



1 **Year-round methane cycling activity in a European alpine**
2 **peatland with large spatial and temporal variability**

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12 Key words: fen, mountain, CH₄ emission, CH₄ uptake, methanotroph

13 Running title: CH₄ dynamics in alpine peatlands
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15

16 **Abstract**

17
18 Peatlands are well-known emitters of methane (CH₄). European alpine peatlands
19 share certain characteristics with boreal peatlands, despite being located at
20 temperate latitudes, such as a strong seasonality with snowfall in winter and a short
21 summer and growing season. Unlike boreal peatlands, they experience relatively
22 large temperature fluctuations between day and night and are more likely to be
23 sloping. It is unknown how these factors affect CH₄ dynamics. Furthermore, winter
24 CH₄ dynamics have rarely been studied. We quantified the soil-atmosphere CH₄ flux
25 at an alpine peatland in Austria (1670 m a.s.l), with a focus on the spatial and
26 temporal heterogeneity in this ecosystem. In summer, CH₄ emissions were high (0.7
27 - 206 mg m⁻² h⁻¹), whereas in spring, shortly after snowmelt, both CH₄ uptake and
28 emissions were observed at different locations within the alpine peatland (ranging
29 from -4 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ to 11 mg m⁻² h⁻¹). In winter, a local snow-free patch persisted at the
30 peatland due to the year-round influx of 5°C spring water. Both CH₄ uptake and
31 emission were observed in winter, with emissions also observed at snow-covered
32 locations (fluxes ranging from -41 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ to 6 mg m⁻² h⁻¹). The spatial
33 heterogeneity in summer was further investigated by high resolution chamber
34 measurements and soil analyses of temperature, carbon and nitrogen content, and
35 16S rRNA analyses of the microbial community. These showed a grouping that likely
36 resulted from the input of redox-active components by the spring water that entered
37 the peatland in a non-uniform pattern, which was revealed by soil temperature
38 measurements. Overall, our research shows that alpine peatlands are unique
39 systems with complex spatial and temporal patterns, which have strong implications
40 for soil microbiology and CH₄ cycling.



41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 Peatlands and wetlands are, in general, major sources of methane (CH₄) to the
44 atmosphere, due to their anoxic nature and high carbon stocks (Turetsky et al.,
45 2014). CH₄ is produced in the anoxic, carbon-rich soil by methanogenic archaea.
46 Part of this CH₄ may be consumed by methanotrophic bacteria or archaea prior to
47 emissions, but (modelling) studies have shown that a large proportion of the
48 produced CH₄ is emitted to the atmosphere (Arah and Stephen, 1998; Couwenberg
49 and Fritz, 2012). Boreal and arctic wetlands have been studied intensively and have
50 also been shown to emit large amounts of CH₄ (Kuhn et al., 2025). Little research
51 has, however, been conducted at alpine peatlands. Although located at a different
52 latitude, boreal wetlands and alpine peatlands share certain characteristics such as a
53 long winter snow cover and a short growing season. It is however largely unknown
54 whether alpine peatlands behave similarly to boreal wetlands in terms of CH₄
55 dynamics.

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57 High latitude (arctic) and high-altitude (alpine) peatlands have predominantly been
58 studied during the summer season due to the practical limitations of visiting these
59 snow-covered places in the winter season. As a result, global models lack inputs on
60 winter CH₄ fluxes from these systems. A recent modelling study pointed to non-
61 growing season wetland CH₄ emissions as the main source of uncertainty in
62 modelling CH₄ emissions (Kuhn et al., 2025). Winter in the high-alpine region (>1500
63 m a.s.l.) is characterized by a consistent snow cover and temperatures below
64 freezing from November to April (Geosphere Austria, (Matiu et al., 2021)). With May
65 and September and October as the shoulder season, the summer season only
66 covers approximately 3 months per year and is therefore not an accurate
67 representation of the year-round greenhouse gas fluxes. Additional research is
68 required for a proper estimation of the contribution of alpine peatlands to local and
69 national emission estimates.

70

71 Alpine ecosystems are expected to experience further increases in air and soil
72 temperature, as well as changing precipitation regimes, due to climate change
73 (Gobiet et al., 2014). Temperature, soil moisture content, and plant-effects are all
74 known to play a role in wetland CH₄ emission dynamics (Whalen and Reeburgh,
75 1996), but their effects are intertwined and complex. Warming experiments with
76 saturated soils have shown that an increase in temperature can result in an increase
77 of both the CH₄ production and CH₄ oxidation potential (Li et al., 2020). The net
78 effect on the emissions depends on the balance between these two. In natural, non-
79 manipulated settings, CH₄ emissions and temperature have been shown to have a
80 direct relationship(Wei et al., 2015). In a recent modelling assessment on the future
81 of CH₄ emissions in boreal wetlands, both temperature and the lengthening of the
82 growing season were important factors causing increased emissions with future
83 climate warming (Kuhn et al., 2025). The vegetation can affect CH₄ emissions by
84 plant characteristics such as root and shoot length and gas transport potential, but
85 the vegetation composition within wetlands itself is also driven by the water
86 availability and hydrologic variables (Harbert and Cooper, 2017; Koch et al., 2007).
87 The water table depth in itself can create physical limitations for diffusive gas
88 transport, often leading to anoxic conditions in soils. Several studies have shown a
89 correlation between water table depth and CH₄ fluxes (Chen et al., 2013; Koch et al.,



90 2007; Li et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2015), but the mechanisms behind this correlation
91 are often unknown.

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93 We investigate the CH₄ fluxes of an alpine peatland located in the European Alps
94 (1670 m a.s.l.) over different seasons. We also study the high spatial heterogeneity
95 in CH₄ fluxes within this peatland and use soil and water temperature and chemistry
96 to assess the effect of water transport through the peatland on summer and winter
97 CH₄ dynamics. Alpine peatlands are unique in their sloping nature, which likely
98 results in short water residence times and high spring water inputs compared to
99 other peatland systems. We hypothesize that these features have a major impact on
100 CH₄ dynamics in summer, spring and winter.

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103 **2. Material and methods**

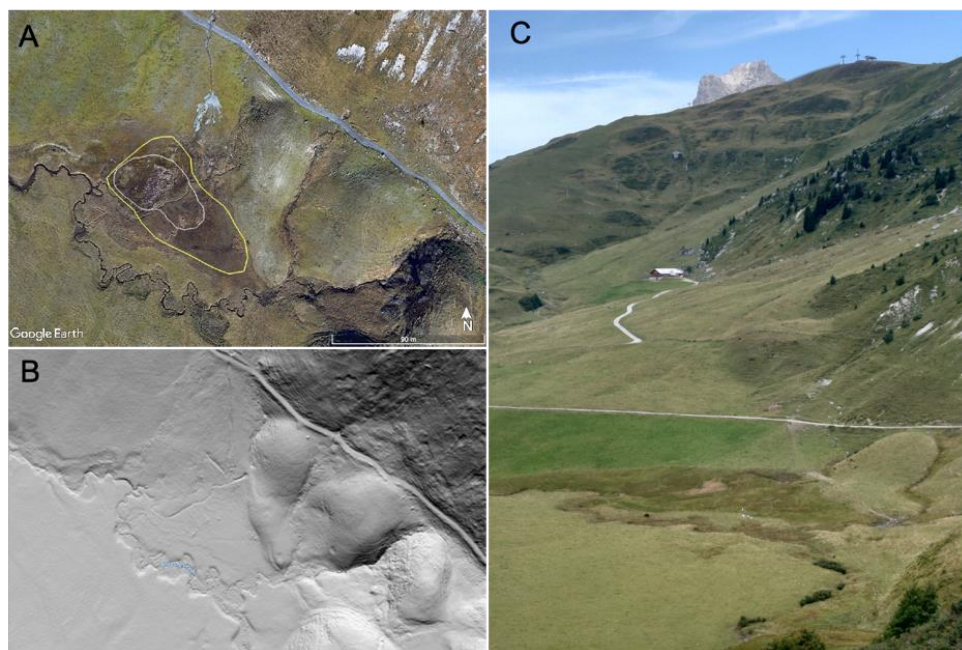
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105 2.1 Site description

106 The Auenfeld alpine peatland is located at 47°14'27.21"N 10° 7'54.74"E (42.4210,
107 10.13200), at 1670 m a.s.l. in Schröcken, Voralberg, Austria. It is ca 0.7 ha in size
108 and located in a wide alpine valley (Fig. 1). The area is part of the Northern
109 Calcareous Alps (GeoSphere Maps). In summer it is used for extensive grazing with
110 cows. In winter it is located within a well-used ski area but is not part of the ski runs
111 or prepared snow paths. Sampling campaigns took place on 9 July 2024, 20
112 February 2025, 13 May 2025, 31 July – 1 Aug 2025, 14-16 August 2025, and 30
113 January 2026. Unless otherwise specified, gas sampling was always performed
114 between 11:00 and 16:00.

115 Maps were created using Google Earth Pro (2025). The peatland experiences a
116 strong seasonality, with a snow cover from on average November until April, with
117 occasional snowfall from September onwards (Fig. A1).

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Fig. 1. Geographic setting of the Auenfeld alpine peatland site. A) Satellite imagery (Imagery © 2026 Airbus, Maxar Technologies, © Swisstopo, Map data © 2026 Google) with in yellow and white the outlines of respectively the spring/summer and winter sampling areas. B) Hillshade representation of the digital elevation model from the 3rd laser scanning survey of Vorarlberg 2023, 25 cm grid resolution (source: GeoAtlas Vorarlberg (GeoAtlas Vorarlberg, n.d.)). C) Picture from August 2025, showing the alpine peatland on the bottom part of the slope, recognizable by its dark green colour. More details on the sampling locations are shown in Fig. A2.

130 2.2 CH₄ gas flux measurements

131 CH₄ fluxes were measured with static chambers, spread over the alpine peatland,
132 within the areas indicated in Fig. 1A and Fig. A2 and as depicted in Fig. A3. The
133 locations were manually selected during each field campaign, chambers were
134 therefore not placed at exactly the same spots during different campaigns, as initial
135 measurements during summer 2024 showed that aiming for the same spots was of
136 limited value (discussed in Results & Discussion). Both the chambers and chamber
137 bases were constructed in-house from transparent polypropylene boxes (Ikea
138 Samla). The volume of the chambers was 5 L, the volume of the bases 2 L. Bases
139 were only used during summer campaigns and were placed in the soil minimum 1
140 hour before measurements. When no chamber bases were used, the chambers
141 were weighed down with single rectangular 725 ml water bottles to ensure a good
142 contact between the chamber edge and the soil. After chamber installation, 4 (spring
143 and summer) or 6 (winter) discreet gas samples were collected over 25 – 60 min.
144 Each gas sample was collected through a sampling port consisting of a butyl stopper
145 with a long (10 cm) needle which' tip was located in the central part of the chamber.
146 The air inside the chamber was mixed prior to each sample collection. Samples (15
147 ml) were used to flush and then fill one 3 ml exetainer vial with 3 ml overpressure.
148 The exetainers were then transported to the laboratory and CO₂ and CH₄ were



149 analysed using a gas chromatograph (Thermo Fisher SCIENTIFIC TRACE 1310,
150 Thermo Fisher Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) equipped with two pulsed discharge
151 ionization detectors (PDD).

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153 Gas flux rates were calculated by linear regression. For both the linear regression
154 analysis and the creation of the boxplots, Rstudio was used (packages dplyr and
155 ggplot2, plus readr and RColorbrewer for enhanced visualisation (Hadley Wickham,
156 2016; Yarberry, 2021)). Only linear regression results with an $R^2 > 0.5$ were included
157 in the analyses, others were discarded. The coefficient of the linear regression was
158 corrected for chamber volume and footprint, the temperature at 14:00 local time
159 (according to the values of measurement station 11305 (Warth, 1478 m) on the day
160 of sampling, Geosphere Austria), and one set value for the atmospheric pressure to
161 calculate the flux in $\text{mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Atmospheric pressure was estimated at 0.83 atm
162 for 1670 m elevation. Seasonal variation in the atmospheric pressure ($\sim \pm 2\%$) was
163 considered negligible relative to other sources of uncertainty in the flux
164 measurements.

165 166 2.3 Soil and vegetation characteristics

167 The Auenfeld peatland was sampled and surveyed for soil and vegetation
168 characteristics at 9 locations within (and 1 location ca. 3 m outside) the peatland
169 area in August 2025 (locations shown in Fig. A2). Each location was photographed
170 and marked. Soil temperature was measured in situ in triplicate at 10 cm depth using
171 a digital soil thermometer. Vegetation assessment was done by estimating the
172 canopy cover of the most prominent vascular plant species and classifying them
173 according to the Braun-Blanquet method (Westhoff and Van Der Maarel, 1978).

174
175 At each sampling site, a soil core of ca. 20 cm deep was cut from the soil with a
176 knife. From these cores, we sampled the soil at 4 – 6 cm depth, stored it in plastic
177 bags and kept it in the dark at 4°C until processing. In the lab, part of the material
178 was dried for 24 - 36 hours at 60°C, after which it was milled using a ball-mill and
179 used for C:N analysis on a multi N/C 2100 (Analytic Jena, Germany, analytical
180 duplicates). Measurements were done in triplicate and values were averaged.

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182 Before and after drying, the samples were weighed to determine the gravimetric
183 water content (calculated as $\text{Weight}_{\text{water}} / \text{Weight}_{\text{dry soil}} * 100\%$). A second part of the
184 material was kept at 4°C until DNA extraction with the Qiagen Powersoil DNA
185 extraction kit. 16S rRNA sequencing was performed by GENEWIZ Azenta Life
186 Sciences Europe, targeting the V3 and V4 regions with primers
187 CCTACGRRBGCASCAGKVRVGAAT (F) and GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAATCC (R),
188 resulting in on average 80.000 reads per sample. The raw data was processed with
189 Genewiz Europe pipelines to produce 16S rRNA OTU tables of the microbial
190 community of each sample. Of one specific location (V7), two individual samples
191 were collected in the field, from the same soil core. These two duplicate samples
192 were processed separately, to assess the variability within the soil core. Both
193 samples were used for DNA extraction and sequencing, and are shown in the
194 manuscript as samples V7-1 and V7-2. As the samples showed high similarity, only
195 one sample of each of the other locations was used for sequencing and analyses.

196 197 198 2.4 Water sampling and analysis



199 Water samples of the springs above the peatland were collected in July 2025.
200 Locations are marked in Fig. A4. The water temperature was measured at the
201 surface with the same digital soil thermometer that was used to record soil
202 temperatures. Water samples were collected directly from the streams into plastic
203 syringes, filtered (0.45 μm syringe filters), placed in 12 mL exetainer vials, and stored
204 at 4°C until analysis. DOC was quantified using a multi N/C 2100 (Analytik Jena,
205 Germany) and using continuous Flow Injection Analysis (AA3, Seal analytical; UK).
206 Major anions and cations were quantified by ion chromatography, using a ion
207 chromatograph Compact IC Flex (Metrohm, Switzerland) equipped with an
208 automated filtration unit and an autosampler. Certified quality controls at different
209 concentrations were measured every 20th sample and at the start and end of each
210 run.

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212 2.5 Statistical analyses and graphics

213 All statistical analyses were performed using R. To assess differences in CH₄ flux
214 among seasons and months, we first evaluated the assumptions of normality and
215 homogeneity of variance. Normality of residuals within each season was tested using
216 the Shapiro-Wilk test, and homogeneity of variances was assessed using Levene's
217 test.

218 Due to the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variance (Levene's
219 test: $F_{2,192} = 5.54$, $p = 0.005$), a non-parametric approach was used. Differences in
220 CH₄ flux between seasons were tested using the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test.
221 Where significant differences were detected ($p < 0.05$), pairwise comparisons were
222 conducted using Dunn's test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

223

224 16S rRNA sequencing data was processed in R to determine the diversity and
225 differences between samples at the family level. Deeper taxonomy was available but
226 was not used for statistical analyses, due to the large number of zeroes in the OTU
227 tables at the genus and species level. To analyze the Bray-Curtis distance and
228 diversity parameters, the R packages phyloseq, vegan, and dplyr were used.

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230 Visualisation of spatial properties, as in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, was done using the
231 packages ggplot2 and scales, with map excerpts from Google Earth (extracted in
232 2026) as background.

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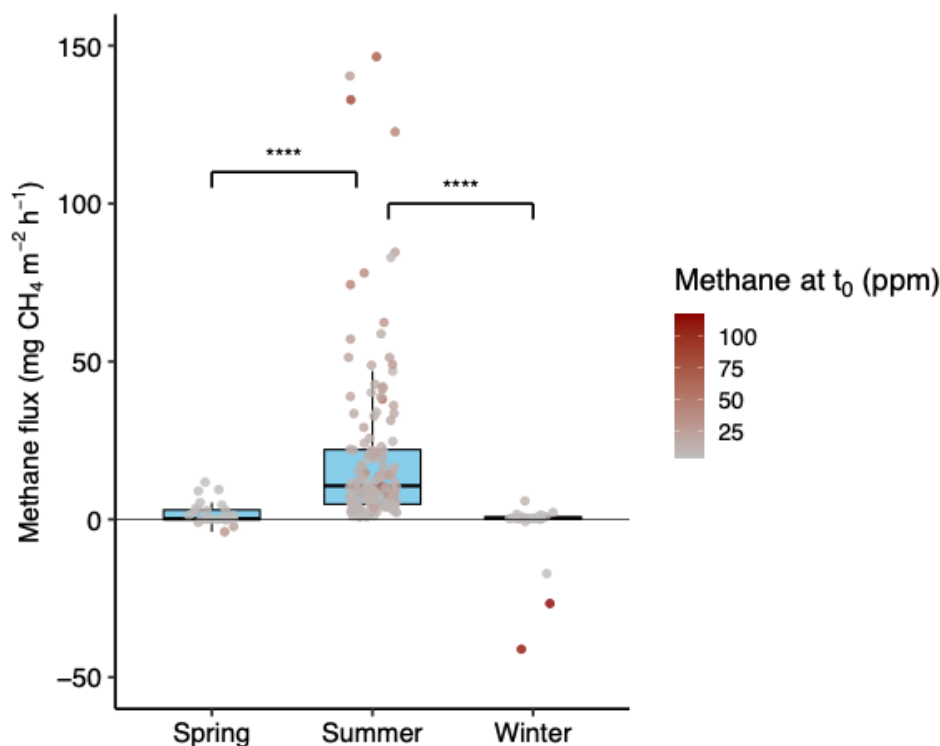
234 **3. Results and discussion**

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236 The Auenfeld alpine peatland, located at 1670 m a.s.l. (Fig. 1), was sampled in high
237 spatial and temporal resolution in both a diurnal and seasonal matter. It was a strong
238 source of CH₄ to the atmosphere in summer (CH₄ emission of 34 mg m² h⁻¹ on
239 average on a warm summer day, 10 mg m² h⁻¹ on a cold summer day, Fig. 2, Fig. 3),
240 with local rates of over 140 mg m² h⁻¹ and 45 mg m² h⁻¹, respectively. These local
241 hotspots emit an amount of CH₄ per m² within one hour that other previously
242 reported alpine peatlands emit over periods of 24 hours to one month. Other
243 research reported summer CH₄ emissions of 2 mg m² h⁻¹ (Monte Bondone, IT,
244 1563m)(Pullens et al., 2016); up to 8 mg m² h⁻¹ (Tibetan plateau, swamps and
245 peatlands below 3000 m, reviewed by Wei et al., 2015(Wei et al., 2015) but also the
246 Swiss Oberaar-fen, at 2320 m and three fens in the Autrian Rotmoos area at 2250 m
247 a.s.l. (Henneberger et al., 2015; Koch et al., 2007)); ± 10 mg m² h⁻¹ at Goeschenen,
248 CH (1915 m) (Liebner et al., 2012) or 3 – 30 mg m² h⁻¹ in a comparison study of 15

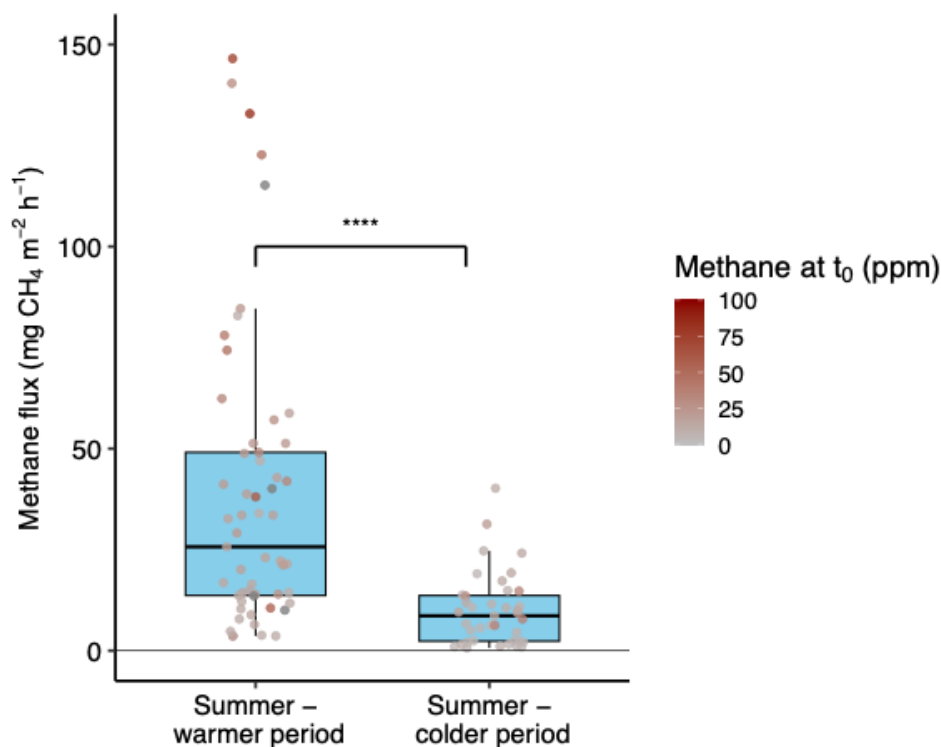


249 Swiss fens (Franchini et al., 2014). Our reported average rates are thus 1.5 – 25
250 times higher than in comparable systems, placing it on the high end of the peatland
251 CH₄ emissions spectrum. Hirota et al. (2005) reported emissions that were on the
252 high end for the Tibetan plateau ($\pm 35 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$). Interestingly, they reported these
253 rates after a livestock grazing experiment, which showed that grazing increased CH₄
254 emissions significantly, most likely due to the resulting shortening of the vegetation.
255 Our peatland is used for extensive grazing, unlike most of the previously investigated
256 alpine fens and bogs. Whether grazing causes our peatland to have emission rates
257 that are so much higher than reported in other studies needs to be determined.
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Fig. 2. CH₄ fluxes from the Auenfeld peatland soil during different seasons (spring n = 26, summer n = 144, winter n = 26, only fluxes with an R² of >0.5 are included). The colours of the points indicate the CH₄ concentration in the static chambers at the t₀ sampling point. Post-hoc Dunn's tests with Bonferroni correction revealed that summer CH₄ flux differed significantly from both Spring (p < 0.001) and Winter (p < 0.001), while no significant difference was detected between spring and winter. One outlier in the summer period (flux of 206 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹) was omitted to enhance the visibility of the data points in the lower areas of the graph.



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272 Fig. 3. CH₄ fluxes from the Auenfeld peatland soil during two different summer periods, one in
273 2024 and one in 2025 (cold n = 39, warm n = 58, only fluxes with an R² of >0.5 are included).
274 One outlier in the warm summer period (flux of 206 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹) was omitted to enhance the
275 visibility of the data points in the lower areas of the graph. The colours of the points indicate the
276 CH₄ concentration in the static chambers at the t₀ sampling point. Post-hoc Dunn's tests with
277 Bonferroni correction revealed that the CH₄ flux differed significantly between the two
278 measurement periods (p < 0.05). The two winter seasons that were sampled, in 2025 and 2026,
279 did not differ significantly.
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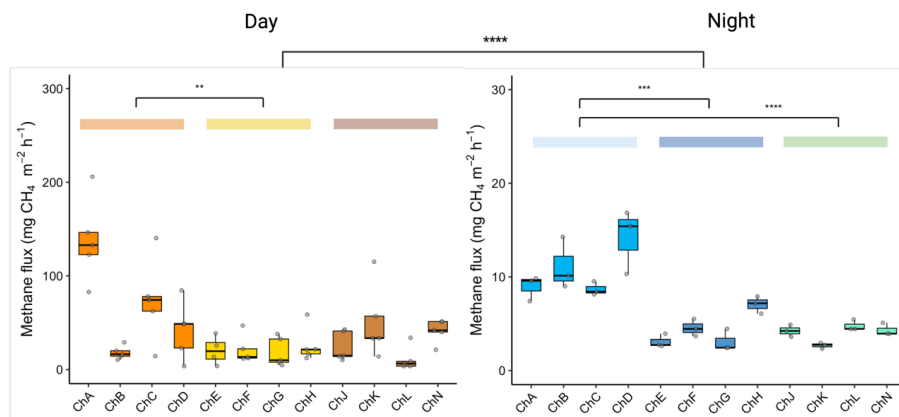
281 3.1 Spatial variability in CH₄ emissions and soil characteristics

282 3.1.1 CH₄ emissions

283 Although our summer CH₄ emissions were consistently high, we observed a large
284 spatial variation (Fig. 4). Our detailed summer study design investigated both the
285 spatial variability within 1 m² and within the whole peatland. Overall, the emission
286 rates during daytime ranged from 11 – 138 mg m² h⁻¹ on average (Fig. 4). The static
287 chambers were divided into three groups that were 5-10 m apart and each contained
288 four chambers within 1 m² (see Fig. A2 and A3 for the setup and location of the
289 chambers). The CH₄ emissions from group 1 differed significantly from those of
290 group 2 during the daytime (p < 0.01), but not from that of group 3 (Fig. 4).
291 Interestingly, also the variation within the groups was large, despite the small
292 distance between the chambers within one group (Fig. 4). No significant differences
293 between individual chambers were found, likely due to the number of observations
294 per chamber (n=5), but the differences in means and medians indicated that the
295



296 small-scale variation seemed as important as the larger scale variation between the
 297 sites. During the night, the emission rates were significantly lower than during the
 298 day (2.7 – 14.2 mg m² h⁻¹; Fig. 4, p < 0.0001) but the large spatial variation
 299 persisted, with significantly different rates between the groups, and a large variation
 300 between chambers within the 1 m² groups. The chambers that were on average
 301 emitting most CH₄ during the day (Chambers A, C, K, N), were not the same
 302 chambers that on average emitted the most CH₄ during the night (Chambers B, D).
 303 Significant day-night differences in summertime CH₄ emissions have also been
 304 reported for boreal peatlands and Tibetan alpine peatlands (Long et al., 2010; Peng
 305 et al., 2019), where it was attributed to the air and/or soil temperature difference
 306 between day and night.
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311 Fig. 4. Spatial diversity of CH₄ fluxes in the Auenfeld peatland in July 2024, during the day (left)
 312 and night (right). Note the difference in the y axis. Boxes of the same colour indicate that those
 313 chambers were located within 1 m². The three m²-groups were 5 – 10 m apart from one another,
 314 as shown in the map of Fig. A2. For a picture of the setup, see Fig. A3. Groups that were
 315 significantly different are indicated (** p<0.01, *** p<0.0005, **** p<0.0001).
 316

317 Small scale spatial differences in CH₄ fluxes within peatland sites were also
 318 observed by (Wei et al., 2015) in a swamp meadow, where they were directly
 319 correlated with soil moisture content, which ranged from 60 to 80 v%. In our
 320 peatland, the moisture content is expected to be high throughout, as the
 321 groundwater table was never observed to be deeper than 10 cm, and is therefore
 322 unlikely to be the only factor explaining the spatial heterogeneity in CH₄ emissions,
 323 as the correlation between soil moisture and CH₄ emissions disappeared above a
 324 soil moisture content of 80% in the study of (Wei et al., 2015). Different vegetation is
 325 known to have different gas transport characteristics and may therefore influence
 326 gas dynamics locally. Lai et al. (2014) reported different CH₄ emissions based on the
 327 dominant vegetation at different sites within a Canadian peatland, similarly to
 328 (Heiskanen et al., 2021) for a Finnish peatland. This effect may be further enhanced
 329 by grazing (Hirota et al., 2005). The one study on spatial variability that was
 330 performed in the European Alps focusses on the variation between different fens, not
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331 on variation within one fen (Franchini et al., 2014), and these results are therefore
332 hard to extrapolate to our study.

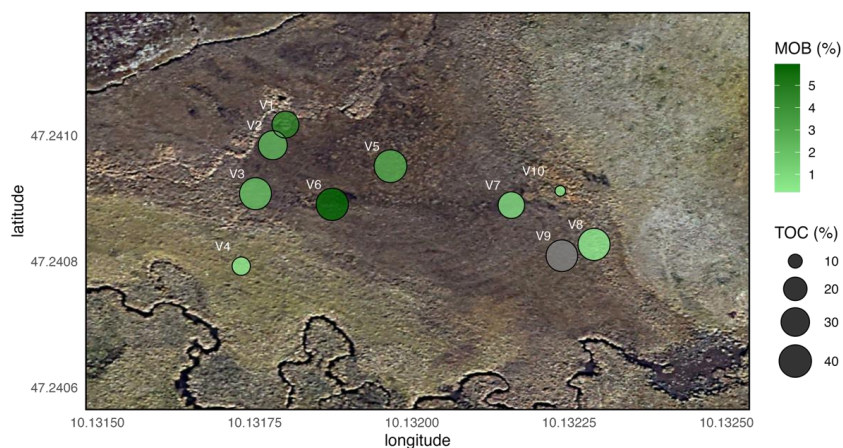
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334 3.1.2 Soil characteristics

335 To understand the factors controlling spatial heterogeneity in our peatland
336 ecosystem, we analysed several soil characteristics. These also showed a high
337 spatial variability. We sampled the soil at 4 – 6 cm depth and found a large variation
338 in gravimetric water content (371 – 1105%) and in soil carbon and nitrogen content
339 (TOC of 9 – 41%, TIC 0.04 - 6.2%, C:N ratio 40 – 98; Fig. 5 & 6, SI Table A2). A
340 vegetation survey also showed large differences within the peatland, despite its
341 small size (SI Table A2, also visible as differences in the dominant colour of the
342 vegetation in Fig. 1C). To study the cause of this large variation on an
343 unconventionally small scale, we measured soil temperature within the peatland and
344 the temperature of its water sources during a warm and sunny summer day (air
345 temperature 22°C). The soil temperature at 10 cm depth ranged from 7.8 to 20.8°C
346 within the peatland (Fig. 6) and showed a clear spatial pattern that aligned with the
347 observed vegetation patterns. The water that flows upstream and downstream of the
348 peatland has a temperature of 4.8 – 6.3°C (data not shown, sampling locations
349 visible in Fig. A4). Directly above this peatland is a steep slope (Fig. 1C) with several
350 water springs at the bottom (conceptual figure in Fig. A4). These springs lay just
351 above the peatland and are present year-round.

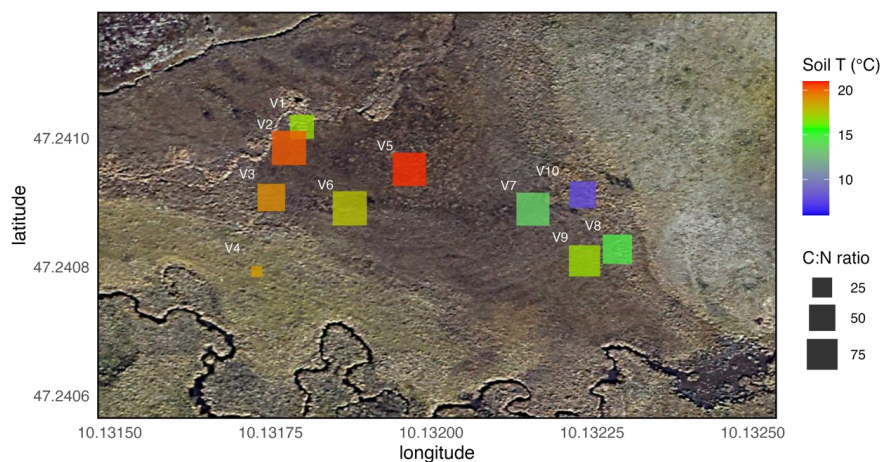
352 The soil temperature data, that differs strongly between different locations of the
353 peatland and is remarkably low for a warm summer period (Fig. 6), suggests that the
354 peatland is fed by the spring water, but not in a homogeneous matter. The low
355 temperatures of the soil, despite the warm and sunny weather in the week before the
356 measurements were taken, indicate that the spring water cools the soil in specific
357 locations. A conceptual figure of the water flow, hypothesized based on the soil
358 temperature, is available in Fig. A4. When measuring the solutes in the spring water
359 sampled above the peatland (for locations, see Fig. A4), we observed nitrate and
360 sulfate, albeit in low concentrations (0.6 – 1.0 mg NO₃ L⁻¹, 3.5 – 5.3 mg SO₄ L⁻¹, n =
361 3). These, along with potential oxygen delivered with the water influx, likely affect
362 biochemical cycling (including CH₄ cycling) in the peatland soil. DOC concentrations
363 in the spring water were low (4.9 – 5.6 mg C L⁻¹, n=3). The soil temperature variation
364 that we observed suggests that certain locations receive more spring water inputs
365 than others, and that the residence time of the water in the peatland is most likely
366 short. Overall, we hypothesize that the spatially heterogeneous influx of spring water
367 into this peatland is a result of the complex topography of the area surrounding the
368 peatland and the sloping nature of the peatland itself, which are both common for the
369 European Alps, and is the reason for the high spatial variability in CH₄ flux that was
370 observed during the summer season (Fig. 1, 2, 3). More research, including
371 hydrological modelling, would be needed to further test this hypothesis.

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Fig. 5. CH₄ oxidizing bacteria (MOB) relative abundance (colour scale, as % of 16S rRNA reads) and total organic carbon (TOC, symbol size, as % of dry soil mass) content of soil samples of 4-6 cm depth of different locations within the alpine peatland. No microbial community data is available for location V9. For information on the microbial groups that contributed to the total MOB abundance, see SI Table A1. V4 is a reference location outside the peat area. Values are reported in SI Table A2. (Background map - Imagery © 2026 Airbus, Maxar Technologies, © Swisstopo, Map data © 2026 Google)



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Fig. 6. Soil temperature at 10 cm depth (colour scale) and carbon to nitrogen ratio of soil samples of 4-6 cm depth (symbol size) of different locations within the alpine peatland. V4 is a reference location outside the peat area. Values are reported in SI Table A2. (Background map - Imagery © 2026 Airbus, Maxar Technologies, © Swisstopo, Map data © 2026 Google)

3.1.3 Soil microbial community and CH₄ cycling organisms

In addition to the CH₄ emissions and the soil characteristics, also the soil microbial community composition varied within the peatland. The same samples that were used for the physicochemical soil characterization were used for DNA extraction and microbial community analysis (Fig. A5).

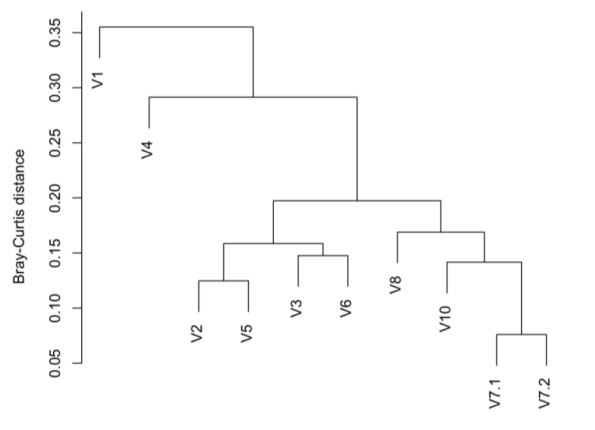


392 Using Bray-Curtis distance analysis combined with hierarchical clustering, we can
393 observe a grouping of the samples, based on the composition of the entire soil
394 microbial community (Fig. 7). Sample V4, which is located outside of the peatland
395 (Fig. A2), is an outlier on the dendrogram, which confirms the hypothesis that the
396 peatland conditions (permanently water logged, reduced environment) shape a
397 significantly different microbial community than non-peatland conditions, and that
398 these soil characteristics are more important in determining the microbial community
399 than other environmental characteristics that prevail in the entire area, such as
400 climate or land use. Interestingly, also sample V1 is a strong outlier, even though this
401 sample is spatially very close to other sampling locations within the peatland. Likely,
402 the specific conditions created by the plant community in this location (dominated by
403 *Carex rostrata*, Table A2), in combination with the hydrological conditions (Fig. A4),
404 creates unique conditions for the soil microbial community. When considering the
405 other sampling locations, two clusters can be noticed: V2 – V6, which are all located
406 in the lower and middle part of the peatland, elevation-wise, and V7 – V10, which are
407 all located at the higher part of the peatland. V7.1 and V7.2 are duplicate samples of
408 the same location, which were processed independently. Their tight grouping
409 indicates that variability within one location is small and provides confidence to the
410 grouping of the other samples.

411 Interestingly, this observed grouping in locations based on their elevation seems to
412 reflect that the spatial location in the peatland in terms of water influx is more
413 important in shaping the microbial community than soil characteristics such as the
414 TOC or C:N ratio (compare Fig. 5, 6 and 7). This supports our hypothesis that the
415 influx of spring water has a large importance in shaping the biological conditions in
416 the soil, leading to differences in microbial community structure, and greenhouse gas
417 emissions.

418
419 The elevation-based grouping also appears when analysing the CH₄-related
420 microbial community. The lower- and middle locations show higher abundances of
421 CH₄ oxidizing bacteria and methanogenic archaea (2.0 – 6.0% MOB, 0.12 – 0.36 %
422 methanogens) than the higher locations (0.3 – 0.9% MOB, 0% methanogens). A
423 correlation between methanotroph and methanogen abundance was observed (Fig.
424 A6, $R^2 = 0.85$). In earlier studies on methanotrophic and methanogenic
425 microorganisms in alpine peatlands, opposing trends in methanotroph and
426 methanogen abundance were observed instead (Tian et al., 2024). It must be noted
427 that our results reflect the microbial community at 4-6 cm depth. It is likely that higher
428 relative abundances of methanogens can be found deeper in the soil, where
429 conditions are more reduced, and that higher abundances of methanotrophs can be
430 found in the topsoil, where more oxygen is available. No statistically significant
431 correlation between soil characteristics (TOC, TIC, C:N, temperature) and the CH₄
432 cycling community was found, possibly due to the low sample size. In previous
433 studies on methanogen and methanotroph abundances in alpine soils, soil
434 temperature explained the variation found between locations along a hydrological or
435 elevation gradient (Hofmann et al., 2016; Tian et al., 2024). No direct comparison
436 between CH₄ fluxes and the microbial community of our study site could be made,
437 because samples were not taken at exactly identical locations and/or sampling
438 times.

439



440

441

442 **Fig. 7.** Hierarchical clustering based on Bray-Curtis distance analyses of the microbial

443 community, classified to family level, in the alpine peatland samples (locations indicated in Fig.

444 4). Samples V7.1 and V7.2 are duplicate samples from the same location (see Methods). Sample

445 V4 is a reference location outside the peat area.

446

447 **3.2 Weather-dependent and seasonal variability**

448

449 3.2.1 Weather effects on summer CH₄ emissions

450 Besides the spatial and diurnal diversity that was observed in our summer campaign,

451 a large variation was also observed between two separate summer sampling

452 campaigns (Fig. 3) that differed in weather conditions during and in the week before

453 the measurements. The warmer summer measurement campaign had an average

454 air temperature of 15.7°C during the 4 days before the measurement, with on

455 average 6.5 h of sunshine per day, whereas the 4 days before the colder summer

456 campaign had an average air temperature of 9.7°C, with only 0.8 h of sunshine per

457 day (GeoSphere Austria). We observed significantly higher CH₄ emissions during the

458 warmer measurement period, compared to the colder period (Fig. 3, $p < 0.05$). Both

459 periods were in the alpine summer months (July – Aug). The week-long warmer

460 period likely resulted in a higher topsoil temperature, compared to a week-long

461 colder period, as other research in wet alpine fen soils showed a strong response of

462 the soil temperature at 5 cm depth with time of day, following air temperature and

463 solar influx (Koch et al., 2007). In that study, the temperature at 15 cm depth showed

464 only a very limited response, and the temperature at 35 cm showed no diurnal trend

465 at all. Microbial processes in soils are known to generally increase at higher

466 temperatures, due to higher enzymatic activities (Barnard et al., 2020). It is, however,

467 unknown which process rates are specifically increasing with higher temperatures in

468 our alpine peatlands. Other weather-related factors that may have affected the CH₄

469 flux may be a result of precipitation. We observed an increased water flow in

470 waterways above the peatland, which may have resulted in an increased influx of

471 water into the peatland, creating less reducing conditions and therefore reducing the

472 methanogenic potential and/or increasing the methanotrophic potential. Previous

473 studies have shown an effect of the water table depth on the methanogenic and

474 methanotrophic community in Tibetan alpine peatlands (Tian et al., 2024).

475

476 3.2.2 Seasonal dynamics



477 *Post-snowmelt (spring): CH₄ uptake and emission*

478 During the spring period, shortly after snowmelt, the vegetation biomass in the alpine
479 peatland is small (Fig. A1). We measured CH₄ fluxes in several locations within the
480 peatland during this post-snowmelt season and again observed large spatial
481 differences. Both CH₄ emission and CH₄ uptake occurred, measured fluxes ranged
482 from emissions of 12 mg m² h⁻¹ to uptake rates of -4 mg m² h⁻¹, all within the 0.7 ha
483 peatland area (Fig. 2). The CH₄ emissions were significantly different from the
484 summer period ($p < 0.001$). Li et al. (2020) also reported CH₄ uptake from a saturated
485 alpine soil on the Tibetan plateau during the spring season, although the fluxes
486 reported in that study were significantly lower (-0.01 to +0.04 mg CH₄ m² h) than the
487 fluxes we report. Pullens et al. (2016) reported an increase in CH₄ emissions after
488 snow melt, rather than a decrease. Seasonal dynamics were also studied by
489 (Drollinger et al., 2019) using eddy covariance tower flux data from a peatland in the
490 lower alpine area (630m elevation). They reported positive fluxes year-round, with
491 lowest fluxes in winter and highest in summer, with no noticeable change in
492 spring/snow melt season.

493

494 *Winter: Snow-free patches as key CH₄ cycling locations*

495 Previous research on CH₄ fluxes from alpine soils, wetlands and peatlands has had a
496 strong focus on the snow-free season. The Auenfeld peatland, although located at
497 1670 m and surrounded by snow-covered soils (Fig. A1), remains partially snow-free
498 during the winter season. This phenomenon was observed in the field during our
499 sampling campaigns (2024, 2025 and 2026, 2024 data not shown) and is also visible
500 on historical winter aircraft images of this location (GeoAtlas Voralberg). Soil
501 temperature measurements showed that the soil temperature at the snow-free area
502 was consistently elevated compared to the surrounding snow-covered soil (2 - 4.6°C
503 in the snow-free peatland, versus -0.1 - 1.0°C in the snow-covered peatland areas).
504 The soil temperature in the snow-free patches was close to that of the spring water
505 that flows through the peatland and that has a constant year-round temperature of 4
506 - 7°C. We therefore hypothesize that the spring water is warming up the alpine
507 peatland soils in winter, creating snow-free areas.

508

509 We are the first to measure CH₄ dynamics at an alpine peatland with these snow
510 dynamics. Although several locations in winter were sources of CH₄, certain
511 locations within the snow-free patches showed CH₄ uptake, with uptake rates of up
512 to 41 mg m² h⁻¹ (Fig. 2). Previous research on snow-free peatlands has either only
513 included locations that have an ice layer instead of snow on the soil surface (Chen et
514 al., 2008; Gazovic et al., 2010) or were studies on artificial snow cover manipulation,
515 without any CH₄ flux measurements (Bombonato and Gerdol, 2012; Robroek et al.,
516 2013). The effect of the snow-free nature of this alpine peatland in winter on the
517 long-term soil carbon storage is currently unknown. Sites with early snowmelt have
518 been shown to have higher organic matter decomposition rates than sites with late
519 snow melt (Venn et al., 2021), but the higher soil temperatures in this peatland could
520 also support plant and algae growth which may enhance carbon uptake and storage.
521 Surprisingly, we also observed CH₄ emissions from the parts of the peatland that
522 were covered in deep snow (8.3 - 26 mg m² h⁻¹, 73 - 130 cm snow, $n = 5$). Although
523 the alpine peatland CH₄ emissions were significantly ($p < 0.001$) lower in winter than
524 in summer, they are still relevant given the long winter period at these altitudes of the
525 European Alps.

526



527 **3.2.3 CH₄ sinks and sources**

528 The observed CH₄ uptake rates in our spring and winter campaigns are potentially
529 underestimating the CH₄ sink potential of these soils, as CH₄ may likely become
530 limiting during 25 – 60 minute chamber deployments. In the chambers that were
531 deployed in spring and winter, a correlation between the starting concentration at t₀
532 and the CH₄ uptake/emission rate was observed (R² = 0.71). It is therefore likely that
533 the CH₄ uptake potential of these soils is higher than estimated based on our
534 measurements. The high starting concentrations that were observed in some of our
535 chambers was likely created due to the accidental release of trapped CH₄ bubbles
536 from the soil, upon chamber placement. In summer, no net CH₄ uptake was
537 observed, neither in chambers with high nor low starting concentrations (Fig. 2).
538 Overall, our data shows that the CH₄ emissions and uptake patterns are complex
539 and dependent on both hydrological and biogeochemical factors. More research is
540 needed to detangle the effects of hydrology, vegetation characteristics, and
541 physicochemical soil characteristics. In addition, more research is needed to
542 estimate the contribution of alpine peatlands to overarching alpine greenhouse gas
543 balances. Our study shows high CH₄ emission rates that indicate that alpine
544 peatlands should not be ignored when estimating regional or national greenhouse
545 gas balances.

546

547 **4. Data availability**

548 All data and R scripts will be made available in the public repository Zenodo upon
549 publication.

550

551 **5. Author contribution**

552 SvG designed the study, wrote the first draft, and lead the data interpretation. FJ and
553 SK performed field experiments and laboratory analyses. AK contributed to the
554 experimental design and the writing and proofreading of the manuscript.
555 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

556

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564

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569

570 **8. References**

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703 **Table A2.** Soil characteristics across the peatland. The soil temperature reported here was
704 measured at 10 cm depth. GWC: gravimetric water content, TOC: total organic carbon as % of
705 dry soil weight, TIC: Total inorganic carbon as % of dry soil weight. * indicates surface water at
706 this location. V4-NP: Non-peatland location, as reference. The location of the other samples can
707 be found in Fig. A2.
708

	Soil T (°C)	GWC (%)	Dominant vegetation	TOC (%)	TIC (%)	C:N ratio
V1*	16.9	374	Carex rostrata	27	0.1	40
V2	20.2	1034	Trichophorum cespitosum	31	0.1	99
V3	19.1	775	Menyanthes trifoliata and Equisetum palustre	39	0.1	55
V4 - NP	18.8	141	Lotus corniculatus aggr. and Alchemilla sp.	13	0.1	12
V5	20.8	972	Trichophorum cespitosum	41	0.1	91
V6*	17.7	1105	Carex rostrata	40	0.0	98
V7	13.7	595	Carex davalliana and Equisetum palustre	26	2.3	89
V8	14.6	931	Carex rostrata and Chaerophyllum hirsutum	39	0.1	65
V9	17.0	1040	Equisetum palustre	38	0.1	77
V10	7.8	371	Ranunculus aconitifolius	9	6.2	52

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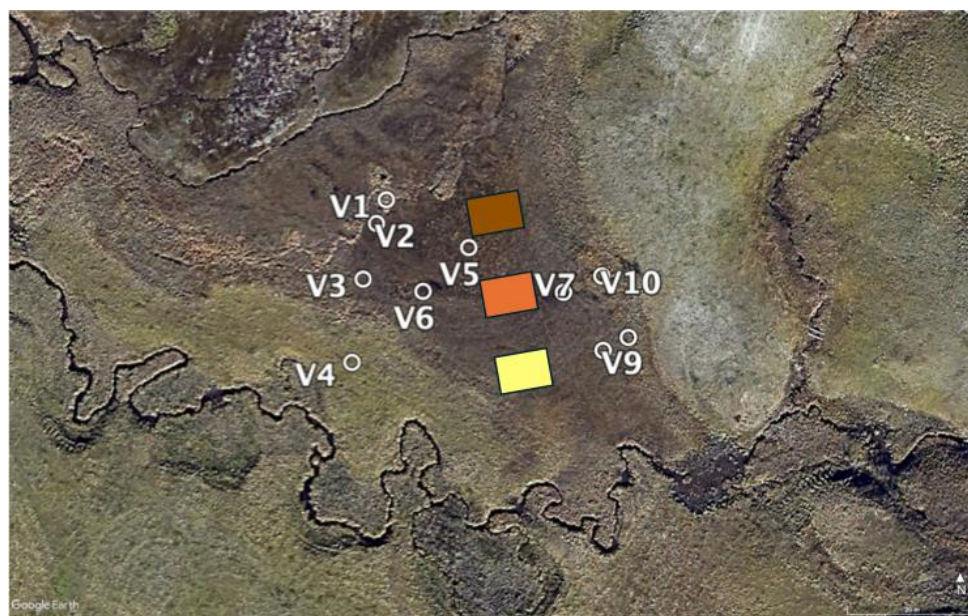
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Fig. A1. The Auenfeld alpine peatland sampling site across different seasons.



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Fig. A2. Sampling locations within the alpine peatland. The coloured boxes represent the sampling areas of July 2024, of which the data is displayed in Fig. 3,

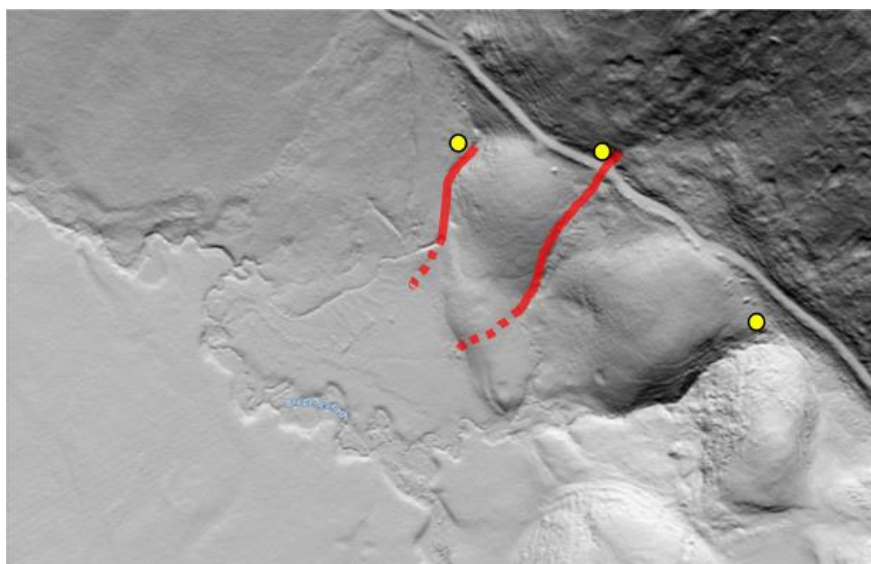


721 and a picture is shown in Fig. A3. In each coloured box, 4 chambers were placed
722 within 1 m². Locations V1-V10 were used for soil sampling. The chamber
723 measurements during other campaigns (spring, winter, summer 2025) were spread
724 out over the summer sampling or winter sampling area indicated in Fig. 1.
725 (Background map - Imagery © 2026 Airbus, Maxar Technologies, © Swisstopo, Map
726 data © 2026 Google)
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Fig. A3. Pictures of the group-wise setup of the chambers within the Auenfeld alpine peatland. Left: overview with the three groups visible. Right: the setup of the 4 chambers within one group.



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Fig. A4. Hypothesized hydrology of the alpine peatland. Red lines indicate the expected water influx paths. Solid lines indicate observed water flow in the field,

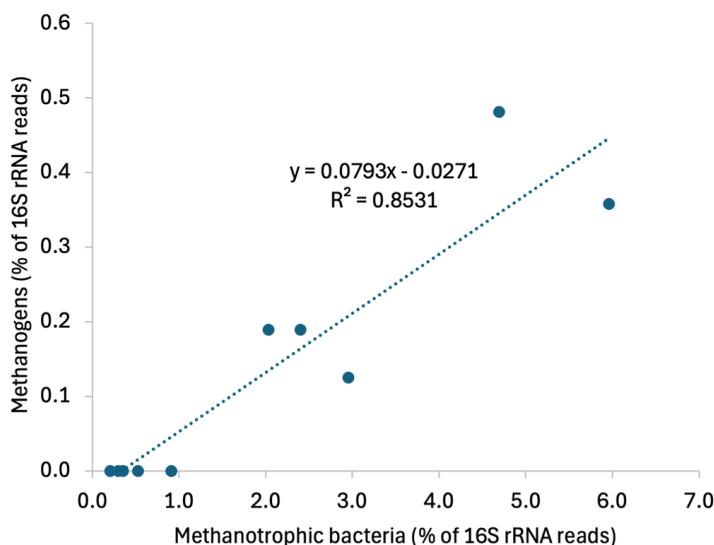


739 dashed lines indicate suspected below ground water flow. Yellow circles indicate
 740 water sampling locations for water chemistry.
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Fig. A5. Microbial community classified at order level (relative abundance, % of 16S rRNA reads) of 4-6 cm depth soil samples of the alpine peatland. All orders that had at least 1% abundance in at least 2 of the 10 samples, are shown. V7-1 and V7-2 represent duplicate samples from one soil core.



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Fig. A6. Correlation between the abundance of methanotrophic bacteria and methanogenic archaea in soil samples of the alpine peatland.