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# PEATBOG: a biogeochemical model for analyzing coupled carbon and nitrogen dynamics in northern peatlands

Y. Wu and C. Blodau

Hydrology Group, Institute of Landscape Ecology, FB 14 Geosciences, University of Münster, Germany, Heisenbergstraße 2, 48149 Münster, Germany

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Correspondence to: C. Blodau (christian.blodau@uni-muenster.de)

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## Abstract

Elevated nitrogen deposition and climate change alter the vegetation communities and carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) cycling in peatlands. To address this issue we developed a new process-oriented biogeochemical model (PEATBOG) for analyzing coupled carbon and nitrogen dynamics in northern peatlands. The model consists of four submodels, which simulate: (1) daily water table depth and depth profiles of soil moisture, temperature and oxygen levels; (2) competition among three plants functional types (PFTs), production and litter production of plants; (3) decomposition of peat; and (4) production, consumption, diffusion and export of dissolved C and N species in soil water. The model is novel in the integration of the C and N cycles, the explicit spatial resolution belowground, the consistent conceptualization of movement of water and solutes, the incorporation of stoichiometric controls on elemental fluxes and a consistent conceptualization of C and N reactivity in vegetation and soil organic matter. The model was evaluated for the Mer Bleue Bog, near Ottawa, Ontario, with regards to simulation of soil moisture and temperature and the most important processes in the C and N cycles. Model sensitivity was tested for nitrogen input, precipitation, and temperature, and the choices of the most uncertain parameters were justified. A simulation of nitrogen deposition over 40 yr demonstrates the advantages of the PEATBOG model in tracking biogeochemical effects and vegetation change in the ecosystem.

## 1 Introduction

Peatlands represent the largest terrestrial soil C pool and a significant N pool. Globally, peat stores about 547 PgC (Yu et al., 2010) and 8 to 15 PgN, accounting for one third of the terrestrial C and 9 % to 16 % of the soil organic N storage (Wieder and Vitt, 2006). Northern peatlands have accumulated 16 to 23 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> throughout the Holocene and 0.42 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the past 1000 yr on average (Vitt et al., 2000; Turunen et al., 2002; Limpens et al., 2006; van Bellen et al., 2011a,b). Carbon accumulation in peats

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has been primarily attributed to low decomposition rates, which compensate for the low production in comparison to other ecosystems (Coulson and Butterfield, 1978; Clymo, 1984). The two characteristic environmental conditions in northern peatlands—high water table (WT) and low temperature, play an essential role in preserving the large C pool by impeding material translocation and transformation in the permanently saturated zone (Clymo, 1984). Although the total N storage in peat is substantial, the scarcity of biologically available N induces a conservative manner of N cycling in peatlands (Ross-wall and Granhall, 1980; Urban et al., 1988). *Sphagnum* mosses are highly adapted to the nutrient poor environment and successfully compete with vascular plants through a series of competition strategies, such as inception of N that is deposited from the atmosphere, internal recycling of N, and a minimized N release from litter with low decomposability (Damman, 1988; Aldous, 2002).

Climate change and elevated N deposition are likely to alter the structure and functioning of peatlands through interactive ways that are incompletely understood. In general, drought and a warmer environment were found to affect vegetation composition by suppressing *Sphagnum* mosses and promoting vascular plants (Weltzin et al., 2003), which in turn alters litter quality, C and N mineralization rates (Keller et al., 2004; Bayley et al., 2005; Breeuwer et al., 2008), and the C and N balance (Moore et al., 1998; Malmer et al., 2005). In northern peatlands, nitrogen is often a limiting nutrient and regulates the rates of C and N cycling and individual processes, and thus also controls elemental effluxes to the atmosphere and discharging streams. Excessive N entering peatlands could induce changes in various processes that may lead to non-linear and even contrasting consequences with respect to C and N budgets, especially on longer time scales. For example, experimentally added N was found to increase photosynthetic capacity and growth of several *Sphagnum* species up to ca.  $1.5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  before causing their decline at low N background sites (Williams and Silcock, 1997; Granath et al., 2009). However, at high N background sites such effects occurred up to  $4 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Limpens and Berendse, 2003), which raises the question of how peatland ecosystems adjust their structure and functioning to long-term N deposition. Survey studies across

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N deposition gradients ranging from  $0.2$  to  $2 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  demonstrated a relation between N deposition and litter decomposition rates (Bragazza et al., 2006), in addition the effects seemed to depend on litter quality (Bragazza et al., 2009; Currey et al., 2009) and deposited N forms (Currey et al., 2010). In both long-term N fertilization experiments and survey studies an increase in N content in the surface peat and in the soil water was observed at the high N sites (Xing et al., 2010) but enhanced N effluxes in form of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  remained elusive (Bubier et al., 2007). In contrast,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission was found in short-term N and P fertilization experiments (Lund et al., 2009). Laboratory and field experiments aiming to quantify the combined effects of temperature, WT and N elevation have thus often arrived at contradictory conclusions, due to the interplay of effects in time and space (Norby et al., 2001; Breeuwer et al., 2008; Robroek et al., 2009). Furthermore, elevated N deposition was recently suggested to affect soil temperature and moisture through changes in the vegetation community with potential feedbacks on elemental cycles (Wendel et al., 2011).

Ecosystem modeling has become an important approach in analyzing the interacting effects of climate and N deposition on peatlands and in making long-term predictions; examples are provided by PCARS (Frolking et al., 2002), *ecosys* (Dimitrov et al., 2011), Wetland-DNDC (Zhang, 2002), and MWM (St-Hilaire et al., 2010). While models have been thoroughly developed to investigate peatland C cycling (e.g. PCARS, MWM), there have been few attempts to integrate N cycling in peatland models, although N is mostly considered to be the limiting factor on primary production (Heijmans et al., 2008). In the mentioned models, N is generally passively bound to C pools by C/N ratios, while active nitrogen transformation and translocation among N pools is omitted.

To make progress towards closing this gap, we present a novel model for the analysis of the coupled C and N cycles in northern peatlands. The model is designed to fulfill the following objectives: (1) to clarify the interaction between C and N cycling in vegetation, soil organic matter and soil water; (2) to determine key processes that control the C and N balance of northern peatlands in the short and long-term; (3) to quantify C and N pools and cycling rates in peatlands; (4) to characterize their sensitivity to N availability

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quality (Bubier et al., 2011; Bragazza et al., 2012). The layered structure assists in mapping the belowground micro-environment for simulating the sensitive interactions of soil moisture, roots and microbial activity. The model computes and simulates processes on a daily time step, as does for example the HMP model (Thornley et al., 1995) and the wetland-DNDC model (Zhang, 2002). The moderate temporal resolution is adequate for the model soil C in the short and long-term (Trettin et al., 2001).

### 2.1.2 Stoichiometry controls C and N cycles

We did not stipulate critical mass fluxes as constraints on C and N cycling. Instead these constraints are generated in the model from changes in biological stoichiometry. This structure has the advantage that the interactions between C and N fluxes and temporal and spatial changes in pools sizes control the mobility of the elements. As in some terrestrial C and N models (Zhang et al., 2005), N flows are driven by C/N ratio gradients from low C/N ratio to high C/N ratio compartments. The C/N ratios of all pools are in turn modified by their associated flows, reflecting the organisms' requirement to maintain their chemical composition in certain ranges. Results from field manipulation experiments suggested thresholds of the N deposition level, above which the *Sphagnum* moss filter fails and mineral N enters soil water (Lamers et al., 2001; Bragazza et al., 2004). Flux-based critical loads of N for *Sphagnum* moss were suggested as the high end of the *Sphagnum* tolerance range, where the values are between  $0.6 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Nordin et al., 2005) and  $1.5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Vitt et al., 2003). Threshold values in stoichiometry terms appear to be less variable, ranging from  $15 \text{ mg N g}^{-1}$  (Van Der Heijden et al., 2001; Xing et al., 2010) to  $20 \text{ mg N g}^{-1}$  dry mass (Berendse et al., 2001; Granath et al., 2009). The critical load of ca.  $1 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  was linked to a stoichiometry thresholds of 30 (N/P ratio) and 3 (N/K ratio) in *Sphagnum mosses* (Bragazza et al., 2004). The model internally generates C/N ratios, or C/N/P ratios, for all compartments to control the N flows in plants and microorganisms.

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### 2.1.3 Consistent conceptualization of carbon and nitrogen reactivity

Differences in the mobility of C and N compartments were implemented using a two-pool concept throughout the model. Similar to decomposition models that distinguish the quality of soil organic matter (Grant et al., 1993; Parton et al., 1993), C and N are presented in labile (L) and recalcitrant (R) pools in SOM. In addition, the model differentiates C and N pools based on quality in vegetation, into structural (struc) pools (Fig. 2). The pasture vegetation model HMP (Thornley et al., 1995; Thornley, 1998b) was adopted, where C and N in grass and legumes were separated in structural and substrate pools in shoots (sh) and roots (rt) for 4 age categories. Considering our focus on competition between plant functional types, vegetation was not conceptualized in term of age categories but instead classified into 3 plant functional types (PFTs) ( $j$ : 1 = mosses, 2 = graminoids and 3 = shrubs) that are characterized by distinctive ecological functions (Fig. 3) in our model. The composition of plants, as a result of net primary production and litter fall, is adjusted to physical conditions and N input and alters SOM quality via changes in litter quality ( $Q$ ).

## 2.2 Structural adaptations for modeling peatland biogeochemistry

Modifications were made to the adopted algorithms of the MMWH and HPM models for compatibility with our modeling purpose and model structure. The main modifications and novel features of the PEATBOG model are:

### 2.2.1 Competition among Plant Functional Types (PFTs)

Plant functional types compete for light and nutrients through their morphology and nutrient utilization. We modified the algorithms of competition among plant functional types for these controls to better represent the shading effects among PFTs and the nutrient poor environment. Competition among plants was modeled using PFTs previously, where the depth and biomass of roots mainly determined superiority in

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competition (Van Oene et al., 1999; Pastor et al., 2002; Heijmans et al., 2008). We focused instead on the effect of light for PFT competition that is controlled by shading effects through canopy layers (Fig. 3). This differs from the utilization of the leaf area index, which determines the share of total photosynthesis in the HMP model (Thornely et al., 1995). In the PEATBOG model, the uptake of N is also modified to be specific for each soil layer and PFT. It includes the uptake of three forms of N in the PFTs so that N availability varies for roots of each PFT in the same location. In addition to inorganic N sources ( $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), as modeled in some C and N cycling models (Aber et al., 1997; Van der Peijl and Verhoeven, 1999), DON is included as a third N source, acknowledging its abundance (Moore et al., 2005a) and potential importance in nutrient poor environments, such as bogs (Jones et al., 2005; Nasholm et al., 2009) (Fig. 3).

### 2.2.2 Decoupling of $\text{O}_2$ boundary and WT boundary

The interface between oxic and anoxic conditions and unsaturated and saturated peat (i.e. the water table position, WT) are separately modeled and control biogeochemical and physical processes, respectively. Recent findings questioned that the long-term WT is the sole control on biogeochemical processes in peat as well as the *acrotelm* and *catotelm* concept in modeling of peatlands (Morris et al., 2011). Meanwhile  $\text{O}_2$  was found well above and below the WT in peats, for instance during drying and rewetting experiments in a degraded fen site with dense soil (Estop-Aragonés et al., 2012). The decoupling of redox conditions from the WT spatially and temporally in dense soils is potentially important for the partitioning of respired C into  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  during the decomposition of peat. We calculated  $\text{O}_2$  concentration in each layer to regulate energy limited processes such as  $\text{CH}_4$  oxidation and peat decomposition. Water table, on the other hand, serves as a control on moisture limited biological or physical processes, such as root metabolism and diffusion.

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### 2.3 Submodel 1 – environmental controls

Physical boundary conditions, such as day length, degree days, water table depth, soil moisture, temperature and depth profiles of  $\text{O}_2$ , are generated by the model to control physicochemical and biological processes.

Day length (DL), which in the model controls photosynthesis, varies for geographic position of the site and day of year. The daily day length value is obtained from the angle between the setting sun and the south point, which in turn is calculated from the declination of the earth and the geographical position of the site (Brock, 1981) (Appendix A, Eq. A14, A15). Declination of the earth is the angular distance at solar noon between the sun and the equator and positive for the Northern Hemisphere. The value of declination is approximately calculated by Cooper (1969) using the day of the year.

Temperature is modeled by sinusoidal equations (Carslaw and Jaeger, 1959) and modified by converting a dampening depth into thermal conductivity (Appendix A, Eq. A13). Thermal conductivity ( $K_{\text{thermal}}$ ) is adjusted for each layer for peat compaction and snow coverage that delays the thermal exchange in winter and early spring (Fig. S1a in the Supplement).

Degree-days (DD) represent the accumulation of cold days and trigger defoliation (Frolking et al., 2002; Zhang, 2002). Similar to other models, defoliation occurs on the day when DD reaches minus 25 degrees, with accumulated temperature of lower than 0 degrees after day 181 of the year (1 July in non-leap years).

Water table (WT) depth is simulated by calculating the water table depth from the water storage of peat using a modified version of the Mixed Water and Heat model (MMWH) (Granberg et al., 1999). Precipitation and snow melt represent water inputs, and are obtained from local meteorological records, instead of modeling the snow cover. Evapotranspiration (EPT) is the water output from the peat and vegetation surface via evaporation and transpiration, which are regulated by temperature and vegetation characteristics. Different from the authors' original approach the EPT rate

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uptake fraction declines to zero. Due to the lack of P pools in the current model version, the initial moss N/P ratio is assumed to be 10 in mosses (Jauhiainen et al., 1998).

The competition for uptake of N among PFTs is conducted through the competitive advantages in the architecture of the roots and capabilities for uptake of three N sources ( $\text{NH}_4^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and DON) (Fig. 3). The root distribution in soil is modeled using an asymptotic equation (Gale and Grigal, 1987; Jackson et al., 1996) with a PFT-specific distribution coefficient ( $rt_k$ ) (Murphy et al., 2009) (Appendix A, Eq. A27). Graminoids have a larger  $rt_k$  than shrubs, indicating more roots in deeper layers that allow utilization of N in deeper peat. The N uptake rate is affected by the surface area rather than the biomass of the fine roots. Specific root lengths  $LV_j$  that vary with root diameters are used to convert the dry biomass to the surface area of roots (Kirk and Kronzucker, 2005). The diameters of the fine roots were set to be between 0.005 to 0.1 cm for the “true fine roots” that are responsible for N uptake (Valenzuela-Estrada et al., 2008).

Nitrogen uptake is modeled using Michaelis–Menten equations (Appendix A, Eqs. A71–A73), controlled by the soil temperature, the root biomass of the layer and the substrate C and N concentrations in plants. Parameters  $V_{\text{max}}$  and  $K_m$  for the DIN uptake were derived from the model of Kirk and Kronzucker (2005) while those for DON uptake were calibrated based on one of the few quantitative studies for an Arctic Tundra (Kielland, 1994), where  $V_{\text{max}}$  for DON uptake was 0.0288 to 0.048  $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$  for shrubs (*Ledum*) and 0.012 to 0.096  $\text{mmol g}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$  for graminoids (*Carex/Eriophorum*). The effects of substrate C and N concentration in plants on N uptake rates were derived from the HMP model (Thornley and Cannell, 1992). The half saturation constant of substrate N was adjusted to be smaller for shrubs and mosses than for graminoids. The temperature influence on N uptake is modeled using  $Q_{10}$  functions for active  $\text{NO}_3^-$  uptake and linear functions for passive  $\text{NH}_4^+$  uptake (Glass et al., 2001; Williams and Miller, 2001; Miller and Cramer, 2005). Despite the abundance of DON in soil water, which is about one magnitude larger than the concentration of DIN in the field (Kranabetter et al., 2007; Nasholm et al., 2009), the capability

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of DON uptake by plants is limited to low molecular weight DON (e.g. glycine, aspartate and glutamate) (Jones et al., 2005). We assumed a fraction of 0.2 of total DON concentration to be bio-available to plants, according to reports on arctic tundra and two permafrost taiga forests (Jones and Kielland, 2002; Atkin, 2006). Pools of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and DON are simulated in the *dissolved C and N* submodel.

## 2.5 Submodel 3 – soil organic matter dynamics

The *soil organic matter (SOM)* submodel simulates peat decomposition and accumulation using a multi-layer approach. The litter produced from the *vegetation* submodel is added to the topsoil layer and into the rooted layers of the peat. In each layer, C and N is present in labile (L) and recalcitrant (R) pools. The decomposition of each SOM pool was modeled following the single pool model of Manzoni et al. (2010). Pool L and R are decomposed simultaneously at rates that are determined by their C/N ratios, an environmentally controlled decomposition rate constant  $k$ , and the availability of mineral N. Three fates of the decomposition products are possible: (1) leaching as dissolved organic matter (DOM), (2) re-immobilization into microbial biomass, and (3) conversion into dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN). DOM was extracted from SOM pools by a constant fraction, which is empirically related to the local precipitation level of the site (Appendix A, Eqs. A90, A96). The value used here (0.05) is slightly smaller than the lower end (0.06) of the suggested range for ecosystems in general (Manzoni et al., 2010), owing to the small hydraulic conductivity in northern peatlands. The remaining SOM is either mineralized into dissolved inorganic matter or immobilized into microbial biomass with a microbial efficiency ( $e$ ), indicating the immobilized fraction of the decomposed SOM (Appendix A, Eq. A84). Parameter  $e$  is empirically calculated from the initial C/N ratios of the SOM pools, which in turn is controlled by the composition of litter produced from each PFT. For simplicity, microbial biomass is considered as a constant part of SOM. The actual N decomposition rate, excluding for the N immobilization to microbial biomass, can be either positive or negative. Positive rates reveal net mineralization from SOM N pools to dissolved  $\text{NH}_4^+$  pools

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and negative rates indicate net immobilization. The “critical N level” is used as an indicator of the N concentration at which immobilization balances mineralization (Berg and Staaf, 1981). The “critical N level” varies according to the C/N ratio of microorganisms, the DOM leaching fraction,  $e$  and another factor representing the N preferences of microorganisms during decomposition ( $\alpha_{E}N_{\text{prefer}}$ ) (Appendix A, Eq. A86). The nitrogen preference of microorganisms ( $\alpha_{E}N_{\text{prefer}}$ ) is a multiplier larger than 1 and is limited by the asymptotic C/N ratio of SOM at decomposition equilibrium (Appendix A, Eq. A95).

In addition to the control of N concentration in SOM, the availability of soil mineral N also affects the decomposition rates. Nitrogen addition experiments showed neutral or negative effects on the decomposition rates of SOM due to contrary effects on the decomposition of labile and recalcitrant OM: a decrease in the decomposition rates of more recalcitrant OM and an increase in that of more labile OM (Neff et al., 2002; Janssens et al., 2010; Currey et al., 2011). We adopted the quantitative relation from the Integrated Biosphere Simulator model (IBIS) (Liu et al., 2005), by converting mineral N contents to DIN concentrations in each layer (Fig. S3d). Nitrogen mineralization is inhibited while N immobilization is promoted by increasing DIN concentration up to  $200 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ . The decomposition rate constants  $k$  are regulated by substrate quality ( $q$ ), soil moisture ( $f m_{\text{dec}}$ ), soil temperature ( $f T_{\text{dec}}$ ) and inhibition factors accounting for the decrease in Gibbs free energy due to the accumulation of end products (i.e.  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ ) in the saturated soils (Appendix A, Eq. A87). The decrease in  $k$  with depth is modeled based on the “peat inactivation concept” (Blodau et al., 2011) rather than only linked to anoxia (Frolking et al., 2002) or redox potential (Zhang, 2002), as in other models. The essential idea of this concept is that the transport rate of decomposition products controls the decomposition rate in the saturated anoxic soils (Fig. S3) The inhibition factors are values between 0 and 1 based on  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  concentrations according to the inverse modeling results in Blodau et al. (2011) (Fig. S3a, b).

The intrinsic decomposability of the substrate (L or R) determines the base decomposition rate constant ( $k_{\text{Cpot}}$ ). Due to the conceptual inconsistency of  $k_{\text{Cpot}}$  in experiments (Updegraff et al., 1995; Bridgman et al., 1998), we calibrated the values of  $k_{\text{Cpot}}$

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from the long-term simulations in the spin-up runs. The moisture and temperature effect on the decomposition in each pool is modeled similar to the PCARS model (Frolking et al., 2002), with the  $Q_{10}$  value of the decomposition of L pools (2.3) smaller than that of R pools (3.3) (Conant et al., 2008, 2010).

## 5 2.6 Submodel 4 – dissolved C and N

The model contains 3 dissolved C pools:  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  and DOC and 4 dissolved N pools:  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and DON in each belowground layer (Fig. 2). Because decomposition proceeds and is controlled through the SOM pools, DOM is considered to be an end product, and is only removed by runoff. The production of DOC, DIC, DON and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  are inputs from the SOM and the vegetation submodels. The production of DIC is further partitioned into the production of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  in the anoxic layers.

The partitioning of respired C into  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  in the saturated layers depends on the presence of alternative electron acceptors (i.e.  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and likely humic substances) for the terminal electron accepting processes (TEAP) (Conrad, 1999; Lovley and Coates, 2000). In previous studies, the ratio of  $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4$  production and the production rates of  $\text{CH}_4$  was modeled as a function of WT depth (Potter, 1997; Zhuang, 2004), or by microbial activities using Michaelis–Menten kinetics (Segers and Kengen, 1998; Lopes et al., 2011). Following the concept put forward by Blodau (2011), we modeled the  $\text{CH}_4$  production rate by an energy limited Michaelis–Menten kinetics.

We build an equation group based on the valance balance of the overall oxidation-reduction process and the mass balance of C (Appendix A, Eq. A121). The first equation (Appendix A, Eq. A121) denotes that  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  are the only inorganic C products (DIC) from the decomposition of SOM. The second equation was deduced from the valance balance of  $\text{CO}_2$  (+4) production and  $\text{CH}_4$  (−4) production from organic C, assuming an initial oxidation state of zero as found in carbohydrates. The production of  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{CO}_2\text{pro}_i$ ) is the result of the stoichiometric release of  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\text{CH}_4\text{pro}_i$ ) from fermentation and subsequent methanogenesis, and the consumption of electron acceptors

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( $\text{CO}_2\text{pro}_{\text{EA},i}$ ) in units of electron equivalents. The acronym EA represents electron acceptors other than  $\text{CO}_2$ , including  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and humic substances (HS).

In anaerobic systems, electron acceptors are consumed by terminal electron accepting processes that competitively consume  $\text{H}_2$  or acetate. Individual processes predominate according to their respective Gibbs free energy gain, usually in the sequence  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  
 5 Fe (III), humic substances (HS),  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  (Conrad, 1999; Blodau, 2011). Owing to the extremely fast turnover of  $\text{H}_2$  pools in peat, the Michaelis–Menten approach is not suitable for modeling  $\text{CH}_4$  production in models running on a daily time step when  $\text{H}_2$  is considered the substrate. To avoid modeling the pools of  $\text{H}_2$  and acetate explicitly,  
 10 the current model with daily time step focuses on the electron flow from complex organic matter to all TEAPs, instead of modeling each microbial process explicitly. In ombrotrophic systems like bogs, only  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$  and HS are considered relevant electron acceptors. The  $\text{CO}_2$  production from  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{NO}_3$  reduction are calculated from the valance relations (Appendix A, Eq. A122). One mole of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  being reduced to HS  
 15 provides 8 mole of electrons ( $\text{S}(+6) \rightarrow \text{S}(-2)$ ) and 1 mol of  $\text{NO}_3$  releases 5, 4 and 3 mol of electrons when being reduced to  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{N}_2$  ( $\text{N}(+5) \rightarrow \text{N}(+3) \rightarrow \text{N}(+1) \rightarrow \text{N}(0)$ ).

Humic substances have recently also been identified as electron acceptors (Lovley et al., 1996; Heitmann et al., 2007; Keller et al., 2009) and require some consideration. Reduction of humic substances may be a significant  $\text{CO}_2$  source in anoxic peat,  
 20 where a large fraction of the total  $\text{CO}_2$  production typically cannot be explained by consumption of known electron acceptors (Vile et al., 2003b). Although peat stores a large amount of organic carbon as humics, likely only a small fraction of it is redox active (Roden et al., 2010). The redox-active moieties in humics have been identified as quinones, here called DOM-Q (Scott et al., 1998). Electron accepting rate constants of HS in sediments were reported to be  $0.34 \text{ h}^{-1}$  and  $0.68 \text{ h}^{-1}$  based on two oxidized humic pools (Roden et al., 2010). Field measurements reported minimum electron transfer of  $0.8 \text{ mmol charge (eq.) m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$  generating  $\text{CO}_2$  at  $0.2 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$  (Heitmann et al., 2007). This rate was similar to the small production rate of  $\text{CH}_4$  at the investigated bog site.

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Based on this limited information, we conceptually modeled the reduction and oxidation of humic substances using first order kinetics (Appendix A, Eq. A133–A136). The initial values of the EA (electron acceptor) and ED (electron donor) pools in the humic substances are calculated from the SOM C pool by a ratio of  $1.2 \text{ eq. (mol C)}^{-1}$   
 5 (Roden et al., 2010). The initial electron accepting capacity used in the model was ca. 2000–4000  $\text{mmol charge m}^{-2}$  for the upper 60 cm of peat per  $\text{m}^2$ , which is close to the capacity of 2725  $\text{mmol charge m}^{-2}$  derived from a drying and rewetting experiments in a minerotrophic fen (Knorr and Blodau, 2009).

In the model electron acceptors are renewed via two mechanisms: direct oxidation  
 10 by  $\text{O}_2$  due to WT fluctuation in the only temporarily saturated layers and microbially mediated electric currents through the peat column via an extracellular electron transfer ( $I_{\text{nanowire}}$ ). While the first mechanism is well documented (Knorr and Blodau, 2009), the second is speculative. It relates to the observation that even in deeper peats, that are not affected by influx of oxygen or other inorganic electron acceptors,  $\text{CO}_2$  seems  
 15 to be net released in excess of methane (Beer and Blodau 2007). This finding has remained enigmatic because excess  $\text{CO}_2$  release would be impossible from a stoichiometric point of view when organic matter with oxidation state close to zero is respired and other, more reduced decomposition products, in particular molecular hydrogen, are not concurrently released. A relevant accumulation of molecular hydrogen has, to  
 20 our knowledge, not been observed in affected peats. Anaerobic methane oxidation may appear as a way out of the dilemma; however, also this process would depend on the elusive electron acceptor (Smemo and Yavitt, 2011).

Recently an extracellular electron transfer was described that has the potential to solve this enigma. Microorganisms in soils and sediments were first detected extracellularly utilizing electrons from redox active species, such as HS, Fe (III) (Lovley and Coates, 2000). The term “*microbial nanowire*” has been proposed later for this extracellular electron transfer (Reguera et al., 2005). Recently the process was demonstrated to occur in marine sediments over macroscopic distances (Nielsen et al., 2010). The authors suggested that electrons can extracellularly flow in interconnected networks of

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“nanowires” so that oxidation and reduction process are spatially separated from each other. In our case the oxidation process releasing CO<sub>2</sub> would proceed deeper into the peat, whereas the reduction reaction would take place near the peatland surface where oxygen is present. We suppose that this mechanism may be the reason for some of the frequently observed CO<sub>2</sub> production that is unrelated to physical supply of an electron acceptor deeper into the peat. Not knowing about mechanistic detail in peats, we conceptualized this process by simply calculating an extracellular electron current in the peat and using Ohm’s law for the anoxic layers (Appendix A, Eq. A137). Peat electron flow resistance ( $R$ ) is determined by inverse modeling based on the resistance constant definition and corrected for soil moisture under the assumption that air filled pore space cannot conduct electrons (Appendix A, Eq. A142). The parameter  $\rho_{\text{peat}}$  ( $\Omega m$ ) is the specific resistance of the material and  $l$  is the layer depth (m). Electron current in mA was then converted to mmol by the Avogadro constant (NA) and the Faraday constant ( $F$ ) ( $96490 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$ ) (Appendix A, Eq. A137). To make this process work, electrochemical potential gradients (dEh) that drive the flow between adjacent layers are needed. In absence of meaningful measurements of redox potential of peat we calculated such a gradient from a measured redox potential gradient in the Mer Bleue Bog that was given by concentration depth profiles of dissolved H<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub>. We assumed that the redox potential gradient of this redox couple represents the minimum depth gradient in electrochemical potentials being present. Using the Nernst equation for the reaction  $4\text{H}_2(\text{aq}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{aq}) \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) + \text{CH}_4(\text{aq})$  (Appendix A, Eq. A138–A141), concentration profiles were converted into electrochemical potential gradients with depth. H<sub>2</sub> concentration was measured by Beer and Blodau for the Mer Bleue bog (2007) (Table S4).

In the model the electron flow through the peat towards the peatland surface is used to reoxidise H<sub>2</sub>S to sulfate and DOM-QH<sub>2</sub> to DOM-Q at larger depths. These species are the reduced again, producing the needed “excess” CO<sub>2</sub> in the process and lowering rates of methanogenesis, respectively (Appendix A, Eq. A136). The rate constant of sulfate reduction was adjusted to the suggested range of the SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> reduction rates

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based on the S deposition on the site at  $0.89 \text{ mmol S m}^{-3} \text{ day}^{-1}$  (Vile, 2003a). The same thermodynamic inhibition concept as used to model methanogenesis was applied also to bacterial sulfate reduction (Appendix A, Eq. A129).

Both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are in equilibrium between gaseous phase and dissolved phase obeying Henry’s Law (Appendix A, Eq. A100–A103). The efflux of C and N are through runoff and advection in dissolved phase and in gaseous phase from the soil surface. Diffusion follows Fick’s law with moisture corrected coefficients in the saturated layers and was modeled as step functions in the unsaturated layers where diffusion accelerates by orders of magnitude for gases (Appendix A, Eq. A104–A107). CH<sub>4</sub> also escape from the soil via ebullition and plant mediated transportation (Appendix A, Eq. A115–A120). Ebullition occurs in saturated layers once CH<sub>4</sub> level exceeds the maximum concentration CH<sub>4,max</sub>. The parameter CH<sub>4,max</sub> is sensitive to temperature and pressure (Davie et al., 2004), with a base maximum CH<sub>4</sub> concentration at 500  $\mu\text{M}$ , which is the value for a vegetated site at 10 °C in Walter et al. (2001). The ebullition of CH<sub>4</sub> releases the gas to the atmosphere without it passing through the unsaturated zone. In the rooted layers, graminoids transport CH<sub>4</sub> at rates that are determined by the biomass of the graminoid roots. A percentage of 50 % of the CH<sub>4</sub> are oxidized to CO<sub>2</sub> during the plant mediated transportation by the O<sub>2</sub> in plant tissues (Walter et al., 2001). The CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation in the oxic layers was modeled using temperature sensitive double Michaelis–Menten functions (Segers and Leffelaar, 2001) (Appendix A, Eq. A118).

The gases N<sub>2</sub>O and NO are byproducts of nitrification and denitrification ( $\text{NH}_4^+ \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_3^- \rightarrow \text{NO}_2^- \rightarrow \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{N}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{N}_2$ ) in the anoxic layers. During nitrification, the fraction of N loss as NO ( $r\text{NO}_{\text{nitri}}$ ) is 0.1 %–4 %  $\text{day}^{-1}$  with a mean value of 2 % (Baumgärtner and Conrad, 1992; Parsons et al., 1996). For N<sub>2</sub>O ( $r\text{N}_2\text{O}_{\text{nitri}}$ ) this value is smaller at 0.1 %–0.2 %  $\text{day}^{-1}$  (Ingwersen et al., 1999; Breuer et al., 2002; Khalil et al., 2004a). We used similar values as in the model DNDC for acid ecosystems, where  $r\text{N}_2\text{O}_{\text{nitri}}$  was 0.06 % and  $r\text{NO}_{\text{nitri}}$  was 0.25 % (Li and Aber, 2000). Both nitrification and denitrification are regulated by temperature, moisture, and pH. Moisture is the dominant control for nitrification and an effective control for denitrification (Linn and Doran,

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January and to over 6 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> in October. The maximum concentration in deep layers was ca. 7 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and 0.6 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> respectively, close to the observed ranges (Beer and Blodau, 2007; Beer et al., 2008).

Figure 9c illustrates the profile of dissolved O<sub>2</sub> concentration for the year 2002. The dissolved O<sub>2</sub> was depleted rapidly below the WT, where concentration decreased from ca. 0.3 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> at around the WT in January to ca. 0.1 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> in October. Summer O<sub>2</sub> concentration around the WT was lower than the rest of the year, due to the alteration of Henry's law constant of O<sub>2</sub> by the increased summer temperature.

#### 4.4 Annual C budget

We calculated an annual C budget (Fig. 10a) based on the 6-yr mean of annual simulated pool and flow rates (Table S1). Annual GPP ranged from 513 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the second wettest year 2000 to 609 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in one of the dry years 2001. Similar to the 550 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> of GPP in the conceptual C budget model for the Mer Bleue Bog (Moore et al., 2002), the average annual GPP was 555 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, of which 70% was contributed by shrubs and 26% by mosses. Average annual ER was 526 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, 73% of which was emitted from the soil surface produced in HR of microorganisms and AR in roots. The difference of GPP and ER resulted in 286 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> of NPP of plants on average, whereas the average loss of C from the plants due to litter production and exudation was 296 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The difference of 10 g C between NPP and the sum of litter production and exudation corresponded to the changes of biomass in the plants. Annual net ecosystem production (NEP) was 29 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, close to the low end of the estimated 40.2 (±40.5) g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Roulet et al., 2007), which was based on 8 yr of observations from 1999 onwards. The model simulated an annual CH<sub>4</sub> emission of 4 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> of which 83% stemmed from graminoid mediated emission. Emission of CH<sub>4</sub> during the wet years of 2002 and 2004 were higher than in the dry years, as is the general trend observed in the Mer Bleue Bog and in other peatlands (Roulet et al., 2007). The simulated DOC export was 15 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, which was in

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agreement with the estimated 14.9 (±3.1) g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> from 5 yr of runoff and 3 yr of DOC concentration measurements at the site. The model suggested dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> loss in runoff was 0.29 and 0.01 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. These values were smaller than the estimated and variable 1.77 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (CO<sub>2</sub>) and 0.05 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (CH<sub>4</sub>) from the annual runoff in the Mer Bleue Bog drainage system (Billett and Moore, 2007). Finally, the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB = GPP-ER-CH<sub>4</sub>-DOC-DIC) was obtained as 10 (±60) g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. This value was smaller and more variable than field estimates of 21.5 (±39) g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, although it fell within the possible range of -105 to 50 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Roulet et al., 2007).

#### 4.5 Annual N budget

An annual N budget for the Mer Bleue Bog is illustrated based on the 6-yr average of simulated values (Fig. 10b, Table S2). The wet annual N deposited from the atmosphere was 0.81 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> onto the peatland. About 95% of the deposited N was absorbed by mosses right away. Nitrogen in the plants was associated with the plant biomass and composition, which both changed little over the 6 yr. Annually, mosses exported 0.82 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in litter and 0.02 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in exudates to the soil N pools. For vascular plants these fluxes were 2.97 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.02 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. N uptake was 1.68 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, mostly by shrubs as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and only 0.3% of N uptake occurred in form of DON. N<sub>2</sub> fixation was 0.96 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. Considering N uptake, N litterfall and N exudation, vegetation thus lost 0.38 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, which represents 2.5% per year over the simulation period. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> pool was smaller than the annual production and uptake, implying a fast turnover of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the soil. Other dissolved N pools (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, N<sub>2</sub>O and NO) were 3 to 8 magnitudes smaller than the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> pool in the model, and N<sub>2</sub>O emission was negligible. Export of DON and DIN through water runoff was also very small and occurred at rates of 0.04 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.01 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Overall, the OM pools received ca. 3.83 gN from plant litter production and

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OM due to a larger decomposition  $Q_{10}$  of this pool. As recalcitrant soil is present mostly in the deeper layers and contains less N, the temperature effect on N sequestration was weakened. Therefore, if recalcitrant SOM is more sensitive to temperature than labile SOM, as suggested by many (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Conant et al., 2008; Craine et al., 2010; Karhu et al., 2010), the function of peatlands as N sinks will be more impaired than in predictions on models with equal  $Q_{10}$  values for labile and recalcitrant SOM.

Nitrogen deposition levels affect mostly plant related C fluxes rather than soil derived fluxes. The sensitivity of GPP to N deposition was greater than to precipitation and temperature. Overall, the model suggests a strong promotion of graminoids over shrubs and mosses when the N deposition increases. The effect of N on both GPP and NPP was stronger in graminoids than in shrubs and mosses, due to the different N use strategy of the PFTs in the model (Table 5). Graminoids have advantages because faster turnover rates allow for instantaneous response to changes in N availability in the plant-soil system. In comparison, shrubs and mosses cycle N in a more conservative manner and need lower levels of N to keep photosynthesizing, hence these PFTs react more slowly to increases in N availability. The NPP of graminoids increased non-linearly with the N deposition level, by 70 % with a 150 % increase and 560 % by a 300 % increase in annual N deposition (Table S3). This finding implies other constraints on the NPP of graminoids at low N deposition levels. The main constraint was very likely N filtration by mosses, which was alleviated when mosses became N saturated at higher N deposition levels.

The NPP of shrubs was highest at moderate N deposition level of  $2.6 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , probably due to increased shading effects from the faster expansion of graminoids with more N deposition (Table S3). The NPP of mosses was negatively affected by N deposition, and only a slight promotion of GPP occurred when N deposition was slightly raised. Very different from the effects of the climatic drivers, N deposition levels had hardly an effect on HR. Other C effluxes, including dissolved C export,  $\text{CH}_4$  flux and AR were also less sensitive to N deposition than to temperature and precipitation.

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As GPP and ER were both positively affected by increasing N, the NEE, NECB and C sequestration rate of peat were not very sensitive to N deposition. In contrast, N sequestration in soil organic matter showed a strong positive relation to N deposition level.

Processes in the model were generally more sensitive to changes in parameters related to the recalcitrant OM fractions (Table 5). Plant derived C fluxes were little sensitive to  $Q_{10,L}$ ,  $Q_{10,R}$  and  $kpot_L$ , but moderately sensitive to  $kpot_R$ . The effects of  $kpot_R$  on GPP occur through changes in N availability in the peat, which varies according to the decomposition rate of the recalcitrant soil. The processes HR, NEE, NECB and the sequestration rates of C and N in soil showed greater and significant sensitivity to  $kpot_R$  and  $Q_{10,R}$ , than to  $kpot_L$  and  $Q_{10,L}$ , showing the importance of the recalcitrant SOM pool for HR. In the short term, the process most sensitive to all varied factors other than  $kpot_L$  was the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB).

#### 4.7 Nitrogen saturation

Increased N deposition has been observed to change vegetation composition and the C and N retention in mosses, vascular species, and peat (Lamers et al., 2001; Xing et al., 2010; Bragazza et al., 2012). The model was in part designed for quantifying changes in PFTs and for identifying the threshold of N deposition level where N saturation occurs in mosses. To study the plausibility of the model behavior we carried out a 40-yr simulation with raised atmospheric N input (Fig. 11). We adjusted the N deposition to  $1.5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , which is the intermediate N deposition in the sensitivity analysis and has been suggested to be the *critical load* of N for mosses (Vitt et al., 2003). The C and N pools in PFTs showed a delay in responses to elevated N deposition (Fig. 11a, b). The fraction of deposited N absorbed by mosses remained steady for the first 12 yr until the N content reached  $0.02 \text{ g N g}^{-1}$  biomass (Fig. 11d). Above this content level, the fraction of N retained by mosses declined rapidly and excess N entered the pore water. As a result, only then did the fraction of deposited N retained in vascular plants and peat increase and peaked after ca. 20 yr (Fig. 11c).

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Nitrogen mineralization rates increased immediately after raising N deposition, because of the elevated litter production in plants and exudation of mosses (Fig. 11d). Output of N from the model ecosystem was about 5% of the total N input from deposition and N<sub>2</sub> fixation, and was continuously increasing after moss filtration of N became less effective (Fig. 11f).

One of the important findings of this exercise was that total biomass and total NPP remained comparatively stable, while the plant composition of biomass and NPP changed greatly (Fig. 11a, e). The moss cover was completely diminished while graminoids started to expand with higher N availability in the soil water and eventually became the dominant PFT. An increase in the labile fraction of SOM was a further consequence because invading vascular plants produce more labile litter in the model. Owing to both the increased litter inputs from the vegetation and raised litter decomposability, the sequestration rate of C in soil first accelerated but then slowed after the NPP had peaked (Fig. 11e).

## 5 Discussion

### 5.1 Carbon fluxes and environmental controls

The fluxes GPP, ER and NEE are the essential components in C cycling that express the ability of peatland ecosystems in assimilating and dissimilating C and exchange the element with the atmosphere. Overall, the model simulations showed good agreement in daily C fluxes, belowground C concentration and annual C and N budgets with empirical data. However, a bias occurred towards underestimating simulated GPP (i.e. slope = 0.936), underestimating simulated ER (i.e. slope = 0.806) and overestimating simulated NEE (i.e. slope = 1.166). These biases are within the bias range of the other models that primarily focus on C cycling (e.g. MWM, PCARS). The model performance differed in that in MWM and PCARS the simulated ER was overestimated, while it was underestimated in the PEATBOG model.

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The 6-yr averaged annual GPP demonstrates the ability of the model in simulating overall productivity, as only a small deviation of 5 g C m<sup>-2</sup> was recorded against an empirically determined large average GPP of 550 g C m<sup>-2</sup> at the site (Moore et al., 2002). Also the trends in interannual variation of GPP with precipitation and temperature were largely met. Noteworthy is for example the decline in GPP in the extremely dry year 1999, when dryness had a large impact on the GPP of mosses and the high GPP in the warm and wet year of 2001 (Figs. 5b, 6a). While overall model performance was good some deviation from empirical measurements were illustrated by the analysis as well. Annual GPP was overestimated by 32 to 85 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> from year 2000 to 2003 and underestimated by 70 to 123 g C m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for the remaining years by the model simulations. The discrepancy of annual GPP simulations ranged from 7% to 18% and was not significant ( $P = 0.737$ ,  $n = 2192$ ). The simulated GPP fraction of shrubs was 70% ranging from 66% in the simulated wettest year of 2004 and 78% in the driest year 1999. This range was similar to the model output of MWM that ranged from 61% to 67% (St-Hilaire et al., 2010) and smaller than the shrub related fraction of GPP of 80% to 85% reported from the PCARS model (Folking et al., 2002). Interannual variation of GPP for PFTs was corroborated by observation (Bubier et al., 2003): GPP of mosses increased from dry to wet years from 4% to 48%, whereas GPP of shrubs was at its lowest levels in the wet years. In comparison to other models (St-Hilaire et al., 2010; Dimitrov et al., 2011), the inhibition of GPP of shrubs due to dryness is less effective in our model.

On the daily time scale some weakness of the model in responding to weather conditions became visible. In general, the simulated GPP was deficient in capturing short-term extreme fluxes. All large underestimates (> 2 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) in the GPP simulation occurred during mid-summer in the two wet years 2000 and 2005, when GPP in the peatland was larger than 5 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> except for two days in late summer. The likely reason for the lack of adequate model performance during this time are the maximum photosynthesis rates that are set for each PFT and the impossibility to cover the daily observed extreme values that were averaged from half hour records in the

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measurements. This disadvantage also occurred in other models with maximum rate settings that are based on the Farquhar photosynthesis model (e.g. MWM). We also noticed that most of the underestimates that occurred in 2004 were associated with frequent heavy precipitation that raised production instantly. In the model, the production of mosses is the only PFT that reacts to precipitation directly through the water content in the *capitulum* of mosses. The indirect controls of precipitation on the production of vascular plants via WT depth is likely the reason of the underestimated promotion of photosynthesis by frequent precipitation, especially when other controlling factors (i.e. temperature, light) are within the optimal range. For example, a peak of measured daily GPP was observed during late July 2004, during one of the periods that underestimated GPP. At this time precipitation was continuous at  $> 10 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$  and temperature was within an optimal range ( $20 \pm 3^\circ \text{C}$ ).

The overestimation of GPP mainly occurred during late May to early June in the dry years (2001 to 2003) when PAR was comparably strong ( $> 600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). During those days, the model predicted GPP of mosses and shrubs to reach a level above  $1.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$  and  $2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , respectively. Daily measured GPP in the Mer Bleue Bog was found to be significantly albeit weakly related to PAR ( $P < 0.001$ ;  $r^2 = 0.19$ ) (Moore et al., 2006). In the model, this relationship is significantly stronger ( $r^2 = 0.75$ ), due to neglecting the non-linearity of leave response to light in the integration of canopy photosynthesis using just Beer's law. The non-linearity of leave response to light is related to the diurnal effects on the canopy. It includes for example optimized nitrogen distribution in plant canopies, different responses to light in sun and shade leaves, and variation of stomatal conductance with light levels (Thornley, 2002; Hikosaka, 2003). Late May to early June was also the period when new biomass is build up, which affects the distribution of N within the plants. For example, both total N content and chlorophyll *a* concentration in evergreen shrub foliage were low in spring and increased steadily to early June, as shown in measurements (Moore et al., 2006). The model lacks separated N pools in foliage and stems, where N content could show

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great variations due to phenology, which might be the reason of the overestimation of GPP in late spring.

The fluxes ER and NEE represent the gross and net release of  $\text{CO}_2$  from peatlands, and largely determine the C balance of the ecosystem. The model reproduced the composition of ER, where HR contributed half of the total ER, while the other half was almost equally shared by AR in shoots and AR in roots, as approximately suggested by field measurements (Moore et al., 2002). However, the standard deviation of the simulated annual ER and NEE was larger than that in field estimates (50 % and 40 %), suggesting a larger inter-annual variation than measured in the field. The modeled annual ER ranged from  $430 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  to  $573 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , with an average of  $526 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Table S1), which is close to the flux quantified as  $461 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Lafleur et al., 2001). The annual discrepancy ranged from 3 % to 17 %, with an exception of 25 % in 2004 when the highest summer WT occurred. The underestimation of ER was probably caused by the simulated WT depth (Fig. 5b) that was 5 to 10 cm higher than measured in summer when both autotrophic respiration (AR) and heterotrophic respiration (HR) were potentially high. The modeled NEE showed similar inter-annual patterns to ER with the annual error being between  $35 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  to  $18 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The largest deviation of simulated NEE from measurements was  $106 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in 1999, when GPP was under- and ER overestimated.

The ER was also overestimated from 1999 and 2003 (Fig. 6b). To identify the reasons, we calculated the deviation between measured and model daily ER, and regressed it against the deviation of measured and modeled daily temperature. According to this approach the overestimate of ER from 1999 to 2003 could be explained by an overestimate of soil temperature ( $r^2 = 0.26$ ), especially during summer ( $r^2 = 0.68$ ). Both ER and HR were strongly correlated to soil temperature at 0.2 cm depth with  $r^2$  of 0.88 and 0.83, respectively ( $n = 2193$ ). The strong temperature dependence of ER and HR was associated with the  $Q_{10}$  values used in the model for the temperature effects on HR rates. Different from other models, where  $Q_{10}$  values were set to 2 for microbial respiration in soil,  $Q_{10}$  value for the decomposition of recalcitrant OM (3.3) was set

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to be larger than for labile OM (2.3). These  $Q_{10}$  values were in line with some of the most recent results (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Conant et al., 2008, 2010; Karhu et al., 2010), their application implies an stronger increase in C loss from peatlands in a warmer climate. It has to be noted that some have assumed the value of  $Q_{10}$  for labile OM to be larger (Liski et al., 1999; Giardina and Ryan, 2000; Thornley and Cannell, 2001) than or similar to (Fang et al., 2005) that of recalcitrant OM; in this case climate change effect on NEE may not be as extraordinary as has been anticipated otherwise. The sensitivity analysis on  $Q_{10}$  and potential decomposition rates for our model highlighted the importance of the recalcitrant OM over the labile OM for the C cycling in peatlands (Table 5).

The  $Q_{10}$  values derived from the first order exponential equations of the simulated ER and HR were only 2.56 and 1.97, respectively. The  $Q_{10}$  for HR was thus smaller than either of the  $Q_{10}$  for labile or recalcitrant OM, revealing the importance of other factors that confound the temperature response of HR. The WT depth was the most important factor affecting the calculated  $Q_{10}$  values with  $r^2$  of 0.75 between the average summer WT depth and the calculated  $Q_{10}$  values. In summer, the low soil moisture in the most upper peat layers counteracted the potential enhancement of respiration by temperature. Nevertheless, the sensitivity analysis suggested a lesser effect of WT depth than of soil temperature on  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes (Table 5). The daily simulated WT depth moderately correlated with ER ( $r^2 = 0.51$ ,  $n = 2192$ ), with  $r^2$  ranging from 0.19 in the wet year 2000 to 0.79 in the dry years. Although stronger than reported from empirical studies, this relationship was in a broad agreement with field results as far as the trend of tighter correlation in dry years goes (Bubier, 2003; Lafleur et al., 2005b; Blodau et al., 2007).

The  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes modeled with our novel thermodynamic-kinetic approach were in a reasonable range but smaller and their seasonal pattern less pronounced than obtained with chamber measurements at the Mer Bleue Bog (Moore et al., 2011). We attribute this difference to the variability of in situ plant cover and a higher mean water table position of the 12 gas flux collars of the field study. The collars were not only

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located in hummocks and lawns but also in hollows. The observed average WT depth was ranged  $-35 (\pm 8.4 \text{ cm})$  for the 12 collars from 2004 to 2008, whereas the simulated average WT depth was  $-41 \text{ cm}$  for the same time period. Due to the generally observed exponential increase in emissions with raising water table (Moore et al., 1998), even a small number of sampled wet locations may lead to much larger emissions than simulated in the model, which represents a hummock situation. The large discrepancy after summer was very likely due to the effects of vegetation transport on  $\text{CH}_4$  flux, which was the most important control on the  $\text{CH}_4$  flux from September to November over 5 yr (Moore et al., 2011). In the model, graminoid cover was less than 1 % during the simulation period, whereas the graminoid cover ranged from 0 to 100 % in the 12 collars. Comparing model output to one of the gas flux collars similar in water table and graminoid cover (collar 8, Table 2, Moore et al., 2011) with daily  $\text{CH}_4$  flux between 10 to  $100 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ , a closer model fit was obtained. In this collar, as in our model,  $\text{CH}_4$  emission increased less in summer than in the more gras-rich collars (Moore et al., 2011).

The growing season  $\log_{10}$  values of both daily and annual  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes showed moderately strong relations with WT depth ( $r^2 = 0.56$ ,  $n = 2119$  and  $r^2 = 0.45$ ,  $n = 11$ ) (Fig. 8c, d). The outliers were the degassing events, which occurred when water table was crossing the boundaries of peat layers in the model. The WT depth during the growing season showed differing effects on  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes in dry years and wet years, as was also found in the field (Moore et al., 2011). According to the model results, the lowest dependence of  $\text{CH}_4$  flux on the WT depth occurred in the dry years and the highest dependence in the wetter years. This finding is in conflict with relations obtained from field data, where  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions were less related to summer WT depth in wetter years. The annual variation in  $\text{CH}_4$  production is less pronounced than in  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes (Table S1); this implies that changes in the transportation mode of  $\text{CH}_4$  might offset the well known WT control on methanogenesis. For example, the root biomass of graminoids, that provide conduits for  $\text{CH}_4$  transport, was negatively correlated with WT depth and  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes. In the dry years, graminoid root biomass increased with declining WT in

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**Table 2.** Site specific parameters.

Name	Description	Value	Units	Sources
local slope	Local slope of the site	0.0008	mm <sup>-1</sup>	Fraser et al. (2001)
$t_i$	Day of year when the annual mean $T$ is reached	115	days	calculated
$\sigma T$	Amplitude of the air $T$ sinusoidal curve	17	°C	calculated
Latitude	Latitude of the site	42.24° N	°	–
N load	Annual wet N deposition level	0.8	g N m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	Turunen (2004)
$rtk_j$	Root distribution fraction $k$	Gram. 0.938 Shrub 0.935	–	Murphy et al. (2009)
$f_{inert\_frac_j}$	Fine root fraction of roots	Gram. 0.5 Shrub 0.2	–	Murphy et al. (2009)

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**Table 3.** Referenced Parameters.

Name	Description	Value	Unit	Source
<b>Environment</b>				
$k_{transm,a}$	Parameter a for transmissivity	1.98	–	1
$k_{transm,b}$	Parameter b for transmissivity	24.38	–	1
$EPT_{r,mooss}$	Rate constant of capitulum water Loss to evapotranspiration	0.24	day <sup>-1</sup>	2
<b>Plant</b>				
$P_{max,20}$	Light saturated PSN rate at 20 °C	Moss 2 Gram. 2 shrub 5	mgCO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	3, 4, 5
$K_{CO2,P,max}$	Parameter of CO <sub>2</sub> effect on $P_{max}$ at 700 vpm CO <sub>2</sub> , 20 °C, 1 atm	0.00128	kg CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-3</sup>	6
$Na_{max,j}$	Maximum N content in leaf	1.5	gNm <sup>-2</sup>	10, 11
$T_{max,j}$	Maximum temperature for PSN	30	°C	2, 6
$T_{min,j}$	Minimum temperature for PSN	–1	°C	2, 6
$mT$	Multiplier of temperature effect	2	°C	6
$T_{ref,j}$	Temperature when $fT,PSN$ is 1	22	°C	6, 12
$Q_{rT}$	$Q_{10}$ of temperature effect	2	–	6
$\alpha 0$	PSN efficiency at 15 °C, 1 atm	2.2	µgCO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup>	6
$P_{conc,mooss}$	Moss P concentration	0.001	gPg <sup>-1</sup>	13 <sup>a</sup>
CNDOM	C/N ratio of DOM	40	gC(gN) <sup>-1</sup>	14
$C_{conc_j}$	Structural C concentration	0.44	gCg <sup>-1</sup>	15
$K_{ext,j}$	Light extinction coefficient	0.95	–	7, 16, 17
$SLA_j$	Specific leaf area	0.02	m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup>	18, 19, 20
$\xi_j$	Curve of PSN and PAR parameter	0.99	–	7
$rR_{leaf,j}$	Leaf maintenance respiration rate constant	12	gC(kgC) <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup>	21 <sup>a</sup>
$rR_{stem,j}$	Leaf maintenance respiration rate constant	10	gC(kgC) <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup>	21 <sup>a</sup>
$rR_{coarsert,j}$	Coarse root maintenance respiration rate constant	0.001	day <sup>-1</sup>	21
$rR_{finert,j}$	Fine root maintenance respiration rate constant	0.0048	day <sup>-1</sup>	22
$Q_{10,X,r,j}$	$Q_{10}$ of temperature effect on respiration	2	–	23, 24, 25
$li\_C\_frac_{X,subs,j,min}$	Minimum substrate C fraction of litter	0.3	–	26

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Table 3. Continued.

Name	Description	Value	Unit	Source
$k_{ii,subsC}$	Constant for substrate C in litter	0.05	$gCg^{-1}$	26
$CNratio_{rec}$	CN ratio of recycled litter	2.7	$gC(gN)^{-1}$	8
$CNratio_{upt}$	CN ratio of DOM uptake	2.7	$gC(gN)^{-1}$	8 <sup>b</sup>
$k_{rec,subsN}$	Constant of recycled substrate N from litter	0.01	$gNg^{-1}$	8
$r_{growth,sh,j}$	Shoot growth rate constant	0.5	$day^{-1}$	8 <sup>a</sup> , 16
$r_{growth,rt,j}$	Root growth rate constant	0.2	$day^{-1}$	26 <sup>a</sup>
$K_{m,growC_j}$	Half saturation constant for substrate C in biomass growth	0.1	$gCg^{-1}$	26 <sup>a</sup>
$K_{m,growN_j}$	Half saturation constant for substrate N in biomass growth	1	$gNkg^{-1}$	26 <sup>a</sup>
$\rho_{C,j}$	resistance parameter for shoot root transport of substrate C	–	$m^2 day^{-1}$	9 <sup>a</sup>
$\rho_{N,j}$	resistance parameter for shoot root transport of substrate C	–	$m^2 day^{-1}$	9 <sup>a</sup>
$li_{rec,Nfrac_{X,subs,j,max}}$	Maximum recycled fraction of substrate N from litter	0.5	–	8 <sup>a</sup>
$frac_{li,N_{X,subs,j,min}}$	Minimum substrate N fraction of litter	0.2	–	8 <sup>a</sup>
$k_{ii,subsN}$	Constant of substrate N in litter	0.005	$gNg^{-1}$	8 <sup>a</sup>
$K_{m,NO3}$	Half saturation constant of $NO_3^-$ uptake	10	$mmolm^{-3}$	27
$K_{m,NH4}$	Half saturation constant of $NH_4^+$ uptake	50	$mmolm^{-3}$	27
$V_{m,NO3}$	Maximum rate of $NO_3^-$ uptake	0.00221	$mmolcm^{-2}day^{-1}$	27, 28
$V_{m,NH4}$	Maximum rate of $NH_4^+$ uptake	0.000432	$mmolcm^{-2}day^{-1}$	27, 28
$Q_{10,NO3upt}$	$Q_{10}$ for $NO_3^-$ uptake	1.86	–	29
$K_{m,c,Nupt}$	Constant of substrate C concentration on N uptake in plants	0.1	$gCg^{-1}$	30 <sup>a</sup>
$K_{m,N,Nupt}$	Constant of substrate N concentration on N uptake in plants	0.005	$gNg^{-1}$	8
$V_{m,DON,j}$	Maximum rate of DON uptake	–	$mmolg^{-1}day^{-1}$	30 <sup>a</sup>
$K_{m,DON,j}$	Half saturation constant of DON for uptake	–	$mmolm^{-3}$	30
SOM				
$CN_{mo}$	Microbial C/N ratio	7	$gCgN^{-1}$	31
$T_{min,dec}$	Minimum temperature for SOM decomposition	–4	$^{\circ}C$	31

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Table 3. Continued.

Name	Description	Value	Unit	Source
$Q_{10,dec,q}$	$Q_{10}$ of temperature effects on the decomposition of labile or recalcitrant SOM	$Q_{10,L} = 2.3, Q_{10,R} = 3.3$	–	33
$LeaDOC\%_j$	Fraction of SOM leach as DOC	0.05	–	31 <sup>a</sup>
$LeaDON\%_j$	Fraction of SOM leach as DON	0.05	–	31 <sup>a</sup>
$CN_{limit}$	The asymptotic CN ratio value of SOM decomposition	20	$gC(gN)^{-1}$	31
Dissolved C and N				
$Oxi_{frac}_j$	Fraction of $CH_4$ oxidized during plant transportation	0.5	–	34
$V_{m,CH4oxi}$	Maximum oxidation rate of $CH_4$	63.93	$mmolm^{-3}day^{-1}$	34
$K_{m,CH4oxi}$	Half saturation constant of $CH_4$ oxidation	29	$mmolm^{-3}$	36
$Q_{10,CH4oxi}$	$Q_{10}$ for $CH_4$ oxidation	2	–	34
$K_{ebu}$	Ebullition rate constant of $CH_4$	0.01	$day^{-1}$	34 <sup>a</sup>
$DON\%_{dep}$	Fraction of DON in deposited N	0.4	–	13 <sup>a</sup>
$Q_{10,Nfix}$	$Q_{10}$ for $N_2$ fixation	3	–	37
$T_{min,Nfix}$	Minimum temperature for $N_2$ fixation	–4	$^{\circ}C$	32 <sup>a</sup>
$V_{m,nitri}$	Maximum nitrification rate	0.05	$day^{-1}$	38
$K_{m,nitri}$	Half saturation constant for nitrification	200	$mmolm^{-3}$	28
$rNO_{nitri}$	Fraction of NO production in nitrification	0.002	–	39, 40, 41
$rN_2O_{nitri}$	Fraction or $N_2O$ production in nitrification products	0.0005	–	41, 42, 43, 44
$V_{m,denitri}$	Maximum denitrification rate	86.4	$mmolm^{-3}day^{-1}$	29
$K_{m,denitri}$	Half saturation constant for denitrification	1	$mmolm^{-3}$	29
$rNO_{denitri}$	NO production rate constant in denitrification	0.002	$day^{-1}$	41, 43, 45
$rN_2O_{denitri}$	$N_2O$ production rate constant in denitrification	0.002	$day^{-1}$	46
$CSratio_{peat}$	C/S ratio in peat SOM	318	$gC(gS)^{-1}$	14
$SCRatio_{plant}$	S/C ratio in plants	0.0022	$gS(gC)^{-1}$	47

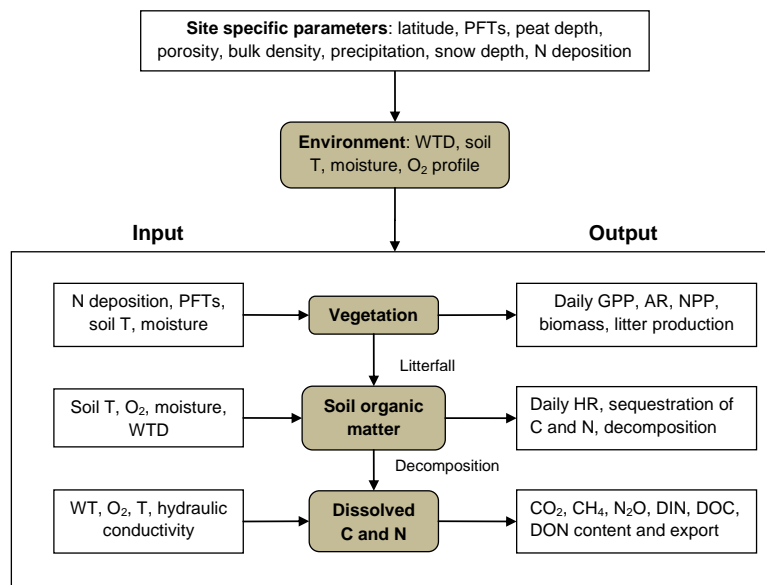
1674



**Table 5.** Results of sensitivity analyses. The values shown are the average relative changes in model output per change of parameter (Jørgensen and Bendricchio, 2001). (+) indicates a positive relation between the change in the parameter and the change C and N pools or fluxes. (-) indicates an inverse relation between the change in parameter and the change in C and N pools or fluxes.

Parameters	Air Temperature	Precipitation	N deposition	$Q_{10,R}$	$Q_{10,L}$	$K_{potR}$	$K_{potL}$
GPP	+0.08	-0.04	+0.12	+0.02	0.00	+0.06	+0.01
PSN moss	-0.05	+0.01	+0.01	-0.03	0.00	-0.09	-0.02
PSN gram	+0.03	-0.16	+0.69	+0.08	+0.01	+0.26	+0.05
PSN shrub	+0.13	-0.05	+0.13	+0.04	+0.01	+0.11	+0.02
AR	+0.25	-0.17	+0.19	+0.03	0.00	+0.08	+0.02
AR moss	+0.08	0.00	+0.15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
AR gram	+0.09	-0.12	+0.53	+0.06	+0.01	+0.20	+0.04
AR shrub	+0.34	-0.25	+0.19	+0.04	+0.01	+0.11	+0.02
NPP moss	-0.22	+0.03	-0.18	-0.06	-0.19	-0.20	-0.04
NPP gram	-0.02	-0.19	+0.85	+0.10	+0.31	+0.32	+0.06
NPP shrub	-0.01	+0.85	+0.08	+0.03	+0.10	+0.11	+0.02
HR	+0.39	-0.30	+0.01	+0.35	+0.13	+0.83	+0.26
ER	+0.33	-0.25	+0.10	+0.20	+0.07	+0.47	+0.14
CH <sub>4</sub> flux	-0.30	+0.75	+0.07	+0.32	0.00	+1.03	+0.05
DOC export	-0.08	+0.80	-0.04	+0.21	+0.10	+0.55	+0.20
NEE	-4.43	+3.72	+0.39	-3.24	-1.16	-7.22	-2.24
DIC export	-0.73	+2.95	-0.19	+0.10	-0.02	+0.49	0.00
NECB	-15.47	+11.28	+1.05	-12.18	-4.35	-27.47	-0.98
C sequestration rate	-5.09	+6.13	+0.02	-7.02	-2.54	-16.57	-4.93
N sequestration rate	-0.15	+1.17	+0.77	-0.80	-0.26	-1.78	-0.44

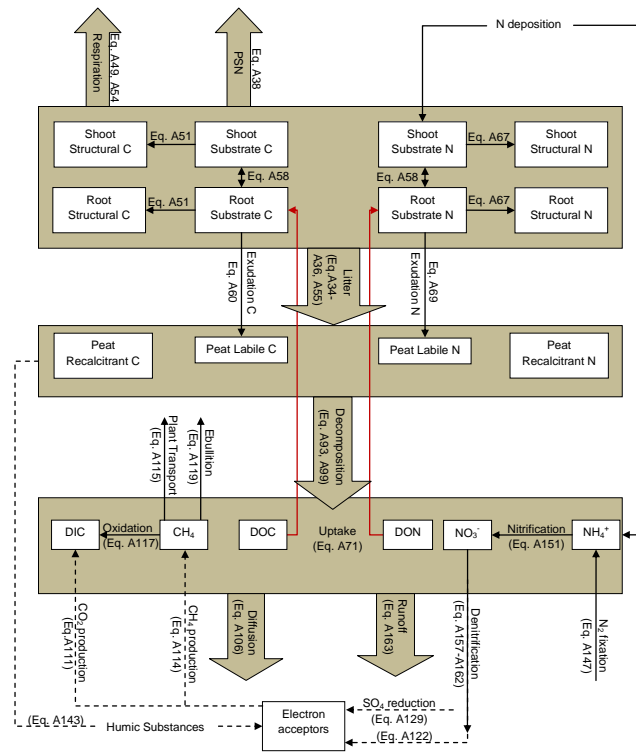
1677



**Fig. 1.** Model structure.

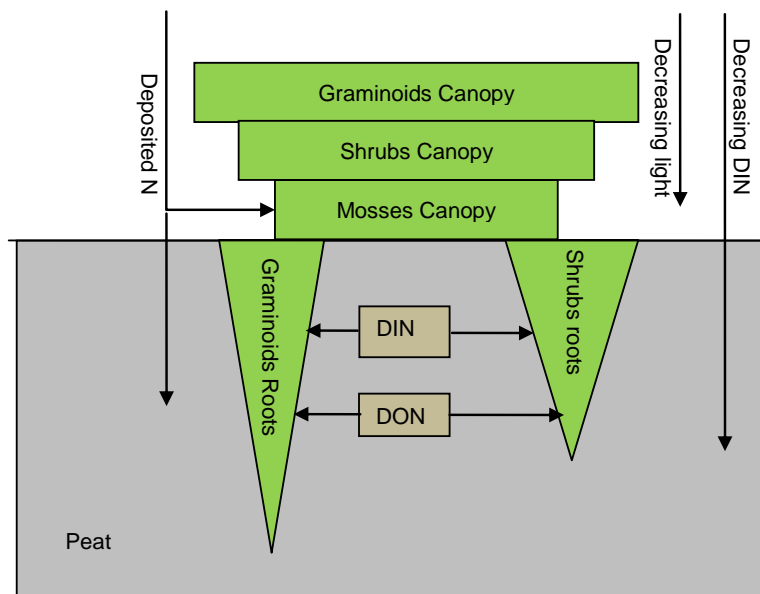
1678





**Fig. 2.** Schematic C N pools and flows. The black lines are material flows and the dotted lines are information flows. Equation are equations as listed in Appendix A.

1679



**Fig. 3.** Plant competition for nutrient and light.

1680

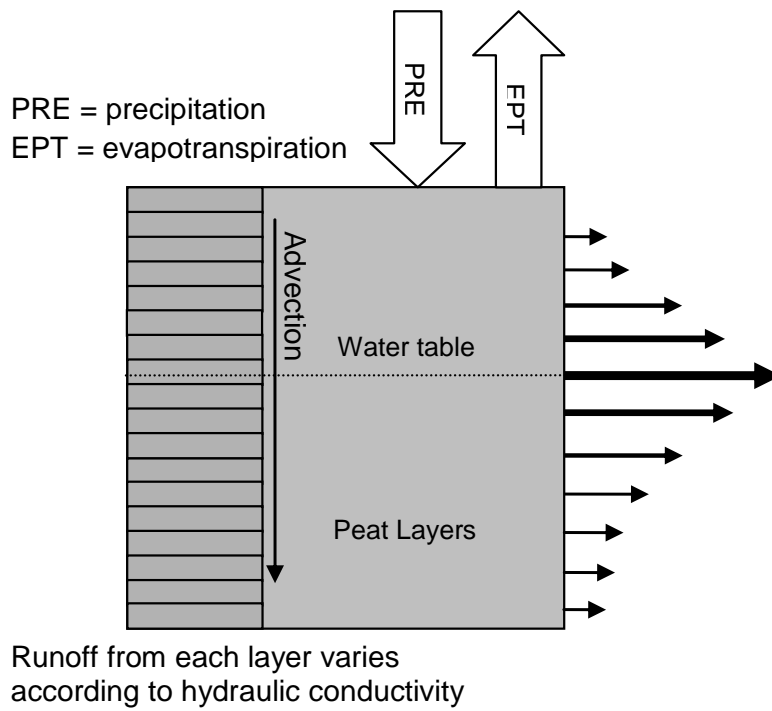


Fig. 4. Schematic soil water flow.

1681

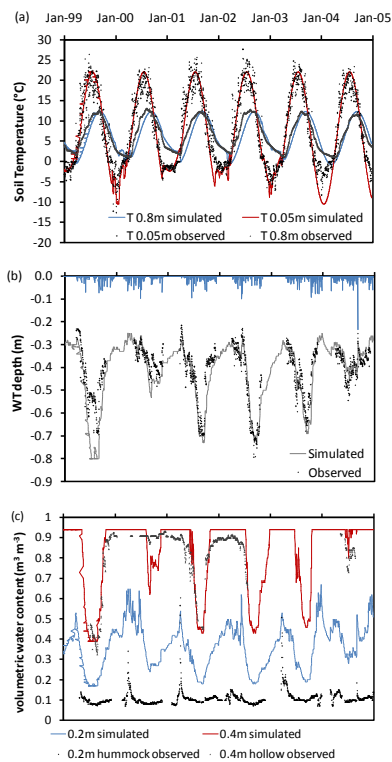
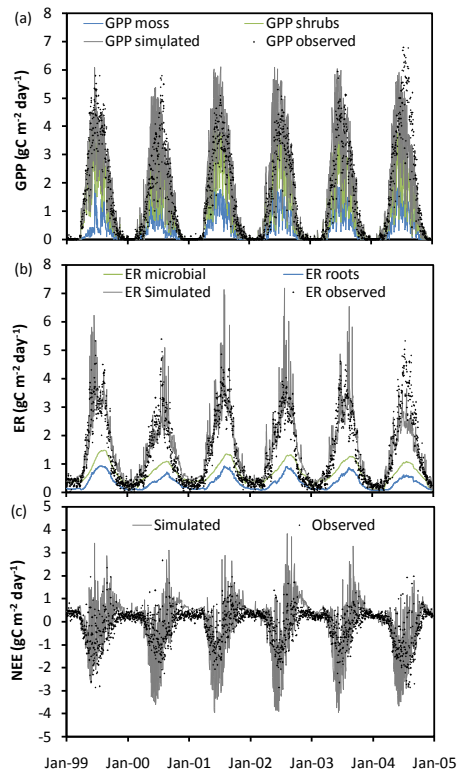


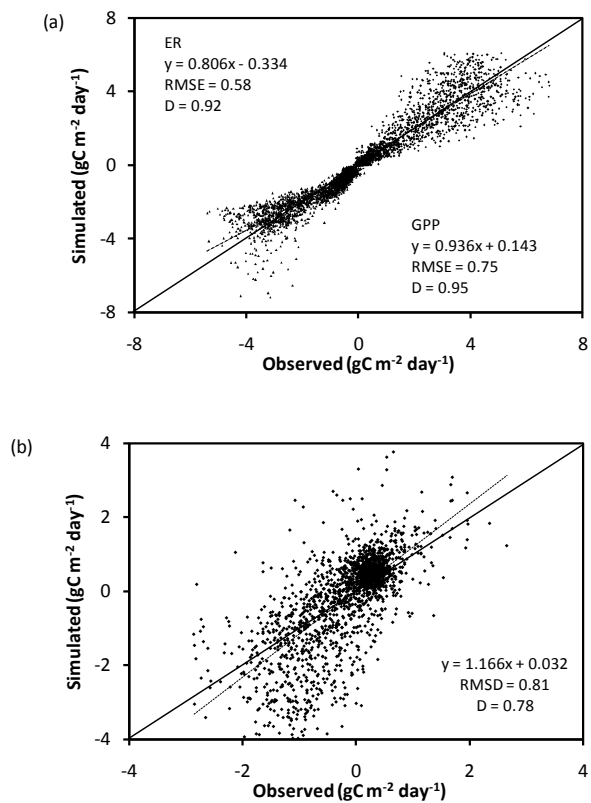
Fig. 5. Time series of observed daily average (symbols) and daily simulated (lines) of temperature (a), water table depth (b), and volumetric water content (c) for 1999–2004. The blue bars in (b) indicate observed daily precipitation records.

1682



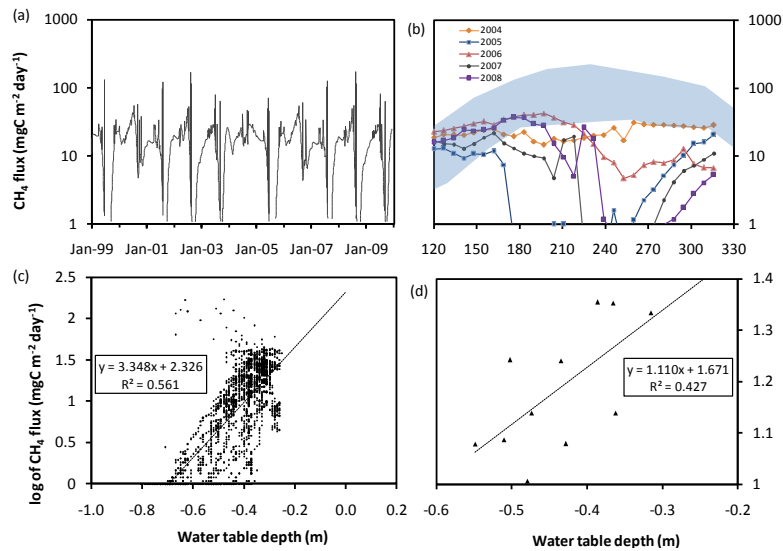
**Fig. 6.** Time series of daily observed average (symbols) and daily simulated (line) GPP and components (a), ER and its components (b), and NEE (c) for 1999–2004.

1683



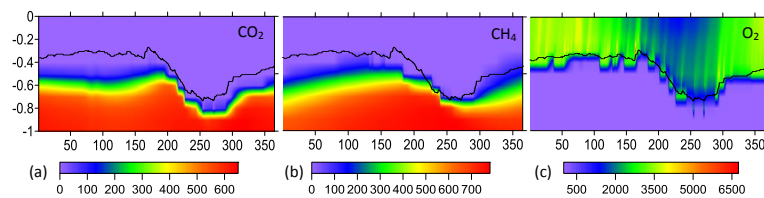
**Fig. 7.** The scatter plot of observed and simulated daily GPP and ER (a) and NEE (b) for 1999–2004, with the best fit relationship (dashed line) and the 1 : 1 line (solid black line).

1684



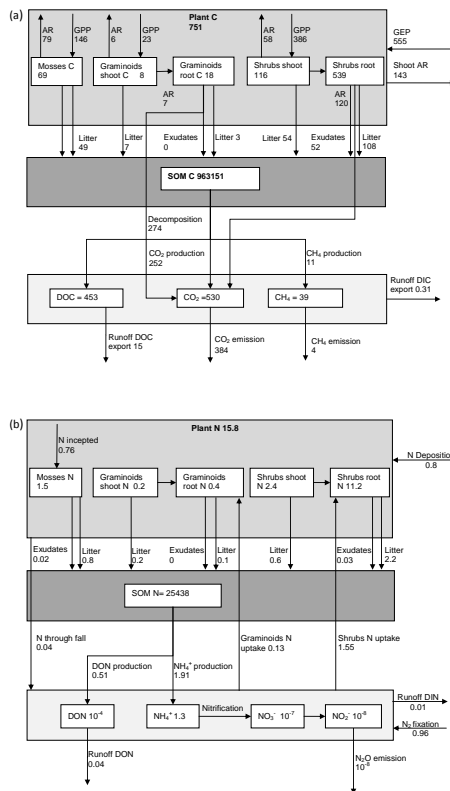
**Fig. 8.** Time series of (a) simulated daily  $\text{CH}_4$  flux ( $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) from 1999 to 2009, (b) simulated growing season (day of year 120 to 330) daily  $\text{CH}_4$  flux ( $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) from 2004 to 2008 (blue area indicates the variation range as recorded for the Mer Bleue Bog averaged from 12 collars (Moore et al., 2011, Fig. 2), (c) relationship between the simulated growing season daily and (d) annual average  $\text{CH}_4$  flux ( $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) in  $\log_{10}$  scale and the simulated daily water table depth (m) from 1999 to 2009.

1685



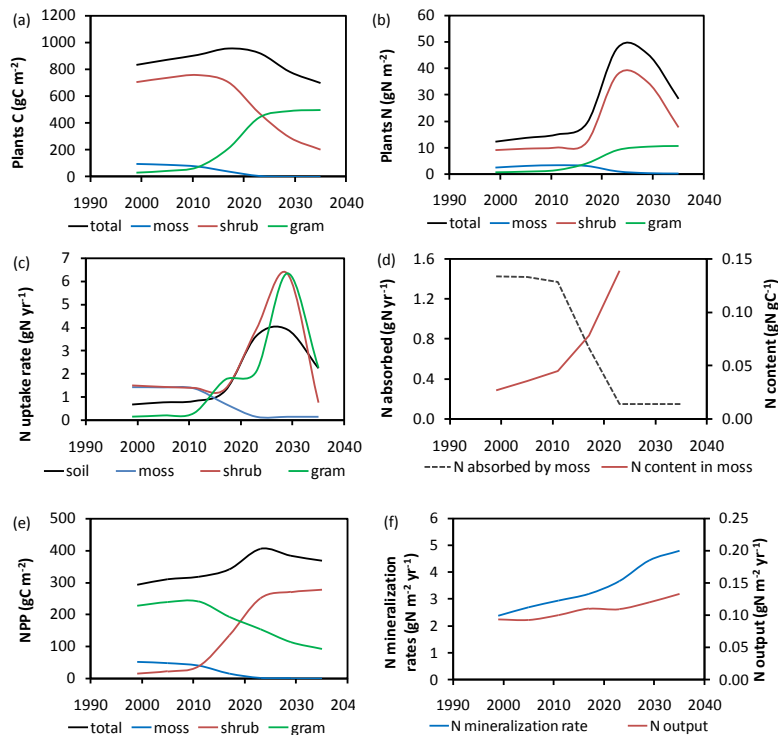
**Fig. 9.** Simulated profiles of dissolved  $\text{CH}_4$  (a), dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  (b) and dissolved  $\text{O}_2$  (c) concentration units: ( $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ) in soil pore water in the year 2002. The black lines indicate water table depth (m).

1686



**Fig. 10.** Carbon budget (a) and nitrogen budget (b) for the Mer Bleue peatland based on simulated averages from 1999 to 2004. Pools are in  $\text{g m}^{-2}$  and fluxes are in  $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ .

1687



**Fig. 11.** Simulated C pools (a), N pools (b) and NPP (e) in plants and PFTs, N uptake rate in plants and sequestration rate in peat (c), N absorbed by moss and N content in mosses (d), N mineralization rate and N output from peat (f) at annual wet N deposition of  $1.5 \text{ g N m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  from 1999 to 2039.

1688