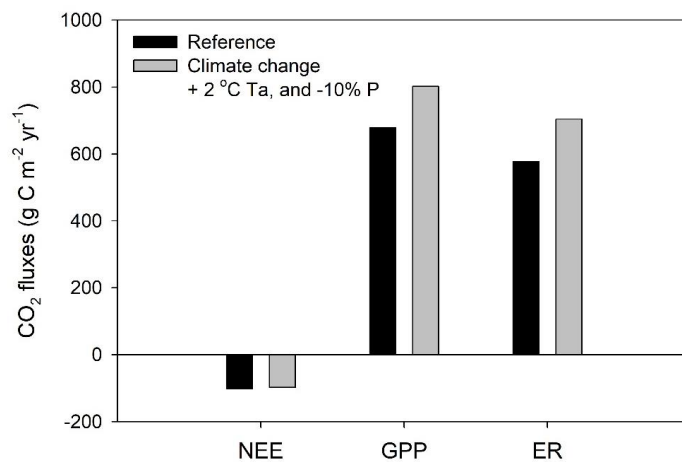




469

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

471



472

473 Figure 7 Simulated CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes under a scenario where air temperature is increased year

474 around by 2 °C and precipitation is decreased by 10%. Equilibrium model runs used the BDB

475 2013-2016 setup and Rivière-du-Loup 1994-2021 climate data.

476



477 Data Availability

478 The version of the CoupModel used to run the model simulations, including the source code  
479 is hosted on Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/record/3547628>) and the executed CoupModel is  
480 available at [www.coupmodel.com](http://www.coupmodel.com).

481

482 Author Contributions

483 HH and NR led the work, IBS led the eddy covariance data component, HH did the  
484 modeling, analysis and drafted the paper with help from NR, all authors contributed to editing  
485 and revision of the paper.

486

487 Competing Interests

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

489

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496

497



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