



1 **CO₂ exchange at a subarctic mire complex with varying permafrost status**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Thawing permafrost exerts a major forcing on carbon cycling in peatlands along the margins of
16 the Arctic. Our aim in this work is to quantify the differences in net ecosystem exchange (NEE)
17 of CO₂ and its component processes — Gross Primary Production (GPP) and ecosystem
18 respiration (Reco) — across surfaces with different permafrost status in a sub-arctic mire
19 complex. The study site, the Abisko-Stordalen mire in Arctic Sweden, is located at 68°20' N,
20 19°30' E. We used data from two eddy covariance towers, with footprints covering areas with
21 different permafrost status, i.e. mostly permafrost covered palsa plateau (2014-2021), partly
22 thawed bog-palsa mosaic (2014-2021), and non-permafrost rich fen (2014). The bi-modal wind
23 direction pattern at the measurement site helped to derive surface type specific data data set
24 from each tower.

25 The diel cycle of carbon dioxide (CO₂) fluxes during the summer months (June, July, and August)
26 were similar in their pattern, but the magnitudes of CO₂ fluxes at the fen exhibited higher fluxes
27 than the palsa and thawing sectors. The CO₂ fluxes between the palsa plateau and partly
28 thawed area were like each other. CO₂ responses to air temperature and incoming solar
29 radiation indicated highest Reco and GPP and any given temperature and light level at the non-
30 permafrost fen.

31 Analysis of the gapfilled NEE at the palsa plateau and partially thawed sector, for which multi-
32 year time series is available, showed that 2016 had significantly higher fluxes than the multi-
33 year average. The likely reason for this is the longer growing season in 2016. This is also
34 supported by the locally measured NDVI values, suggesting greater vegetation development
35 during that year.



36 In summary, the tall sedge fen had the highest daytime CO₂ uptake in summer and the highest
 37 net respiration at night during the growing season. The palsa plateau and partially thawed
 38 sector exhibited significantly lower CO₂ fluxes. There were no significant differences in NEE,
 39 GPP, or Reco between these two sectors, despite their differing permafrost conditions and
 40 vegetation characteristics. This is in contrast with significant differences in methane emissions
 41 between these three systems reported in previous studies.

42 1. Introduction

43 In recent years, the high latitudes have experienced more pronounced warming in comparison
 44 to lower latitudes (Post et al., 2019). This swift warming trend is anticipated to endure into the
 45 forthcoming years (Serreze et al., 2011; Biskaborn et al., 2019). The increase in temperature is
 46 expected to accelerate the thawing of permafrost, leading to amplified microbial decomposition
 47 rates and heightened temperature sensitivity of the soil carbon stability (Schuur et al., 2008;
 48 Koven et al., 2017). Consequently, permafrost soil carbon is becoming increasingly vulnerable to
 49 depletion (Crowther and Bradford, 2013; MacDougall et al., 2016; Burke et al., 2017; Varney et
 50 al., 2020; Wilson et al. 2022) and release of remineralizer carbon to atmospheric carbon dioxide
 51 (CO₂). The geographical features of the Arctic can be transformed due to the thawing of
 52 permafrost and thermokarst formation, resulting in the collapse of soil structures, redistribution
 53 of the near surface water tables, and the creation of open water reservoirs (Åkerman and
 54 Johansson, 2008). The surface water in thawing permafrost mire is determined by the
 55 microtopography and permafrost dynamics, which has impact on the composition of plant
 56 communities and the oxidative status of mire soils. That transformation will lead to changes in
 57 the wetlands type, from palsa and bog to fen and open water (Varner et al., 2022) and changes
 58 in ground temperatures, active layer thickness, plant community structure, and productivity
 59 (Johansson et al., 2013). Carbon gas budgets for the northern permafrost region are still
 60 uncertain due to low data availability (Ramage et al. 2024). Lack of temporal and spatial
 61 information on fluxes of climate forcing gases, or greenhouse gases (GHG), in this heterogeneous
 62 landscape causes uncertainty in global budget estimations (Watts et al., 2023). Changes in
 63 terrestrial temperature at high latitudes reveal significant amounts of organic carbon (OC),
 64 consequently leading to the degradation of C and the emission of GHGs such as CO₂ and methane
 65 (CH₄) from permafrost into the atmosphere (Chen et al., 2021; Natali et al., 2019; Schuur et al.,
 66 2009, 2015; Treat et al., 2018; Voigt et al., 2020a). Higher annual air temperatures make the
 67 growing season longer. This is leading to increase in CO₂ fluxes and additional nutrient release
 68 from thawing permafrost. This may contribute to increased vegetation productivity that at least
 69 partly offset the release of permafrost GHG. (Koven et al., 2015; Liu, Kuhn, et al., 2022; López-
 70 Blanco et al., 2022; McGuire et al., 2018; Schuur & Mack, 2018).

71 The main goal of this work is to quantify the differences in net ecosystem exchange of CO₂ (NEE)
 72 and its component processes, Gross Primary Production (GPP) and ecosystem respiration (Reco),
 73 across mire surfaces with different permafrost status at a sub-arctic mire complex using eddy
 74 covariance (EC) data. The EC method is suitable for long-term, high temporal resolution



75 measurements (e.g. Knox et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016, Rinne et al. 2018) with minimal disturbance
 76 to the measured surface. Multi-year observations allow for the identification of patterns, annual
 77 and interannual variation in CO₂ exchange. Datasets spanning over extended periods of time are
 78 crucial for comprehending the dynamics of ecosystems, evaluating the effects of climate change,
 79 and guiding policy-making processes.

80 This study encompasses CO₂ fluxes of three different areas measured by two EC system.
 81 Previously the C fluxes at these surface types have been compared by chamber (Bäckstrand et
 82 al., 2010, Varner et al. 2021). The Stordalen mire complex in northern Sweden near Abisko
 83 Scientific Research Station offers an excellent opportunity to analyze fluxes from a mire
 84 ecosystem with different permafrost and hydrological status: permafrost palsa plateau, thawing
 85 bog-like systems, and fully thawed fen systems, at the same climate and weather forcing.
 86 Because of the regularity of bi-modal wind directions at Stordalen Mire (Fig. S1,) the footprint
 87 areas of the flux measurement can be used to distinguish the fluxes from different ecosystem
 88 types.

89 Most of the published EC studies conducted at Stordalen compare only two stages of permafrost
 90 status and focus on methane emission (Jackowicz-Korczyński et al. 2010, Jammet et al. 2017,
 91 Lakomiec et al. 2021). Annual averages of CO₂ exchange from a single year presented by Lakomiec
 92 et al. (2021) indicated lower net carbon uptake from permafrost areas than from partially thawed
 93 area. No comparison between the fen area, and palsa and partially thawed area, based on EC
 94 measurements, have been conducted before. In this study we examine how the CO₂ exchange
 95 at these three systems, and its functional dependencies on light and temperature, differs from
 96 each other in order to better understand the C balance of changing Arctic landscapes (Lundin et
 97 al. 2016). We can hypothesize that the earlier observed annual methane emissions would scale
 98 up with GPP or NEE, that would lead to highest fluxes at the fen site, followed by the partially
 99 thawed system and palsa plateau.

100

101 2. Materials and Methods

102 2.1. Study site

103 The study site, Stordalen Mire ([68°21'N, 19°03'E, 360](#) m als) is a mire complex underlain by
 104 discontinuous permafrost situated in Arctic Sweden 10 km east of the village of Abisko
 105 (Åbeskovvu). The northern latitudes are exposed to a large temperature increase and the 0 °C
 106 threshold for average annual temperature has been exceeded in Abisko since the late 1980s
 107 (Callaghan et al., 2013). During the measurement period of this study (2014-2021) mean air
 108 temperature was 0.9 °C, while the mean annual temperature for years 1981-2010 was -0.1 °C.
 109 Older data (1961-1990) show that the mean annual temperature was -0.9 °C.

110 The research site is situated within an expansive basin adjacent to Lake Torneträsk
 111 (Duortnosjávri). Due to its placement east of the nearby Caledonide mountains precipitation



112 rates are among the lowest in Sweden due to the rain shadow effect. The average total annual
 113 precipitation total during the analyzed period (2014-21), was 295 mm yr⁻¹, while it was 332 mm
 114 for years 1981-2010 and around 10% more for the years 1961-1990. The east-west valley of Lake
 115 Torneträsk channels the synoptic wind patterns, leading to a bimodal distribution of wind
 116 direction (Fig. S1). Unlike at some mountain valleys where the bimodal wind pattern follows a
 117 diel cycle, in Abisko-Stordalen the wind pattern is governed by synoptic scale forcing.

118 The Abisko-Stordalen ICOS Ecosystem station (SE-Sto, www.icos-sweden.se/abisko-stordalen) EC
 119 flux tower is located at the border between permafrost palsa plateau and thawing bog-like
 120 system. Due to the channeling of the wind, the ICOS SE-Sto flow dataset can be divided into two
 121 separate sectors; the western, which is dominated by palsa (underlying permafrost) and the bog-
 122 like thawing eastern sector. The lake-shore EC flux system by Jammet et al. (2015, 2017) and
 123 Jansen et al. (2019) measured fluxes either from a shallow lake or from a fen system (fully thawed
 124 with persistent slow water flow). In this paper only fluxes from palsa sector and partially thawed
 125 sector (ICOS tower) and the fen sector (Lake shore tower) are used.

126 The palsa areas are characterized by the presence of near surface permafrost which lifts the
 127 surface to slightly higher elevation (1-2 m), facilitating drainage. Intermediate thawed regions are
 128 hydrologically perched above the local water table. *Sphagnum* spp. and other ombrotrophic
 129 species are the predominant vegetation. In contrast, fully thawed fen-like areas are lower and
 130 are constantly water saturated.

131 The vegetation on the palsa plateau is dominated by low from ericaceous species such as
 132 *Empetrum hermaphroditum*, *Betula nana*, *Rubus chamaemorus*, *Andromeda polifolia*, *Dicranum*
 133 sp. Thawing areas are characterized by ombrotrophic species, such as *Eriophorum vaginatum*,
 134 *Carex rotundata*, and cryptogams including *Sphagnum* spp., *Drepanocladus schulzei*, *Polytrichum*
 135 *jensenii* (Johansson et al., 2006). Fen areas have a persistently high-water table level and are
 136 dominated by taller macrophytes *Carex rostrate*, *Esquisetum* spp. and *Eriophorium angustifolium*
 137 (Johansson et al., 2006, Jammet et al., 2017; Palace et al., 2018).

138 2.2. Data

139 In this analysis we used Swedish national network data from the Integrated Carbon Observation
 140 System (ICOS) Ecosystem station Abisko-Stordalen Palsa Bog (station SE-Sto) for the years 2014
 141 to 2021 (ICOS Sweden, 2023; Heiskanen et al., 2022) and data recorded by Jammet et al. (2017)
 142 during 2014 (<https://fluxnet.org/doi/FLUXNET2015/SE-St1>, Running et al., 1999). The data were
 143 collected at two separate towers, which were spaced 300 m apart.

144 2.2.1. Environmental measurements

145 Abiotic environmental parameters (peat and air temperature, net radiation components,
 146 Photosynthetic Photon Flux Density (PPFD), soil heat flux, volumetric soil water content, ground
 147 water table, sunshine duration, relative humidity, precipitation) were sampled with the 5 Hz
 148 frequency in the air and 1 Hz frequency in the soil and averaged into half-hourly values. Those
 149 parameters were measured according to the ICOS instructions (Rebmann et al., 2018). Peat/soil



parameters were measured in the four cardinal directions around the ICOS eddy-covariance tower (SE-Sto) (Fig. 1). In the further analysis only values from palsa and thawing sector location were used. Meteorological parameters in the air were measured at an additional mast north of the ICOS eddy-covariance tower (10 m distance for the years 2014-2017 and 20 m distance since 2018). A detailed list of ancillary parameters is presented by Lakomiec et al. 2021 supplement Table S1. Temperature probes for the fen were installed 5 m south-west of the fen flux tower at 4 different depths (5 cm, 10 cm, 25 cm, and 50 cm). All analyses were based on air temperature and radiation data from SE-Sto data (ICOS Sweden, 2023).

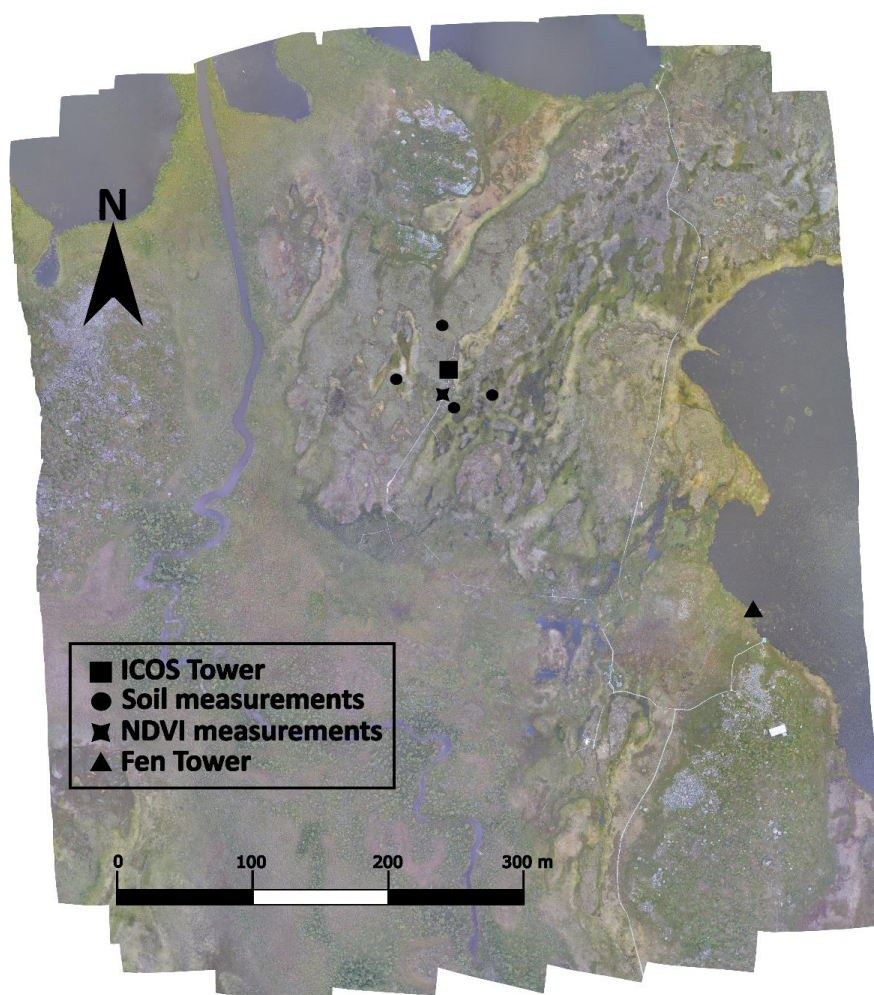


Fig 1. Abisko-Stordalen aerial map with marked ICOS Tower (black square), Soil temperature and measurements (black dots), NDVI measurements (black star), Fen tower (black triangle). Map data retrieved from the SITES Data Portal (<https://data.fieldsites.se>). SITES, licensed under CC BY 4.0



162 The normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI eq.1, Rouse et al. 1973) was calculated based
 163 on red and near-infrared (NIR) bands of 4-band multispectral sensors (Skye instruments)
 164 following methodology in Eklundh et al. (2011). These sensors are mounted on a 20-m tall
 165 spectral tower located 35 m south of the ICOS tower (Fig. 1) and included in the SITES Spectral
 166 infrastructure. One sensor, fitted with an acrylic cosine diffuser, faces upward to measure
 167 incoming light. The second sensor has a 25° field of view and is mounted on a 1-meter boom-
 168 oriented westward (300°), looking downward at a 45° off-nadir angle, targeting the palsa area
 169 within the ICOS flux footprint

170 The NDVI is calculated as follows:

171
$$NDVI = \frac{DVI}{NIR+red} (1),$$

172 where DVI (difference vegetation index) is given by $DVI=NIR-red$.

173 The sensor pair undergoes in-situ calibration every two years, following the method described
 174 by Jin and Eklundh (2015).

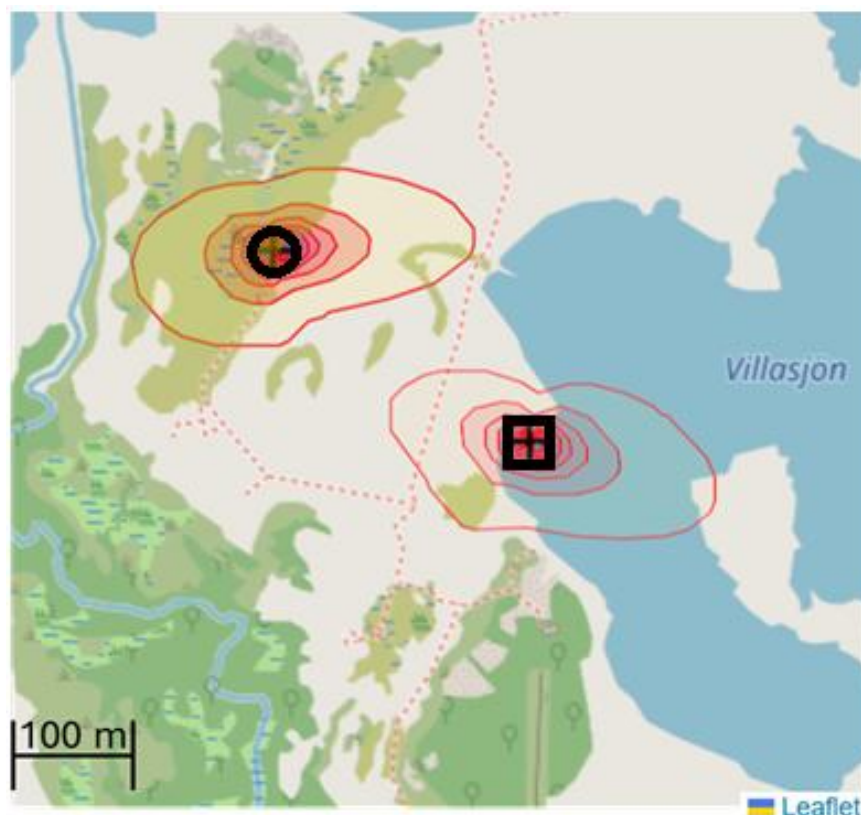
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176 2.2.2. Eddy-Covariance data

177 The EC measurements of flux at SE-Sto ICOS tower (Fig. 1) site were made with a LI-COR LI-7200
 178 (LI-COR Environment, USA) enclosed path infrared gas analyzer to measure CO₂ and H₂O and a 3-
 179 D sonic anemometer (2014-2017: Metek uSonic-3 CLASS A, Metek GmbH, Germany, 2018
 180 onwards: Gill HS-50, Gill Instruments Ltd.). Air was sampled through 1.05 m by 5.3 mm ID tubing.
 181 The sampling inlet was located 22 cm horizontally of the sonic anemometer measurement
 182 volume towards the south. The anemometer was pointing towards north. This facilitated
 183 uninterrupted airflow from both the palsa plateau and thaw systems. The anemometer together
 184 with air sampling tubes were fixed to the mast, at a height of 2.2 m above ground level (a.g.l.). It
 185 was situated at the edge of the palsa plateau and thaw system (68°21'21.32" N, 19°2'42.75" E).
 186 Data were logged at 20 Hz with an ISDL data logger (In Situ Instrument AB, Sweden) and a CR3000
 187 (Campbell Scientific, Inc., UT, USA).

188 Data collected at the lake-shore tower 300 m to the southeast at a lake edge by Jammet et al.
 189 (2017) were logged on CR3000 (Campbell Scientific, Inc., UT, USA). 3-D sonic anemometer (R3-
 190 50, Gill Instruments Ltd.) was mounted on the 2.2 m high mast. Wind components and sonic
 191 temperature were sampled at 10 Hz. CO₂ and H₂O were measured with an open path infrared
 192 gas analyzer (IRGA) model LI7500 (LICOR Environment, NE, USA) with 10 Hz time resolution. It
 193 was mounted at 2.2 m height.

194 Flux footprint prediction (FFP) model (Kljun et al., 2015) was used to calculate flux footprint for
 195 the year 2014 for both towers (Fig. 2). For those calculations data was not divided by the wind
 196 sectors.



197

198 Fig 2. Abisko-Stordalen map with the flux footprint calculation, where circle shows ICOS Tower and square
 199 shows Fen Tower.

200 As in Lakomiec et al. (2021), the datasets were divided into the two wind sectors and analyzes
 201 were done separately for each sector: For SE-Sto, the wind direction sector 225°-315° was
 202 dominated by the drained, drier permafrost palsa plateau located to the west of the EC mast,
 203 hereafter called as the palsa plateau. Wind directions from 45°-135° represented the thawing
 204 bog-like collapsing palsa area underlain by discontinuous permafrost, referred hereafter as the
 205 thawing system, to the east of the SE-Sto mast with mixture of the thawing segments and palsas,
 206 each comprising about 50% to the area. The lake-shore tower was located at a lake edge between
 207 open water and a fen to the west. Jammet et al., (2015) used a slightly wider range for the wind
 208 rose sectors 20°-135° and 210°-330°. We used a narrower wind sector of 45° to 135° to isolate
 209 the fluxes originating from the fen area laying to the west of the tower. Data for 2020 from SE-
 210 Sto were not used because of technical problems with the installations.

211 Low turbulence conditions were not observed in the data, because it related to Northerly and
 212 Southerly winds and those data were outside the selected wind sectors. The CO₂ fluxes were not
 213 sensitive to conditions with low turbulence, identified with low friction velocity u^* (below 0.6 m
 214 s⁻¹). Thus, no u^* filtering of nighttime fluxes was needed.



215 Datasets were divided into daytime ($\text{PPFD} \geq 50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and nighttime ($\text{PPFD} < 50 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$
 216 s^{-1}). Additionally, for PPFD higher than $800 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, CO_2 fluxes were considered as light
 217 saturated, with no further increase of the CO_2 uptake with higher PPFD.

218 Temperature and light conditions control much of the variation of CO_2 exchange between
 219 ecosystems and atmosphere (Pugh et al., 2018, Runkle et al., 2012). We analyzed the light and
 220 temperature responses of CO_2 exchange from the three selected sectors by fitting well known
 221 response functions: for the light response, the rectangular hyperbolic model (Eq. 2, Michaelis-
 222 Menten, Falge et al., 2001) was used; for the temperature response fitting coefficients to an
 223 exponential function (Eq. 3, Van't Hoff, Kutzbach et al., 2007) were calculated. Calculations were
 224 done with a two-week window length, which was moved one week to maximize the number of
 225 available data points, like moving averaging function.

$$226 \quad \text{NEE} = R_{\text{day}} - \frac{b_1 * b_2 * \text{PPFD}}{b_1 * \text{PPFD} + b_2} \quad (2)$$

227 Here b_1 is the slope which shows light use efficiency (LUE) for photosynthesis, b_2 is the saturation
 228 level for the CO_2 flux, b_3 is the daytime respiration, and PPFD is the incoming PPFD.

$$229 \quad \text{Reco} = c_1 * e^{c_2 T} \quad (3)$$

230 with nighttime respiration Reco, empirical scaling factors c_1 and c_2 , and air temperature T.

231 2.3. Data gap-filling

232 The three-time series were gap-filled for calculation of annual sums of CO_2 exchange. Most of the
 233 recent EC studies use more than one gap-filling method (Kim et al. 2019, Irvin et al. 2021). As in
 234 Lakomiec et al. (2021) three different methods were used here: REddyProc (Wutzler et al. 2018),
 235 artificial neural network (ANN, e.g. Walczak & Cerpa 2003), and generalized linear models (GLM,
 236 e.g. Rinne et al. 2018). Gap-filling used half-hourly means due to the pronounced diurnal cycle in
 237 the CO_2 flux. The use of several gap-filling methods minimizes uncertainty in the annual balance
 238 calculation that would occur if only one method was used. This is especially crucial for this study,
 239 as the division of the data to two sectors lowers the number of available datapoints per sector.

240 REddyProc uses half-hourly binned CO_2 fluxes and environmental parameters (shortwave
 241 incoming radiation, air temperature, soil temperature, relative humidity, and friction velocity).
 242 Data gaps are filled by half-hourly mean flux value, calculated from available fluxes under similar
 243 environmental conditions using look-up tables, mean daily cycles and marginal distribution
 244 sampling. The same fluxes are used for the calculation of standard deviation. The method is fully
 245 presented and described by Falge et al. (2001), Reichstein (2005), and Wutzler et al. (2018).

246 The ANN was calculated in MATLAB using the fitnet function
 247 (<https://uk.mathworks.com/help/deeplearning/ref/fitnet.html>) with 30 hidden neurons. The
 248 Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm was used as a training function (Levenberg 1944, Marquardt
 249 1963). The full dataset of available half-hourly CO_2 fluxes was randomly split for training (70%),
 250 validating (15%), and testing (15%). Input for the ANN is presented in Table S1. Data gaps in the



environmental data were filled by linear interpolation between points. 100 repetitions for each sector and year were performed to obtain consistent statistical characterization of the output. The filled half-hour value was calculated as the average over all repetitions. Uncertainties were calculated as a standard deviation over all repetitions.

The generalized linear models (GLM) method examines the dependence of response variables (half-hour CO₂ flux) on predictors (listed in Table S1). Dependences are described as linear combinations of linear and quadratic functions. Data gaps in the predictors' time series were filled by linear interpolation. The *stepwiseglm* function from MATLAB (Dobson 2002), gives predicted value and confidence intervals.

Gap-filled CO₂ fluxes were partitioned into the GPP and Reco using the day-time flux partitioning method in the ReddyProcWeb online tool (Wutzler et al., 2018, Lasslop et al. 2010). In this method GPP and Reco are model predictions thus their sum is not always exactly equal to the measured CO₂ fluxes.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Environmental conditions

Incoming PPFD peaked around mid-June with half hourly levels around 1800 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3). During the summer, PPFD levels are sufficiently high to support efficient photosynthesis and enhance CO₂ uptake. The light regime is determined by the geographical location of Stordalen Mire, which lies north of the polar circle resulting in the sun above the horizon 24 hours per day from 23 May until 19 July. In contrast, the situation takes a different turn during the winter period, when the sun is below the horizon 24 hours per day from 8 Dec until 4 Jan. The growing season, frozen soil season, and unfrozen soil season were defined as in Lakomiec et al. (2021). Outgoing, i.e. reflected PPFD was typically high at the beginning of the unfrozen season when the ground was still covered by snow/ice and incoming solar radiation, and sun angles were already high. Maximum reflected PPFD occurred in mid-April. The lowest maximum of the outgoing PPFD was observed in the year 2016 and was earlier, mid-March, decreasing later indicating shorter snow-covered period during this year. Snow/ice cover built up earlier in 2019, as indicated by an increase of the outgoing radiation at the end of the year (Fig. 3), compared to other years.

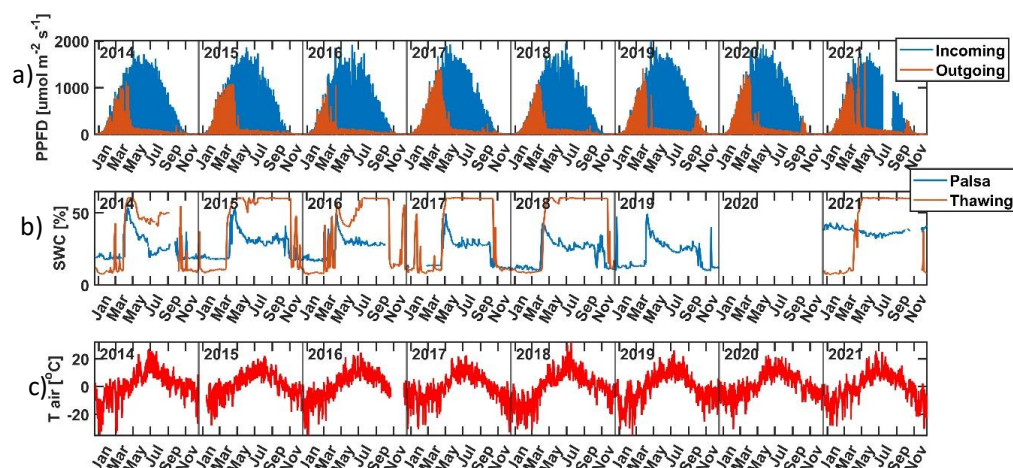
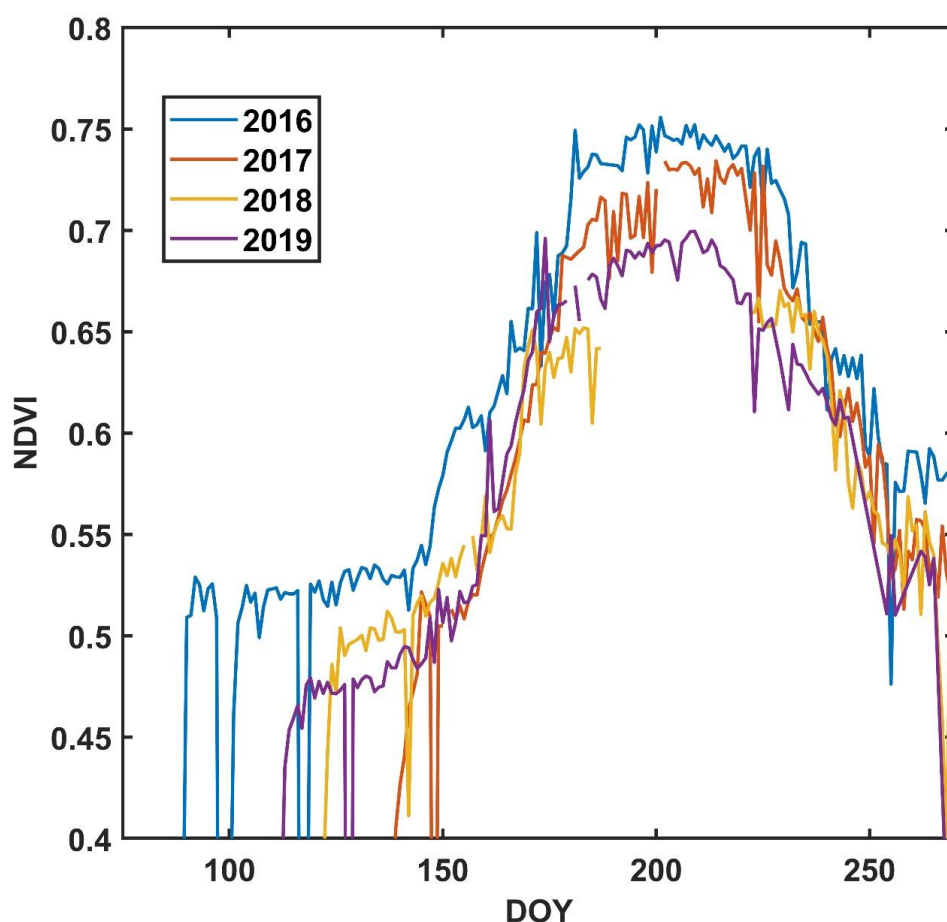


Fig 3. Time series of ecosystem variables. Top panel presents incoming PPFD (blue) and outgoing PPFD (orange). Middle panel presents SWC for the palsa sector (blue) and thawing sector (orange). Bottom panel shows air temperature. Grey lines represent start of the new year.

Earlier snow melt in 2016 compared to the other years had significant impact on the vegetation development. The annual cycle of NDVI is characterized by very low values in winter due to snow, then a steep increase as snow melts followed by a gradual increase in spring during the green-up phase of vegetation (Eklundh et al. 2011). This springtime increases in NDVI started around one month earlier in 2016 (DOY 150) than in the other years and NDVI reached the maximum value of approximately 0.72 around DOY 180 (Fig. 4). Around DOY 180, NDVI for other years was around 0.68.



291
 292 Figure 4. NDVI for the years 2016-2019.

293 Early snowmelt in 2016 is also discernible in the albedo data. In the year 2016, snowmelt is
 294 observable approximately one month in advance compared to other years. During this particular
 295 year, a reduction in albedo is noted around DOY 90, whereas the decline in albedo in other years
 296 typically occurs around DOY 120 (Fig. S2).

297 Soil water content (SWC) in peat differed between the palsa and the thawing sectors (Fig. 3). For
 298 most of the unfrozen period the thawing sector peat was fully saturated to 6 cm in depth. Peat
 299 in the palsa plateau was drier and not fully saturated during any period though still moist. SWC
 300 for the fen was not measured but the water table was always very close to or above the peat
 301 surface. Unlike in many other mire ecosystems in Fennoscandia (Rinne et al. 2020), drought
 302 conditions were not observed at Abisko-Stordalen during summer 2018. In 2020 SWC data is
 303 missing due to sensor failure.



304 During 2014, the only year with flux data from the fen, the annual peat temperature in all depths
 305 in fen (5 cm, 10 cm, 25 cm, and 50 cm) was higher than in the two other systems. The largest
 306 difference in the peat temperature between fen and two other sectors was observed at the 50
 307 cm depth, due to thawed permafrost. The average peat temperature during frozen period in
 308 palsa was colder for all analyzed years.

309 The average air temperature during the frozen period was lowest during the year 2018 (-13.7 °C),
 310 while multiyear (2014-2021) average was -8.9 °C. During the unfrozen period, average air
 311 temperature (Fig. 3) was the highest for the year 2014 (13.5 °C) and then for 2018 (12.7 °C) while
 312 other analysed years (2015-2021 without 2018) average was 11.2 °C. The second highest
 313 unfrozen period air temperature was connected to the heatwave in summer 2018, to which most
 314 of north-western Europe was exposed (El-Madany et al., 2020, Peters et al., 2020, Rinne et al.,
 315 2020). SWC in 2018 did not show any differences compared to other years. Despite the increase
 316 in the air temperature, drought conditions were not observed.

317 3.2. NEE

318 At the ICOS tower, air flowed $87 \pm 2\%$ of the time from the two specified (East and West) wind
 319 sectors which follows the same pattern observed in 2014-16 by Lakomiec et al. (2021). Wind
 320 from outside the two dominant wind direction sectors were usually related to the conditions with
 321 low wind speeds (below 3 ms^{-1}).

322 CO₂ fluxes showed similar interannual variability in palsa and the thawing systems (Fig. 5). The
 323 maximum CO₂ uptake was observed in late July, where weekly multiyear average NEE were -3.5
 324 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $-3.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the thawing sector and palsa plateau, respectively (Fig. S3).
 325 The maximum in the weekly multiyear average nighttime NEE was observed slightly later, around
 326 early August, with $2.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the thawing system and $2.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the palsa
 327 plateau. The lag between maximum uptake and maximum release could relate to higher peat
 328 temperature at deeper parts (Wu et al. 2021).

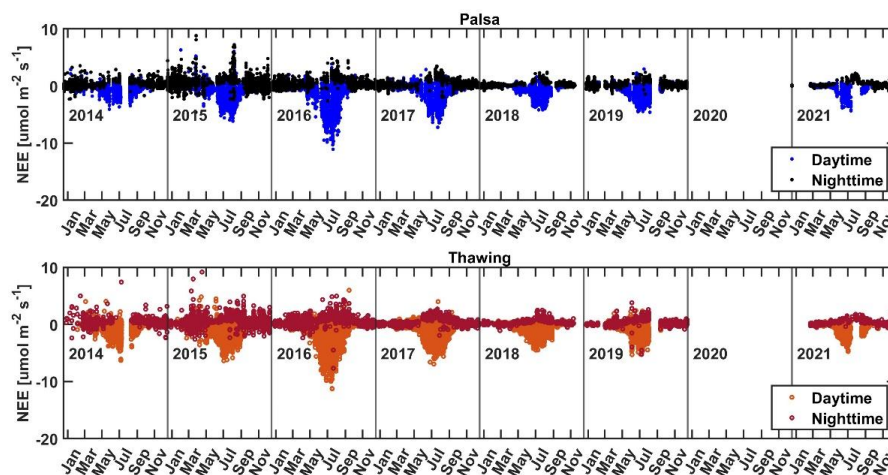


Figure 5. Time series of the half-hour CO₂ fluxes divided during daytime (PPFD $\geq$ 50) fluxes and nighttime (PPFD $<$ 50) fluxes. Upper panel shows palsa sector daytime (blue) and nighttime (black) for the years 2014-2021, bottom panel shows thawing sector daytime (orange) and nighttime (red) for the years 2014-2021. Grey lines represent start of the new year.

For 2014, CO₂ flux data from all three systems, palsa plateau, thawing area and fen, were available (Fig. 6). The maximum CO₂ uptake was observed at all systems in late July. At the fen site the maximum weekly average NEE was -7.6 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, compared to -1.6 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at the palsa and -2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ into the thawing area. The highest weekly average nighttime respiration at the fen was 3.2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, compared to 1.9 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at palsa plateau and 1.2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ at thawing sector. The maximum respiration was observed around early August as in the other systems. The significance of the differences between those systems were tested separately for the nighttime and daytime light-saturated fluxes. Weekly average light-saturated CO₂ fluxes at fen system were significantly different from those at the palsa and thaw systems for most of the time during 2014. Between the palsa and thawing system the differences between CO₂ fluxes were mostly not significant. However, in each year, some weeks show significant differences ($p < 0.001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test) but the periods when systematic differences occurred varied from year to year. Those differences occurred randomly in each year. Weekly averages of night-time CO₂ fluxes were significantly different for the growing season between fen and palsa and between fen and thawing sector (Fig. S4).

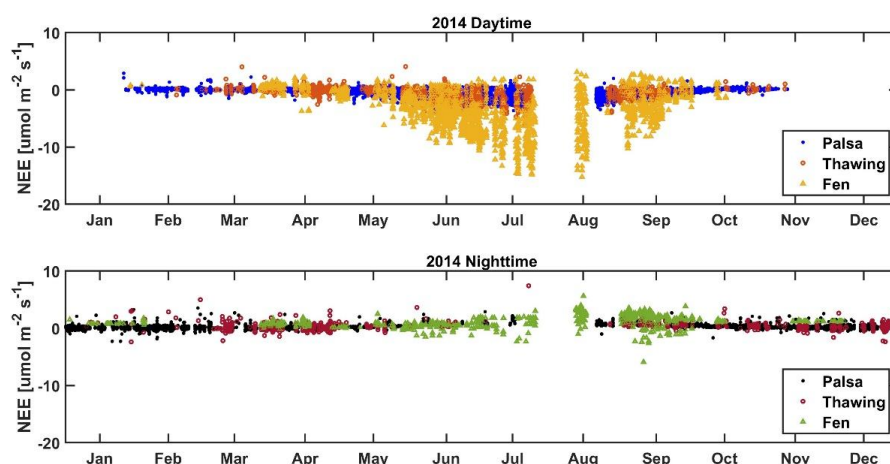


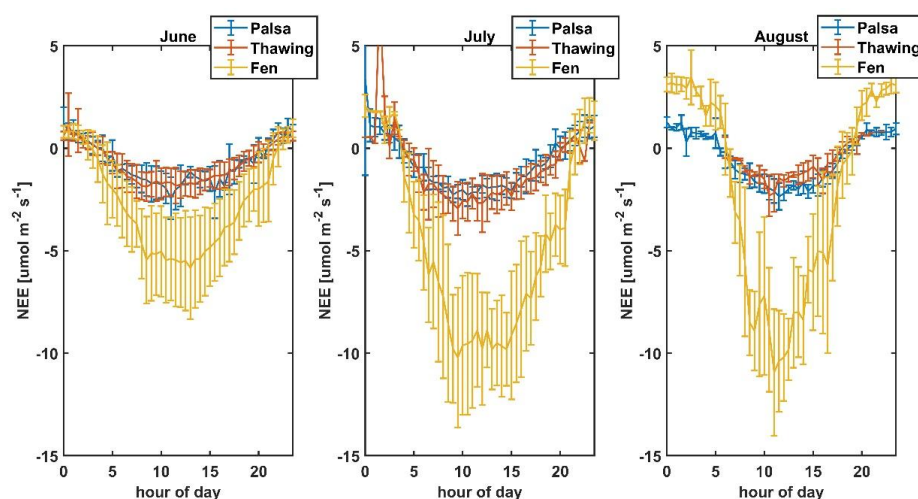
Figure 6. Time series of the half-hour CO₂ fluxes divided during daytime (PPFD $\geq$ 50) fluxes and nighttime (PPFD $<$ 50) fluxes observed at the two towers in 2014. Upper panel shows palsa sector (blue), thawing sector (orange) and fen (yellow) for the daytime the year 2014. Bottom panel shows palsa (black), thawing (red) and fen (green) sector for the daytime for the year 2014.

Frozen period palsa and thawing sector half-hour NEE were significantly different from zero ($p<0.001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test) during most of the years. No significant difference from zero was observed during years 2014 and 2019. However, the number of available wintertime data points for these years was much lower than for the other years which could have impacted the result of the statistical test.

The highest weekly average uptake and release of CO₂ from palsa and partially thawed sector was observed during year 2016. It is worth noting that the meteorological conditions during this particular year differed significantly from those observed in other years. Specifically, the daily average air temperature after day 116 was notably higher in 2016 compared to the multiyear average (Fig. S5). Moreover, the peak of the PPFD occurred approximately one month earlier in 2016 compared to other years. Between DOY 85 and DOY 95, net longwave radiation was higher in 2016 compared to the other years. This suggests reduced cloud cover during this period, potentially contributing to the unusually warm and snow-deficient spring conditions. Similarly, the decrease in the outgoing PPFD, indicating snow free conditions, at the beginning of the year started about a month earlier compared to previous years. NDVI this year was also higher than in other years (Fig. 4). These factors played a pivotal role in prolonging the unfrozen period and consequently resulted in higher GPP. In ecosystems such as Abisko, where the growing season is short (ca. 40 days), any alteration in the length of the unfrozen period can have a substantial impact on vegetation and fluxes (Aurela et al. (2004), Rafat et al. (2022)). The remaining years were comparatively similar in terms of these parameters.



376 The half-hourly non-gap-filled NEE at all the three mire surfaces had qualitatively similar diel
 377 cycles with net CO₂ uptake in daytime and net respiration during nighttime (Fig. 7 and S6). In June
 378 and July, Reco remained consistent across all three systems. In August, Reco was substantially
 379 higher in the fen. Daytime CO₂ uptake in the fen was nearly three times greater than that
 380 observed in the palsa and thawing systems. The daily uptake period was around 18h per day for
 381 June, 20h per day for July and 14h per day for August. The length of the daily uptake period and
 382 shortness of the net respiration period reflects the radiative conditions at this high latitude site
 383 (e.g. Taillardat et al. 2022). Especially in June the period of daylight during the summer is long
 384 and night is short, but soil temperatures are cooler than July and August. During the year 2014,
 385 when data exists from all three systems, the daytime net CO₂ uptake in fen is 3-4 times higher
 386 than that from palsa plateau and thawing systems. During this year the frozen and snow period
 387 was the longest in the palsa plateau sector. Low nighttime respiration rates were observed at all
 388 three systems in the beginning of growing season (June), while later in the season (August), the
 389 nighttime respiration at the fen is much higher than at palsa plateau or thaw system. NEE at palsa
 390 and the thawing systems had very similar diel cycle throughout most of measurement years.

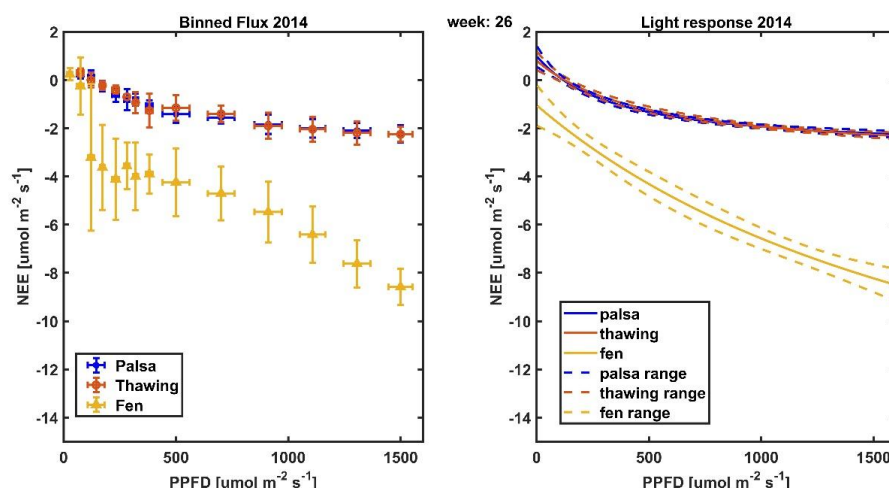


391
 392 Figure 7. Diel cycle of the CO₂ fluxes for the June (left panel), July (middle panel) and August (right panel)
 393 for the palsa (blue), thawing sector (orange) and fen (yellow) for the year 2014

394
 395 The analysis of light response curves shows no differences between palsa and thawing sectors.
 396 The fen showed higher response to light, with CO₂ uptake varying depending on the PPFD range,
 397 reaching values up to eight times greater than those observed in the other two sectors (Fig. 8).
 398 The light response curves at palsa and partially thawed sectors for the year 2016 do not
 399 correspond with the light response curves for other years based on the fit parameters uncertainty
 400 (Fig. 9). Within that particular year, the light response curves for these sectors exhibit agreement
 401 with each other. For the multiyear dataset, the NEE during light-saturated conditions did not

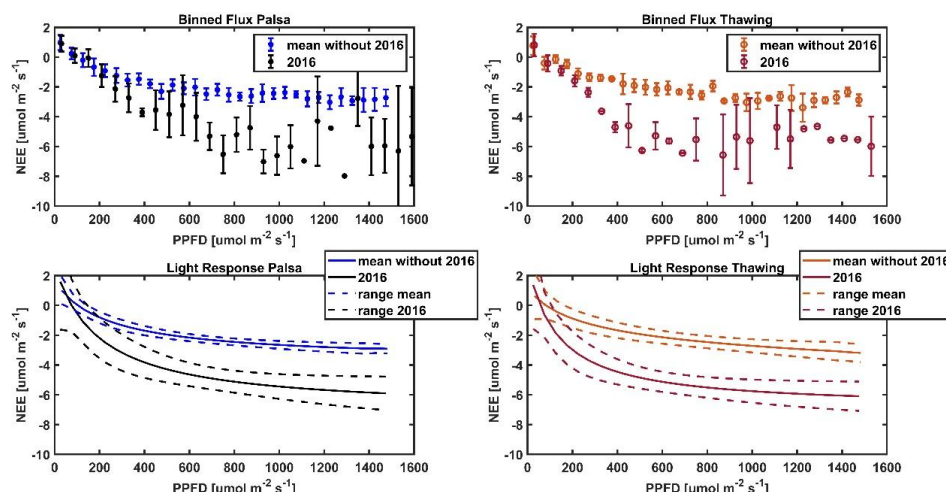


402 differ significantly between palsa and partially thawed systems, with mean values of
 403 $4.1 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in the thawing sector and $4.0 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on the palsa. However, in the
 404 specific year 2016, both areas exhibited significantly higher saturation-level NEE, measuring
 405 $9.0 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in the thawing sector and $8.9 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on the palsa.



406

407 Figure 8. Left panel presents binned CO₂ daytime fluxes for year 2014 for the palsa sector (blue), thawing
 408 sector (orange) and lake edge tower fen sector (yellow). Right panel presents light response curves (solid
 409 lines) with the uncertainties (dashed lines) for the year 2014. Both panels show data from the week 26.



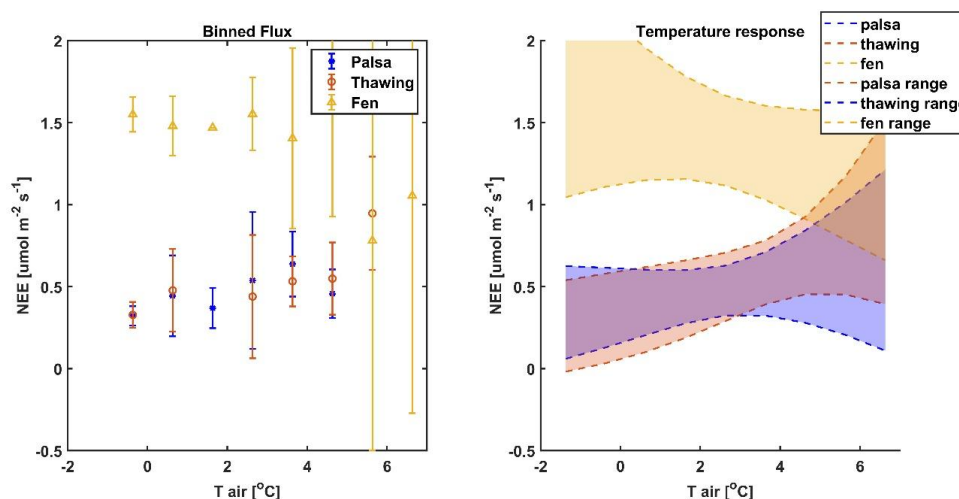
410

411 Figure 9. Binned CO₂ daytime fluxes for week 28 with the mean and standard deviation for the palsa (left
 412 top panel) and thawing sector (right top panel) and light response curves (solid lines) with the
 413 uncertainties (dashed lines) of the fit for the palsa sector (left bottom panel) and thawing sector (right
 414 bottom panel).



415 Increased photosynthesizing biomass, resulting from an earlier onset of the snow-free period,
 416 may have led to a stronger ecosystem response to light in 2016 compared to other years. The
 417 observation of the light response suggests that temporal variations in daytime NEE (Fig. 5) are
 418 not directly attributable to differences in PPFD or temperature, but rather to the increased
 419 presence of photosynthetic biomass.

420 We also analyzed the response of nighttime fluxes to the air temperature. The location of Abisko
 421 north of the polar circle limits the number of nighttime hours during the growing season. Fitted
 422 curves are highly uncertain due to fewer available data points and high scatter. Despite that, we
 423 observe agreement for the palsa and thawing sectors and significant difference for the fen from
 424 those two sectors for the year 2014 (Fig. 10). For the multi-year analysis, response for the year
 425 2016 is slightly higher than for other years for palsa and partially thawed sectors (Fig. 11). The
 426 nighttime response agrees for palsa and thawing sector for the year 2016. Reco is higher for the
 427 year 2016 compared to other years and it relates to increased plant development (Fig. 4).
 428 Confidence intervals for all years are large due to few data for fitting the algorithm. Additionally,
 429 the range of fluxes for the fitting is relatively low which also has impact on the high uncertainties.



430
 431 Figure 10. Left panel presents binned CO₂ nighttime fluxes for year 2014 for the palsa sector (blue),
 432 thawing sector (orange) and lake edge tower fen sector (yellow). Right panel presents air temperature
 433 response curves with the uncertainties (dashed lines). Both panels show data from week 39.

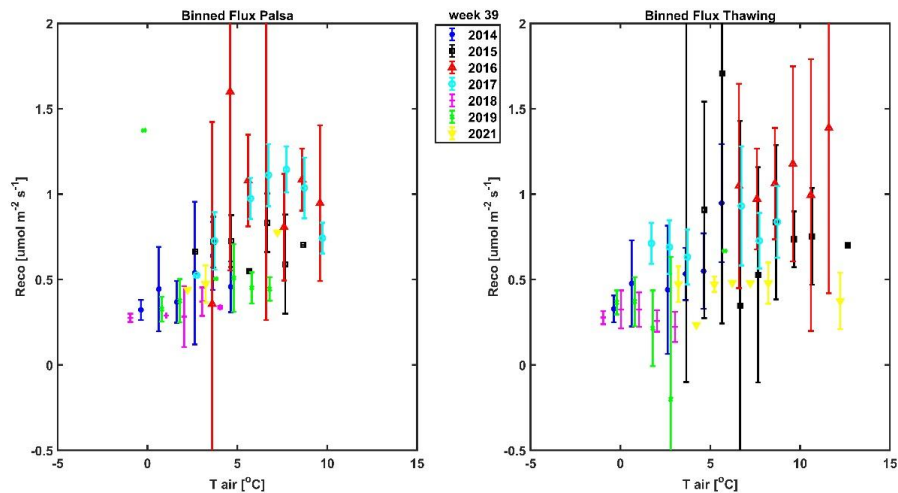


Figure 11. Binned CO₂ nighttime fluxes for the week 39 with the mean and standard deviation for the palsa (left panel) and thawing sectors (right panel). Each color indicates one year presented in the legend.

3.3. Annual carbon balances

Annual CO₂ balance for the palsa and the thawing sectors for each method for years 2014–2021 is presented in Table S2. The highest yearly uptake of CO₂ is estimated for the year 2016, which was described as the year with the longer growing season. The lowest yearly uptake or even release of CO₂ is estimated for the year 2014. Gap-filling methods do not lead to differences in the estimation of the annual budget.

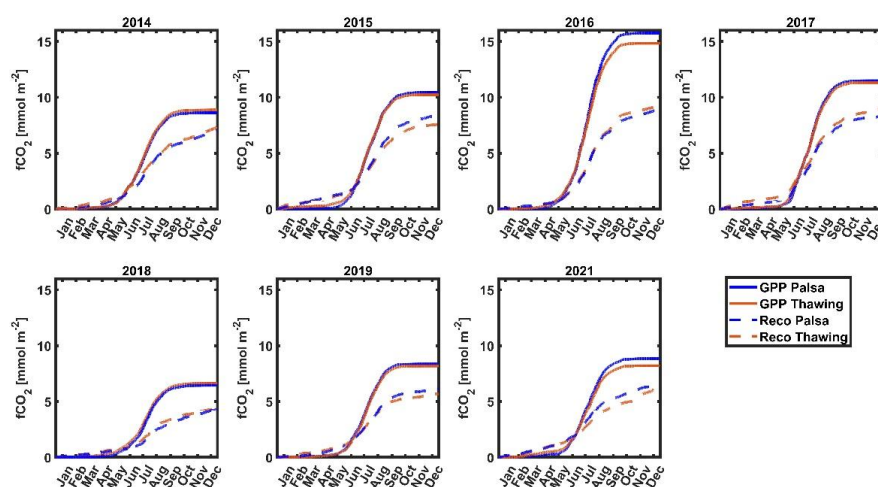
The annual NEE for the fen was calculated only for the year 2014 (Table S2). NEE for this sector is much higher than for the other two sectors for all the three methods. Moreover, mean estimated value is higher than one presented by Jamm et al. 2017. In the Jamm et al. 2017 study, uncertainty of approximately 100 gC m⁻² y⁻¹ was reported.

An estimated annual NEE for the palsa and thawing bog were subtracted from each other for each year and method. This was done to compare which ecosystems have higher NEE and analyze how different methods are estimated differences. All methods agree that the palsa had stronger CO₂ uptake than the thawing sector during year 2014, compared to the other years. Stronger uptake for the thawing sector than for the palsa is observed for the 2019 and 2021. The estimation based on three methods for other years is not in agreement regarding which sector has stronger uptake.

The ANN data series were chosen for partitioning NEE into GPP and Reco. The ANN method was successfully tested and used in many different study cases (e.g. Lucas-Moffat et al. 2022, Jasek-Kamińska et al. 2024). These data series were chosen to avoid bias connected with using the



458 same variables and equations that is used for the partitioning. Additionally, averaging over 100
 459 repetitions also should minimize the bias caused by different usage of parameters and
 460 randomization of parameters. Annual cumulative sums of GPP and Reco are presented on Fig.
 461 12. The most visible differences in the GPP between the palsa plateau and thawing sector were
 462 observed in years 2016 and 2021, with palsa plateau has higher GPP. Furthermore, mean Reco
 463 was slightly higher at palsa plateau in years 2015, 2019 and 2021 but the differences were not
 464 significant. Fen GPP and Reco for year 2014 (Fig. S7) are significantly higher than GPP and Reco
 465 for palsa and thawing sector.



466
 467 Figure 12. Cumulative sum of the ANN gapfilled CO₂ fluxes partitioned for the GPP and Reco for the years
 468 2014-2021 (without 2020). Solid lines present GPP for palsa sector (blue) and thawing sector (orange) and
 469 dashed lines present Reco for palsa (blue) and thawing (orange) sectors.

470 Multiyear average GPP is $195 \pm 36 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for palsa and $192 \pm 30 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for the thawing
 471 sector. While Reco is $146 \pm 33 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ and $146 \pm 35 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, respectively for palsa and thawing
 472 sector. Sector differences observed in the average annual NEE by Lakomiec et al. (2021) were
 473 likely an effect of the gap-filling method and averaging with the year 2016. Lakomiec et al. (2021)
 474 assumed that three-year period is comparable to each other in terms of fluxes, especially that
 475 CH₄ fluxes do not show big difference to each other in comparison with those of CO₂ fluxes. Like
 476 the reported methane emissions, the fen showed largest annual NEE, GPP and Reco. However,
 477 the annual NEE or the GPP do not show similar differences between palsa plateau and thaw bog
 478 as do their methane emissions reported by Lakomiec et al. (2021).

479 Yearly NEE with the standard deviation based on the three gap-filling models are presented in
 480 the Fig 13. The fen sector had a significantly higher annual CO₂ uptake than other areas in the
 481 year 2014, for which data from all three surfaces was available. Emissions for the year 2014 for
 482 the thaw sector suggest release of CO₂ instead of uptake, and this is the only year that ecosystem



behaves as a weak source instead of a sink. The multiyear average annual balance was calculated without data from year 2016, which is significantly higher. The average annual balance is -31 ± 7 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$ for the palsa and -31 ± 6 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$ for the thawing sector.

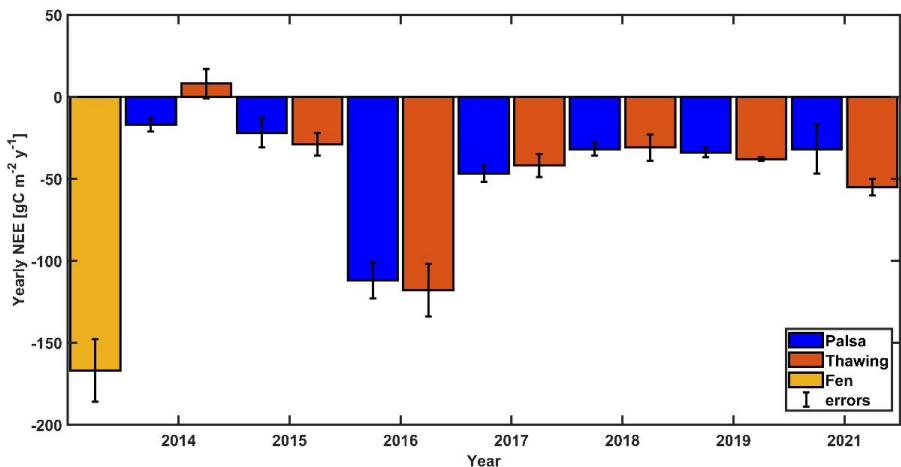


Figure 13. Average annual NEE with the standard deviation calculated based on the three models (ANN, GLM, Jena).

Observed NEE at the Fen site in this study demonstrates a significantly higher carbon uptake compared to other sites presented in Table 1, excluding the palsa and thawing sectors for the year 2016. Among presented sites, the Kobbefjord Fen has the lowest net carbon uptake and very different plant community. This is followed by the palsa and thawing permafrost sectors when considering the multiyear dataset.

Table 1. Mean yearly NEE (average from all methods) for this study and values reported in the literature

Site	NEE [gC m ⁻²]	Cite
Fen	-167	This study
Thawing sector multiyears	-31	This study
Palsa multiyears	-31	This study
Thawing sector 2016	-117	This study
Palsa 2016	-112	This study
Zackenberg	-50	López-Blanco et al. 2020
Degerö	-56	Yurova et al. 2007
Kobbefjord Fen	-18	López-Blanco et al. 2020
Siikaneva fen	-50	Rinne et al. 2018
Schechenfilz	-62	Hommeltemberg et al. 2014

In contrast, the remaining sites listed in Table 1 consistently display substantially greater carbon uptake relative to the palsa and thawing permafrost areas. However, NEE estimated for the palsa and thawing sectors in the year 2016 are significantly higher than those measured at other fen sites. This suggests that



the carbon uptake observed in 2016 for these sectors represents an anomaly, underscoring extraordinary situation, indicating environmental conditions during that year.

Overall, our results indicate that to understand the surface-atmosphere exchange of carbon in the rapidly changing margins of the Arctic, we need to obtain data that covers both the interannual variability of the fluxes and small-scale spatial variability. Additional data, such as NDVI, can provide essential tools to understand the interannual variability of these fluxes.

4. Conclusions

As expected, the fen system exhibited the highest CO₂ uptake and GPP of the three systems studied. However, contrary to our expectations the palsa plateau and the partially thawed bog exhibited no significant differences in their NEE or GPP, despite them has different permafrost conditions, soil moisture levels, vegetation characteristics, and annual methane emission, (Lakomiec et al 2021). Furthermore, it was shown that response GPP and Reco to light and temperature at the palsa plateau and the thaw bog were not significantly different, whereas at the fen system the response of GPP to the light was stronger, with much higher light saturated GPP.

Of the three types of surfaces that were examined in this study the fen exhibited the largest uptake of CO₂ during daytime in the summer season. Furthermore, as the growing season progressed, it also displayed the largest net respiration during nighttime.

The fluxes of CO₂ in the anomalous year 2016 at palsa plateau and partially thawed bog deviated considerably from those of the other years. This could be attributed to the earlier melting of the snow and ice cover, resulting in an extended period of vegetation growth, potentially leading to an increase in phytomass, as indicated by the higher NDVI in this year, and subsequently a higher uptake of CO₂. Conversely, the remaining years exhibited a similar range of fluxes.

Author contribution

PL, JH, TF, PC, ER, and JR analyzed and interpreted the data. PL, JH, PC, ER, and JR wrote the manuscript. TF, PC, ER, and NR designed the measurements. HJ and LE were responsible for interpreting NDVI data.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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