



Divergent predictions of northern peatland responses to climate warming and elevated CO₂: A multi-model intercomparison at the SPRUCE experiment

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45 Abstract

46 Peatlands cover only ~3% of Earth's land surface yet store ~30% of global soil carbon (C), making
47 them critical components of the terrestrial C cycle and influential regulators of C-climate
48 feedbacks. However, their responses to climate warming and elevated CO₂ remain highly
49 uncertain, in part because Earth system models represent peatland processes with varying levels
50 of complexity and realism, and because peat C pools turn over on centennial to millennial
51 timescales that challenge model evaluation. Here, we present results from the SPRUCE (Spruce
52 and Peatland Responses Under Changing Environments) Model Intercomparison Project
53 (SPRUCE-MIP), which evaluates 15 terrestrial ecosystem models against observations from a
54 long-term whole-ecosystem warming and CO₂-enrichment experiment at an ombrotrophic bog in
55 northern Minnesota, USA. Models were driven by observed meteorology from in situ warming
56 treatments spanning +0 to +9 °C, at either ambient or elevated CO₂ (+500 ppm). Simulated net
57 ecosystem exchange (NEE), net primary productivity (NPP), heterotrophic respiration (HR), and
58 methane (CH₄) fluxes were benchmarked against multi-year observations. Model predictions
59 exhibit a large spread in both baseline C balance, ranging from strong sinks to strong sources under
60 +0 °C warming, and temperature sensitivity, indicating substantial uncertainty in predicting
61 peatland C responses to environmental forcing. Across the ensemble, models fall into four distinct
62 functional response types: (i) models that simulate peatlands as net C sources across all warming
63 and CO₂ conditions; (ii) models that transition from C sinks to sources under warming irrespective
64 of CO₂ level; (iii) models that transition only under ambient CO₂ but remain C sinks under elevated
65 CO₂, reflecting strong CO₂ fertilization effects; and (iv) models that maintain persistent sinks or
66 near-neutral C balance even under extreme warming. While most models predict enhanced NPP
67 under elevated CO₂ across all warming treatments, SPRUCE observations show little or no NPP
68 enhancement under elevated CO₂ at the +0 and +2.25 °C warming levels, with a positive CO₂
69 fertilization effect emerging only under stronger warming. This discrepancy highlights persistent
70 model biases in representing interactions between warming and CO₂ responses. Process-based
71 analysis further indicates that divergence in modeled responses is associated with differences in
72 vegetation structure (light competition and moss representation), nutrient cycling (nitrogen and
73 phosphorus), and dynamic peat representation. These structural differences systematically
74 influence ecosystem productivity, heterotrophic respiration, and net C balance across the model
75 ensemble. An illustrative parameter sensitivity analysis using the SPRUCE-specific Energy



76 Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land Model (ELM-SPRUCES) further shows that parameter
77 choices can also modulate the magnitude of simulated responses. Together, these results
78 demonstrate that peatland responses to warming and elevated CO₂ are highly sensitive to model
79 structure, parameterization, and process coupling, highlighting the need for improved
80 representation of key peatland processes to reduce uncertainty in Earth system projections. The
81 SPRUCES experimental framework provides a unique benchmark for evaluation and improving
82 process representation and constraining near-term peatland response to environmental change,
83 thereby strengthening confidence in longer-term C-climate projections.

84 **Keywords:** peatland carbon cycling; climate warming; elevated CO₂; methane emissions;
85 ecosystem modeling

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95 **1. Introduction**

96 Recent synthesis efforts and observational datasets continue to highlight the large-scale carbon (C)
97 storage role of northern peatlands (Crichton et al., 2025; Loisel et al., 2021; Treat et al., 2014).
98 Due to slow organic matter decomposition under anoxic and water-saturated conditions, peatlands
99 have accumulated large stores of soil C over millennia (Yu, 2012). Thus, despite occupying ~ 3%
100 of the Earth's terrestrial surface, these unique and climate sensitive ecosystems account for about
101 one third of the terrestrial soil C pool (Dargie et al., 2017; Leifeld and Menichetti, 2018; Ribeiro



102 et al., 2021; Skye et al., 2026; Xu et al., 2018). This long-term C storage capacity underscores the
 103 outsized role of peatlands in regulating earth system and highlights the need to improve
 104 mechanistic understanding and predictive capacity by integrating observations with process-based
 105 modeling (Duque et al., 2021; Treat et al., 2014).

106 While intact peatlands generally function as net C sinks, warming, permafrost thaw, water table
 107 fluctuations, and anthropogenic disturbance can shift them to net sources of greenhouse gases
 108 (Frolking et al., 2011; (IPCC), 2023; Loisel et al., 2021; Zhao and Zhuang, 2023). Empirical
 109 projections based on relationships between peat carbon accumulation over the last millennium and
 110 climate suggest that, under two Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) scenarios (RCP2.6
 111 and RCP8.5), the global peatland C sink may initially strengthen with warming but begin to
 112 weaken around the end of the 21st century, shifting the peatland response toward a positive climate
 113 feedback (Gallego-Sala et al., 2018). Consistent with these projections, warming experiments in
 114 boreal peatlands have reported CO₂ and CH₄ emissions several times higher than historical C
 115 accumulation rates (Hanson et al., 2020). Warming-induce decrease in peatland water tables
 116 further reveals complex, and sometimes opposing responses, with increases in CO₂ emissions
 117 partially offset by decreases in CH₄ emissions, with variable impacts on gross primary productivity
 118 (GPP) (Huang et al., 2021; Kwon et al., 2022; McDonald et al., 2023). Additional drivers including
 119 changes in litter inputs and soil decomposition rates, seasonally differing warming rates,
 120 permafrost degradation, and fire further complicate peatland C dynamics (Helbig et al., 2022;
 121 O'Donnell et al., 2012; Ofiti et al., 2023; Qiu et al., 2020; Turetsky et al., 2011).

122 Accurate modeling of observed peatland C responses to environmental change is challenging due
 123 to strong nonlinearities and threshold behavior arising from interactions among the underlying
 124 processes driving microbial decomposition rates, vegetation turnover, and water table dynamics
 125 (Hedwall et al., 2017; Helbig et al., 2020). An additional challenge is representing the legacy
 126 effects of past climatic and environmental changes, given that peatland C accumulation and
 127 turnover operate on timescales ranging from years to millennia (Müller and Joos, 2021). Modeling
 128 CH₄ emissions remains particularly uncertain due to challenges in representing anaerobic
 129 microbial pathways, substrate availability, and hydrological controls (Estop-Aragonés et al., 2018;
 130 Melton et al., 2013). Recent modelling studies further emphasize the importance of trait-based
 131 vegetation dynamics and microbial-explicit process representation to capture peatland warming



132 responses (Shi et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2026; Zhao et al., 2022). To address these challenges, a
 133 range of process-based peatland models have been developed to simulate the effects of
 134 temperature, precipitation, vegetation shifts, and permafrost dynamics. For instance, LPJ-GUESS
 135 incorporates peatland processes to simulate long-term C accumulation under future scenarios
 136 (Chaudhary et al., 2017). ORCHIDEE has been applied to assess century-scale peatland C fluxes
 137 (Qiu et al., 2019), while the Holocene Peatland Model (HPM) reconstructs long-term development
 138 and climate sensitivity over millennial timescales (Frolking et al., 2014; Treat et al., 2021).
 139 However, evaluating these models remains challenging because the relatively short duration of
 140 observational and experimental records contrasts with the long intrinsic timescales of peat carbon
 141 accumulation, complicating model spin-up, initialization, and assessment of longer-term C-climate
 142 feedbacks. This timescale mismatch further motivates coordinated model-experiment
 143 intercomparisons such as the Spruce and Peatland Responses Under Changing Environments
 144 (SPRUCES) Model Intercomparison Project (SPRUCES-MIP) to evaluate how models translate
 145 near-term ecosystem responses into longer-term carbon-climate feedbacks.

146 Despite decades of progress in peatland ecosystem modeling (Chaudhary et al., 2020, 2026;
 147 Frolking et al., 2010, 2014; Müller and Joos, 2021; Treat et al., 2021; Wania et al., 2009; Zhao and
 148 Zhuang, 2023, 2024) substantial uncertainty remains in projecting peatland C dynamics under
 149 future environmental change. Earlier model intercomparison projects, including WETCHIMP and
 150 WETCHIMP-WSL, revealed large divergence in simulated peatland CH₄ emissions, primarily
 151 because of differences in hydrological, vegetation, and microbial process representations (Bohn et
 152 al., 2015; Melton et al., 2013). More recent studies similarly project widely varying 21st-century
 153 peatland C balances. Some models predict transitions from long-term C sinks to net C sources
 154 under moderate to high greenhouse-gas emission scenarios (e.g., RCP4.5 and RCP8.5) (Chaudhary
 155 et al., 2017; Müller and Joos, 2021; Zhao and Zhuang, 2023, 2024), whereas others project reduced
 156 sink strength or continued net C uptake under comparable or lower forcing scenarios (Chaudhary
 157 et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020). These contrasting projections reflect differences in the representation
 158 of nutrient cycling, vegetation dynamics, peatland hydrology, and CH₄ production, oxidation, and
 159 transport, as well as in how these processes are coupled within models. Consequently, it remains
 160 unclear which ecosystem processes exert the strongest controls on peatland C responses to
 161 combined warming and elevated CO₂.



162 To systematically evaluate and benchmark model performance under observed warming and CO₂
 163 enrichment, the SPRUCE-MIP was launched. SPRUCE-MIP assesses how diverse terrestrial
 164 ecosystem models simulate C cycle responses using a common experimental protocol at the
 165 SPRUCE site. The SPRUCE experiment combines whole-ecosystem warming and elevated CO₂
 166 (eCO₂) treatments at an ombrotrophic bog in northern Minnesota, USA. Site-based whole-
 167 ecosystem manipulative experiments like SPRUCE provide uniquely powerful testbeds to evaluate
 168 model predictions under controlled, yet ecologically realistic conditions (Hanson et al., 2017,
 169 2020; Norby et al., 2016). The goals of SPRUCE-MIP are to identify sources of uncertainty,
 170 benchmark model performance against multi-year observations, and guide future improvements in
 171 peatland process representation.

172 This paper presents the SPRUCE-MIP framework, including site information, the modelling
 173 protocol, model forcing and observational datasets, the metrics used to compare model simulations
 174 with observations, and the participating models (Section 2). Section 3 presents model performance
 175 and examines how differences in process representation contribute to divergent model responses.
 176 Section 4 discusses the implications of these findings for model uncertainty, peatland C-climate
 177 feedbacks, and future model development, and Section 5 summarizes the main conclusions.

178 **2. Methodology**

179 **2.1 Site information**

180 SPRUCE examines peatland ecosystem responses to multiple levels of whole-ecosystem warming
 181 under both ambient and elevated CO₂ conditions (aCO₂ and eCO₂, respectively) (Hanson et al.,
 182 2017). This experiment is conducted within the S1 bog, an 8.1-hectare peatland. The S1 Bog is a
 183 raised, ombrotrophic bog in northern Minnesota, USA, within the Marcell Experimental Forest
 184 that is managed by the United States Department of Agriculture Forest Service (47°30.476' N,
 185 93°27.162' W). The mean annual temperature at the S1 bog was 3.4 °C and the average annual
 186 precipitation was 780 mm for the period 1961-2009, reflecting its boreal climate characteristics
 187 (Sebestyen et al., 2011). The overstory vegetation is primarily composed of black spruce (*Picea*
 188 *mariana*) and tamarack (*Larix laricina*), underlain by a dense Sphagnum moss layer (dominated
 189 by *S. divinum*, *S. angustifolium*, and *S. fallax*). The understory features a variety of shrubs



190 including Labrador tea (*Rhododendron groenlandicum*) and leatherleaf (*Chamaedaphne*
 191 *calyculata*), along with a few herbaceous and graminoid species (Hanson et al., 2020).

192 The SPRUCE experiment uses open-top enclosures (12.8 m in diameter and 7m in height) in which
 193 propane-warmed air is circulated through a system of air handling units as well as soil heaters to
 194 apply whole ecosystem-warming to both the atmosphere and deep peat soils (Hanson et al., 2017).
 195 These enclosures enabled simultaneous warming across five temperature increments: +0°C,
 196 +2.25°C, +4.5°C, +6.75°C, and +9°C. These warming levels reflect target temperature offsets that
 197 are actively controlled in the field using continuous feedback-based heating systems. As a result,
 198 the specified temperature differences should be interpreted as time-averaged offsets that emerge
 199 over sub-daily to seasonal timescales, rather than exact instantaneous temperature differences
 200 (Hanson et al., 2017) . In addition to the ten treatment enclosures, an unchambered ambient plot
 201 (Plot 7) was used as the control, representing ambient meteorological and CO₂ conditions without
 202 enclosure effects.

203 Soil warming was implemented using resistance heaters extending to a depth of 3 m following
 204 Hanson et al. (2017), with deep peat warming applied while minimizing direct heating of the
 205 shallow peat layers. Each warming treatment was evaluated under both aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions,
 206 with eCO₂ targeting an enrichment of approximately 500 ppm above ambient concentrations
 207 (resulting in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations of approximately 800–900 ppm). Whole-ecosystem
 208 warming began in August 2015, followed by eCO₂ treatment in June 2016. Because each warming
 209 × CO₂ treatment was applied to a single enclosure, spatial variability among plots cannot be
 210 statistically separated from treatment effects. Nevertheless, multi-year averaging reduces the
 211 influence of short-term variability, and the imposed temperature offsets are substantially larger
 212 than background interannual climate variability (Hanson et al., 2017).

213 **2.2. Modelling protocol**

214 The models participating in SPRUCE-MIP followed a common modelling protocol described here
 215 and summarized in Table 1. During the initial spin-up phase, each model was driven to equilibrium
 216 under pre-industrial conditions by repeatedly cycling the 2015-2021 atmospheric forcing data from
 217 the control plot, while holding CO₂ concentration, nitrogen deposition, land use and land cover



constant at their 1850 values. This was followed by a transient simulation covering 1850 to 2014. Finally, measured plot-level meteorological forcing from the control plot and the ten treatment enclosures was used to drive the 11 experimental simulations evaluated during the 2015-2021 observation period (Table 1). These simulations were compared with the corresponding observational datasets collected during the same period.

The evaluation consisted of 11 simulations: a control simulation without an enclosure and ten enclosure simulations representing five warming treatments under both aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions (Table 1). Specifically, the temperature treatments, as discussed in Section 2.1, were set at increments of +0 °C, +2.25 °C, +4.5 °C, +6.75 °C, and +9 °C, applied under aCO₂ and eCO₂ (+500 ppm) conditions.

In addition, the simulations accounted for a major strip cutting event in 1974, represented as a 99% reduction in aboveground tree biomass, exclusive of shrubs or moss (Hanson et al., 2025), reflecting the extensive strip cuts conducted within the experimental forest during that period.

Table 1. Overview of the SPRUCE-MIP experimental simulations used for model evaluation during 2015-2021.

Simulation	Period	Warming	Atmospheric CO ₂	Description
Control (CTL)	2015-2021	ambient	ambient	Control plot in its natural state without any enclosure.
T0.00 aCO ₂	2015-2021	+0°C	ambient	Baseline warming treatment under aCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T2.25 aCO ₂	2015-2021	+2.25°C	ambient	Mild warming treatment under aCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T4.50 aCO ₂	2015-2021	+4.50°C	ambient	Moderate warming treatment under aCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T6.75 aCO ₂	2015-2021	+6.75°C	ambient	High warming treatment under aCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T9.00 aCO ₂	2015-2021	+9.00°C	ambient	Extreme warming treatment under aCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T0.00 eCO ₂	2015-2021	+0°C	ambient+500ppm	Baseline warming treatment under eCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T2.25 eCO ₂	2015-2021	+2.25°C	ambient+500ppm	Mild warming treatment under eCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T4.50 eCO ₂	2015-2021	+4.50°C	ambient+500ppm	Moderate warming treatment under eCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T6.75 eCO ₂	2015-2021	+6.75°C	ambient+500ppm	High warming treatment under eCO ₂ inside an enclosure.
T9.00 eCO ₂	2015-2021	+9.00°C	ambient+500ppm	Extreme warming treatment under eCO ₂ inside an enclosure.

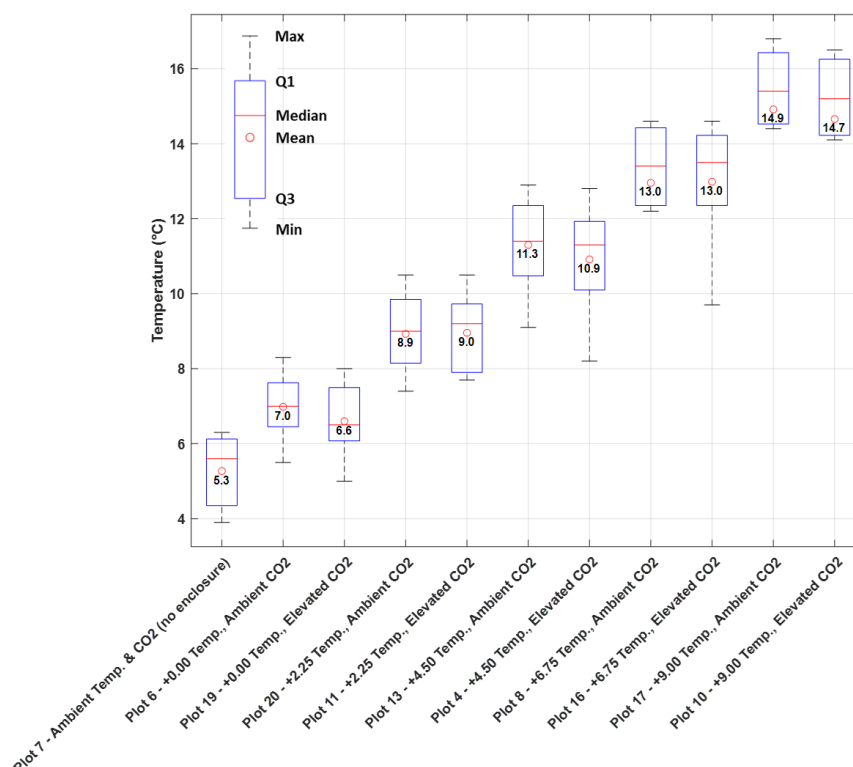


233 **2.3. Datasets**

234 **2.3.1 Model forcing datasets**

235 Models were driven by the observed plot-level meteorological forcing, including air temperature,
236 precipitation, wind speed, atmospheric pressure, relative humidity, and incoming longwave and
237 shortwave radiation. Water table depth was also provided for the models that required this variable
238 as a driver. Additional details about the collection of these plot-scale forcing datasets can be found
239 in Hanson et al. (2016, 2017).

240 Fig.1 shows the multi-year mean annual air temperature for the ten treatment enclosures together
241 with the control plot in its natural state without enclosure during 2015-2021. The temperature
242 difference between plot6 (enclosed control) and plot7 (unenclosed control) reflects the influence
243 of the enclosure itself, with the unenclosed plot exhibiting lower mean annual temperature. This
244 temperature difference likely arises from passive chamber effects, including changes in incoming
245 shortwave and longwave radiation and altered air circulation associated with the blower system
246 (Hanson et al., 2017).



247

248 **Fig. 1.** Multi-year mean annual air temperature across the eleven SPRUCE plots during 2015-
 249 2021, including the unenclosed control plot and ten enclosures representing five warming levels
 250 under ambient and elevated CO₂ conditions.

251 2.3.2 Observational datasets

252 The observational datasets used in this study span the 2015-2021 experimental period and include
 253 annual net ecosystem exchange (NEE; g C m⁻² yr⁻¹), heterotrophic respiration (HR; g C m⁻² yr⁻¹),
 254 methane (CH₄; g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) emissions, and net primary productivity (NPP; g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) for each
 255 experimental plot. Negative NEE values indicate net carbon uptake by the ecosystem, whereas
 256 positive values indicate net carbon release to the atmosphere.

257 The annual NPP for each plot was derived from measured biomass following the methods
 258 described by Griffiths et al. (2017) and Hanson et al. (2020). Total annual NPP was calculated as
 259 the sum of aboveground NPP from trees and shrubs, including foliar production associated with



260 annual litterfall, NPP of the *Sphagnum* community, and annual belowground contributions from
 261 fine roots. Annual shrub stem and coarse-root increments were not measured and was assumed to
 262 contribute only a small fraction of total NPP (Hanson et al., 2020).

263 Carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) fluxes were measured using in situ chamber methods
 264 following Hanson et al. (2016, 2017). Measurements were made approximately monthly during
 265 the growing season (day of year 122-244; (Richardson et al., 2018)), with additional sampling
 266 during selected dormant-season periods. One pairs of permanent collars were installed within each
 267 plot and embedded 10–20 cm into the peat surface. CO₂ exchange was measured using both
 268 transparent chambers (NEE) and darkened chambers (ecosystem respiration). NEE was partitioned
 269 into heterotrophic (HR) and autotrophic respiration (AR) using off-plot vegetation-clipping
 270 experiments. HR observations were incorporated into the ecosystem carbon balance because plant
 271 carbon dynamics were represented independently through the observed aboveground and
 272 belowground NPP components described above. Chamber measurements were also used to
 273 estimate CH₄ emissions. Additional details on measurement protocols and data processing are
 274 provided by Hanson et al. (2020).

275 **2.4 Metrics for comparison between observations and model simulations**

276 Model simulations were first compared with observations from the +0.00 treatment to evaluate
 277 baseline model performance at the SPRUCE site. Temperature sensitivities of C fluxes were
 278 quantified using least-squares linear regression between annual mean air temperature and annual
 279 mean ecosystem C fluxes, including NEE, NPP, HR, and CH₄ fluxes. For each plot and model
 280 simulation, annual mean air temperatures and fluxes were computed for each year during the 2015-
 281 2021 experimental period. Regressions were performed across all years and warming treatments
 282 separately for aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions. The resulting regression slopes represent emergent,
 283 time-averaged sensitivities to warming across the imposed temperature gradients, rather than
 284 instantaneous or process-level responses. Uncertainty in the estimated sensitivities was quantified
 285 as ± 1 standard deviation of the regression slope following standard linear regression theory
 286 (DeGroot and Schervish, 2018). Temperature sensitivities were calculated consistently for
 287 observations and all participating models to facilitate direct comparison. An example of the
 288 regression-based estimation of temperature sensitivity for observed NEE is shown in Fig. S1.



289 Because each warming $\times$ CO₂ treatment was implemented in a single enclosure, annual values
 290 reflect temporal variability rather than independent spatial replication across treatments.
 291 Therefore, the estimated slopes were used to characterize emergent warming sensitivities and to
 292 test whether individual slopes differ from zero, but formal tests comparing observed slopes
 293 between aCO₂ and eCO₂ treatments, or comparing model slopes directly against observational
 294 slopes, were not applied. Such tests would require stronger assumptions about independence
 295 among treatment enclosures than are supported by the experimental design.

296 **2.5 Participating models**

297 SPRUCE-MIP includes 15 terrestrial ecosystem models with diverse structures and process
 298 complexities (Table 2), including: CLASSIC (Melton et al., 2020), CLM-Microbe (Xu et al.,
 299 2015), CoLM (Dai et al., 2019), CoupModel (He et al., 2021), DNDC (Li et al., 1992), ELM-
 300 Microbe (Ricciuto et al., 2021), ELM-SPRUCE (Shi et al., 2021), JULES (Mathison et al., 2023),
 301 LPX-Bern (Spahni et al., 2013), LPJ-GUESS (Chaudhary et al., 2017), MWM (Shao et al., 2022,
 302 2023; St-Hilaire et al., 2010), ORCHIDEE (Qiu et al., 2017, 2019), TECO-SPRUCE (Huang et
 303 al., 2017; Weng and Luo, 2008), PTEM (Zhao and Zhuang, 2024), and VISIT (Ito and Inatomi,
 304 2012).

305 All participating models simulate core ecosystem processes including energy, water and carbon
 306 cycles, although their structure, parameterizations, and complexity vary. Figure 2 summarizes the
 307 representation of nine peatland-relevant processes across the participating models, illustrating
 308 similarities and differences in structural complexity. These include acclimation (ACC; applied to
 309 photosynthesis and/or decomposition), predicted water table dynamics (PWT), methane cycling
 310 (CH₄), moss representation (Moss), nutrient cycling (nitrogen and phosphorus), light competition
 311 by different plant types (Light), dynamic peat depth (Peat), and microtopography (MT).

312 Figure 2 reveals substantial diversity in process representation across the participating models.
 313 ELM-Microbe, CLM-Microbe, and ELM-SPRUCE incorporate the largest number of evaluated
 314 peatland-relevant processes, whereas models such as CoLM and TECO-SPRUCE represent a more
 315 limited subset. Intermediate-complexity models, including LPX-Bern and PTEM, incorporate
 316 many key peatland processes while omitting others, such as phosphorus cycling, acclimation, or



317 microtopography. Overall, the participating models span a broad range of structural
 318 configurations, providing a useful basis for evaluating how differences in process representation
 319 contribute to divergent model behavior.

320 Below are brief descriptions of each model, emphasizing structural features most relevant to the
 321 SPRUCE-MIP intercomparison.

- 322 • **CLASSIC** (v1.5) incorporates peatland-specific vegetation, Sphagnum moss, dynamic
 323 peat depth, and water table dynamics. Nitrogen and CH₄ modules were disabled for this
 324 study.
- 325 • **CLM-Microbe** builds on the CLM4.5 framework (Oleson et al., 2013) and incorporates
 326 microbial functional groups and methane cycling. It represents an early version of ELM-
 327 Microbe.
- 328 • **CoLM** includes updated biogeochemical routines and plant water and nitrogen
 329 competition but does not explicitly represent peatland and methane processes.
- 330 • **CoupModel** simulates coupled soil–plant–atmosphere heat, water, and carbon exchanges
 331 and has been applied to both pristine and disturbed peatlands.
- 332 • **DNDC** simulates coupled carbon and nitrogen cycling and greenhouse-gas emissions. For
 333 this study, the Forest-DNDC configuration was initialized without separate spin-up or
 334 historical transient simulations.
- 335 • **ELM-Microbe** extends the ELM framework with explicit microbial decomposition and
 336 methane dynamics.
- 337 • **ELM-SPRUCE** integrates ELM vegetation and hydrology with CLM4Me-based methane
 338 dynamics (Riley et al., 2011) and peatland-specific representations of hydrology,
 339 microtopography, and Sphagnum moss.
- 340 • **JULES** simulates terrestrial carbon and water exchange but omits moss and peatland-
 341 specific structural components.
- 342 • **LPX-Bern** is a dynamic global vegetation model with coupled water, carbon, and nitrogen
 343 cycling and an explicit global peatland representation.
- 344 • **LPJ-GUESS** is an individual- and patch- dynamic based vegetation model with explicit
 345 representations of peatland and permafrost processes.



- **MWM** includes peat accumulation, microbial decomposition, and nutrient cycling, emphasized for long-term peat development.
- **ORCHIDEE-Peat** explicitly represents peatland carbon, hydrology and vegetation dynamics; methane processes were disabled for this study.
- **TECO-SPRUC**E adapts the TECO model for SPRUCE, incorporating carbon-nitrogen coupling, methane processes, and water table dynamics.
- **PTEM** simulates peatland carbon and nitrogen dynamics, including plant functional types, water table dynamics, methane cycling, peat accumulation, and aerobic and anaerobic decomposition.
- **VISIT** simulates trace-gas fluxes, including methane emissions, using environmentally and empirically constrained drivers.

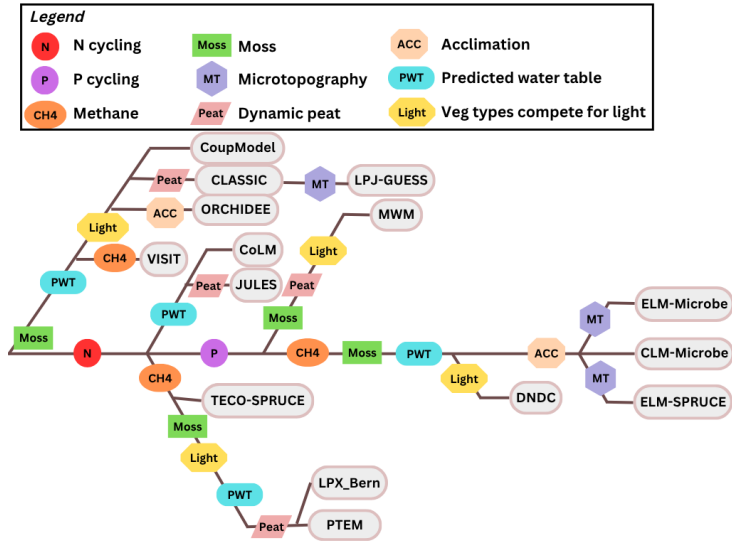
Each model reflects a distinct set of assumptions regarding peatland biogeochemistry and ecosystem functioning. These structural differences provide the foundation for the process-based analyses presented in Sections 3.3 and 4.3. Modifications made specifically for SPRUCE-MIP beyond previously published model versions are described in the Supplementary Material. Unless otherwise noted, all models followed the standardized SPRUCE-MIP protocol described in Section 2.2 and Table 1.

Table 2. Participating models in SPRUCE-MIP.

Model Name	Full Name	Affiliation (Team Contact)	References
CLASSIC	Canadian Land Surface Scheme Including Biogeochemical Cycles	Environment and Climate Change Canada (Joe Melton)	(Melton et al., 2020)
CLM-Microbe	Community Land Model with Microbial Processes	San Diego State University (Xiaofeng Xu)	(Xu et al., 2015)
CoLM	Common Land Model	Sun Yat-Sen University (Xingjie Lu)	(Dai et al., 2019)
CoupModel	Coupled Heat and Mass Transfer Model	McGill University (Hongxing He)	(Jansson and Moon, 2001)
DNDC	DeNitrification-DeComposition Model	Tennessee State University (Dafeng Hui)	(Li et al., 1992)
ELM-Microbe	Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land Model (ELM) with Microbial Processes	San Diego State University (Xiaofeng Xu)	(Ricciuto et al., 2021)
ELM-SPRUC E	Energy Exascale Earth System Model (E3SM) Land	Oak Ridge National Laboratory (Xiaoying Shi)	(Shi et al., 2021)



Model (ELM) with SPRUCE-specific processes			
JULES	Joint UK Land Environment Simulator	University of Exeter (Ayesha Hussain)	(Mathison et al., 2023)
LPX-Bern	Land surface Processes and eXchanges model	University of Bern (Qing Sun/Fortunat Joos)	(Spahni et al., 2013)
LPJ-GUESS	Lund-Postsdam-Jena GeneralEcosystem Simulator	Lund University (Nitin Chaudhary)	(Chaudhary et al., 2017)
MWM	McGill Wetland Model	McGill University (Siya Shao)	(Shao et al., 2022, 2023; St-Hilaire et al., 2010)
ORCHIDEE-Peat	ORganizing Carbon and Hydrology In Dynamic Ecosystems model	East China Normal University (Chunjing Qiu)	(Qiu et al., 2017, 2019)
TECO-SPRUCE	Terrestrial ECOsystem Model	Cornell University (Jian Zhou, Yiqi Luo)	(Huang et al., 2017; Weng and Luo, 2008)
PTEM	Peatland Terrestrial Ecosystem Model	Purdue University (Qianlai Zhuang)	(Zhao and Zhuang, 2024)
VISIT	Vegetation Integrative Simulator for Trace gases	University of Tokyo (Akihiko Ito)	(Ito and Inatomi, 2012)



364

365 **Fig. 2.** Tree diagram illustrating differences in the representation of nine peatland-relevant
366 ecosystem processes across the 15 participating models. Branch points indicate the inclusion of
367 specific processes (colored symbols; see legend), highlighting similarities and differences in
368 structural complexity that provide the basis for the process-based analyses presented in Sections
369 3.3 and 4.3.

370 **3. Results**



3.1 Simulated net ecosystem carbon exchange and its components

Under baseline (+0 °C) warming, observations indicate that the S1 bog peatland functions as a weak C source under both CO₂ treatments, with multi-year mean NEE of 44±68 and 58±56 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ under aCO₂ and eCO₂, respectively (Fig.3a). The large interannual variability relative to mean NEE indicates that the peatland functions as a weak carbon sink in some years. Only four of fifteen models (CoupModel, ELM-Microbe, LPX-Bern and PTEM) reproduce a positive (source) mean NEE, though their magnitudes differ under both CO₂ conditions. For example, LPX-Bern simulates a small positive NEE under both aCO₂ (14±66 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) and eCO₂ (11±43 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹), while ELM-Microbe produces substantial a larger positive NEE (199±132 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ for aCO₂ and 83±135 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ for eCO₂). CLASSIC transitions from a near-neutral source (+5±17 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) under aCO₂ to a modest sink (-38±25 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) under eCO₂ with simulated values remaining broadly consistent with the observational uncertainty range. Similarly, CLM-Microbe switches from a near-neutral sink (-11±79 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) under aCO₂ to a modest source (50±86 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) under eCO₂. The remaining nine models all simulate net C uptake, with DNDC showing particularly high sequestration. Overall, the multi-model mean indicates an approximately 142% increase in net C uptake under eCO₂ relative to aCO₂, whereas observations suggest slightly greater C loss under eCO₂. Exceptions include CLM-Microbe, which also simulates enhanced carbon loss under eCO₂, and CoupModel and LPX-Bern, which exhibit minimal sensitivity to CO₂ enrichment. However, the apparent divergence between simulated and observed CO₂ responses should be interpreted with caution given the substantial observational uncertainty. Pretreatment NEE, estimated using circular collars in a manner consistent with the post-treatment values used in this study (Sect. 2.3.2), exhibits a standard deviation equal to about 100% of the mean source strength (Hanson et al., 2020), which is larger than the observed difference between the aCO₂ and eCO₂ treatments (Fig. 3a).

Fig.3b illustrates the diversity of simulated NPP across models relative to observations under both CO₂ conditions. The multi-year mean observed NPP is approximately 355±47 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (aCO₂) and 345±60 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (eCO₂). The slightly lower observed NPP under eCO₂, estimated through biomass instead of circular collars, is consistent with the higher NEE source strength above, despite observational uncertainties. The predicted NPP from CLM-Microbe aligns closely with the



402 observations. The multi-model mean NPP exceeds observed values slightly, but this modest
 403 overestimation is expected, given that some models may include shrub stem and coarse-root
 404 increments in their NPP estimates (Sect. 2.3.2). Seven models (CoupModel, CLASSIC, ELM-
 405 SPRUCE, LPJ-GUESS, MWM, ORCHIDEE and PTEM) underestimate NPP, and the other seven
 406 models (CoLM, DNDC, ELM-Microbe, LPX-Bern, JULES, TECO-SPRUCE and VISIT)
 407 overestimate it, especially under eCO₂. Most models predict higher NPP under eCO₂ than aCO₂,
 408 with exceptions being CLM-Microbe and LPX-Bern. Particularly notable NPP increases under
 409 eCO₂ conditions are observed in the ORCHIDEE (139%), VISIT (105%), ELM-Microbe (64%),
 410 LPJ-GUESS (50%) and DNDC (47%) models. An increase in observed NPP under eCO₂ is not
 411 evident at +0 °C and +2.25°C but emerges under stronger warming (Figs. S2-S5).

412
 413 Observed HR is 348 ± 26 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (aCO₂), and 357 ± 20 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (eCO₂), indicating little
 414 sensitivity to eCO₂ (Fig. 3c). The multi-model mean, as well as simulations from CoupModel,
 415 PTEM and VISIT, fall within the $\pm$ standard deviation range of the HR observations. In contrast,
 416 CLM-Microbe, CLASSIC, DNDC, ELM-SPRUCE, LPJ-GUESS, MWM, and ORCHIDEE
 417 underestimate HR. In particular, CLASSIC, DNDC and MWM predict relatively low HR
 418 (generally < 90 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹). Conversely, CoLM, ELM-Microbe, JULES, LPX-Bern, and TECO-
 419 SPRUCE substantially overestimate HR, with simulated values generally ranging from ~490 to
 420 800 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹. Several models, including ELM-Microbe, LPJ-GUESS, MWM, ORCHIDEE and
 421 TECO-SPRUCE exhibit strong eCO₂-driven increases in HR, while other models show limited
 422 short-term HR responses to eCO₂ during the experimental period (Fig.3c).

423
 424 The observed CH₄ fluxes are 21 ± 11 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (aCO₂) and 24 ± 13 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹ (eCO₂), indicating
 425 an approximately 15% increase under eCO₂ (Fig. 3d). Among the nine models that simulate CH₄
 426 fluxes, VISIT predicts values closest to observations, with differences within ± 3 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹. LPX-
 427 Bern and ELM-SPRUCE substantially underestimate CH₄ emissions, whereas CLM-Microbe,
 428 LPJ-GUESS, DNDC, ELM-Microbe, PTEM and TECO-SPRUCE overestimate CH₄ fluxes under
 429 both aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions generally by more than 6 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹. Relative to their aCO₂
 430 simulations, CLM-Microbe shows the largest increase in CH₄ flux under eCO₂ (~81% higher),
 431 followed by TECO-SPRUCE (~29% higher). In contrast, PTEM predicts a ~14% decrease in CH₄
 432 flux under eCO₂ relative to aCO₂ (Fig. 3d).

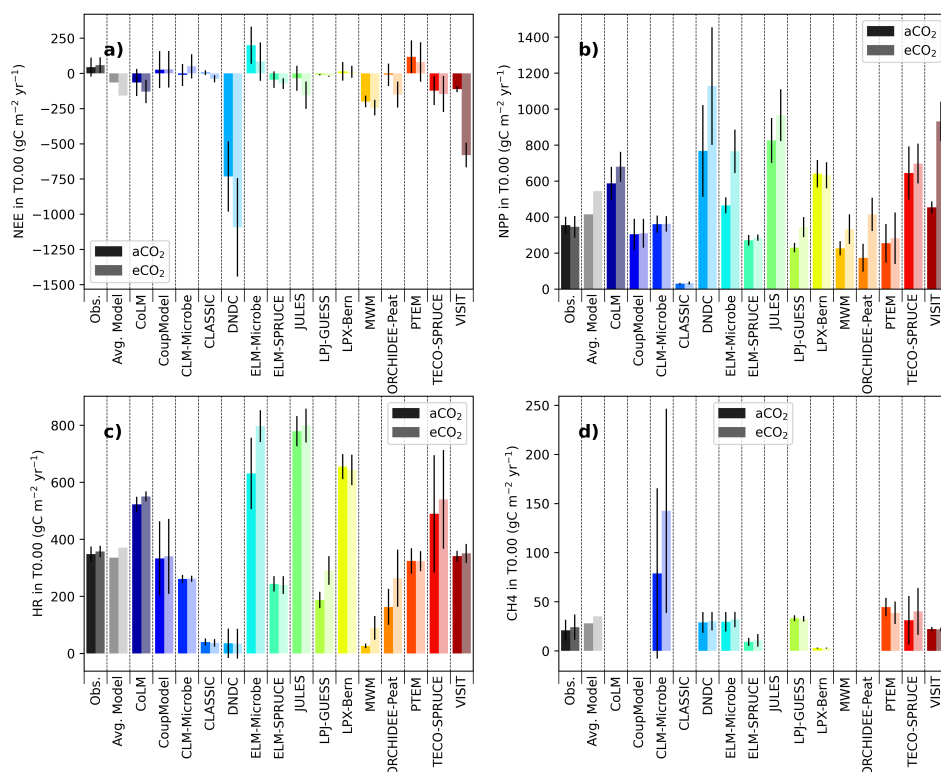


Supplemental Figs. S2-S5 show how increasing warming modifies these baseline responses described above across the full experimental temperature gradient. Because high-latitude regions experience amplified warming relative to the global mean, the higher-warming treatments (+4.5 °C and above) are broadly representative of plausible future climatic conditions at the SPRUCE site under projected global warming of ~1-2 °C during the 21st century (Xie et al., 2022). Observations of NEE at higher warming levels (particularly +9 °C, $410 \pm 165 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for aCO₂ and $308 \pm 139 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for eCO₂) suggest that the peatland transitions toward a stronger C source. Consistent with this pattern, the four models that already predict positive NEE at +0 °C (CoupModel, ELM-Microbe, LPX-Bern and PTEM) generally show larger C losses with warming than the models predicting neutral or negative NEE under baseline conditions. CLASSIC shifts from near-neutral or weak C sink (under eCO₂)/source (under aCO₂) at lower warming (+0 and +2.25 °C) to a weak C source across the +4.50 °C to +9 °C warming levels under both CO₂ conditions, with multi-year mean source or sink magnitudes remaining within $\pm 60 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, substantially smaller than the observed source strengths under strong warming. LPJ-GUESS transitions from a very weak sink to a very weak source under both CO₂ conditions beginning at +4.50 °C, with sources/sinks magnitudes always within $\pm 30 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Several models transition from C sinks to sources only at higher warming levels. ELM-SPRUCE shifts from a C sink to a source under both CO₂ scenarios starting from +6.75 °C, whereas CoLM does so only at +9 °C. JULES, ORCHIDEE, TECO-SPRUCE, and VISIT become C sources under aCO₂ but remain near-neutral or C sinks under eCO₂ with transition thresholds varying among models (ORCHIDEE starting from +2.25 °C, VISIT starting from +4.50 °C, TECO-SPRUCE starting from +6.75 °C, JULES starting from +9 °C). In contrast, DNDC and MWM remain C sinks or near-neutral at all warming levels.

Model responses of ecosystem components help to explain these NEE patterns. NPP increases with warming for some models (e.g., TECO-SPRUCE) and decreases for others (e.g., DNDC) from +0 °C to +9 °C. Across +2.25 to +9 °C, most models simulate HR increases that exceed gains in NPP, leading to more positive NEE (stronger C source) in many cases. Models differ in the extent to which eCO₂ mitigates these warming-induced losses, with stronger responses to eCO₂ in some models (e.g., ORCHIDEE, DNDC, VISIT) than others (e.g., CoupModel). CH₄ emissions generally increase with warming, although simulated magnitudes vary widely among models. CLM-Microbe consistently overestimates CH₄ fluxes across all warming levels relative to observations, whereas VISIT, LPX-Bern and ELM-SPRUCE consistently underestimate them.



464 The remaining models (DNDC, ELM-Microbe, LPJ-GUESS, PTEM, TECO-SPRUC) transition
 465 from overestimation at +0 °C to underestimation at +9 °C, with the transition occurring between
 466 +4.5 and +6.75 °C.
 467 Collectively, these results show that increasing temperature drives the peatland toward stronger C
 468 losses, a pattern broadly captured by most models, while substantial inter-model differences
 469 remain in the magnitude of responses and in how eCO₂ modulates the warming effect.



470 **Fig. 3.** Simulated a) NEE, b) NPP, c) HR and d) CH₄ compared with observed (Obs) values under
 471 the +0 °C warming treatment at aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions. Bars represent multi-year means
 472 (2015-2021), and error bars denote interannual standard deviations of annual values. Note that
 473 NEE includes the carbon equivalent of CH₄ emissions to account for their contribution to changes
 474 in peat carbon stocks.

476 3.2. Net ecosystem carbon exchange warming responses

479 The slope-based temperature sensitivities of C fluxes summarize the responses shown in Fig. 3
 480 and Supplemental Figs. S2-S5 and reveal substantial inter-model divergence in temperature-driven



481 C cycle feedbacks (Fig. 4). Most of the temperature sensitivities are statistically significant, except
 482 for CoLM (eCO₂ only), ELM_Microbe (aCO₂ only), JULES (eCO₂ only) and ORCHIDEE_Peat
 483 (both aCO₂ and eCO₂). Under aCO₂, the observed NEE increases significantly with temperature
 484 at a rate of $42 \pm 14 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$, while a significant but somewhat weaker response of $27 \pm 12 \text{ gC}$
 485 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ is observed under eCO₂ (Fig. 4a). The multi-model mean, as well as CoLM (aCO₂
 486 only), CLM-Microbe, ELM-Microbe (eCO₂ only), PTEM (aCO₂ only), and VISIT, exhibit
 487 warming responses within one standard deviation of the observed values, although ELM-Microbe
 488 and PTEM show more C loss under eCO₂ than aCO₂. DNDC and CoupModel display substantially
 489 larger positive sensitivities than observed (e.g., 108 ± 38 and $62 \pm 21 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ under aCO₂,
 490 respectively), with sensitivities further increasing under eCO₂. CoLM under eCO₂, as well as
 491 CLASSIC and LPJ-GUESS under both CO₂ treatments, exhibit positive sensitivities that
 492 underestimate observed levels. In contrast, ORCHIDEE and TECO-SPRUCE switch from positive
 493 under aCO₂ to negative under eCO₂ (TECO-SPRUCE reaching $-21 \pm 10 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ under
 494 eCO₂). LPJ-GUESS and MWM exhibit near-zero temperature sensitivities under both CO₂
 495 conditions (generally below $\sim 5 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$).

496
 497 Observed NPP temperature sensitivities shift from slightly negative under aCO₂ (-7 ± 8
 498 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$) to positive under eCO₂ ($10 \pm 7 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4b). ELM-SPRUCE and
 499 LPJ-GUESS are the two models exhibiting a similar sign change, though their positive responses
 500 under eCO₂ are small. LPX-Bern shifts from a near-zero temperature sensitivity under aCO₂ ($<$
 501 $1 \pm 20 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$) to a positive sensitivity under eCO₂ ($\sim 19 \pm 17 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$). MWM and
 502 TECO-SPRUCE remain consistently positive, CLASSIC, LPJ-GUESS, and PTEM are close to
 503 zero, whereas the multi-model average and most other models exhibit negative sensitivities under
 504 both CO₂ conditions. DNDC and ELM-Microbe show particularly strong negative responses,
 505 which become even more negative under eCO₂. NPP temperature sensitivities are statistically
 506 significant for all models except the observations under aCO₂, CoLM and ORCHIDEE_Peat under
 507 eCO₂, and PTEM under both CO₂ treatments.

508 The observed HR has positive temperature sensitivities under both CO₂ conditions, at $+22 \pm 7 \text{ gC}$
 509 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ under aCO₂ and $+22 \pm 5 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$ under eCO₂ (Fig. 4c). CoupModel,
 510 CLASSIC, DNDC, ELM-SPRUCE, LPX-Bern, MWM, PTEM, TECO-SPRUCE, and VISIT also
 511 show positive HR temperature sensitivities, although their magnitudes vary widely (e.g., $\sim +52 \text{ gC}$



512 C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹ in CoupModel versus ~+3 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹ in CLASSIC). In contrast, CoLM,
 513 CLM-Microbe, ELM-Microbe, JULES, and ORCHIDEE exhibit near-zero or negative HR
 514 temperature sensitivities. Observed HR temperature sensitivities are similar under aCO₂ and eCO₂,
 515 whereas modeled sensitivities show varying degrees of divergence between the two CO₂
 516 conditions. LPJ-GUESS is the only model in which the HR temperature sensitivity changes sign,
 517 shifting from slightly negative under aCO₂ to positive under eCO₂. HR temperature sensitivities
 518 differ significantly from zero except for CoLM, JULES, and ORCHIDEE-Peat under both CO₂
 519 conditions and LPJ-GUESS under eCO₂.

520

521 Observed CH₄ flux exhibits a consistently positive temperature sensitivity of 14 ± 8 g C m⁻²
 522 yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹ under both CO₂ conditions (Fig. 4d). PTEM and TECO-SPRUCES closely match these
 523 positive responses. In contrast, DNDC, ELM-Microbe, ELM-SPRUCES, LPJ-GUESS, LPX-Bern,
 524 and VISIT have much smaller CH₄ temperature sensitivities, whereas CLM-Microbe substantially
 525 overestimates the observed response, although its temperature sensitivity does not differ
 526 significantly from zero. CH₄ temperature sensitivities are similar between aCO₂ and eCO₂ in most
 527 models, whereas CLM-Microbe shows a lower temperature sensitivity under eCO₂ than under
 528 aCO₂.

529 Overall, most models (except ORCHIDEE, MWM and TECO-SPRUCES) capture the observed
 530 positive temperature sensitivities of NEE, although simulated magnitudes vary widely, ranging
 531 from strongly positive sensitivities in DNDC to weak responses in CLASSIC and LPJ-GUESS
 532 (Fig. 4a). These substantial variations cannot be explained solely by differences in the magnitude
 533 of baseline C fluxes, as larger discrepancies persist when temperature sensitivities are normalized
 534 by T0.00 mean NEE (Fig. S6a). NPP tends to decrease with warming in most models (except LPX-
 535 Bern, MWM, PTEM and TECO-SPRUCES), in contrast to the observed shift from negative to
 536 positive sensitivities between aCO₂ and eCO₂ (Fig. 4b), a pattern that is likewise reflected in
 537 normalized sensitivities (Fig. S6b). HR generally increases with temperature in both observations
 538 and nine of the fifteen models, whereas six models exhibit near-zero or negative sensitivities (Fig.
 539 4c, Fig. S6c). Observed CH₄ fluxes exhibit strong positive temperature sensitivities under both
 540 CO₂ conditions, while modeled responses vary from strongly positive (CLM-Microbe, PTEM,
 541 TECO-SPRUCES) to nearly neutral (DNDC, ELM-Microbe, LPJ-GUESS, LPX-Bern, VISIT) (Fig.
 542 4d, Fig. S6d). This wide range of temperature sensitivities, from strong C losses to minimal or



even negative responses, highlights the substantial uncertainty in projecting peatland C cycling under future warming and eCO₂.

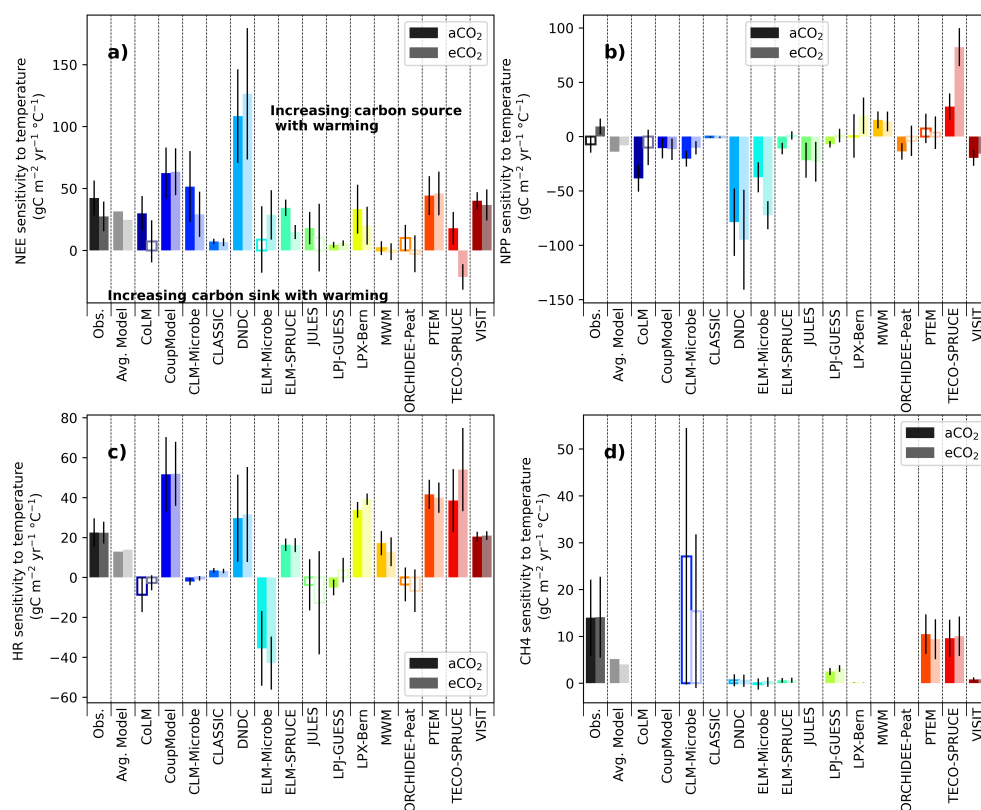


Fig. 4. Temperature sensitivities of a) NEE, b) NPP, c) HR, and d) CH₄ across the participating models compared with observed (Obs) values under both aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions. Temperature sensitivities are least-squares linear regression slopes between annual mean air temperature and annual mean C fluxes, calculated separately for aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions across all years and warming treatments. Error bars indicate ± 1 standard deviation uncertainty of the estimated regression slopes (DeGroot & Schervish, 2018). Solid bars indicate slopes that differ significantly from zero ($p \leq 0.05$), whereas hollow bars indicate slopes that do not differ significantly from zero, based on Student's t-tests (DeGroot & Schervish, 2018).

3.3. Relationship between process representation and modeled responses



556 We evaluated how the representation of key ecosystem processes is associated with the
 557 magnitude and warming sensitivity of modeled C fluxes across the SPRUCE treatments using a
 558 Type-II ANOVA framework (Table 3). This approach tests the main effect of each factor while
 559 accounting for the influence of all others (Langsrud, 2003). Each analysis examined the
 560 relationship between the mean values or warming sensitivities of C fluxes and a set of Boolean
 561 indicators representing whether a given process is implemented in a model (“true”) or not
 562 (“false”). Effect sizes are expressed as True minus False for process representations and elevated
 563 minus ambient for the CO₂ treatment; positive values indicate higher and negative values
 564 indicate lower modeled fluxes or warming sensitivities.

565 The analyzed processes include nutrient cycling (P; 5 of 15 models and N; 10 of 15 models), light
 566 competition (Light; 8 of 15 models), moss representation (Moss; 12 of 15 models), dynamic peat
 567 representation (Peat; 5 of 15 models). CH₄ process representation was excluded as an explanatory
 568 factor because, in most models, enabling CH₄ simulation does not feed back on NEE, NPP, or HR.
 569 CH₄ flux was retained as a response variable. A Boolean indicator for elevated CO₂ was also
 570 included to control for differences between ambient and elevated CO₂ treatments.

571

572 PWT was implemented in the majority of participating models, leaving insufficient contrast
 573 between models with and without this feature. ACC and MT were implemented in only a small
 574 and overlapping subset of models, resulting in limited degrees of freedom and strong confounding
 575 with other structural features. Among the retained predictors, some process representations co-
 576 occur in the same models, but none has an identical presence/absence pattern across the model
 577 ensemble. Therefore, their effects are not perfectly confounded in the ANOVA. Even so, the results
 578 should be interpreted as statistical associations rather than definitive causal effects, because
 579 structural choices, parameterization, and model lineage are not fully independent. Statistically
 580 significant effects ($p \leq 0.05$) are indicated in bold in Table 3.

581 Across fluxes, nutrient cycling showed the most consistent associations with modeled C
 582 responses. Relative to models without N cycling, models with N cycling had significantly higher
 583 NPP by 323-369 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and higher HR by 340-533 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ across all warming levels.
 584 At +9.00 °C, models with N cycling also had significantly higher NEE by 264 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹,
 585 indicating stronger net C source behavior at the highest warming level. In contrast, models with



586 P cycling had significantly lower HR by 404-656 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ across all warming levels, lower
 587 NEE by 317-365 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ under +6.75 and +9.00 °C warming, and lower NPP by 317 g C
 588 m⁻² yr⁻¹ under +4.50 °C warming. These contrasting N and P associations suggest that different
 589 representations of nutrient limitation can strongly influence the balance between productivity and
 590 respiration.

591 Vegetation structural processes also contributed to model differences. Models with moss
 592 representation had significantly higher NEE under +4.50 to +9.00 °C warming by 274-442 g C
 593 m⁻² yr⁻¹ and higher HR over the same temperature range by 233-277 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹. These patterns
 594 suggest that models including moss tend to simulate stronger C losses under warming,
 595 potentially through effects on litter inputs, productivity, and decomposition. Models with light
 596 competition had significantly lower NEE under the +0 °C treatment by 308 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and
 597 lower HR under the +0, +2.25, and +4.50 °C treatments by 169-283 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, indicating that
 598 vegetation competition is associated with differences in both net ecosystem exchange and
 599 respiratory fluxes.

600 Structural associations with warming sensitivity were more limited than those with mean fluxes.
 601 Dynamic peat representation was associated with a significantly lower NEE warming sensitivity
 602 by 36 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹, indicating weaker increases in net C loss with warming in models that
 603 include dynamic peat processes. For HR, models with light competition had a significantly
 604 higher warming sensitivity by 27 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹, whereas models with P cycling had a
 605 significantly lower warming sensitivity by 31 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹. No significant structural
 606 associations were detected for the warming sensitivity of NPP or CH₄ emissions.

607 For mean CH₄ emissions, significant associations with structural predictors occurred primarily at
 608 +2.25 and +4.50 °C warming. Models with N cycling had significantly higher CH₄ emissions by
 609 44-64 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ at these warming levels, whereas models with P cycling had significantly
 610 lower CH₄ emissions by 72 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ at +4.50 °C. Models with dynamic peat representation
 611 had significantly lower CH₄ emissions by 65-87 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ at +2.25 and +4.50 °C.



612 The elevated-CO₂ indicator, included in the ANOVA to account for differences between CO₂
 613 treatments, was associated with significantly higher NPP only under +6.75 °C warming (+166 g
 614 C m⁻² yr⁻¹), with no significant associations for NEE, HR, or CH₄ emissions.

615 Given differences in model parameterization, shared structural lineages, and the limited sample
 616 size, these ANOVA results cannot be attributed unambiguously to individual processes.
 617 Nevertheless, the analysis indicates that nutrient cycling, moss representation, light competition,
 618 and dynamic peat processes are associated with systematic differences in modeled peatland C
 619 fluxes and, in some cases, their warming sensitivities. These findings highlight the importance of
 620 consistent representation and calibration of key vegetation, nutrient, and peat processes for
 621 improving projections of peatland C dynamics under future environmental change.

622

623 **Table 3.** Estimated effect sizes of process representation (True – False) and CO₂ treatment
 624 (elevated – ambient) from the Type-II ANOVA. Bold values indicate statistically significant
 625 effects ($p \leq 0.05$). Process names are consistent with Fig. 2. The units are g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for the
 626 mean values under each temperature treatment, and g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ °C⁻¹ for the warming response
 627 slope.

	Process	T0.00	T2.25	T4.50	T6.75	T9.00	slope
NEE	Light	-308.23	-235.33	-82.22	-144.14	-147.24	30.27
	Moss	250.62	272.33	273.74	387.24	442.10	15.42
	N	9.66	50.00	149.97	180.36	263.81	23.94
	P	-241.65	-271.78	-258.20	-316.86	-365.08	-4.10
	Peat	180.07	108.96	-41.34	-59.58	-76.66	-36.45
	CO ₂	-93.13	-90.74	-92.13	-142.72	-120.77	-6.83
NPP	Light	-0.98	-23.82	-138.37	-55.10	-34.80	-9.52
	Moss	-58.96	-53.29	0.58	-80.37	-80.36	0.54
	N	347.41	368.59	346.08	333.53	322.92	4.54
	P	-161.83	-214.70	-316.71	-279.46	-295.38	-27.80
	Peat	-181.96	-177.37	-98.50	-75.74	-74.44	16.86
	CO ₂	128.51	138.63	137.13	166.35	155.12	5.78
HR	Light	-283.08	-225.62	-169.38	-123.54	-95.27	26.59
	Moss	174.87	196.77	232.89	242.77	277.24	9.81
	N	339.99	401.94	465.66	474.76	533.19	24.94
	P	-404.26	-490.29	-575.41	-601.58	-656.26	-31.32
	Peat	2.98	-64.99	-133.22	-128.28	-144.67	-19.41
	CO ₂	35.17	48.88	42.97	35.37	41.36	0.91
CH4	Light	-6.05	12.08	20.57	-28.71	-22.01	-2.93



	Moss	11.47	3.64	3.84	35.06	43.48	3.69
	N	13.86	44.38	64.49	83.30	94.43	9.84
	P	-0.32	-47.35	-71.53	-47.78	-63.96	-7.16
	Peat	-24.40	-65.03	-87.32	-75.94	-80.35	-6.97
	CO₂	7.10	3.39	1.26	-11.63	4.47	-1.13

628

629 4. Discussion

630 Northern peatlands have historically functioned as long-term net CO₂ sinks, playing a critical role
631 in moderating the global Earth system (Frolking et al., 2011; Gallego-Sala et al., 2018; Helbig et
632 al., 2022; Treat et al., 2019). However, our multi-model comparison reveals a wide range of
633 responses in peatland C dynamics under experimental warming and eCO₂. This divergence reflects
634 fundamental differences in how models represent and couple key processes, such as productivity,
635 decomposition, methane cycling, and nutrient limitation, and how these processes interact under
636 environmental perturbations (Hanson et al., 2020; Loisel et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022). In the
637 following sections, we explore the implications of these contrasting responses for peatland
638 vulnerability, uncertainties in C-climate feedbacks, and priorities for future model development.

639 4.1 Diverse simulated carbon dynamics in northern peatlands

640 To interpret the mechanisms underlying divergent model responses, we categorize the
641 participating models into four functional types: (1) consistent carbon sources, (2) warming-
642 induced sink-to-source transitions across both CO₂ treatments, (3) sink-to-source transitions under
643 aCO₂ but sustained sinks under eCO₂, and (4) persistent C sinks or near-neutral systems. These
644 groupings reflect underlying differences in structural assumptions, process representation, and
645 sensitivities to temperature forcing.

646 CoupModel, ELM-Microbe, LPJ-Bern and PTEM consistently simulate peatlands as net C sources
647 across all warming and CO₂ treatments, broadly aligning with SPRUCE observations. These
648 models share detailed representations of peatland processes, including nutrient dynamics, moss
649 physiology, and hydrological controls. Although the nutrient and CH₄ modules were deactivated
650 for this intercomparison, CoupModel constrained hydrology using observed water table depths,
651 thereby improving the realism of simulated HR (He et al., 2021;personal communication). ELM-



652 Microbe includes explicit microbial functional group-based CH₄ processes, accounting for
 653 dissolved organic carbon availability, multiple methanogenic and methanotrophic pathways,
 654 hydrogen production, and diverse CH₄ transport mechanisms (Ricciuto et al., 2021), in addition to
 655 N and P dynamics, moss physiology, and peatland hydrology (Shi et al., 2015 and 2021). LPX-
 656 Bern exhibits strong positive HR temperature sensitivity and negligible CH₄ emissions. Although
 657 NPP increases with warming, respiration dominates, resulting in persistent C source behavior
 658 across treatments. PTEM integrates peatland-specific plant functional types, peat elevation
 659 feedbacks, and aerobic and anaerobic decomposition pathways regulated by soil moisture (Zhao
 660 et al., 2022; Zhao and Zhuang, 2023, 2024). Collectively, these process representations promote
 661 respiratory C losses that outweigh warming-induced gains in productivity. Overall, these models
 662 illustrate how strong respiratory responses and detailed peatland process representation can
 663 produce persistent C-source behavior under warming.

664 A second group of models including CLASSIC, CLM-Microbe, CoLM, ELM-SPRUCE, and LPJ-
 665 GUESS exhibits warming-induced transitions from net C sinks to sources. In these models,
 666 warming alters the balance between NPP and HR in distinct ways. CLASSIC shows strong HR
 667 increases relative to NPP, but both fluxes are weaker than observed, resulting in a weak warming
 668 sensitivity in NEE (Fig. 4a-c). This behavior likely reflects the use here of empirical rather than
 669 dynamically coupled nutrient limitation, which may overestimate the nutrient constraint on HR
 670 and NPP responses to warming and CO₂ enrichment (Arora and Scinocca, 2016). CLM-Microbe
 671 maintains relatively stable HR under warming but experiences declining NPP and elevated CH₄
 672 emissions, suggesting missing substrate or moisture feedbacks, or overly sensitive vegetation
 673 feedbacks. The contrasting responses of CLM-Microbe and ELM-Microbe, despite their shared
 674 CLM4.5 ancestry (Oleson et al., 2013), further suggest the strong influence of parameterization
 675 choices and nonlinear interactions arising from minor process changes. CoLM overestimates NPP
 676 at baseline, but warming-induced NPP reductions exceed HR declines, resulting in net C loss.
 677 ELM-SPRUCE incorporates coupled N and P cycling, with warming leading to NPP declines
 678 alongside HR and CH₄ emissions increases, and a prescribed reduction in moss cover, collectively
 679 driving a sink-to-source transition. LPJ-GUESS predicts concurrent declines in NPP and HR with
 680 warming, with stronger reductions in NPP and slight increases in CH₄ emissions, resulting in net



681 C loss. Together, these models demonstrate that sink-to-source transitions can emerge through
 682 multiple combinations of productivity decline, respiration enhancement, and methane responses.

683 A third set of models including JULES, ORCHIDEE, TECO-SPRUCES, and VISIT, transitions
 684 from C sinks to sources under aCO₂ but retains sink behavior under eCO₂, indicating strong CO₂
 685 fertilization effects. ORCHIDEE shows NPP reductions under warming, likely reflecting
 686 Sphagnum sensitivity to temperature, but CO₂ fertilization partially buffers these losses under
 687 eCO₂. VISIT maintains high NPP across all warming scenarios under eCO₂, thereby preserving a
 688 net carbon sink. JULES, which lacks nutrient constraints, simulates stronger NPP under eCO₂ than
 689 aCO₂ and reduced NPP with warming, while failing to reproduce the observed positive HR
 690 response to warming. TECO-SPRUCES exhibits a nonlinear response, with warming weakening
 691 the sink under aCO₂ but enhancing C uptake under eCO₂, reflecting interactive effects among
 692 temperature, plant productivity, and microbial responses. These models emphasize the importance
 693 of CO₂ fertilization in moderating warming-induced C losses.

694 Finally, DNDC and MWM remain C sinks or near-neutral even under extreme warming. DNDC
 695 simulates steep NPP declines, and HR increases with warming under aCO₂. Under eCO₂, stable
 696 NPP sustains C uptake across most warming levels, with near-neutral behavior only under +9.00
 697 °C. MWM incorporates peat cohort tracking and microbial decomposition processes, but
 698 represents only shrubs and mosses, lacking trees that constitute a substantial component of the
 699 SPRUCES ecosystem (Shao et al., 2022). This structural limitation may contribute to
 700 underestimated NPP under the lower warming treatments and persistent underestimation of HR
 701 (Fig. 3, Fig. S2-S5). In contrast, these models suggest that differences in vegetation representation,
 702 decomposition processes and parameterization can maintain sink behavior even under strong
 703 warming.

704 **4.2 Benchmarking-related uncertainties in evaluating modeled peatland carbon dynamics**

705 Our analysis highlights substantial uncertainties in benchmarking modeled peatland C dynamics
 706 against observations, arising from both observational constraints and asymmetries between
 707 observational and modeling frameworks. Field measurements of NEE, NPP, HR, and CH₄ fluxes
 708 used to benchmark the models are subject to substantial uncertainty because of spatial



709 heterogeneity, large interannual variability, heterogeneous vegetation composition, and
710 methodological limitations (Bubier et al., 2003; Griffiths et al., 2017; Hanson et al., 2020; Moffat
711 et al., 2007; Norby et al., 2019; Papale et al., 2006).

712 For instance, observed NEE under the lower warming treatments (+0 and +2.25 °C under aCO₂;
713 Fig. 3 and Fig. S2) exhibited positive multi-year mean values. However, substantial interannual
714 variability prevents a definitive classification of the peatland as a persistent C source under these
715 conditions. More persistent C source behavior emerges under +2.25 °C with eCO₂ and under +4.5
716 °C or higher warming for both CO₂ treatments (Figs. S2-S5). These results reinforce previous
717 studies showing that short-term interannual climate variability can obscure treatment effects in
718 peatland C fluxes (Hanson et al., 2020). Several models (e.g., CoupModel, CLM-Microbe,
719 CLASSIC, ELM-SPRUCE) similarly exhibit interannual NEE variability that exceeds their mean
720 annual values at the lower warming levels (e.g., +0, +2.25 °C). Both observations and these models
721 show a clearer transition toward persistent C-source behavior as warming increases.

722 Additional uncertainty arises from pretreatment differences among experimental chambers.
723 Observed contrasts between aCO₂ and eCO₂ treatments may partly reflect background differences
724 in vegetation composition and soil properties associated with small-scale spatial heterogeneity.
725 Such pretreatment differences are not represented in the models, which branch from a common
726 initial condition at the start of the experimental period (Sect. 2.2). While statistical adjustments
727 can account for pretreatment effects in some variables (e.g., biomass and NPP; (Hanson et al.,
728 2025)), this approach is more challenging for NEE and HR, where treatment signals are weaker,
729 variability is larger, and underlying mechanisms are less directly observable.

730 A related limitation is that each warming × CO₂ treatment was applied to a single enclosure,
731 preventing direct estimation of plot-to-plot variability under identical treatment conditions.
732 Consequently, spatial heterogeneity among chambers cannot be separated from treatment effects.
733 Pretreatment measurements indicate that differences in vegetation composition, peat properties,
734 and ecosystem carbon fluxes existed among chambers before experimental manipulations began
735 (Griffiths et al., 2017; Hanson et al., 2025). Although statistical adjustments can partially account
736 for such differences for some variables, the absence of true treatment replication means that



737 uncertainty associated with small-scale spatial heterogeneity is difficult to quantify and remains
 738 an important consideration when evaluating model performance against observations.

739 Differences in response timescale further complicate model-data comparisons. In models, eCO_2
 740 directly affects photosynthesis via stomatal and biochemical mechanisms, leading to immediate
 741 changes in NPP that can be readily detected in deterministic model simulations. In contrast,
 742 observed eCO_2 effects often emerge only after several years, as slow biomass accumulation,
 743 interacting environmental limitations, and measurement uncertainty can obscure early responses
 744 (Norby et al., 2024; Reich et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2014). On the other hand, the modeled HR
 745 responses to warming may emerge more slowly than those observed in the field, potentially
 746 contributing to the muted HR temperature sensitivity simulated by some models during the 2015-
 747 2021 period (Fig. 4c). One contributing factor may be that root exudate pools are not explicitly
 748 represented in most models, despite their rapid response to environmental change and their role as
 749 a highly labile C source for microbial respiration in the rhizosphere (Drake et al., 2011; Kuzyakov
 750 and Cheng, 2001).

751 A final source of discrepancy arises from differences in flux definitions between observed and
 752 modeled C fluxes. For example, observed NEE is derived from a combination of biomass
 753 increment estimates and chamber-based gas flux measurements, whereas models simulate
 754 continuous NEE based on internal ecosystem C balance equations. Similarly, observed NPP
 755 includes Sphagnum growth, and fine root production, but excludes shrub stem increment and some
 756 dormant-season production (Hanson et al., 2020). Consequently, observational estimates of NPP
 757 likely underestimate total ecosystem productivity and introduce additional uncertainty when
 758 compared with model-derived NPP. In addition, observed NPP also excludes root exudates, which
 759 may account for up to ~20% of NPP or NEE (Crow and Wieder, 2005; Wania et al., 2009). In
 760 contrast, most peatland models typically do not represent this C pathway explicitly and therefore
 761 may allocate a larger fraction of assimilated C to plant biomass than in the real world. These
 762 definitional mismatches complicate benchmarking efforts and highlight the need for consistent
 763 flux definitions and evaluation metrics in future model-experiment intercomparisons.

764 **4.3 Model structural uncertainties**



765 Our findings emphasize the critical role of structural uncertainty in shaping modeled C dynamics.
 766 The Type-II ANOVA indicates that the representations of nutrient cycling, vegetation structure
 767 (including moss representation and light competition), and dynamic peat processes systematically
 768 influence both the magnitude and, in some cases, the warming sensitivity of simulated C fluxes
 769 (Table 3). The influence of a given process on mean C fluxes does not necessarily correspond to
 770 its influence on warming sensitivities, highlighting the importance of interactions among
 771 vegetation, nutrients, and peat processes.

772 For example, light competition reduced mean HR and NEE under some warming treatments but
 773 increased the warming sensitivity of HR, whereas dynamic peat representation reduced the
 774 warming sensitivity of NEE (Table 3). The contrasting effects of N and P cycling on NEE and HR
 775 likely reflect differences in how nutrient limitation is represented across models, as well as
 776 differences in plant-microbe competition for soil nutrients (Arora and Scinocca, 2016). Moss
 777 representation also influenced simulated C fluxes by altering litter inputs, plant productivity, and
 778 substrate availability for decomposition. Although the underlying mechanisms differ among
 779 models, these results suggest that vegetation, nutrient, and peat process representations contribute
 780 to systematic differences in simulated peatland C dynamics. Given the limited number of
 781 participating models and the confounding factors between structural choices and parameterization,
 782 these inferred mechanisms should be interpreted cautiously. Nevertheless, the identified structural
 783 patterns provide a useful foundation for targeted model development and future model
 784 intercomparisons.

785 Differences in process representation and model parameterization appear to be more important
 786 than overall model complexity in explaining model behavior. For example, ELM-Microbe and
 787 PTEM reproduced the observed warming-induced transition toward stronger net carbon loss more
 788 closely than many other participating models, consistent with their detailed representations of peat
 789 soil processes, plant functional diversity (including mosses), and nutrient cycling (Ricciuto et al.,
 790 2021; Zhao and Zhuang, 2023). Several participating models within the CLM/ELM family,
 791 together with CoupModel, incorporated varying degrees of site-specific development, parameter
 792 calibration, or observational constraints informed by the SPRUCE experiment. These efforts
 793 illustrate the value of integrating long-term experimental observations into model development.
 794 However, because these models also differ substantially in model generation, process



795 representation, and parameterization, the relative contributions of site-specific development,
796 calibration, and structural differences cannot be isolated within the present intercomparison. In
797 contrast, CLASSIC exhibited relatively weak responses to warming and elevated CO₂, likely
798 reflecting its empirical downregulation of CO₂ fertilization and its nutrient limitation formulation
799 rather than overall model complexity. Despite incorporating relatively detailed process
800 representations, MWM and DNDC consistently simulated stronger C sinks than observed,
801 suggesting that differences in peatland-specific process representation, parameterization, or both
802 may contribute to these discrepancies (Shao et al., 2022, 2023). Overall, these contrasting
803 behaviors indicate that incorporating additional processes alone does not necessarily improve
804 model performance; rather, the representation, parameterization, and calibration of key vegetation,
805 nutrient, and peatland processes are the primary determinants of model skill.

806 Strong CO₂ fertilization responses further illustrate structural uncertainty. TECO-SPRUCE
807 exhibits a strong CO₂ fertilization effect that enhances NPP under elevated CO₂, although this
808 response may overestimate plant productivity if nutrient constraints are insufficiently represented.
809 In contrast, CoupModel and CLASSIC exhibit relatively weak NEE responses to elevated CO₂.
810 For CLASSIC, this behavior largely reflects its empirical downregulation of CO₂ fertilization and
811 nutrient limitation formulation, as mentioned earlier, whereas the comparatively weak CO₂
812 response in CoupModel likely reflects a simplified representation of CO₂ fertilization effects on
813 photosynthesis. Although these assumptions improve agreement with the SPRUCE observations,
814 they may reduce model generality across other peatland ecosystems. For the two microbe-enabled
815 models (ELM-Microbe and CLM-Microbe), the relatively weak sensitivity to elevated CO₂ may
816 arise from stronger microbial feedbacks that offset gains in plant productivity. Together, these
817 contrasting responses highlight the need for a unified benchmarking framework to systematically
818 evaluate how combinations of structural assumptions and parameter choices influence model
819 predictability.

820 Uncertainty in simulated CH₄ emissions remains particularly pronounced, reflecting differences in
821 hydrological representation, microbial parameterization, and the treatment of anaerobic processes
822 and water-table coupling across models (Estop-Aragonés et al., 2018; Melton et al., 2013).
823 Although CH₄ process representation was not identified as a primary driver of NEE, NPP, or HR
824 in the revised structural analysis, accurately simulating methane emissions remains essential for



825 evaluating peatland greenhouse-gas feedbacks. Continued coordination between long-term field
 826 measurements and standardized model evaluation will therefore be important for improving the
 827 representation of methane-related processes.

828 **4.4 Influence of model parameter uncertainty**

829 In addition to structural differences, inter-model divergence also reflects uncertainty in
 830 parameterization. Variations in parameters controlling HR sensitivity or the magnitude of CO₂
 831 fertilization can substantially affect modeled C fluxes, even among structurally similar models (Lu
 832 and Ricciuto, 2019). The contrasting responses of CLM-Microbe and ELM-Microbe, despite their
 833 shared structural heritage, highlight the importance of parameter calibration using comprehensive
 834 observational datasets.

835 Because comprehensive parameter perturbation across all participating models is not feasible, we
 836 illustrate parameter-driven uncertainty using ELM-SPRUCES as an example. We perturb a suite of
 837 photosynthesis (flnr), C allocation (froot_leaf, stem_leaf), stomatal conductance (mbbopt),
 838 microbial decomposition (k_l3, decomp_depth_efolding, mino2lim, q10_mr, q10_hr), and CH₄
 839 production (q10ch4, f_ch4) parameters within plausible ranges. Results for the +0 °C warming
 840 treatment under aCO₂ and eCO₂ conditions are shown in Figs. S7-8, with similar patterns observed
 841 across other warming levels.

842 NEE is most sensitive to allocation parameters of the spruce PFT (froot_leaf, stem_leaf), and to a
 843 lesser extent to moss photosynthetic capacity (flnr) and litter decomposition parameters (k_l3,
 844 q10_hr). CH₄ emissions are strongly influenced by the fraction of C allocated to CH₄ production
 845 (f_ch4), as well as by moss photosynthesis and allocation parameters. The parameter sensitivity
 846 analysis also indicates interactions among PFTs, with perturbations to spruce tree parameters
 847 influencing simulated NPP of tamarack, shrubs, and mosses (Figs. S7a, S8a). Consequently,
 848 models that do not represent the full suite of PFTs, such as MWM, which excludes trees, or TECO-
 849 SPRUCES, which represents a single PFT may not fully capture these interactions and their
 850 implications for C and nutrient cycling.

851 Overall, our results demonstrate that peatland models with diverse combinations of processes and
 852 parameters require careful validation, uncertainty quantification, and calibration to robustly project



853 responses to environmental change. Controlled experiments such as SPRUCE provide a unique
854 opportunity to constrain temperature and CO₂ sensitivities beyond the range of historical
855 variability. The parameter sensitivity analysis using ELM-SPRUCE illustrates how parameter
856 choices can substantially influence simulated peatland C responses, complementing the structural
857 uncertainty discussed in Section 4.3. More broadly, several participating models, particularly
858 within the CLM/ELM family, together with CoupModel, incorporated varying degrees of site-
859 specific process development, parameter calibration, or observational constraints informed by the
860 SPRUCE experiment. These efforts illustrate the value of integrating long-term experimental
861 observations into model development. However, because these models also differ substantially in
862 model generation, process representation, and parameterization, the relative contributions of site-
863 specific development, calibration, and structural differences cannot be isolated within the present
864 intercomparison. Continued improvement in parameter calibration, together with better process
865 representation, will reduce uncertainty and support more reliable projections of peatland C
866 dynamics under future climate change.

867 **4.5 Implications for climate feedbacks, ecosystem resilience, and future modeling**

868 The SPRUCE-MIP results reaffirm that northern peatlands, despite their long-standing role as
869 carbon sinks, are vulnerable to transitions under warming and eCO₂ (Koven et al., 2015a; Treat et
870 al., 2019). Both observational and modeled evidence suggests that continued warming will likely
871 shift these ecosystems toward net C loss, with the potential to introduce positive feedbacks to
872 climate change through CO₂ and CH₄ emissions (Gallego-Sala et al., 2018; Koven et al., 2015b;
873 Natali et al., 2019; Turetsky et al., 2020). However, the magnitude and even the direction of this
874 feedback remain highly uncertain, as evidenced by the wide range of simulated NEE temperature
875 sensitivities across the model ensemble.

876 This uncertainty arises from fundamental differences in how key peatland processes are
877 represented and coupled in current models. Results from the process-based analysis highlight the
878 importance of vegetation structure (light competition and moss representation), nutrient cycling
879 (N and P), and peat processes in shaping mean C fluxes and, in some cases, their responses to
880 warming. These processes regulate the balance between productivity and HR and modulate how
881 C losses are partitioned between CO₂ and CH₄ pathways. Disagreement among models is



882 particularly pronounced for CH₄ emissions and CO₂ fertilization responses. More than a decade
 883 after the WETCHIMP and WETCHIMP-WSL intercomparison projects identified substantial
 884 divergence in modeled wetland CH₄ (Bohn et al., 2015; Melton et al., 2013), the present SPRUCE-
 885 MIP results indicate that comparable levels of disagreement persist, now extending beyond CH₄
 886 to include net carbon balance and warming sensitivity. Structural differences among models
 887 continue to produce widely divergent projections. This persistence suggests that improving
 888 peatland projections requires not only additional process complexity, but more systematic
 889 evaluation of how key processes are coupled and parameterized across models. Although most
 890 models simulate enhanced NPP under eCO₂, many appear to overestimate this effect relative to
 891 observations at SPRUCE under low-warming conditions, suggesting incomplete representation of
 892 interacting constraints such as nutrient availability and vegetation-microbe competition.

893 Recent observational studies further suggest that peatland vulnerability may be amplified when
 894 warming and increased CO₂ emissions interact with hydrological extremes. For example, (Quan
 895 et al., 2025) using observations from the SPRUCE experiment, (Quan et al., 2025) using
 896 observations from the SPRUCE experiment, demonstrated that drought-induced C losses in
 897 peatlands are exacerbated under combined warming and elevated CO₂, highlighting the importance
 898 of compound climate stressors that extend beyond warming or CO₂ enrichment alone. Together
 899 with the SPRUCE warming experiment, such findings indicate that future peatland C responses
 900 and associated climate feedbacks are likely governed by interacting controls on productivity,
 901 decomposition, CH₄ cycling, and ecosystem water status, rather than by single drivers in isolation.

902 From an ecosystem resilience perspective, the model ensemble reveals markedly different
 903 capacities for resistance and persistence under warming. Some models transition to net C sources
 904 under relatively modest temperature increases, whereas others remain sinks even under +9 °C
 905 warming. This divergence raises critical questions about the credibility and transferability of
 906 resilience projections derived from either individual models or multi-model ensembles. Although
 907 the multi-model mean generally captures the observed transition toward stronger C loss with
 908 warming, it masks substantial differences among individual models in both the magnitude and
 909 mechanisms of the response. Consequently, agreement between the ensemble mean and
 910 observations should not necessarily be interpreted as evidence that the underlying process
 911 representations are correct. Importantly, it suggests that resilience metrics based solely on mean



912 carbon balance may be insufficient, and that transient responses, compensating flux changes, and
 913 recovery trajectories must also be considered. Another challenge lies in addressing the decadal-to-
 914 millennial process timescales associated with peat C dynamics and distinguishing short-term
 915 responses examined here from long-term peat accumulation and loss. Peat C pools accumulate and
 916 turn over on centennial to millennial timescales, whereas experimental manipulations such as
 917 SPRUCE necessarily operate over years to decades. This disparity complicates model spin-up,
 918 initialization, and evaluation, particularly when short-term flux responses are used to infer longer-
 919 term peatland C-climate feedbacks (Müller and Joos, 2021). The spread in modeled responses
 920 identified here therefore reflects not only differences in process representation, but also how
 921 individual models translate short-term perturbations into longer-term C balance trajectories. In this
 922 context, SPRUCE-MIP is not intended to benchmark long-term peat accumulation directly, but
 923 rather to diagnose structural sensitivities and emergent behaviors that shape near-term responses
 924 and condition longer-term outcomes.

925 These findings point to several priorities for future model development and evaluation. First,
 926 improved representation of vegetation structure and functional diversity, including interactions
 927 among mosses, shrubs, and trees, is essential for capturing interactions between productivity, litter
 928 inputs, and decomposition. Trait-based or multi-PFT frameworks provide promising pathways for
 929 resolving these interactions. Second, nutrient cycling and CH₄ processes require more consistent
 930 and mechanistic treatment to reduce biases in CO₂ fertilization responses and CH₄ emissions.
 931 Third, manipulative experiments such as SPRUCE should be more fully leveraged for model
 932 calibration and benchmarking. Beyond warming and CO₂ treatments, water table depth
 933 manipulation at SPRUCE was initiated recently, providing a new opportunity to directly constrain
 934 hydrological controls on peatland carbon cycling. Although these data are not analyzed in the
 935 present study, they have strong potential to improve model representations of aerobic versus
 936 anaerobic decomposition and methane production.

937 Future benchmarking efforts should move beyond mean annual fluxes to include interannual
 938 variability, component flux sensitivities, and indicators of resistance and recovery. Combining
 939 controlled manipulations with naturally occurring extremes, such as drought events, offers a
 940 powerful framework for evaluating model performance under conditions that more closely
 941 resemble future climate variability. Finally, peatland model evaluation should extend beyond



942 comparisons with contemporary flux measurements to also consider the current global distribution
 943 of peat C (e.g., (Xu et al., 2018)) and reconstructions of peatland area and C stock evolution over
 944 the deglacial period and the Holocene (e.g., (Loisel et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2010)). Such long-term
 945 constraints provide an important test of whether models reproduce both present-day peat C stocks
 946 and the processes governing their accumulation over millennial timescales. Together, these
 947 advances will be critical for reducing uncertainty in projections of peatland C responses and their
 948 associated climate feedbacks and for improving the reliability of Earth system models in
 949 representing the vulnerability of this globally significant carbon reservoir.

950 **5. Conclusions**

951 This SPRUCE-MIP intercomparison reveals substantial divergence in simulated northern peatland
 952 C responses to warming and elevated CO₂, underscoring persistent uncertainty in model-based
 953 projections of peatland behavior under environmental change. Across the model ensemble,
 954 responses range from persistent C sinks to consistent C sources, with multiple forms of sink-to-
 955 source transitions emerging under increasing temperature and CO₂ enrichment. These contrasting
 956 outcomes highlight the sensitivity of peatland C balance to differences in process representation,
 957 parameterization, and environmental forcing.

958 Based on their behavior across warming and CO₂ treatments, models can be broadly grouped into
 959 four functional response types: (i) models that simulate peatlands as net C sources across all
 960 conditions; (ii) models that transition from sinks to sources under warming regardless of CO₂ level;
 961 (iii) models that transition to sources only under aCO₂ but remain sinks under eCO₂, reflecting
 962 strong CO₂ fertilization effects; and (iv) models that maintain persistent sinks or near-neutral C
 963 balance even under extreme warming. The coexistence of these response types within a single
 964 intercomparison emphasizes that peatland vulnerability cannot be inferred from temperature or
 965 CO₂ forcing alone.

966 The spread in simulated responses is driven by differences in the representation and coupling of
 967 key ecosystem processes. Vegetation structure, including light competition and moss
 968 representation, nutrient cycling, and dynamic peat processes exert systematic influences on mean
 969 C fluxes and, in some cases, their warming sensitivities. Models differ markedly in how warming



970 alters the balance between productivity and HR and in how C losses are partitioned among
 971 ecosystem pathways. Although eCO₂ generally enhances modeled productivity, many models
 972 simulate stronger fertilization effects than supported by observations at SPRUCE under low-
 973 warming conditions, pointing to incomplete representation of interacting nutrient, vegetation, and
 974 microbial constraints. Parameter sensitivity analyses conducted for ELM-SPRUCE further
 975 indicate that parameter choices can substantially modulate the magnitude of simulated C flux
 976 responses.

977 Together, these findings indicate that future peatland C responses to warming and elevated CO₂
 978 will be governed by interacting biological, biogeochemical, and physical processes, and may be
 979 strongly modulated under compound climatic stressors. Reducing uncertainty will require
 980 coordinated advances in long-term manipulative experiments, model development, and
 981 complementary constraints from reconstructions of past peatland extent and C accumulation.
 982 Experiments such as SPRUCE provide critical constraints on process sensitivities beyond the
 983 historical climate envelope, while emerging observations, including drought impacts and newly
 984 initiated water table manipulation, offer valuable opportunities to evaluate ecosystem resistance,
 985 recovery, and nonlinear responses. Improving the representation of vegetation functional diversity,
 986 nutrient-microbe interactions, hydrological and peatland processes, CH₄ related processes, and
 987 transient ecosystem responses will be essential for strengthening confidence in projections of
 988 peatland C dynamics. Ultimately, SPRUCE-MIP demonstrates that translating short-term
 989 experimental responses into longer-term projections of peatland C-climate feedbacks depends
 990 critically on how models represent and couple vegetation dynamics, nutrient cycling, hydrology,
 991 and peat processes. Although CH₄ process representation was not identified as a primary structural
 992 driver of ecosystem C balance, uncertainties in simulated CH₄ emissions remain an important
 993 source of divergence in projected greenhouse-gas feedbacks.

994

995

996 **Data availability**

997 The observational and model datasets used in this study are available from the corresponding
 998 author upon reasonable request.

999

1000 **Author contributions**

1001 XS, DMR, and JM designed the study and SPRUCE-MIP protocol. XS and YW performed the
 1002 multi-model analyses, and YW contributed to the initial development and drafting of the process-



representation analysis in Sect. 3.3. XS prepared the initial manuscript draft. XS, JRM, FJ, QS, YL, JZhou, XX, JZhang, DH, QZ, YY, CQ, HH, MW, SS, XL, YD, AI, NC, AH, RHT, and EJB conducted model simulations, provided model results, and contributed model descriptions. YH contributed to Figs. 1 and 2 and assisted with references. PJH, NAG, VS, and MAM provided observational datasets. PET contributed to the interpretation and analysis of model results. JRM and FJ provided substantial comments that improved the manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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1054 6. References

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