



# A top-down evaluation of bottom-up estimates to reduce uncertainty in methane emissions from Arctic wetlands

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## Abstract.

Wetlands are a major natural source of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>, however, accurately estimating their emissions is difficult due to the complex biogeochemical interactions and spatial heterogeneity of wetland environments. This study explores how a combination of atmospheric inverse and process-based modelling can reduce the discrepancy in Arctic wetland estimates between bottom-up and top-down approaches. We employed the Jena CarboScope global inversion system, incorporating prior wetland fluxes simulated by the JSBACH land surface model, which is part of the Max Planck Institute Earth System Model (MPI-ESM). We conducted a series of inversion experiments, each incorporating JSBACH-generated CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes based on different CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values to test the temperature sensitivity of emissions. Additionally, we examined the impact of changing the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction value, which defines the fraction of anaerobically mineralized carbon converted to CH<sub>4</sub>, while keeping all other JSBACH and inversion settings constant. Our findings show that, at a pan-Arctic scale, using a CH<sub>4</sub> Q<sub>10</sub> value of 1.8 produces the best agreement between the two approaches. However, no single Q<sub>10</sub> value yielded optimal agreement between the simulated fluxes and the fluxes inferred from atmospheric observations across all subregions. Instead, the best performance varied spatially, with different CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values and baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction leading to a better flux agreement in specific areas. These results highlight the importance of using regionally specific parameters to more accurately estimate wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and the potential of employing atmospheric inversions to guide bottom-up process models towards regionally representative parameter settings.

## 1. Introduction

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas and it is emitted from both natural and anthropogenic sources. Combined wetlands and inland freshwaters are the largest natural source of CH<sub>4</sub> to the atmosphere, accounting for about 28-37% (by bottom-up and top-down estimates, respectively) of the global total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Saunio et al., 2025). However, quantifying these emissions remains challenging due to the complexity of biogeochemical processes and the spatial variability of these ecosystems. Process-model ensemble estimates indicate that, between 2010 and 2020,



32 wetlands emitted approximately  $158 \pm 24 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ . This represents an increase of  $\sim 5 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  compared to the 2000-2009  
 33 average, with the most substantial increases observed in tropical regions, followed by mid- and high-latitude areas (Zhang et  
 34 al., 2025).

35 Global and regional  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions are estimated using both bottom-up or top-down approaches. Bottom-up methods,  
 36 including data-driven ecosystem flux upscaling and process-based models, provide detailed information with fine-scale  
 37 resolution for both, processes and spatial heterogeneity. Process-based models simulate  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions by mathematically  
 38 representing ecosystem dynamics, biogeochemical cycles, and physical processes. Nevertheless, it is challenging to extrapolate  
 39 these estimates to regional or global scales because wetland characteristics (e.g., extent, hydrology and vegetation) vary  
 40 substantially across space, and simulated  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes are highly sensitive to the choice of model parameterizations. Mechanistic  
 41 modeling of net surface  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions requires capturing a range of complex, interacting processes (Conrad, 1999; Moser et  
 42 al., 2025; Riley et al., 2011).

43 Anaerobic  $\text{CH}_4$  production is the result of a number of biogeochemical processes that take place in a chain or in parallel  
 44 (Conrad, 2020; Moser et al., 2025; Song et al., 2020). After an enzymatic breakdown of macromolecules, fermentation of the  
 45 resulting dissolved organic matter (DOC) leads to acetate, hydrogen and  $\text{CO}_2$ . In either acetoclastic or hydrogenotrophic  
 46 methanogenesis, these byproducts are immediately further used to finally produce  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  (Conrad, 2020). In addition,  
 47 alternative electron acceptors, such as Fe-III can be utilized by microbes to produce  $\text{CO}_2$  from acetate (Sulman et al., 2022;  
 48 Zheng et al., 2019). The net  $\text{CH}_4\text{:CO}_2$  production ratio is therefore determined by the relative importance of these underlying  
 49 processes, which in turn are dependent on environmental conditions. That is why in laboratory incubation experiments, a large  
 50 range of this production ratio has been observed (Knoblauch et al., 2018). After production,  $\text{CH}_4$  may be consumed by  
 51 methanotrophic bacteria (Knoblauch et al., 2015; Riley et al., 2011) or transported to the atmosphere via plant aerenchyma,  
 52 ebullition, or diffusion through soil or water (Kaiser et al., 2017; Walter and Heimann, 2000; Wania et al., 2010). That leads  
 53 to a  $\text{CH}_4\text{:CO}_2$  emission ratio at the surface which is different from the  $\text{CH}_4\text{:CO}_2$  production ratio. Since underlying  
 54 biogeochemical processes are very complex and dependent on detailed environmental conditions, global-scale land surface  
 55 models usually represent anaerobic  $\text{CH}_4$  production as a first-order decay of soil organic matter with adjusted rate constants.  
 56 And then, a fixed ratio of  $\text{CH}_4$  versus  $\text{CO}_2$  production out of that decomposition is applied (Guimberteau et al., 2018; Kleinen  
 57 et al., 2020; Moser et al., 2025; Ricciuto et al., 2021; Sellar et al., 2019). Here, the models can differ in whether the ratio  
 58 applies to the  $\text{CH}_4$  production or emission. The JSBACH v3.2 (Reick et al., 2021) that we apply in this study is taking the first  
 59 approach and mechanistically distinguish between methanogenesis and methanotrophy.

60 Developing these models requires balancing the inclusion of key mechanisms with limitations such as structural and  
 61 parameter uncertainty, spatial heterogeneity, sparse observational data, uncertain initial and boundary conditions, and  
 62 computational constraints (Riley et al., 2011). Previous studies have shown that  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions are highly sensitive to  
 63 parameters regulating microbial production and oxidation processes (Chinta et al., 2024; Riley et al., 2011; Song et al., 2020).  
 64 A higher  $\text{CH}_4\text{:CO}_2$  ratio indicates a greater dominance of  $\text{CH}_4$  in production and emission relative to  $\text{CO}_2$  (Chinta et al., 2024).  
 65 Based on anaerobic incubations of thermokarst lake sediments, Gonzalez Moguel et al. (2025) observed that the  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values



of both CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> showed strong positive correlations with net CH<sub>4</sub> production rates and CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> ratios. This indicates that CH<sub>4</sub> production occurs faster and at a higher rate when younger organic matter decomposes. These patterns suggest that the presence of younger carbon substrates increases methanogenesis compared to overall fermentation and anaerobic respiration (Gonzalez Moguel et al., 2025). A higher CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> indicates that CH<sub>4</sub> production increases more rapidly with rising temperatures. This can indirectly enhance diffusive fluxes by creating larger concentration gradients between the soil and the atmosphere (Chinta et al., 2024). However, as regional model sensitivity varies and site-specific measurements may not be representative across broader areas, CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> are uncertain at large spatial scales. For example, increasing CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> in high-latitude regions can reduce simulated CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by more than half, because the temperature-dependent component, scaled relative to a reference temperature of 295 K, leads to a decline in CH<sub>4</sub> production rate at the lower temperatures typical of these regions (Riley et al., 2011). In contrast, the opposite pattern is observed in tropical regions (Riley et al., 2011). Many large-scale land surface models still rely on simplified, fixed CH<sub>4</sub> production fractions, which limits their ability to accurately represent observed spatiotemporal variability in CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> production ratios across Arctic landscapes (Moser et al., 2025). These differences in model structure, parameterization and initialization contribute strongly to relative high uncertainties in wetland estimates (Poulter et al., 2017).

In JSBACH v3.2, anaerobic decomposition and CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation are temperature dependent. However, in addition to that, the CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> production ratio is also assumed to follow a Q<sub>10</sub> temperature sensitivity (Kleinen et al., 2020). That means that we assume that the relative importance of the above-mentioned underlying biogeochemical processes changes in space and time depending on the soil temperature. In addition, making the CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> production ratio temperature dependent allows us to additionally tune CH<sub>4</sub> versus CO<sub>2</sub> production across bioclimatic zones. One big research question now is, how high should be the Q<sub>10</sub> value for this temperature dependency of the CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> production ratio? In order to answer such question, we employ a novel integration of bottom-up and top-down approaches.

Top-down approaches estimate net surface-atmosphere CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes using atmospheric observations (in situ, flask and/or satellite measurements) in combination with prior flux information (from process-based models and/or inventories), and atmospheric transport and chemistry models to link surface sources with atmospheric observations. Their ability to provide accurate estimates of net surface-atmosphere fluxes is limited by sparse observational coverage, particularly in remote regions, as well as by uncertainties in atmospheric transport, prior flux estimates, and atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> sink processes (Houweling et al., 2017). These limitations can lead to significant uncertainties in the magnitude and spatial distribution of inferred emissions, which makes attributing fluxes to specific sources or processes challenging. Still, despite these limitations, the inverse modeling approach allowed us to derive important constraints on the global sources and sinks of CH<sub>4</sub> (Houweling et al., 2017).

Substantial discrepancies exist between bottom-up and top-down estimates of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. From 2010 to 2019, top-down approaches estimated global CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at 575 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (553-586 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), whereas bottom-up estimates were approximately 15% higher, at 669 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (512-849 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>) (Saunio et al., 2025). These differences, despite the fact that bottom-up results are used as prior in top-down approaches, point to additional constraints of bottom-up CH<sub>4</sub> flux estimates by atmospheric observations. For example, important large-scale CH<sub>4</sub> uptake by upland soils (Juncher Jørgensen et al., 2024;



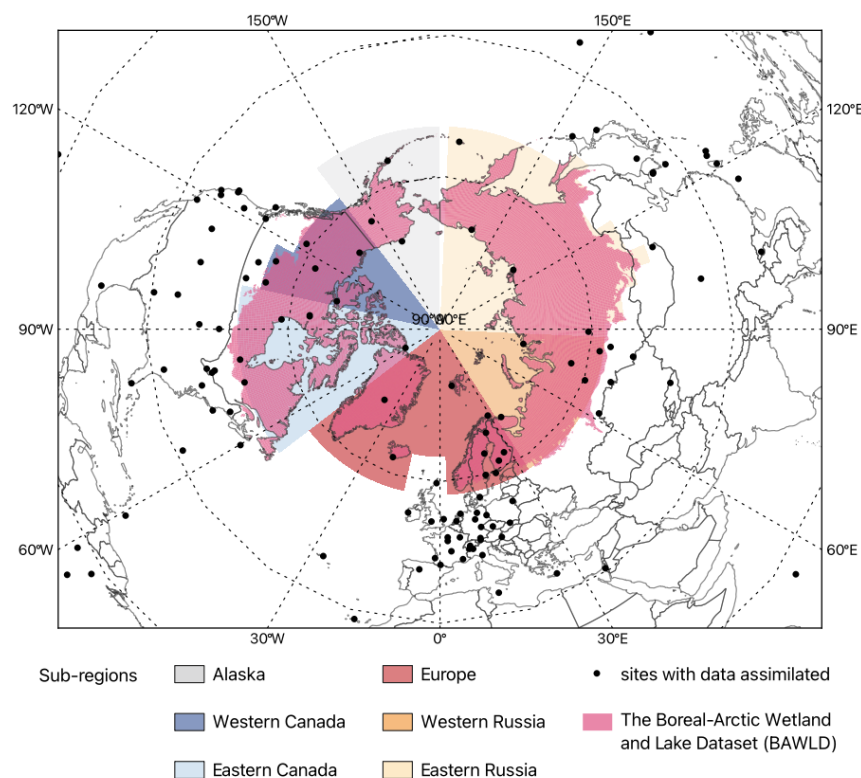
Voigt et al., 2023) is usually underrepresented in land surface models (D’Imperio et al., 2023; Song et al., 2024). More generally, we assume that bottom-up approaches are still very limited in their ability to upscale the complex and spatially varying processes underlying CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. In boreal regions, inland freshwater sources dominate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, accounting for 41% and 54% in top-down and bottom-up budgets, respectively (Saunois et al., 2025). Similarly, Hugelius et al. (2024) reported substantial discrepancies between bottom-up and top-down CH<sub>4</sub> emission estimates for the Arctic–boreal region, with 50 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (29–71 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>) for bottom-up and 20 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup> (15–24 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>) for top-down. Despite recent efforts to improve monitoring networks and modeling frameworks, significant discrepancies remain between these approaches. Still, top-down approaches can be used to assess the representativeness of bottom-up fluxes and their underlying parameterizations on a large scale. Combining information from both methods can therefore help to reconcile discrepancies and improve the consistency of CH<sub>4</sub> emission estimates at different spatial scales.

This study explores the use of atmospheric inverse modeling to constrain bottom-up estimates of wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the Arctic-Boreal region. Using the Jena CarboScope global inversion system, we employed prior fluxes from the JSBACH land surface model (a component of the MPI Earth System Model) and systematically varied key parameters that govern CH<sub>4</sub> production. Specifically, we tested a range of Q<sub>10</sub> values, which define the temperature sensitivity of CH<sub>4</sub> production, and different  $f_{CH_4}$  baseline values, which determine the proportion of anaerobically mineralized carbon converted to CH<sub>4</sub>. We kept other model settings constant throughout these tests. Integrating these parameter sensitivity experiments into the inversion framework allowed us to assess which parameterizations yield the most consistent fluxes with atmospheric observations. This approach enables us to identify regionally representative parameter settings and guide parameterizations that could improve the consistency between bottom-up process models and top-down constraints on Arctic-Boreal wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Region and time period of interest

Our Arctic-Boreal domain was defined based on The Boreal-Arctic Wetland and Lake Dataset – BAWLD (Olefeldt et al., 2021), and we divided this region into 6 sub-regions for more detailed spatial analyses (Alaska, western Canada, eastern Canada, Europe, western Russia, eastern Russia, Fig. 1). In recent decades, the atmospheric observation network suitable for inverse modeling has expanded across the Arctic, with a considerable increase in available sites after 2010 (Vogt et al., 2025). However, due to data-sharing disruptions associated with the ongoing conflict involving Russia and Ukraine, observational data from Russian stations has been limited since 2022. Consequently, this study focuses on the period from 2010 to 2021, when data coverage was more consistent across the full domain.



129

130 Figure 1: Geographic distribution of surface sites operated by different network providers where flask-based and/or continuous  
 131 in-situ CH<sub>4</sub> measurements are available for assimilation into the inverse model (black dots). The colored boxes delineate the  
 132 Arctic-Boreal regions (Alaska, western Canada, eastern Canada, Europe, western Russia, eastern Russia), as defined based on  
 133 The Boreal–Arctic Wetland and Lake Dataset (BAWLD) (Olefeldt et al., 2021).

## 134 2.2. Wetland estimates used as prior fluxes in the inverse modelling

135 In this study, we utilize the JSBACH model (Reick et al., 2021), the land component of the MPI-ESM (Mauritsen et al.,  
 136 2019), to estimate bottom-up wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Originally, JSBACH was developed as a lower boundary condition for  
 137 the atmospheric component of the MPI-ESM; however, it has since been updated to function as a standalone land surface  
 138 model driven by observed climate data to simulate terrestrial components of the carbon, energy and water cycles. In this study,  
 139 simulations conducted at T63 resolution (approximately 1.85°, or 185 km) were driven using the CRUJRA2.3 (Harris, 2019)  
 140 climate data. A multilayer vertical soil profile is implemented as described by Hagemann and Stacke (2015), while features  
 141 relevant for high-northern latitudes permafrost have been implemented by Ekici et al. (2014). The Richards' equation  
 142 (Richards, 1931), along with thermal diffusion, governs the vertical distribution of moisture and heat in the soil (Reick et al.,  
 143 2021). Soil organic carbon (SOC) decomposition is simulated as a first-order decay process that depends on surface air



144 temperature, water availability, and litter size, following the YASSO model formulation (Tuomi et al., 2011) and its  
 145 implementation in JSBACH by Goll et al. (2015).

146 The wetland area fraction of the grid is determined using TOPMODEL (Beven and Kirkby, 1979), a conceptual rainfall-  
 147 runoff model that estimates inundation based on the compound topographic index (CTI). If the inundated fraction of the grid  
 148 is non-frozen (depending on the soil temperature), it is considered a CH<sub>4</sub>-emitting area. The methodology for wetland CH<sub>4</sub>  
 149 production and transport is adopted from Riley et al. (2011), and the details of the TOPMODEL and its implementation for  
 150 wetland CH<sub>4</sub> within JSBACH are outlined in Kleinen et al. (2020). TOPMODEL assumes a constant exponential decline of  
 151 transmissivity with depth, defined as the ratio of the difference between the local sub-grid-scale CTI and the mean grid-cell  
 152 CTI to the difference between their corresponding local sub-grid-scale water table and mean grid-cell water table (see equation  
 153 (1) in Kleinen et al. (2020)). As water propagates from the surface, it saturates the soil layers based on volumetric moisture  
 154 content and field capacity. Starting from the bottom of the soil column, the mean grid-cell water table is located in the first  
 155 soil layer where the layer saturation is below the experimentally determined saturation threshold. The sensitivity study  
 156 indicates that using CRUJRA (Harris, 2019) as the forcing data, setting the saturation threshold at 7.25, configuring the  
 157 exponential decline of transmissivity with depth to 4, and limiting the valid range of CTI to values greater than 5.5 results in  
 158 a reasonable estimation of present-day wetland extents.

159 In JSBACH, carbon enters the soil as litter, both above- and belowground, originating from decomposing vegetation. This  
 160 carbon eventually returns to the atmosphere through decomposition processes as CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Carbon fixed by  
 161 vegetation is allocated to green tissue (leaves, fine roots), wood (stems, branches), and reserve pools (e.g., sugars and starches).  
 162 Routine turnover, herbivory, and root exudation transfer carbon into above- and belowground litter pools. Depending on the  
 163 plant functional type (PFT), litter carbon is distributed among acid-soluble, water-soluble, ethanol-soluble, and non-soluble  
 164 pools, each further divided into above- and belowground fractions, as well as a humus pool. Decomposition rates vary based  
 165 on temperature, precipitation, and litter size. Under anoxic conditions (in the inundated fraction of the tile), SOC decomposes  
 166 into both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>. The baseline rate of SOC decomposition under anaerobic conditions is reduced compared to aerobic  
 167 conditions. Temperature dependency of CH<sub>4</sub> production as part of SOC decomposition follows the Q<sub>10</sub> model with a reference  
 168 temperature of 295K (Equation 1). The fraction of CH<sub>4</sub> production is capped at 0.5; that is, no more than 50% of carbon can  
 169 be converted to CH<sub>4</sub>. However, the CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> ratio of net emissions to the atmosphere is typically lower than the ratio of gross  
 170 production due to oxidation (methanotrophy) and differences in transport pathways. Oxidation, which follows Michaelis-  
 171 Menten kinetics (with Q<sub>10</sub> = 1.9, which remained constant throughout the sensitivity tests), converts a portion of CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>,  
 172 thus increasing CO<sub>2</sub> and decreasing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Transport mechanisms further differentiate the fate of these gases: CH<sub>4</sub>  
 173 can escape via diffusion, plant-mediated transport, or ebullition, whereas CO<sub>2</sub> is not released through ebullition. O<sub>2</sub> availability  
 174 and soil moisture regulate the efficiency of CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation. Therefore, the net CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratio depends on the combined  
 175 effects of CH<sub>4</sub> production, oxidation, and transport processes. Warmer, oxic conditions tend to reduce the net CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> (due  
 176 to stronger aerobic oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub>), while colder or persistently anoxic, saturated conditions (with ebullition) can increase





the net CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> ratio compared to cases with strong oxidation. Equation 1 shows how the Q<sub>10</sub> law controls the CH<sub>4</sub> fraction ( $f_{CH_4}$ ) as a function of soil temperature ( $T_{soil}$ ) and the baseline fraction (baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction):

$$f_{CH_4} = f_{CH_4,baseline} \cdot Q_{10}^{(T_{soil}-295)/10K} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

To evaluate how sensitive CH<sub>4</sub> wetland emission estimates are to key parameters, we conducted nine experiments in which we varied only the Q<sub>10</sub> coefficient for CH<sub>4</sub> production and the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction (Fig. 2b). Specifically, we tested three different Q<sub>10</sub> values ranging from 1.4 to 2.2 and baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fractions from 0.33 to 0.38. These combinations are summarized in Table 1 and were chosen to identify parameter sets that best align with the observed atmospheric data.

### 2.3. Inverse modeling setup

We used the Jena CarboScope Inversion System (Rödenbeck, 2005) to quantify CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between the surface and the atmosphere globally from 2010 to 2021, with the evaluation and interpretation of fluxes focused on the Arctic-Boreal region. This is a linear Bayesian framework that infers surface-atmosphere CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes based on observed atmospheric mole fractions. A total of 154 stations were assimilated for the global domain (Fig.1). These CH<sub>4</sub> observations were obtained from several global and regional networks (ICOS RI et al., 2024; Schuldt et al., 2023), with the majority of sites located in the Northern Hemisphere, including 33 stations within the Arctic-Boreal domain. For tower sites with multiple intake heights available, we assimilated only data from the highest height in the inversion, and for the continuous data, we use only daytime measurements. The transport model used in CarboScope is the TM3 global atmospheric tracer model (Heimann and Körner, 2003) and is driven by meteorological inputs from the NCEP reanalysis dataset (Kalnay et al., 1996). Flux inversions were conducted at a spatial resolution of approximately 3.8° latitude by 5° longitude, with 19 vertical layers and a daily temporal resolution. To account for model-data mismatch, including the representation error of the measurements within the transport model, we assigned an uncertainty of 30 ppb. Additionally, to ensure balanced representation across observational sites, particularly between continuous and sparse time series, we applied a data density weighting scheme, assigning equal influence to each weekly period, regardless of data frequency (Rödenbeck, 2005).

Prior CH<sub>4</sub> flux estimates include five source categories, all of which were optimized: wetlands, other natural sources, anthropogenic, ocean and fire emissions. The monthly mean emissions from wetlands and fires were obtained from the JSBACH model (Kleinen et al., 2020), as previously described. Additional natural sources, such as termites and wild animal emissions taken from JSBACH (Kleinen et al., 2020) and geological emissions from Etiope et al. (2019) were combined as the “other natural source” category. Emissions from oceans were obtained from Weber et al. (2019) and implemented as a non-seasonal climatology. Anthropogenic emissions were obtained from the EDGAR inventories database



(<https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu>) version 8 (IEA et al., 2024) and are provided as monthly global fluxes. This category includes emissions from agriculture, livestock, waste management, fossil fuel exploitation and other minor anthropogenic sources except biomass burning.

CH<sub>4</sub> chemical loss includes loss due to OH and Cl in the troposphere, as well as OH, Cl, and O(<sup>1</sup>D) in the stratosphere. For tropospheric OH, we use the monthly three-dimensional OH fields calculated by Spivakovsky et al. (2000), which are based on observed climatological distributions of OH precursors and scaled to match the observed CH<sub>3</sub>CCl<sub>3</sub> lifetime. The monthly climatological loss rates of CH<sub>4</sub> in the stratosphere due to OH, Cl, and O(<sup>1</sup>D) were derived from a simulation of the ECHAM5/MESSy1 chemistry transport model (Jöckel et al., 2006). Additionally, tropospheric Cl loss is simulated using a recent model-derived estimate of tropospheric Cl (Hossaini et al., 2016). The surface sink from upland soils and the ocean was implemented as a zeroth-order reaction with prescribed reaction rates that occur only in the surface-most model layer. Reaction rates for the microbial oxidation of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> in soil were based on the uptake estimates from the LPJ-Bern model (Spahni et al., 2011).

#### 2.4. Evaluating Bottom-Up Emissions Using Top-Down Constraints

Previous studies have used atmospheric inversion models to evaluate in between different bottom-up estimates which one best reproduce observed atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> data (e.g., Kim et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2016), providing an effective framework for model evaluation. In this study, we evaluated the performance of different JSBACH parameterizations by using the CH<sub>4</sub> wetland emission outputs from each experiment as wetland prior fluxes in a top-down atmospheric inversion framework. The inversion then generated posterior fluxes, reflecting the adjustments needed to align the prior emissions with atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations. In this study, we used the model adjustment defined as the difference between posterior and prior fluxes, calculated as the mean monthly and mean annual values across the Arctic–Boreal region from 2010 to 2021. First, we identified the parameterization resulting in the lowest mean model adjustment across the entire domain. For the monthly analysis, we first computed the mean monthly prior flux and the mean monthly posterior flux, and then defined the model adjustment as the difference between these two means. For the annual analysis, we calculated the mean annual prior and posterior fluxes and again defined the adjustment as their difference. This allowed us to determine which JSBACH configuration provided the best overall agreement with atmospheric constraints at the pan-regional scale and investigate temporal variability. Next, we examined spatial variability of the difference between posterior and prior fluxes using different JSBACH parameterizations as wetland priors. At the grid-cell level, we identified the parameter combination that minimized annual model adjustment, thereby providing the best match to the top-down atmospheric constraints. To conduct this analysis, an ensemble of posterior fluxes was calculated based on each CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> value from the prior wetland flux. This approach was supported by the observation that CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> significantly influenced CH<sub>4</sub> emission estimates compared to the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction. Additionally, posterior fluxes from priors with different baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction scenarios remained highly similar for a given Q<sub>10</sub> value. As a result, maps were made by calculating the absolute difference between the posterior ensemble of





the respectively  $Q_{10}$  value and prior  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes for each experiment at each grid-cell. Then, the annual mean adjustment was calculated and we identified the parameterization that resulted in the smallest adjustment at each grid-cell. In summary, each grid-cell shows the experiment that best matched the atmospheric  $\text{CH}_4$  observations.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Sensitivity of JSBACH $\text{CH}_4$ wetland emission estimates to $\text{CH}_4$ production $Q_{10}$ and baseline $f_{\text{CH}_4}$ fraction in Arctic–Boreal region

Table 1 summarizes the experiments and parameters combinations that have been tested in the JSBACH model and used as a wetland prior in the atmospheric inversions. Across the Arctic-Boreal region, our nine experiments produced annual mean  $\text{CH}_4$  wetland estimates ranging from 13.8 to 33.5  $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ . These estimates are consistent with previously published bottom-up estimates of ~15-50  $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  per year, with most studies reporting mean values near 20-25  $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  (Christensen et al., 1996; Ying et al., 2025; Yuan et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025). It should be noted that these studies consider different spatial domains and time periods. The estimates obtained using a  $Q_{10}$  value of 1.8 align most closely with this published range among our experiments.

Table 1. Summary of JSBACH wetland  $\text{CH}_4$  estimates used as prior fluxes in the inversions and posterior fluxes estimates for each respective model run.

Experiment	JSBACH parameterization		Arctic-Boreal annual mean $\text{CH}_4$ emission ( $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ )*		
	Baseline $f_{\text{CH}_4}$ fraction	$Q_{10}$ model	JSBACH estimates (prior)	Posterior estimates	Mean model adjustment
B1_low	0.33	1.4	$31.7 \pm 1.1$	$25.0 \pm 1.4$	-6.7
B1_mid	0.33	1.8	$20.0 \pm 0.7$	$22.9 \pm 1.1$	2.9
B1_high	0.33	2.2	$14.6 \pm 0.5$	$21.2 \pm 0.9$	6.6
B2_low	0.35	1.4	$29.7 \pm 0.9$	$24.8 \pm 1.5$	-5.0
B2_mid	0.35	1.8	$18.9 \pm 0.6$	$22.7 \pm 1.1$	3.8
B2_high	0.35	2.2	$13.8 \pm 0.5$	$20.9 \pm 0.9$	7.1
B3_low	0.38	1.4	$33.5 \pm 1.0$	$25.2 \pm 1.6$	-8.2
B3_mid	0.38	1.8	$21.3 \pm 0.7$	$23.3 \pm 1.2$	2.0
B3_high	0.38	2.2	$15.5 \pm 0.5$	$21.6 \pm 1.0$	6.1

\*The annual mean between 2010 and 2021, with the standard deviation representing interannual variability.



258 Emissions peaked during the summer months (July-August), with a mean emission ranging from 6.8 to 14.1 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>  
 259 (Fig. 2b). These larger emissions were followed by spring (May-June; range of 3.5-7.8 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), autumn (September-  
 260 October; range of 2.8-7.7 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), and winter with the lower emissions (November-April; range of 0.4-1.5 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>). The  
 261 timing of the peak in wetland emissions aligns with previous bottom-up estimates (Ying et al., 2025). At the sub-regional scale,  
 262 emissions showed substantial spatial variability (Fig. 2c). The highest annual mean fluxes were found in western Russia (3.4-  
 263 8.7 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>, depending on the parameter set), followed by eastern Canada (3.4-8.2 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), eastern Russia (3.1-7.2  
 264 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), western Canada (1.8-4.4 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), Europe (1.5-3.4 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>), and Alaska (0.5-1.6 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>).

265 In general, increasing the baseline value of the  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction from 0.33 to 0.38 increases CH<sub>4</sub> production. However, an  
 266 increase in the CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> parameter decreases CH<sub>4</sub> production for temperatures below 295 K (the reference  
 267 temperature) and increases it for temperatures higher than 295 K. This means that increasing Q<sub>10</sub> values from 1.4 to 2.2 reduces  
 268 wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the comparatively cold Arctic region (Table 1 and Fig. 2). The sensitivity of wetland CH<sub>4</sub> to the Q<sub>10</sub>  
 269 temperature response and the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction is evident when comparing seasonal cycles over the Arctic-Boreal domain  
 270 (Fig. 2b). For example, contrasting the simulations with baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction equaling 0.33 and varying CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub>  
 271 values (from 1.4 to 2.2), shows that increasing Q<sub>10</sub> significantly reduces annual wetland mean CH<sub>4</sub> emission in this region by  
 272 ~ 54% (~17 TgCH<sub>4</sub> y<sup>-1</sup>). This reduction is not uniform throughout the year. Although winter emissions are relatively low,  
 273 increasing Q<sub>10</sub> from 1.4 to 2.2 results in a ~72% decrease compared to a ~50-59% decrease during the summer, spring and fall.  
 274 Similarly, the influence of the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction can be observed by keeping Q<sub>10</sub> constant, for example at 1.4, and varying  
 275 the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction from 0.33 to 0.38. This increase leads to an increase of up to 6% in the annual wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
 276 for the region. In general, our parameter sensitivity tests show that CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> has a stronger effect on emission  
 277 variability than the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction. These wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emission estimates with different parameterizations were  
 278 subsequently integrated into the Jena CarboScope atmospheric inversion framework as wetland prior fluxes to determine the  
 279 combination that closest align with atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations, which means those requiring the minimum adjustment to  
 280 fluxes from prior to posterior.

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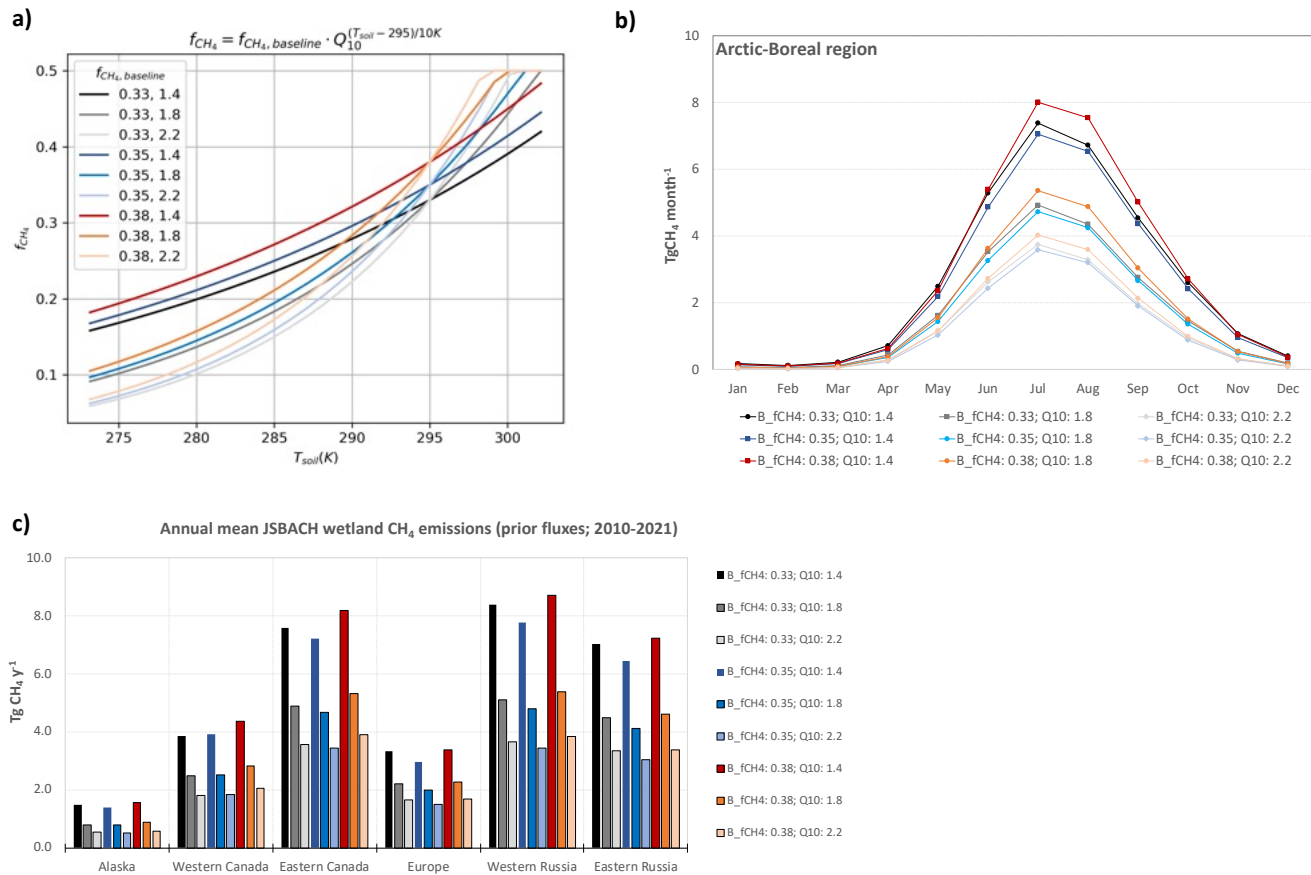


Figure 2. a) Sensitivity of  $f_{CH_4}$  production fraction to the chosen range of input parameters for this study. The y-axis represents the fraction of anaerobic carbon mineralization allocated to  $CH_4$  production, calculated using the equation displayed at the top of the panel and in Equation 1. In the legend, the first number denotes the  $f_{CH_4}$  baseline fraction and the second number denotes the  $CH_4$  production  $Q_{10}$  value. b) Mean seasonal cycle of Arctic-Boreal wetland  $CH_4$  emissions for each experiment used in the inversion as the wetland prior flux. c) Annual mean wetland fluxes from each experiment estimated by JSBACH model.

### 3.2 Evaluation of JSBACH $CH_4$ Fluxes Using Inverse Modeling

Our nine inverse model estimates produce an annual mean total emission (i.e. including natural and anthropogenic sources) for the Arctic-Boreal region ranging from 44.2 to 47.1  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>, with wetland emissions being the main  $CH_4$  source to the atmosphere. Depending on the parameter set in prior flux setup by JSBACH, the annual mean wetland emission ranges from 20.9 to 25.0  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup> (47-54% of total emissions). The largest posterior wetland  $CH_4$  emissions were estimated for western Russia (range of 6.9-8.4  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>, depending on the parameter set), followed by eastern Russia (range of 6.0-7.5  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>), eastern Canada (range of 4.3-4.9  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>), western Canada (range of 1.7-1.8  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>), Alaska (range of 1.0-2.0  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>) and Europe (range of 0.7-0.8  $TgCH_4$  y<sup>-1</sup>).

At the pan-Arctic scale, posterior wetland fluxes are higher than prior fluxes in the experiments using  $CH_4$  production  $Q_{10}$  values of 1.8 (8-22% higher than prior) and 2.2 (37-54% higher), see Table 1 and Fig. 3a. This suggests that these prior



estimates underestimate  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions in the Arctic–Boreal region relative to the observation-constrained posterior fluxes. However, prior fluxes estimated using a  $Q_{10}$  value of 1.4 are higher than posterior fluxes (16–25% higher than posterior), indicating overestimation of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions in this case. When comparing the model adjustment for the three experiments (varying only the  $Q_{10}$  parameters), the prior flux using  $Q_{10}$  values of 1.8 produces the best agreement between prior and posterior flux budgets, meaning that a minimum adjustment in the inverse model optimization is required when considering annual mean emissions in the entire Arctic–Boreal region. Additionally, when comparing the different baseline  $f_{\text{CH}_4}$  fractions (using the  $Q_{10}$  value with the best fit: 1.8), the minimum adjustment in the inverse model optimization is required for the prior flux with the largest baseline  $f_{\text{CH}_4}$  fraction (0.38), with posterior flux being 8% ( $2.0 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ ) higher than the prior.

Our posterior estimates of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from wetlands are similar to previous Arctic–Boreal estimates. Using a process-oriented ecosystem model, Christensen et al. (1996) estimated a total  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from northern wetlands and tundra ( $> 50^\circ\text{N}$ ) to be  $20 \pm 13 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ . Yuan et al. (2024) reported a mean annual emission of  $20.3 \pm 0.9 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  from boreal–Arctic wetland based on upscaled flux observations for the period 2002–2021. The Global Carbon Project estimated a mean annual wetland (including inland freshwaters)  $\text{CH}_4$  emission for regions north of  $60^\circ\text{N}$  at  $24$  (9–53)  $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ , while top-down approaches resulted in a lower estimate of  $9$  (7–17)  $\text{TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  for the same region (Saunois et al., 2025). Recently, Ying et al. (2025) estimated an annual mean  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from vegetated wetlands north of  $45^\circ\text{N}$  during 2016–2022 at  $22.8 \pm 2.4 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ , ranging from  $15.7 \pm 1.8 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$  to  $51.6 \pm 2.2 \text{ TgCH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ , depending on the wetland dataset used in the machine-learning-based upscaling approach. Although our posterior estimates are within the range of previous Arctic–Boreal estimates, direct comparisons are difficult because of differences in the study period, methodological approach, and inconsistent or unclear definitions of the spatial domain.

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### 3.3 Seasonal variability in optimum $\text{CH}_4$ production $Q_{10}$ settings

Before analyzing regional differences in optimum  $\text{CH}_4$  production  $Q_{10}$  settings, we first focused on a clear seasonal pattern in the adjustments between prior and posterior  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions, which showed a peak of changes occurring during summer. We therefore assessed whether the  $Q_{10}$  value resulting in the minimum adjustment remained constant throughout the year or varied by season. At a pan-Arctic scale, seasonal variations were evident: estimates using  $\text{CH}_4$  production  $Q_{10}$  equaling 1.8 aligned better with atmospheric observations in spring and fall but substantially underestimated summer emissions (Fig. 3b). In contrast, estimates using a  $Q_{10}$  of 1.4 best agreed well with the atmospheric observation during summer, reducing the discrepancy between top-down and bottom-up estimates during the growing season, but strongly overestimating emissions in spring and fall (Fig. 3b). This pattern is primarily driven by wetlands in Russia. Bergman et al. (2000) found temporal variation in  $Q_{10}$  at peatland sites, suggesting that factors such as the availability of easily degradable compounds (e.g., root exudates) and the activity of anaerobic microbial biomass influence  $\text{CH}_4$  production rates alongside temperature.

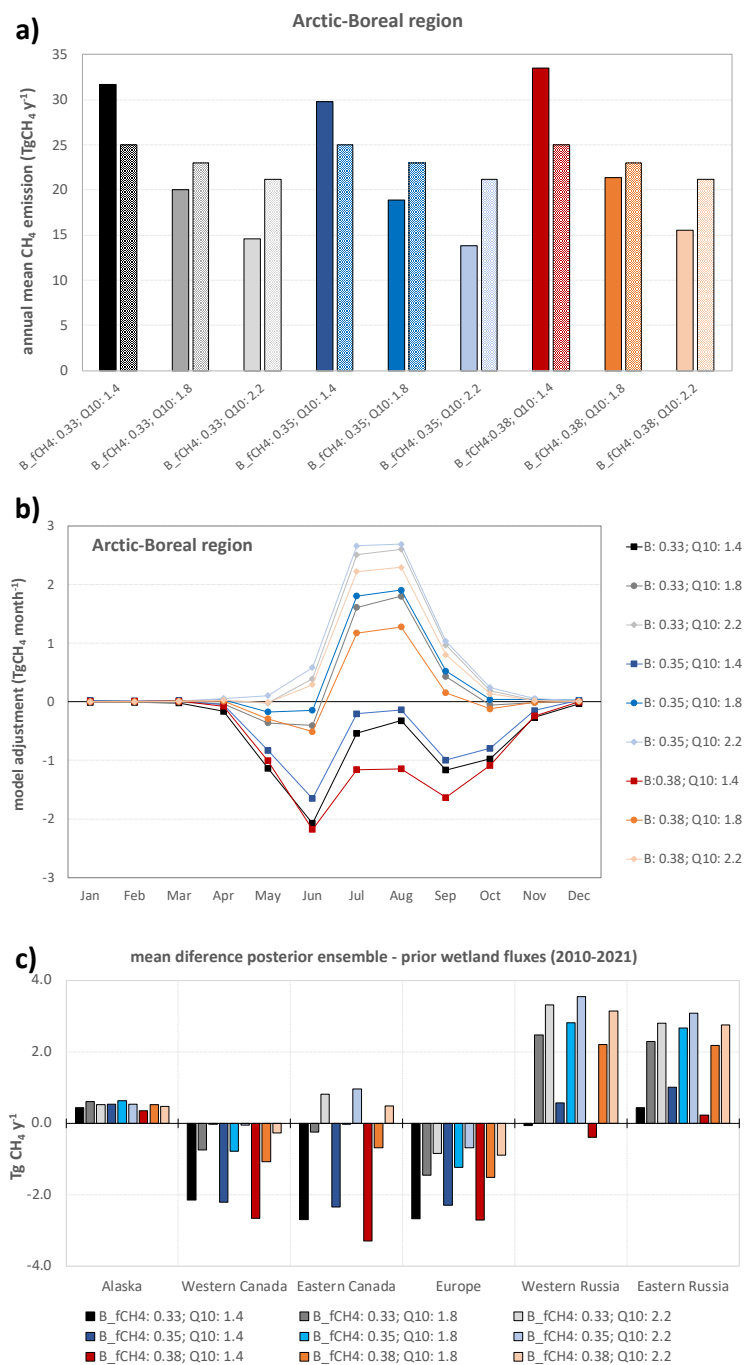


Figure 3. a) Annual mean  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions (prior: full color bars; posterior: light color bars) for the entire Arctic-Boreal region using different values of  $Q_{10}$  parameter and baseline  $f_{\text{CH}_4}$  fraction in JSBACH wetland emissions. b) adjustment of prior fluxes at monthly timesteps for the same model configurations as used in (a). c) annual mean model adjustment (posterior minus prior flux) for each one of the sub-regions. Positive values indicate regions where prior estimates underestimated emissions compared with posterior estimates, while negative values represent areas where prior emissions overestimate  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions compared with the posterior estimates.



### 3.4. Spatial patterns of best-fit model results based on posterior fluxes

CH<sub>4</sub> emissions exhibited spatial variability, and model adjustments were not uniform across the domain. This suggests that the optimal parameterization varies by region and seasons (as discussed in Section 3.3). In some areas, Q<sub>10</sub> values of 1.4 or 2.2 resulted in minimal adjustments (Fig. 3c), outperforming the model using a Q<sub>10</sub> equaling 1.8 that was shown to work best as an average setting across the entire domain. To better evaluate this variability and explore ways to reduce uncertainty in specific regions, we assessed the best parameterization fit with observations at the per grid-cell level (Fig. 4).

In our first analysis, we evaluated the spatial best fit model by keeping the baseline constant at a value of 0.35 and varying the CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values (Fig. 4a). This spatial analysis showed that, in general, in regions with large wetland areas and high annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (for example the Western Siberian Lowlands) a Q<sub>10</sub> value of 1.4 resulted in the smallest model adjustment. As an increase in the Q<sub>10</sub> parameter decreases CH<sub>4</sub> production for temperatures below 295 K, a higher Q<sub>10</sub> value in these regions results in an underestimation of emissions. In contrast, regions such as Europe and northern Canada showed, in general, minimum model adjustments with a Q<sub>10</sub> value of 2.2, suggesting that lower Q<sub>10</sub> value would overestimate wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in these regions. Interestingly, we observed adjustments with different signs in eastern Canada depending on the parameterization. For example, positive adjustments were associated with Q<sub>10</sub> value of 2.2, as the prior emissions were underestimated compared with the estimated flux inferred from atmospheric observations. Additionally, we analyzed the effect of varying baseline flux values while keeping Q<sub>10</sub> constant as 1.8, which showed that in high-emission areas, for example the Western Siberian Lowlands, in general a larger baseline flux value led to the smallest model adjustments (Fig. 4b). When considering the model adjustment for all sensitivity tests (varying both CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> and baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction) as shown in Fig. 4c, we also found a consistent pattern that confirmed the above findings varying only single parameters: the combination of higher baseline fluxes and lower Q<sub>10</sub> value (Q<sub>10</sub> = 1.4) best captured CH<sub>4</sub> dynamics in CH<sub>4</sub> hotspots, as the Western Siberia Lowlands.

The wide range of reported incubation-based Q<sub>10</sub> values for CH<sub>4</sub> production in Arctic and northern wetlands depending on the site, substrate, and season, shows that the temperature sensitivity of CH<sub>4</sub> production varies considerably across environments (Bergman et al., 2000; Roy Chowdhury et al., 2015; Treat et al., 2015). This variability, which could be driven by factors such as vegetation type, organic matter quality, and microbial activity, emphasizes the necessity of models to account for spatial differences in process rates. For example, one synthesis study reported a mean Q<sub>10</sub> value of 1.18 for CH<sub>4</sub> production under Arctic soil conditions (Treat et al., 2015). Roy Chowdhury et al. (2015) used anoxic laboratory incubations of active layer and permafrost samples from the Barrow Environmental Observatory in Alaska and reported a range of Q<sub>10</sub> values from 1.8 to 22. Lupascu et al. (2012) reported that Q<sub>10</sub> values describing the CH<sub>4</sub> production response of peat to a 10 °C temperature change ranged from 1.9 to 3.5 in sedge sites and from 2.4 to 5.8 in *Sphagnum* mire sites, and suggested that using spatially variable CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values could improve the accuracy of CH<sub>4</sub> flux modeling in northern wetlands. Furthermore, Bergman et al. (2000) found that the seasonal average Q<sub>10</sub> values ranged from approximately 4.6 to 9.2 depending on the plant community of the various peat types. Here, our intent is not to directly compare our results with reported incubation-based





371 values, since our adjustments in the CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> refer to the Q<sub>10</sub> of the CH<sub>4</sub>:CO<sub>2</sub> production ratio, as represented in the  
372 model, and could not directly be comparable with CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> from the literature review. In JSBACH, the Q<sub>10</sub> applied  
373 to CH<sub>4</sub> production controls the fraction of CH<sub>4</sub> generated, but the surface emission ratio may still be lower due to oxidation  
374 and transport pathways. Together, these examples highlight that CH<sub>4</sub> production are strongly temperature dependent, and that  
375 the degree of this dependency can differ across regions and time periods. However, most current models cannot fully capture  
376 the influence of these factors due to structural limitations or a lack of detailed input data that is both spatially and temporally  
377 resolved. Consequently, these environmental drivers are often oversimplified or overlooked. Adjusting the CH<sub>4</sub> production  
378 Q<sub>10</sub> values, as we do here, offers a useful initial approach, but it should not be seen as a long-term solution. Ideally, future  
379 model and data developments will enable CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values to adjust dynamically in response to underlying  
380 biophysical conditions, such as shifts in vegetation or organic matter characteristics. This will allow models to operate with a  
381 more generalizable formulation that still captures observed heterogeneity. Although our model experiments identified a single  
382 CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> value that best agrees with observations at the pan-Arctic scale, they also showed that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and  
383 model adjustments vary regionally. Some areas showed a substantial response to different Q<sub>10</sub> values, which further  
384 demonstrates that an approach using a single parameter value is not sufficient.

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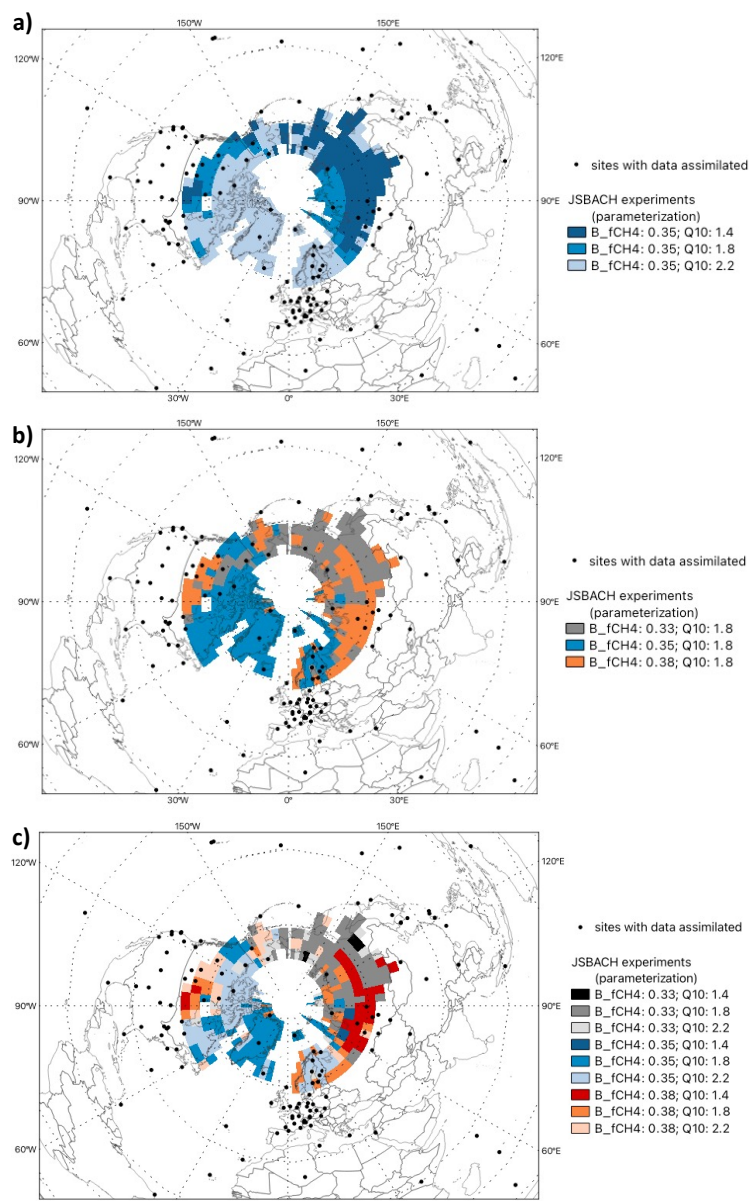


Figure 4. Map of the prior flux setting leading to minimum model adjustment (posterior minus prior fluxes) for the annual mean fluxes at each grid-cell for the Arctic-Boreal region varying the (a) CH<sub>4</sub> production  $Q_{10}$  parameter only, (b) baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction only and (c) both  $Q_{10}$  parameter and baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction.



## 393 4. Conclusions

394 Overall, our parameter sensitivity tests of bottom-up wetland emissions indicate that CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> has a stronger  
 395 effect on emission variability than the baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction. Our bottom-up estimates showed that increasing CH<sub>4</sub> production  
 396 Q<sub>10</sub> from 1.4 to 2.2 decreased the annual mean wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emission in the Arctic–Boreal region by half. In addition, our  
 397 analysis shows that a single Q<sub>10</sub> value cannot capture the complexity of CH<sub>4</sub> emission dynamics across the Arctic-Boreal  
 398 region. CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> values of 1.8 and 2.2 underestimate hotspot emissions, mainly during summer. In contrast, a Q<sub>10</sub>  
 399 value of 1.4 overestimates emissions in regions with lower annual mean wetland emissions, such as e.g., Europe and northern  
 400 Canada. Furthermore, a baseline  $f_{CH_4}$  fraction value of 0.38 led to the smallest model adjustments in CH<sub>4</sub> hotspots. These  
 401 findings emphasize the importance of selecting appropriate parameterizations to accurately represent wetland emissions,  
 402 especially in regions with substantial CH<sub>4</sub> release. Future models should incorporate dynamic, data-driven adjustments to  
 403 reflect underlying environmental controls more accurately. If a varying CH<sub>4</sub> production Q<sub>10</sub> value approach is not feasible for  
 404 this region due to computational cost or model setup constraints, using a Q<sub>10</sub> value of 1.8 provides the more similar CH<sub>4</sub>  
 405 emission estimates compared to the atmospheric data across the entire Arctic-Boreal region.

406 Our analysis shows that atmospheric inverse modeling is a useful tool for evaluating and guiding process-model  
 407 parameterizations when estimating wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. However, it is important to note the limitations of the top-down  
 408 approach. Top-down estimates rely heavily on the spatial and temporal distribution of atmospheric observations incorporated  
 409 into the model. Regions with limited data or gaps, such as eastern Russia, can limit the ability to accurately identify emission  
 410 sources and increase dependence on prior estimates. Global atmospheric inversions often operate at coarser spatial resolutions  
 411 than the process models, and emission variability, including hotspot emissions, reducing the ability to estimate local scale  
 412 process. At the grid-cell scale, assimilating only atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations that is a result of total emissions (the balance  
 413 between all sources and sinks) does not differentiate the overlapping source sectors in a grid-cell. However, differences in the  
 414 spatial patterns and seasonality of emissions can be constrained by atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations in inversions that solve for  
 415 different sources categories (Saunois et al., 2025). Furthermore, errors in atmospheric transport model can propagate into  
 416 emission estimates (Houweling et al., 1999; Locatelli et al., 2013; Schuh et al., 2019). Despite these limitations, our approach  
 417 demonstrated a strong potential to help reduce the discrepancy between bottom-up and top-down estimates, therefore  
 418 improving the accuracy of wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emission estimates.

## 419 5. Authors contributions

420 LSB, MG, GG, VB designed the methodology. LSB wrote the first version of the manuscript and performed analysis and CH<sub>4</sub>  
 421 inversions. GG performed and provided the JSBACH simulations. CR provided guidance and technical support for the inverse  
 422 modelling. CB provided additional input on the discussion of results. All authors contributed with analysis and text. MG  
 423 supervised and acquired funding.



## 6. Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

## 7. Acknowledgements

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