

Sjögersten, Sofie and Caul, S. and Daniell, T.J. and Jurd, A.P.S. and O'Sullivan, O.S. and Stapleton, C.S. and Titman, Jeremy J. (2016) Organic matter chemistry controls greenhouse gas emissions from permafrost peatlands. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 98. pp. 42-53. ISSN 0038-0717

## Access from the University of Nottingham repository:

http://eprints.nottingham.ac.uk/45401/1/Sjogersten%20et%20al.%202016%20SBB %20second%20revision\_Final.pdf

## Copyright and reuse:

The Nottingham ePrints service makes this work by researchers of the University of Nottingham available open access under the following conditions.

This article is made available under the Creative Commons Attribution Non-commercial No Derivatives licence and may be reused according to the conditions of the licence. For more details see: http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/2.5/

## A note on versions:

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of record. If you wish to cite this item you are advised to consult the publisher's version. Please see the repository url above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information, please contact <a href="mailto:eprints@nottingham.ac.uk">eprints@nottingham.ac.uk</a>

# permafrost peatlands 2 3 Running head: Carbon dynamics in permafrost peatlands 5 S. Sjögersten<sup>1\*</sup>, S. Caul<sup>2</sup>, T. J. Daniell<sup>2</sup>, A. P. S. Jurd<sup>3</sup>, O. O'Sullivan<sup>1</sup>, C. S. Stapleton<sup>3</sup> and J. J. Titman<sup>3</sup> 7 8 9 <sup>1</sup>University of Nottingham, School of Biosciences, Sutton Bonington Campus, LE12 5RD, 10 UK 11 <sup>2</sup>James Hutton Institute, Invergowrie, Dundee, DD2 5DA, UK 12 <sup>3</sup>University of Nottingham, School of Chemistry, University Park, NG7 2RD, UK 13 14 Corresponding author: 15 Phone: 0044 115 9516239 16 Fax: 0044 115 9516162 17 E-mail: Sofie.Sjogersten@nottingham.ac.uk 18 Key words: <sup>13</sup>C solid state NMR, carbon dioxide, climate change, methane, microbial, 19 20 permafrost peatland 21 Primary research article

Organic matter chemistry controls greenhouse gas emissions from

1

### Abstract

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

Large tracts of arctic and subarctic peatlands are underlain by permafrost. These peatlands store large quantities of carbon (C), and are currently under severe threat from climate change. The aim of this study was to determine the size and organic chemistry of the easily degradable C pool in permafrost peatlands and link the functional organic chemistry to temperature and moisture controls of greenhouse gas emissions. First, we used a combination of field measurements and laboratory experiments to assess the influence of increased temperature and flooding on CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from sixteen permafrost peatlands in subarctic Sweden and Canada. Second, we determined the variation in organic matter chemistry and the associated microbial community composition of the peat active layer with depth using quantitative <sup>13</sup>C solid-state NMR and molecular biomarkers respectively. We demonstrate that the peat organic chemistry strongly controls CO<sub>2</sub> release from peat and that ca. 35 and 26 % of the peat organic matter, at the Swedish and Canadian peatlands sites, respectively, is easily degradable by heterotrophic microorganisms. In contrast to CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were decoupled from peat functional organic chemistry. Furthermore we found strong relationships between the microbial community structure and the peat organic chemistry suggesting that substrate type and abundance is an important driver of microbial composition in sub-arctic peatlands. Higher temperatures resulted in greater CO<sub>2</sub> production with comparable temperature sensitivity throughout the active layer despite considerable variation in peat chemistry and microbial community composition with depth. Our study shows that functional organic chemistry controls both soil respiration rates and the composition of the microbial community. Furthermore, if these peatlands collapse and flood on thawing, they are unlikely to become large emitters of CH<sub>4</sub> without additional input of labile substrates.

### Introduction

Subarctic peatlands rich in carbon (C) account for ca. 20% of permafrost area across the arctic and store ca. 94.3 Gt-C (Tarnocai et al. 2009; Schuuur et al., 2011). With current estimates of anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions at 11.8 Gt-C yr-1 (Friedlingstein et al., 2014), this represents a substantial C reservoir at risk with sever implication for future global

53 2014), this represents a substantial C reservoir at risk with sever implication for future global

climate (Schneider von Deimling et al., 2012). The arctic is predicted to undergo mean

annual temperature increases of over 5 °C (IPCC 2014) leading to estimated C losses of 232-

380 GtC by 2011 from permafrost soils (Schuur et al. 2011). These high C loss rates is

supported by incubation and modelling studies suggest that within 50 years ca. 40 % of the

soil organic material (ca. 60 Gt-C) currently held in organic permafrost soils could be

59 mineralised and released to the atmosphere (Schädel et al., 2014).

al., 2008; Treat et al., 2014).

While it is well established that the extensive C stores in permafrost peatlands are especially susceptible to losses through a combination of expected climate warming (Dorrepaal et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010; Harden et al., 2012) and high concentrations of labile constituents (i.e. easily degraded by microorganisms) (Dorrepaal et al., 2009; Schuur et al., 2009; Schuur and Abbott 2011; Schädel et al., 2014), uncertainties remain about the functional composition of the permafrost peatland C pool (e.g. the proportion of alkyls, O-alkyls, aromatics in the peat matrix) and how this may control C losses in a warming arctic. Furthermore, permafrost thaw in this region will result in deeper active layers which may subside, flood and result in thermokarst formation as the ice rich core is lost (Osterkamp 2007; Åkerman and Johansson 2008). This increased water logging, with associated anoxic conditions, may increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and potentially lower heterotrophic CO<sub>2</sub> losses (Christensen et al., 2004; Schuur et

Formatted: Font: Not Italic

The susceptibility of peat to decomposition by microbes is linked to its organic chemistry. Peat chemistry has been shown to influence potential CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from subarctic, temperate and tropical peats in short term incubations with higher CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> production resulting from peat high in carbohydrates (O-alkyls) and proteins (White et al., 2002; Andresen and White 2006; Reiche et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2011; Treat et al., 2014). However, anaerobic CH<sub>4</sub> production is both less efficient and more strongly limited by substrate quality (Ström et al., 2012) than aerobic CO<sub>2</sub> production. One of the factors determining if a given exothermic reaction will occur is the activation energy (E<sub>a</sub>) of the reaction (Atkin1994). For organic materials, such as peat and litter, the relationship between Ea and the structure of molecules are described by kinetic theory (e.g. Lloyd and Taylor 1994; Craine et al., 2010): Kinetic theory postulates that decomposition of recalcitrant, structurally complex, organic compounds, that have greater activation energies, puts higher energy demands on microorganisms. Recalcitrant organic compounds therefore have greater temperature sensitivity than more labile compounds with lower Ea (Fierer et al., 2005). In the context of permafrost peatlands, understanding the temperature response and Ea of peat decomposition in different peat layers provides information which can be used to assess peat lability and vulnerability to decomposition at higher temperatures. However, there exists a severe lack of data quantitatively linking functional organic chemistry of peat to its temperature sensitivity (but see Treat et al., 2014 who used a semi-quantitative pyrolysis-GCMS biomarker approach to link peat chemistry to temperature sensitivity). In the context of permafrost soils, the temperature sensitivity of the constituent organic material may

regulate how climate warming affects C release to the atmosphere.

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

The microbial community, through use of carbon for respiration and growth ultimately controls the release of stored carbon from organic soils, and its activity is dependent on environmental conditions such as temperature, hydrology and pH (Bergman et al., 1999; Yu et al., 2007) as well as the quality and quantity of resources as influenced by organic chemistry and the nutrient status of the soils (Webster et al 2001; Basiliko et al., 2006). Greater fungal abundance in peat has been associated with more efficient microbial communities i.e. communities with low respiration rates relative to the microbial biomass and lower respiration quotients (qCO<sub>2</sub>, i.e. the respiration rate per unit biomass) (Basiliko et al., 2006), although others have found less clear cut depth effects (Myers et al., 2012). Fungi are limited to aerobic environments and lower O2 levels in deeper peat layers are likely to inhibit fungal growth, with implications for degradation of more complex organic molecules (Freeman et al., 2004). For example, lignin degradation by lignolytic microorganisms (mainly fungi) require O<sub>2</sub> to efficiently depolymerize and solubilize lignin (Zeikus, 1981) and is thus likely to be hampered in deep and/or waterlogged peat layers. To further our understanding the fate of permafrost peatland carbon and greenhouse gas feedbacks under future climate change conditions, this study explored the overarching hypothesis that organic matter chemistry is the primary driver of decomposition in permafrost peatlands, through its influence on greenhouse gas production, the temperature sensitivity of decomposition processes, and microbial community composition in sub-arctic peatlands. The objectives of this study were therefore to determine the peat functional chemistry, microbial community composition, and CO2 and CH4 release from permafrost peatlands under different moisture and temperature treatments. The study focused on the seasonally thawed active layer which stores ca. 500 Pg of C (mineral and peat soils combined) across the Pan arctic

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

(Hugelius et al., 2014).

123		
124	To	achieve our objectives we tested the following specific hypothesis relating to the
125	vu	lnerability of the peatland carbon store to environmental change:
126	1.	Ex situ experimental flooding of permafrost plateau peat will result in a shift from net
127		CH <sub>4</sub> uptake under mesic conditions to CH <sub>4</sub> efflux throughout the active layer.
128	2.	Peat organic chemistry, as determined by quantitative $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR MAS, are linked to $\mathrm{CO}_2$
129		and $CH_4$ emissions rates from plateau peat with higher $CO_2$ and $CH_4$ emissions from peat
130		with a greater proportion of labile peat.
131	3.	Deeper and more degraded peat contains more recalcitrant organic matter (e.g. alkyls),
132		have higher $E_{\text{a}}$ and $Q_{10}$ values, and its decomposition is hence more sensitive to increases
133		in temperature than surface peat, provided that other limiting factors are controlled (e.g.
134		optimal pH, moisture and nutrient conditions).
135	4.	The composition of the microbial decomposer community is driven, at least in part, by
136		peat organic chemistry.
137		
138	M	aterials and Methods
139	Si	te description
140	Tv	vo study areas were investigated, the Torneträsk area, northern Sweden (68°12′N, 19°03′E,
141	35	$1\ m$ asl) and the Churchill area, north eastern Canada (58°44'N, 93°49'W, 25 m asl). These
142	are	eas were chosen as they are currently undergoing permafrost thaw (Lawerence et al., 2008;
143	Sa	nnel and Kuhry 2011; Åkerman and Johansson 2008). The mean annual temperature
144	(N	IAT) in the Torneträsk area ranged between 0.8 and 1.0 °C and the mean annual
145	pr	ecipitation (MAP) ranged from 304 mm in the west to 424 mm in the east), in Churchill,
146	M	AT was -7 °C was and MAP was 414 mm. Both areas support peatlands with permafrost
147	co	ras, so called palsas. The initiation of past formation in the Tornatröck area is so, 800,000

(Kokfelt et al., 2009) and ca. 3500-5200 years BP in the Churchill area (Hugelius et al., 2010). Total peat depths, including the permanently frozen layer, range from 90 to 160 cm with a maximum active (i.e. seasonally thawed) layer depth of 95 cm (Kuhry 2008; Åkerman and Johansson 2008). The depth to the permafrost varies between wetter and drier areas with a shallower active layer in drier areas. The sites were characterised by areas of raised peat plateaus, supported by an ice-rich core, with relatively dry surface conditions (mesic), dominated by bryophytes, lichens and evergreen dwarf shrub (Supplementary information 1). At the Torneträsk sites Sphagnum fuscum was the dominant moss species while Dicranum elongatum contributed to ground cover to a large extent at the Churchill sites. The main evergreen shrubs species at both areas were Empetrum nigrum and Ledum sp. while Betula nana was the dominant deciduous shrub. Lichens were more abundant at the Churchill peatlands than in the Torneträsk area. The most common herbaceous species for both areas was Rubus chamaemorus. The Torneträsk sites showed signs of small scale permafrost thaw and areas of peat collapse, with collapsed areas ranging between tens to hundreds of meters across). In Churchill, thermokarst areas were actively forming adjacent to plateau areas. Marginal collapsed areas tended to be vegetated by graminoids mainly Carex and Eriophorum species. See Supplementary information 1 for full species lists. Sampling strategy Eight mesic (i.e. moderately moist) peat plateau sampling sites were selected from discrete peatlands within each region (i.e. n = 8; with a total of 16 peatlands sampled). Sampling locations were distributed over a total distance of ca. 100 km at Torneträsk and ca. 15 km at Churchill (Supplementary information 2). Site selection was based on vegetation type, hydrology and an active layer consisting entirely of peat. The size of the sites varied from ca. 2 ha at the shore of lake Torneträsk to several kilometres across. Peat cores were collected at

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

the time of maximum permafrost thaw; the Torneträsk peat sampling performed in September 2008 and the Churchill sampling end of August 2009. Measurements of CO2 and CH4 exchange, soil temperature, active layer depth was assessed in situ, and vegetation turf samples were collected for above and below ground biomass determination at each site. Methods and data describing the in situ CO2 and CH4 flux data are presented in supplementary information 3. From each site eleven peat monoliths were collected through the active layer in a 4m×4m plot a using a 7 cm × 7 cm Macaulay peat corer. From each monolith intact peat sections of 10 cm length were collected from three depths throughout the active layer at each site, corresponding to the top 0-10 cm peat layer (L1), the bottom 10 cm layer just above the permafrost table (L3), and an intermediate 10 cm sample (L2) half way between L1 and L3 (note that at one of the Churchill peatlands shallow active layer depth only allowed for two 10 cm samples to be collected, designated L1 and L3). Samples were placed in plastic bags and placed in sealed plastic containers at 4°C for transport and storage prior to analysis. In the laboratory a subset of 7 randomly selected cores were homogenised to provide a large pooled sample from each layer (seven of the eleven cores) which were used for the chemical and microbiological characterisation of the peat. The remaining monoliths were randomly assigned to either one of two experiments (a flooding experiment and a temperature response experiment). Site properties To determine total above and below ground plant biomass we harvested the biomass in three subplots 10 cm × 10 cm in area ca. 4 m apart at each peatland site. We determined root

biomass at three depths from the peat surface to just above the permafrost table,

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193 194

195

196

197

Formatted: Font: Not Italic

corresponding to L1, L2 and L3 i.e.  $7~\rm cm \times 7~\rm cm \times 10~\rm cm$  samples, in each of the three subplots harvested for above ground biomass. We separated the above ground biomass into moss, deciduous shrubs, evergreen shrubs, graminoids, lichen and leaf litter and washed in deionised water. The total root biomass was manually separated from the soil using tweezers and gently washed in deionised water to remove any peat attached to the roots. Samples were then dried at 50 °C for 48 hours and weighed to estimate root biomass.

Soil temperature and moisture was determined in parallel with the  $CO_2$  flux measurements using digital thermometers and a hand held Theta meter connected to a Theta probe (Delta-T Devices, Cambridge UK). The maximum active layer depth was determined by measuring the depth at which frozen peat was present at the base of the peat cores.

Long term flooding experiment

To investigate the impact of peat moisture status on CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes (hypotheses 1 and 2) we used paired intact peat monoliths from each layer (L1, L2 and L3) and from each peatland (six peat samples per peatland) in a flooding experiment whereby monoliths were randomly allocated to either aerobic (field capacity) or anaerobic (flooded) moisture conditions. To achieve the two treatments we saturated all of the peat cores by raising the water levels to 1 cm above the peat surface. For the anaerobic treatment the water levels were maintained at this level for the duration of the experiment, while for the aerobic treatment the cores were allowed to drain until field capacity were reached (ca. three days). The peat samples were then loosely covered by parafilm and incubated at 15 °C, which reflected the summer soil temperature at 10 cm depth (Table 1). CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes for each sample were determined after 14 days incubation and 2-3 weeks thereafter over a period of four months (a total of five sampling occasions). The samples moisture levels were maintained during the length of the

incubation experiment by regular addition of deionised water to target weight. For the Torneträsk peats an additional sampling was made ca. 10 months after the initiation of the flooding experiment to assess more long term effects of flooding on gas production. CO2 and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes were determined from gas sampled taken at 0 and 30 minutes from each peat core placed in air tight 1.5 L jars with sampling ports and analysed by gas chromotography (GC) (Sjögersten et al., 2011). This data, in conjunction with quantitative data on peat organic chemistry (see below), was used to determine the lability of the soil organic carbon (SOC). We defined "labile SOC" as functional organic groups associated with high heterotrophic CO2 production and, based on kinetic theory, low E<sub>a</sub>'s (see temperature response experiment below). To quantify acetate concentrations (a precursor for anaerobic CH<sub>4</sub> production – Ström et al., 2003) in the flooded treatment, 20 ml porewater samples were collected at the end of the experiment using Rhizon samplers (Rhizosphere Research Products, UK) and analysed using an anion HPLC system fitted with a Synergi Hydro-RP column for acetic acid detection. The flow rate was 1 ml min<sup>-1</sup>, detection was made using UV at 220 nm (photo-diode array detection). Temperature response experiment Hypothesis 3 was assessed by determining the temperature sensitivity of CO2 production and peat lability down the peat profile, expressed both as E<sub>a</sub> and Q<sub>10</sub> (proportional increase in CO<sub>2</sub> production per 10 °C rise in temperature) values, by measuring the potential CO<sub>2</sub> efflux at different temperatures. Conditions for decomposition in the peat were optimized by

aerating the peat to avoid O<sub>2</sub> limitation of decomposition, adjusting peat moisture and

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

improving pH and N and P levels. We focused on N and P additions as these nutrients are known to limit decomposition in northern peatlands (Gerdol et al., 2007; Moore et al., 2008; Bragazza et al., 2012). For the experimental nutrient (N and P combined) and pH amendments we used homogenised peat from each layer taken from two combined peat monoliths after roots were removed. The pooled peat sample was then split into equal masses (ranging between 150 and 330 g fresh weight in each container depending variation in the original peat sample masses) and packed loosely into aluminium containers to ensure the samples were fully aerated. The nutrient treatment involved addition of 0.5 mmol of NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> and 0.3 mmol of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> per g dwt peat together with 0.12 mmol Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> per gram fresh peat to raise the pH to 6.5. Both control and optimised samples were adjusted to 300% moisture content, to reflect field moisture conditions (Table 1). Optimized peat samples were then incubated at four increasing temperatures for a week. On day one samples were placed in an incubator (2 °C) equilibrated for 24 hours. On day two gas samples for flux determination were collected (see above), after which the temperature was raised to 8°C for 24 hours. Gas collection (from the 8°C incubation) on day three and the temperature raised to 14°C and samples were again incubated for 24 hours followed by gas samples collection. After this sampling the temperature was brought to 20 °C for 24 hours prior to the final gas sampling. Based on the short-term temperature response activation energies (E<sub>a</sub>) were derived by

266267

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

Based on the short-term temperature response activation energies  $(E_a)$  were derived by plotting the natural logarithm of k against the inverse of the temperature (T) according to the following equation (Lloyd and Taylor 1994):

270

268

269

where k is the respiration rate, A is the frequency factor, R is the gas constant and T is temperature. The slope of the Arrhenius curve gives -Ea/R and the intercept at 1/T = 0 gives  $\ln A$ .

The  $Q_{10}$  value describes the increase in respiration rates with a  $10^{\circ}$ C increase in temperature (Hamdi et al., 2013) and was calculated using eq. 2

$$280 Q_{10} = e^{10k}. (2)$$

where k is the rate coefficient from exponential relationship between temperature and respiration rates.

285 Peat organic chemistry

To address hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 we investigated the organic composition of the peat material in a fully quantitative way using solid state <sup>13</sup>C NMR MAS to determine the % of different chemical functional groups present (Preston et al., 1996). Quantitative <sup>13</sup>C NMR MAS spectra were recorded at ambient temperature using direct polarization, experimental details are described below: For the NMR measurements the soils were packed into 7.5 mm diameter MAS rotors aiming to maximise the amount of sample to improve the signal to noise ratio. <sup>13</sup>C MAS spectra were recorded on a Varian Infinity plus spectrometer operating at 75.47 MHz using a direct polarization experiment and a spinning rate of 7 kHz. Settings were optimized during test runs of peat samples. Specifically, continuous wave (CW) proton decoupling with a radio frequency (rf) amplitude of 65 kHz applied during the acquisition time which lasted 34.1 s. The spectral width was 300 kHz and 10240 points were collected. Background signals were suppressed by inserting a short spin echo prior to acquisition.

Before recording quantitative data, similar spectra were obtained as a function of relaxation delay for a selection of samples in order to check for saturation. A relaxation delay of 64 s was found to be sufficient to provide quantitative spectra and this delay was used in all experiments. The resulting FIDs were digitally filtered to remove noise outside the central 20 % of the spectral width and reduced by a factor 5. Line broadening of 100 Hz was applied before Fourier transformation, which was followed by automatic phasing. No baseline correction was applied to the data. Spectra were referenced externally to solid adamantane (resonance at  $\delta = 38.5$  ppm) to provide a chemical shift scale relative to neat TMS (Morcombe and Zilm 2003). After processing, the spectra were integrated over chemical shift ranges corresponding to the major organic functional groups (Sjögersten et al., 2003). The presence of spinning sidebands with significant intensity in MAS spectra results in errors in quantitative analysis by solid-state NMR. Efficient suppression of sidebands from a <sup>13</sup>C site with a given shift anisotropy  $\zeta = \delta_{zz} - \delta_{iso}$  is achieved either by increasing the MAS rate or decreasing the magnetic field. Note that the MAS rate chosen was the maximum possible with the 7.5 mm MAS probe. Use of smaller MAS rotors with faster maximum spinning rates was precluded here by the unacceptable loss of sensitivity from smaller sample volumes. However, the relatively low  $B_0$  field employed in this work ensures that spinning sideband intensities can be ignored during quantification. Experimentally, this assumption is shown to be justified by the lack of significant intensity in all spectra between 210 and 300 ppm (see Fig. 1 for examples). This region of the spectrum is where the most intense downfield sideband is expected for aromatic, phenolic and carbonyl  $^{13}$ C sites which normally have  $\delta_{iso}$  = 120 - 200 ppm and  $\zeta \sim 100$  ppm. Other <sup>13</sup>C sites have  $\zeta < 70$  ppm for which the theoretical intensity of the most intense sideband is always less than 5% of that of the isotropic line for

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

 $\omega_0 = 75.47$  MHz and  $\omega_r = 7$  kHz.

To determine peat C content, a sub sample of the pooled samples from each layer from each peatland (total of 47 samples) was homogenised using a ball mill and analysed for C and N using a total element analyser (Flash EA 1112, CE Instruments, Wigan, UK). Microbial community composition and biomass To address hypothesis 4 we determined the microbial community composition using standard ELFA techniques (Frostegård & Bååth 1996; Zogg et al., 1997; Schutter and Dick 2000). Briefly, ester linked fatty acids (ELFA) were extracted from 0.5g of freeze dried peat using alkaline methanolysis (Frostegård & Bååth 1996). The resultant methyl esters were redissolved in isohexane and analysed by GC. Double bonds of the fatty acids were related to the methyl end (v) of the molecule (Zogg et al., 1997). The fatty acid 23:0 was added as a known standard. The total biomass of bacteria included all fatty acids from the Gram negative and Gram positive bacteria and fatty acids 15:0 and 17:0. Fatty acid 18:2\,\varphi,9\) was used as an indicator for fungal biomass (Frostegård & Bååth 1996). Total microbial fatty acid biomass was estimated by adding together fungal and bacterial fatty acid biomarkers. Data analysis and calculations Differences between region and depth were analysed using mixed linear models with 'site' as the random effect and 'region' and 'depth' and their interaction as fixed effects. For the flooding experiment a repeated measures structure was applied with 'site' as the random effect and 'region', 'depth' and 'treatment' and their interactions as fixed effects. Regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between of the CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, the microbial community structure and peat organic functional chemistry. Normality was

assessed using residual plots. In the case of regression analysis, the % variance explained by

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

the relationship is reported as  $\sigma^2$ . All the statistical analysis was done using Genstat 13<sup>th</sup> edition. Results Site properties The plant biomass at the Torneträsk peatlands was strongly dominated by mosses. In Churchill, lichens contributed the highest biomass followed by mosses and evergreen dwarf shrubs (Table 1, Supplementary information 2). Root biomass was comparable with above ground biomass. The maximum active layer depth in mesic areas of these peatlands was 49.9  $\pm$  0.9 cm and 31.2  $\pm$  1.4 cm, in Torneträsk and Churchill, respectively (Supplementary information 1). During the sampling period the peatlands were net CO<sub>2</sub> sources and weak CH<sub>4</sub> sinks in situ (methods and data are shown in Supplementary information 3 and 4), mean soil temperatures were 8 and 5 °C and soil moisture content were ca. 540 and 450 % at the time of the flux measurements in Torneträsk and Churchill, respectively. Long term flooding experiment Ex situ incubation of intact peat cores, both in flooded and non-flooded cores, showed that surface peat produced more CO<sub>2</sub> than deeper layers on a mass basis (Fig. 2a). In contrast, more CH<sub>4</sub> was produced at depth, while net CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation was found in the two layers closest to the surface (Fig. 2b). Experimental flooding induced increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (with 170 % over 4 months) at both sites (Fig. 2b). In the surface layer, flooding reduced CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation but did not result in net CH<sub>4</sub> emission. Long term incubation of the peats from the Torneträsk site, revealed no further increase in the CH<sub>4</sub> production 10 months after the

flooding treatment was applied (Time: P > 0.05; data not shown). In line with the low CH<sub>4</sub>

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

372 fluxes, acetate concentrations in the pore water solution were below the detection limit (< 373 12.5 mg l<sup>-1</sup>, data not shown). 374 375 Peat organic chemistry 376 The peat chemistry at the two areas differed with respect to their aromaticity, which was 377 higher in Churchill peat, but the alkyl to O-alkyl ratios did not differ between areas (Fig. 3 a 378 and b, Table 2). The most pronounced changes in peat chemistry with depth were a relative 379 loss of carbohydrates (O-alkyls) with depth at the Torneträsk sites, and a relative reduction in 380 aromatics with depth in Churchill (Fig. 3 c and d, Table 2). There were consistent shifts in 381 concentrations of acetals (declining) and alkyls (increasing) with depth at both sites, while 382 concentrations of phenolics decreased with depth in Churchill but not in Torneträsk (Fig. 3 c, 383 d, e and f, Table 2). The peat functional organic chemistry was related to the composition of 384 the vegetation: The ratio between cryptogams and vascular plants showed a positive 385 relationship with both amounts of O-alkyls ( $\sigma^2 = 18.4$ ;  $F_{1,15} = 4.38$ , P = 0.055), and overall 386 carbohydrate type compounds (O-alkyls+n-alkyls+acetals) ( $\sigma^2 = 27.9$ ,  $F_{1,15} = 6.81$ , P < 0.05) 387 (Supplementary information 6), but not the aromatic or aliphatic fraction of the peat. 388 389 At each site the most abundant functional group (Fig. 3 a and c) was the strongest predictor of 390 CO<sub>2</sub> efflux under non-flooded conditions (flooding experiment; Fig. 4a and b): There was a 391 strong positive relationship between peat CO<sub>2</sub> efflux and the proportion of carbohydrates (O-392 alkyls) at the Torneträsk sites and a somewhat weaker regression between the amount of 393 aromatics and the CO<sub>2</sub> efflux at the Churchill sites. Although the other functional groups 394 present in the peat are, to a degree, likely to contribute to total CO<sub>2</sub> effluxes, no other 395 functional groups were significantly related to the CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. Using the relationship between

the CO<sub>2</sub> efflux and the concentration of carbohydrates and aromatics as a lability indicator,

we estimated the size of the labile C pool to 35 (O-alkyls only) and 26 % (O-alkyls + aromatics) of the peat organic matter content, i.e. mean concentrations of the respective functional groups through the active layer, at the peatland sites in the Torneträsk and Churchill areas, respectively (Figure 3 b-d). In contrast, the peat chemistry (as determined by <sup>13</sup>C solid state NMR) was not a significant predictor of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes from flooded peat at either of the two sites. Temperature response experiment The potential release of CO2 from optimized peat (aerated peat with adjusted moisture, pH and N and P levels) increased significantly as temperatures were raised experimentally from 2 to 20 °C (Supplementary information 5 a and b). For example, CO<sub>2</sub> release from L3 increased with 330 and 130 % in response to this temperature increase at Torneträsk and Churchill respectively. This demonstrates that the organic C decomposition per se is sensitive to increased temperature, even though low nutrient content and pH in situ can limit the temperature sensitivity of decomposition. The overall temperature response of the peat in the active layer from the two sites was exponential (Supplementary information 5 c). The shifts in peat chemistry with depth did not significantly alter either the  $E_a$ ,  $48.3 \pm 6.0$  kJ  $\text{mol}^{-1}$  (range 5.5 to 125) or the  $Q_{10}$  values, mean 2.3  $\pm$  0.2, with depth. However, the  $E_a$ showed a positive relationship with the phenolic content of the peat from the Torneträsk sites (Fig. 4c), while there was no relationship between Ea and the functional organic chemistry of Churchill peats.

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

Microbial community composition

The total microbial biomass differed between areas and with depth (Fig. 5a). The changes with depth were driven by a strong decline in fungal biomass and a more modest decrease in gram negative bacteria, while gram positive bacteria did not change in abundance with depth or site (Fig. 5b - d). These shifts in microbial community resulted in a pronounced decline in the fungal to bacterial ratio with depth,  $8.4 \pm 2.0$ ,  $3.7 \pm 1.7$ ,  $0.3 \pm 0.1$  for L1, L2 and L3, respectively in Churchill and  $4.3 \pm 0.7$ ,  $1.1 \pm 0.4$ ,  $0.2 \pm 0.0$  for L1, L2 and L3, respectively, in Torneträsk (overall depth effect:  $F_{2,26} = 13.65$ , P < 0.001). Fungal to bacterial ratios was greater in Churchill than Torneträsk,  $4.5 \pm 1.1$  and  $1.9 \pm 0.5$ , respectively (F<sub>1,13</sub> = 6.34, P < 0.05). In addition to variation in microbial communities with area and depth, peat organic chemistry was a strong driver of the microbial community composition (Fig. 6). Specifically, the fungal to bacterial ratio declined in response to higher concentrations of alkyls in the peat, while fungal biomass became relatively more abundant in response to higher concentrations of aromatics (Fig. 6 a and b). Total bacterial fatty acid biomarkers increased significantly in response to increasing amounts of carboxyls in the peat, while greater biomass of gram positive bacteria was found in peat with higher concentration of phenolics (Fig. 6 c and d). Note that these relationships remained highly significant also after area and depth was fitted in the statistical model indicating that the relationships were independent of area and depth.

### Discussion

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

Variation in soil organic chemistry with depth and across geographic areas

The difference in the dominant organic functional groups in peat among areas (Fig. 3 and Table 2) is likely due to a combination of contrasting litter inputs and decomposition environment (Turetsky 2004). With regards to litter inputs, peat from Churchill, where the vegetation was more lichen dominated, contained more aromatics, likely from aromatic lichen litter (Yoshikawa et al., 2008) than peat from the Torneträsk region (Table 1 and 2). In

contrast, the peat from Torneträsk, where the vegetation was moss dominated (predominantly by Sphagnum species) which have high concentrations of carbohydrates and generally low amonts of lignin (Maksimova et al., 2013), contained more O-alkyls. The changes in peat functional chemistry with depth at the Torneträsk sites (Table 2) reflect the decline in carbohydrates (O-alkyls) found with depth in moss peat (Treat et al., 2014 and Reice et al., 2010) and are likely linked to preferential decomposition of these functional groups. At the Churchill sites the preferential loss of aromatics with depth (Table 2) clearly suggests that this component of the peat material, which generally is considered recalcitrant, is degradable in line with findings by Reice et al., (2010). The contrasting litter inputs from the vegetation, together with the lower fungal biomass at the Churchill sites, may be responsible for the different depth profiles in peat chemistry between the study areas (Table 1 and 2; Fig 5b). It is also plausible that the change in the microbial community structure contributes to the changes in peat chemistry with depth through both preferential degradation, as fungi and bacteria are able to degrade different functional groups, and have different cell wall composition (Strickland and Rousk 2010). Impacts of experimental flooding on greenhouse gas emissions Flooded CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were several orders of magnitude lower than CO<sub>2</sub> emissions under non-flooded conditions throughout the peat profile (Fig. 3), highlighting the lower efficiency of anaerobic decomposition processes found in a range of different peatlands (Moore and Dalva 1997; Inglett et al., 2012; Treat et al., 2014). In support of our first hypothesis, we found that flooding increased overall CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Fig. 3). However, the CH<sub>4</sub> emission induced by experimental flooding of mesic peat was small compared to CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from

old areas of collapsed peat colonised by graminoids (Bubier et al., 1995). The small increase

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions following flooding in deeper peats indicate that although present, the activity of the methanogenic community remained low over the time frame of the experiment. Relationship between peat organic chemistry and greenhouse gas emissions Our data supported our second hypothesis that functional organic chemistry controls CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from drained peatlands, but we found no link between the bulk peat organic chemistry and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions under either non-flooded or flooded conditions. The lack of relationship between peat organic chemistry and CH<sub>4</sub> production is important as it suggests that peat chemistry may not influence CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the shorter term, should these peatland plateaus subside and flood. We speculate that CH<sub>4</sub> production following flooding of plateau peat is limited by the availability of the specific substrates i.e. sugars and low molecular weight organic acids which are fermented to acetate, the precursor for CH<sub>4</sub> production (Joabsson et al., 1999; Ström et al., 2003; Ström et al., 2012), together with slow establishment of a functioning methanogenic community (Treat et al., 2015). It is plausible that the peat at our study sites supports limited, or no, acetate production due to low plant litter, low root exudate inputs from the low productivity vegetation, and high decomposition rates under the relatively dry conditions found on peat plateaus. Indeed, acetate levels in flooded peats were very low, which suggests either that hydrogenotrophic methane production was driving the weak increases in CH<sub>4</sub> production observed in the deeper peat layers in response to flooding or simply that low acetate levels indicate rapid consumption. Similarly low CH<sub>4</sub> production and low substrate quality of the dissolved organic matter has been reported for recently collapsed palsas in northern Sweden (Hodgkins et al., 2013). Therefore, collapsed peat plateaus may only become substantial CH<sub>4</sub> sources after the establishment of a more productive plant community and associated release of root exudates and plant litter into the peat (Ström et al., 2003, Prater et al., 2007; Koelbener et al., 2010;

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

Ström et al., 2012; Hodgkin et al., 2013). This time-lag, prior to conditions that allow for a substantial increase in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions following peatland collapse (Jackowicz-Korczynski et al., 2010), has implications for the net radiative forcing resulting from rapid thawing. The strong positive relationship between peat CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and peat composition (Fig. 4a and b), particularly O-alkyl and aromatics content at the two sites respectively, demonstrates the potential for rapid degradation of these functional groups under optimal conditions in line with findings from the boreal forest in Canada (Preston et al., 2014). Indeed, the higher concentrations of these functional groups in surface peats (Fig. 3) may, in part, explain the higher CO<sub>2</sub> production in this layer (Fig. 2 a). Comparable strong relationships between peat quality and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions have been shown in peatlands at high latitude (Turetsky 2004; Wickland and Neff 2008; Hodgkins et al., 2014; Treat et al., 2014) as well as in temperate and tropical regions (Reiche et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2011). Together, our study and those of Wickland and Neff (2008) and Treat et al., (2014) shows that the large pool of carbohydrates (up to 35 % of the peat at the Torneträsk sites; Table 2) in permafrost peatlands are easily converted to CO2 and released to the atmosphere. Temperature sensitivity of decomposition The high potential CO<sub>2</sub> loss rates in response to increased temperature demonstrated in this study compare with CO2 loss rates following permafrost thaw in arctic tundra (Dorrepaal et al., 2009; Schuur et al 2009; Paulter et al., 2010). Specifically, our study indicated a ca. 20 % increases in potential CO<sub>2</sub> release when comparing current temperatures to temperature predictions for 2100 (Fig. 4f; IPCC 2014). Our data did not fully support our third hypothesis which postulated that deeper, more degraded peat is more sensitive to increases in

temperature than surface peat. In our study we did not see a significant shift in the Ea and Q<sub>10</sub>

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

with depth while the positive relationship between Ea and the content of phenolics (Fig. 4e) found at the Torneträsk sites lend some support to the C quality – temperature hypothesis. The lack of a clear change in E<sub>a</sub> or Q<sub>10</sub> with depth suggests that the shifts in peat chemistry with depth are not large enough to substantially alter the energy demand of decomposition organisms, or that an Arrhenius temperature relationship does not apply. This contrasts with studies in boreal peatlands where  $Q_{10}$  values increase from 3.5-4.5 in surface peat (0-20 cm) to 4.5-6 in deeper peat (26-32 cm) containing more recalcitrant carbon (Hilasvuori et al., 2013). However, in the study by Hilasvuori et al. (2013), the change in the soil organic matter chemistry with depth was not quantified, making comparisons difficult. Microbial community structure and functioning The strong decline in fungal biomass with depth (Fig. 5b), is most likely due to reduced peat O<sub>2</sub> levels in deeper layers (Freeman et al., 2004; Jaatinen et al., 2007), in agreement with findings in boreal peatlands (Golovchenko et al., 2002). The relative shift in the bacterial community (Fig. 5c and d) with depth is also likely related to the more anoxic conditions and/or colder temperatures and more decomposed organic material (Andersen et al., 2013). It is plausible that the large decline in CO<sub>2</sub> production with depth (Fig. 3) is linked, at least in part, to microbial community composition and/or size (Coolen et al., 2011). The decline in fungi and their oxidative enzymatic systems in lower layers, together with changes in peat chemistry, may explain of the decline in the CO<sub>2</sub> production (Basilko et al., 2006; Bragazza et al., 2013). The strong relationships between substrate type and microbial community composition suggest that the abundance of particular microbial groups is governed, at least in part, by substrate type (Dimitriu et al., 2010). The relatively high abundance of bacterial biomass in alkyl rich peat may suggest that bacterial groups are the main degraders of alkyl

functional groups. In parallel, the positive relationships between total bacteria and gram

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

positive bacteria and carboxyl and phenolics, respectively, suggest that these peat functional groups promote bacterial decomposition. The greater fungi to bacteria ratio found in peats with high concentrations of aromatics may reflect the greater enzymatic capacity of fungi with regards to decomposition of large complex aromatic compounds in soil (Strickland and Rousk 2010). Taken together, is it clear that the microbial community respond strongly both to the changes in the abiotic environment, associated with the peat depth, and substrate availability and may drive differences in peat chemistry.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we demonstrate that peat functional organic chemistry is strongly related to  $CO_2$  but not  $CH_4$  emissions. With regards to  $E_a$  and  $Q_{10}$  – values, only the relationship between phenolic concentrations and  $E_a$  supported the notion of higher  $E_a$ 's being found in peat with higher concentrations of recalcitrant, complex organic molecules and that such relationship may only be noticeable when differences on the soil organic chemistry e.g. with depth, is more pronounced than in our study. Finally, the strong relationships between the microbial community structure and substrate type suggests that peat functional organic chemistry modifies the decomposer community with implications for decomposition processes.

568	Acknowledgments
569	We thank the NERC for funding this work through a New Investigator grant
570	(NE/F00091X/1) awarded Dr S Sjögersten. We are grateful to Ms K Anderson for field work
571	support and Dr B Lomax for comments on the manuscript. The James Hutton Institute is, in
572	part, financially supported by the Scottish Government Rural and Environment Science and
573	Analytical Services Division. The data underpinning this paper is freely available from Dr
574	Sofie Sjögersten.
575	
576	Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to
577	sofie.sjogersten@nottingham.ac.uk.
578	
579	

080	References
581	Andersen, S.K., White, D.M., 2006. Determining soil organic matter quality under anaerobic
582	conditions in arctic and subarctic soils. Cold Regions Science and Technology, 44, 149–158
583	
584	Andersen, R., Chapman, S.J., Artz, R.R.E., 2013. Microbial communities in natural and
585	disturbed peatlands: A review. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 57, 979-994.
586	
587	Atkin, P., W., 1994. <i>Physical chemistry</i> . 5th edition. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.
588	
589	Basiliko, N., Moore, T.R., Jeannotte, R., Bubier, J.L., 2006. Nutrient input and carbon and
590	microbial dynamics in an ombrotrophic bog. Geomicrobiology Journal, 23, 531-543.
591	
592	Basiliko, N., Stewart, H., Roulet, N.T., Moore, T.R., 2012. Do root exudates enhance peat
593	decomposition? Geomicrobiology Journal, 29, 374-378.
594	
595	Bragazza, L., Buttler, A., Habermacher, J., Brancaleoni, L., Gerdol, R., Fritze, H., Hanajík,
596	P., Laiho, R. and Johnson, D. (2012), High nitrogen deposition alters the decomposition of
597	bog plant litter and reduces carbon accumulation. Global Change Biology, 18, 1163–1172.
598	doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2011.02585.x
599	
500	Bragazza, L., Parisod, J., Buttler, A., Bardgett, R.D., 2013. Biogeochemical plant-soil
501	microbe feedback in response to climate warming in peatlands. Nature Climate Change 3,
502	273-277.

605 depth affects peatland vegetation. Basic and Applied Ecology, 10, 330-339. 606 607 Bubier, J.L., Moore, T.R., Bellisario, L., Comer, N.T., Crill, P.M., 1995. Ecological controls 608 on methane emissions from a northern peatland complex in the zone of discontinuos 609 permafrost, Manitoba, Canada. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 9, 455-470. 610 611 Coolen, M.J.L., Van de Giessen, J., Zhu, E.Y., Wuchter, C., 2011. Bioavailability of soil 612 organic matter and microbial community dynamics upon permafrost thaw. Environmental 613 Microbiology, 13, 2299-2314. 614 615 Craine, J.M., Fierer, N., McLauchlan, K.K., 2010. Widespread coupling between the rate and 616 temperature sensitivity of organic matter decay. Nature Geoscience, 3, 584-857. 617 618 Crow, S.E., Wieder, R.K., 2005. Sources of CO<sub>2</sub> emission from a northern peatland: root 619 respiration, exudation, and decomposition. Ecology, 85, 1825-1834. 620 621 Dimitriu, P., A., Lee, D., Grayston, S., J., 2010. An evaluation of the functional significance of peat microorganisms using a reciprocal transplant approach. Soil Biology and 622 623 Biochemistry, 42, 65-71. 624 625 Dorrepaal, E., Toet, S., van Logtestijn, R.S.P., Swart, E., van de Weg, M.J., Callaghan, T.V., 626 Aerts, R., 2009. Carbon respiration from subsurface peat accelerated by climate warming in 627 the subarctic. Nature 460, 616-619.

Breeuwer, A., Robroek, B.J.M., Limpens, J., et al., 2009. Decreased summer water table

604

629 Fierer, N., Craine, J.M., McLauchlan, K., Schimel, J.P., 2005. Litter Quality and the 630 Temperature Sensitivity of Decomposition. Ecology, 86, 320-326. 631 632 Freeman, C., Ostle, N.J., Fenner, N., Kang, H., 2004. A regulatory role for phenol oxidase 633 during decomposition in peatlands. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 36, 1663–1667. 634 635 Friedlingstein, P., Andrew, R. M., Rogelj, J., Peters, G. P., Canadell, J. G., Knutti, R., 636 Luderer, G., Raupach, M. R., Schaeffer, M., van Vuuren, D. P., Le Quéré C., 2014. Persistent 637 growth of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and implications for reaching climate targets. Nature Geoscience, 7, 709-715. 638 639 640 Frostegård, A., Bååth, E., 1996. The use of phospholipid fatty acid analysis to estimate 641 bacterial and fungal biomass in soil. Biology and Fertility of Soils, 22, 59-6. 642 643 Gerdol, R., Petraglia, A., Bragazza, L., Iacumin, P. and Brancaleoni, L. (2007), Nitrogen 644 deposition interacts with climate in affecting production and decomposition rates in

Sphagnum mosses. Global Change Biology, 13, 1810–1821. doi:10.1111/j.1365-

Golovchenko, A.V., Semenova, T.A., Polyakova, A.V., Inisheva, L.I., 2002. The structure of

the micromycete complexes of oligotrophic peat deposits in the southern taiga subzone of

Harden, J.W., Koven, C., Ping, C., Hugelius, G., McGuire, A.D., Camill, P., Jorgenson, T.,

Kuhry, P., Michaelson, G., O'Donnell, J.A., Tarnocai, C., Johnson, K., Grosse, G., 2012.

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

2486.2007.01380.x

West Siberia. Microbiology, 71, 575–581.

654 Field Information Links Permafrost Carbon to Physical Vulnerabilities of 655 Thawing. Geophysical Research Letters, 39 (L15704), doi: 10.1029/2012GL051958 656 657 Hilasvuori, E., Akujärvi, A., Fritze, H., et al., 2013. Temperature sensitivity of decomposition 658 in a peat profile. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 67, 47-54. 659 660 Hodgkins, S. B., Tfaily, M. M., McCalley, C. K., Logan, T. A., Crill, P. M., Saleska, S. R., 661 Rich, V. I., Chanton, J. P., 2014. Changes in peat chemistry associated with permafrost thaw 662 increase greenhouse gas production. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 111, 663 5819-5824. 664 Hugelius, G., Kuhry, P., Tarnocai, C., Virtanen, T., 2010. Soil Organic Carbon Pools in a 665 666 Periglacial Landscape: a Case Study from the Central Canadian Arctic. Permafrost and 667 Periglacial Processes, 21, 16-29. 668 669 Hugelius, G., Strauss, J., Zubrzycki, S., Harden, J. W., Schuur, E. A. G., Ping, C. L., 670 Schirrmeister, L., Grosse, G., Michaelson, G. J., Koven, C. D., O'Donnell, J. A., Elberling, 671 B., Mishra, U., Camill, P., Yu, Z., Palmtag, J., Kuhry, P., 2014. Estimated stocks of 672 circumpolar permafrost carbon with quantified uncertainty ranges and identified data gaps. 673 Biogeosciences 11, 6573-6593. 674 Inglett K. S., Inglett P. W., Reddy K. R., Osborne, T. Z., 2012. Temperature sensitivity of 675 greenhouse gas production in wetland soils of different vegetation. Biogeochemistry, 108, 676

77-90

677

679 IPCC, 2014: Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of 680 681 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Field, C.B., Barros, V.R., Dokken, D.J., Mach, K.J., Mastrandrea, M.D., Bilir, T.E., Chatterjee, M., Ebi, K.L., Estrada, Y.O., Genova, 682 683 R.C., Girma, B., Kissel, E.S., Levy, A.N., MacCracken, S., Mastrandrea, P.R., White L.L., 684 (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 685 1132 pp. 686 687 Jaatinen, K., Fritze, H., Laine, J., Laiho, R., 2007. Effects of short- and long-term 688 water-level drawdown on the populations and activity of aerobic decomposers 689 in a boreal peatland. Global Change Biology, 13, 491-510. 690 691 Jackowicz-Korczynski. M., Christensen, T.R., Bäckstrand, K., Crill, P., Friborg, T., 692 Mastepanov, M., Ström, L., 2010. Annual cycle of methane emission from a subarctic 693 peatland. Journal of Geophysical Research -Biogeosciences 115, G02009. 694 695 Jenkinson, D.S., Brookes, P.C., Powlson, D.S., 2004. Measuring soil microbial biomass. Soil 696 Biology & Biochemistry, 36, 5-7. 697 698 Jiang, C.S., Wang, Y., Zheng, X., Zhu, B., Huang, Y., Hao, Q., 2006. Methane and nitrous

oxide emissions from three paddy rice based cultivation systems in southwest China.

Joabsson, A., Christensen, T.R., Wallen, B., 1999. Vascular plant controls on methane

emissions from northern peatforming wetlands. Trends Ecology and Evolution 14, 385-388.

Advances in Atmospherics Sciences, 23, 415-424.

699

700

701

702

Jones, D.L., 1998. Organic acids in the rhizosphere - a critical review. Plant and Soil, 205, 25-44. Koelbener, A., Ström, L., Edwards, P.J., et al., 2010. Plant species from mesotrophic wetlands cause relatively high methane emissions from peat soil. Plant and Soil, 326,147–58. Kokfelt, U., Rosén, P., Schoning, K., et al., 2009. Ecosystem responses to increased precipitation and permafrost decay in subarctic Sweden inferred from peat and lake sediments. Global Change Biology, 15, 1652-1663. Kuhry, P., Vitt D. H., 1996. Fossil carbon/nitrogen ratios as a measure of peat decomposition. Ecology 77, 271-275. Kuhry, P., 2008. Palsa and peat plateau development in the Hudson Bay Lowlands, Canada: timing, pathways and causes. Boreas 37, 316-327. Lawerence, D.M., Slater, A.G., Romanovsky, V.E., 2008. Sensitivity of a model projection of near-surface permafrost degradation to soil column depth and representation of soil organic matter. Journal of Geophysical Research, 113, F02011. Lloyd, J., Taylor, J.A., 1994. On the temperature dependence of soil respiration. Functional Ecology, 8, 315-323.

- Ma, K., Lu, Y., 2011. Regulation of microbial methane production and oxidation by
- 729 intermittent drainage in rice field soil. FEMS Microbiological Ecology, 75, 446–456.

- 731 Maksimova, V., Klavina, L., Bikovens, O., Zicmanis, A., Purmalis, O., 2013. Structural
- 732 characterization and chemical classification of some bryophytes found in Latvia. Chemistry
- 733 & Biodiversity, 10, 1284-1294.

734

- 735 Moore, T. R., Dalva, M., 1997. Methane and carbon dioxide exchange potentials of peat soils
- in aerobic and anaerobic laboratory incubations. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 29, 1157-
- 737 1164.

738

- 739 Moore, T.R.; Trofymow, J.A.; Siltanen, R.M.; Kozak, L.M. 2008. Litter decomposition and
- 740 nitrogen and phosophorus dynamics in peatlands and uplands over 12 years in central
- 741 Canada. Oecologia, 157, 317-325.

742

- 743 Morcombe, C.R., Zilm, K.W., 2003. Chemical Shift Referencing in MAS Solid State NMR.
- 744 Journal of Magnetic Resonance, 162, 173-180.

745

- Myers, B., Webster, K.L., Mclaughlin, J.W., Basiliko, N., 2012. Microbial activity across a
- 747 boreal peatland nutrient gradient: the role of fungi and bacteria. Wetlands ecology and
- 748 management, 20, 77-88.

- 750 O'Donnell, J. A., Jorgenson, M. T., Harden, J. W., McGuire, A. D., Kanevskiy, M., Wickland
- 751 K. P., 2012. The effects of permafrost thaw on soil hydrologic, thermal, and carbon dynamics
- in an Alaskan Peatland. Ecosystems 15, 213-229.

754	Osterkamp, T.E., 2007. Characteristics of the recent warming of permafrost in Alaska.
755	Journal of Geophysical Research, 112, F02S02, doi:10.1029/2006JF000578.
756	
757	Pautler, B.G., Simpson, A., Mcnally, D.J., Lamoureax, S.F., Simpson, M.J., 2010. Arctic
758	permafrost active layer detachments stimulate microbial activity and degradation of soil
759	organic matter. Environmental Science Technology, 44, 4076–4082.
760	
761	Prater, J. L., Chanton, J. P., Whiting G. J., 2007. Variation in methane production pathways
762	associated with permafrost decomposition in collapse scar bogs of Alberta, Canada. Global
763	Biogeochemical Cycles, 21, GB4004, doi: 10.1029/2006GB002866.
764	
765	Preston, C.M, Bhatti J.S., & Norris C.E, 2014. Chemical quality of aboveground litter inputs
766	for jack pine and black spruce stands along the Canadian boreal forest transect case study.
767	Ecoscience, 21, 1–15.
768	
769	Preston, C.M., 1996. Applications of NMR to soil organic matter analysis: History and
770	Prospects. Soil Science, 161, 3-144.
771	
772	Sannel, A.B.K., Kuhry, P., 2011. Warming-induced destabilization of peat
773	plateau/thermokarst lake complexes. Journal of Geophysical Research, 116, G03035.
774	
775	Schädel, C., Schuur, E.A.G., Bracho, R., Elberling, B., Knoblauch, C., Lee, H., Luo, Y.,
776	Shaver, G.R., Turetsky, M.R., 2014. Circumpolar assessment of permafrost C quality and its

- vulnerability over time using long-term incubation data. Global Change Biology, 20, 641-
- 778 652.
- 779
- 780 Schutter, M.E., Dick, R.P., 2000. Comparison of fatty acid methyl ester (FAME) methods for
- 781 characterizing microbial communities. Soil Sciences Society of America Journal, 64, 1659-
- 782 1668.
- 783
- 784 Schuur, E.A.G., Bockheim, J., Canadell, J.G., et al., 2008. Vulnerability of Permafrost
- 785 Carbon to Climate Change: Implications for the Global Carbon Cycle. BioScience 58, 701-
- 786 714.
- 787
- 788 Schuur, E.A.G., Vogel, J.G., Crummer, K.G., Lee, H., Sickman, J.O., Osterkamp, T.E., 2009.
- 789 The effect of permafrost thaw on old carbon release and net carbon exchange from tundra.
- 790 Nature 459, 556-559.
- 791
- Schuur, E.A.G., Abbott B., 2011. Climate change: High risk of permafrost thaw. Nature 480, 32-33.
- 793
- 794 Schuur, E. A. G., McGuire, A. D., Schadel, C., Grosse, G., Harden, J. W., Hayes, D. J.,
- 795 Hugelius, G., Koven, C. D., Kuhry, P.,. Lawrence, D. M., Natali, S. M, Olefeldt, D.,
- Romanovsky, V. E., Schaefer, K., Turetsky, M. R., Treat, C. C., Vonk, J. E., 2015. Climate
- 797 change and the permafrost carbon feedback. Nature 520 (7546): 171-179.
- 798
- 799 Schneider von Deimling, T., Meinshausen, M., Levermann, A., Huberm V., Frieler, K.,
- 800 Lawrence, D.M., Brovkin, V., 2012. Estimating the near-surface permafrost-carbon feedback
- on global warming. Biogeosciences, 9, 649–665.

802 803 804	Sjögersten, S., Loonen, M.J.J.E., Van der Wal, R., Woodin, S.J., 2011. Recovery of
805	ecosystem carbon fluxes and storage from herbivory. Biogeochemistry, 106, 357-370.
806	
807	Sjögersten, S., Turner, B.L., Mahieu, N., Condron, L.M., Wookey, P.A., 2003. Soil organic
808	matter biochemistry and potential susceptibility to climatic change across the forest-tundra
809	ecotone in the Fennoscandian mountains. Global Change Biology, 9, 759-772.
810	
811	Smith, J., Gottschalk, P., Bellarby, J., et al., 2010. Estimating changes in Scottish soil carbon
812	stocks using Ecosse. II. Application. Climate Research, 45, 193-205.
813	
814	Smith, P., Fang, C., 2010. A warm response by soils. Nature 464, 499-500.
815	
816	Solomon, S. et al., (eds.) 2007. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment
817	Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press,
818	Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA
819	
820	Strickland, M.S., Rousk, J., 2010. Considering fungal:bacterial dominance in soils- Methods,
821	controls and ecosystem implications. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 42, 1385-1395.
822	
823	Ström, L., Ekberg, A., Mastepanov, M., Christensen, T.R., 2003. Plant species from
824	mesotrophic wetlands cause relatively high methane emissions from peat soil. Plant and Soil
825	326, 147-158.

828 scheuchzeri enhances substrate availability and methane emission in an Arctic wetland. Soil 829 Biology & Biochemistry 45, 61-70. 830 831 Tarnocai, C., Canadell, J.G., Schuur, E.A.G., Kuhry, P., Mazhitova, G., Zimov, S., 2009. Soil 832 organic carbon pools in the northern circumpolar permafrost region. Global Biogeochemical 833 Cycles 23, GB2023. 834 835 Treat, C.C., Wollheim, W.M., Varner, R.K., Grandy, A.S., Talbot, J., Frolking, S., 2014. 836 Temperature and peat type control CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> production in Alaska permafrost peat. 837 Global Change Biology, 20, 2674-2686. 838 839 Treat, C., Natali, S. M., Ernakovich, J., Iversen, C. M., Lupascu, M., McGuire, A. D., Norby, 840 R. J., Roy Chowdhury, T., Richter, A., Šantrůčková, H., Schädel, C., Schuur, E. A. G., Sloan, 841 V. L., Turetsky M. R., Waldrop, M. P., 2015. A pan-Arctic synthesis of CH4 and CO2 842 production from anoxic soil incubations. Global Change Biology, doi: 10.1111/gcb.12875. 843 844 Turetsky, M. R., 2004. Decomposition and organic matter quality in continental peatlands: 845 The ghost of permafrost past. Ecosystems 7, 740-750. 846 847 Turetsky, M., Kotowaska, A., Bubier, J., et al., 2014. A synthesis of methane emissions from 848 71 northern, temperate, and subtropical wetlands. Global Change Biology, 20, 2183-2197.

Vance. E.D., Brookes, P.C., Jenkinson, D.S., 1987. An extraction method for measuring

microbial biomass C. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 19, 703-707.

Ström, L., Tageson, T., Mastepanov, M., Christensen, T., 2012. Presence of Eriophorum

827

849

850

852 853 Wang, X.W., Li, X., Hu, Y., Lü, J., Sun, J., Li, Z., He, H.S., 2010. Potential carbon 854 mineralisation of permafrost peatlands in Great Hing'an Mountains, China. Wetlands 30, 855 747-756. 856 857 Wickland, K.P., Neff, J.C., 2008. Decomposition of soil organic matter from boreal black 858 spruce forest: environmental and chemical controls. Biogeochemistry 87, 29-47. 859 Wickland, K.P., Striegl, R.G., Neff, J.C., Sachs, T., 2006. Effects of permafrost melting on 860 861 CO2 and CH4 exchange of a poorly drained black spruce lowland. Journal of Geophysical Research-Biogeosciences 111(G2): G02011. 862 863 864 White, D.M., Garland, D.S., Dai, X., Ping, C., 2002. Fingerprinting soil organic matter in the 865 arctic to help predict CO2 flux. Cold Regions Science and Technology, 35, 185-194. 866 867 Yoshikawa, K., Kokudo, N., Tanaka, M., Nakano, T., Shibata, H., Aragaki, N., Higuchi, T., 868 Hashimoto, T., 2008. Novel abietane diterpenoids and aromatic compounds from Cladonia 869 rangiferina and their antimicrobial activity against antibiotics resistant bacteria. 870 Chemical & Pharmaceutical Bulletin, 56, 89-92. 871 872 Zogg, G.P., Zak, D.R., Ringleberg, D.B., MacDonald, N.W., Pregitzer, K.S., White, 873 D.C., 1997. Compositional and functional shifts in microbial communities due to soil 874 warming. Soil Sciences Society of America Journal, 61,475-481.

Ågren, G.I., Bosatta, E., Magill, A.H., et al., 2001. Combining theory and experiment to
understand effects of inorganic nitrogen on litter decomposition. Oecologia, 128, 94-98.

Åkerman, H.J., Johansson, M., 2008. Thawing Permafrost and Thicker Active Layers in Subarctic Sweden. Permafrost and Periglacial Processes, 19, 279–292.

**Tables** 

Table 1. Site characteristics of the peatlands in the Torneträsk and Churchill areas. Above ground and root biomass is expressed in g m<sup>-2</sup>, the root biomass is shown for each of 10 cm three peat layers (L) sampled, i.e. L1, L2 and L3, with L1 being surface peat and L3 being from just above the permafrost table. Soil temperature was measured at 10 cm depth, the soil moisture content (0-10 cm depth) is expressed on a dry weight basis. Mean  $\pm$  SE are shown, n =8.

2	Q	Q
)	o	o

	Torneträsk	Churchill
Moss	743.5 ± 78.0	475.4 ± 195.5
Deciduous shrub	$8.0 \pm 3.5$	$13.6 \pm 5.6$
Herbaceous	$5.0 \pm 0.9$	19.1 ± 7.3
Evergreen shrub	$70.5 \pm 20.2$	311.7 ± 57.6
Graminoids	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$2.8 \pm 1.8$
Lichen	$9.3 \pm 1.4$	771.0 $\pm 202.6$
Leaf litter	$41.4 \pm 7.0$	$465.0 \pm 82.0$
Total above ground biomass	$837.4 \pm 77.9$	1593.5 ± 188.1
Roots L1	$505.7 \pm 78.7$	439.9 ± 147.7
Roots L2	$207.1 \pm 38.0$	$77.2 \pm 13.7$
Roots L3	$71.0 \pm 12.5$	$99.3 \pm 34.1$
Soil moisture (%)	$537.4 \pm 63.4$	$449.4 \pm 93.1$
Air temperature (°C)	$14.5 \pm 0.6$	$16.4 \pm 0.5$
Soil temperature (°C)	$8.0 \pm 0.1$	$5.0 \pm 0.4$
Permafrost depth (cm)	50.1 ± 0.7	31.2 ± 1.4

Table 2. Significant differences for NMR derived C belonging to different functional groups among layer, area and their interactions is shown, n = 8, ns denotes no significant difference. To enable comparison of differences between layers in Fig. 3 the standard error of the difference (SED) for layer is included in the table.

	Significance of fixed effects								
	Area	Layer (SED)	Area*Layer						
Acetals	F <sub>1,13</sub> = 3410.58***	F <sub>2,28</sub> =10.01***, (0.5)	ns						
Alkyl	F <sub>1,41</sub> = 24.49 ***	$F_{2,41}=9.84^{***}, (0.9)$	ns						
Aromatics	F <sub>1,14</sub> = 172.24***	$F_{2,27}=9.16^{***}, (0.8)$	ns						
Carboxyls	F <sub>1,14</sub> = 5.46*	F <sub>2,27</sub> =4.24*, (0.5)	ns						
N-alkyls	$F_{1,13} = 6.76^*$	$F_{2,27}=8.93^{***}, (0.2)$	F <sub>2,27</sub> =10.43***						
O-alkyls	$F_{1,13} = 60.38^{***}$	ns, (1.0)	F <sub>2,27</sub> =8.52***						
Phenolics	F <sub>1,14</sub> = 13.41**	$F_{2,27}=8.16^{**}, (0.3)$	$F_{2,27} = 7.46^{**}$						
Alkyl to O-alkyl	ns	F <sub>2,28</sub> =9.97***, ( 0.03)	ns						
Aromaticity	F <sub>1,13</sub> = 230.8**	F <sub>2,27</sub> =10.01**, (0.9)	$F_{2,27} = 4.00*$						

## Figure captions Figure 1. Solid-state <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra recorded as described in the text of representative samples of peat from (left) the Torneträsk area and (right) the Churchill area collected from three depths (top spectrum corresponds to upper level). Figure 2. a) CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from peat collected throughout the active layer from the surface at Torneträsk and Churchill (L1-3) incubated at field capacity at 15°C for four months (means are based on five repeat sampling events) in the laboratory in Nottingham (Site: P > 0.05; Layer: $F_{2,426} = 110.06$ , P < 0.001, means, standard error of the mean (SE) and the standard error of the differences (SED) are shown, b) CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes measured from peat cores from L1-3 incubated at field capacity or flooded conditions at 15 °C for four month (five repeat sampling events) (Flooding treatment: F<sub>1,101</sub> = 3.99, P < 0.05; means, SE and SED are shown). Note that CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes did not vary significantly (P > 0.05) over time over the four months. Figure 3. Concentration (%) of NMR derived C into different functional groups in peat cores collected from three depths (peat layers 1-3) in the Torneträsk area, Sweden and the Churchill area, Canada. a) Variation in of alkyls, N-alkyls, O-alkyls, acetals, aromatics, phenolics, and carboxyls with depth at the Torneträsk sites. b) Variation in the alkyl to O-alkyl and the aromaticity ratio with depth at the Torneträsk sites. c) Variation in alkyls, N-alkyls, O-alkyls, acetals, aromatics, phenolics, and carboxyls with depth at the at the Churchill sites. d) Variation in the alkyl to O-alkyl and the aromaticity ratio with depth at the Churchill sites. Chemical shifts for different functional groups were: aliphatics $\delta = 0 - 47$ ppm, N-alkyls $\delta =$

47 - 59 ppm, O-alkyls  $\delta = 59 - 92$  ppm, acetals  $\delta = 92 - 112$  ppm, aromatics  $\delta = 112 - 139$ 

897

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918

919

- ppm, phenolics  $\delta = 139 162$  ppm, carboxyls  $\delta = 162 220$  ppm. Mean and  $\pm$  SE are shown.
- 922 Statistics for differences among depths and areas are shown in Table 2.

- 924 Figure 4. Relationship between mean CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from peat L1, L2 and L3, white, grey
- and dark grey circles, respectively, incubated at 15 °C, at field capacity and the dominant peat
- 926 functional groups in a) Torneträsk ( $F_{1.18} = 24.47$ , P < 0.001,  $\sigma^2 = 57$ ) and b) Churchill ( $F_{1.22} =$
- 927 6.70, P < 0.05,  $\sigma^2 = 21$ ). c) Relationship between activation energy (log  $E_a$ ) and the phenolic
- content of the peat from the Torneträsk region ( $F_{1,16} = 6.99$ , P < 0.05,  $\sigma^2 = 27$ ).

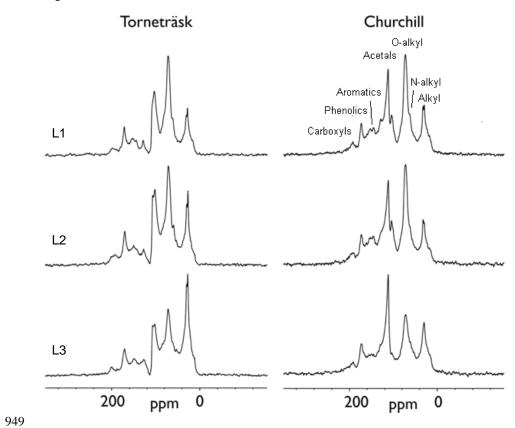
929

- 930 Figure 5. Microbial biomass markers determined through the active layer (L1-3) of a) total
- 931 microbial biomass (Depth:  $F_{2,27} = 15.54$ , P < 0.001, Site:  $F_{1,13} = 8.33$ , P < 0.05, Depth×Site:
- 932 F2,27 = 3.48, P < 0.05) b) fungi (Depth:  $F_{2,27} = 14.36$  P < 0.001, Site: F1,13 = 8.11, P < 0.05,
- 933 Depth×Site:  $F_{2,27}$  = 3.49, P , P < 0.05) c) gram negative bacteria (Depth:  $F_{2,27}$  = 11.33 P <
- 934 0.001, Site: F1,14 = 3.66, P = 0.077, Depth $\times$ Site: P > 0.6) d) gram positive bacteria (Depth:
- 935  $F_{2,28} = 0.71$ , P > 0.5, Site:  $F_{1,14} = 2.06$ , P > 0.1, Depth×Site: P > 0.2). Mean and SE is shown,
- 936 n = 8.

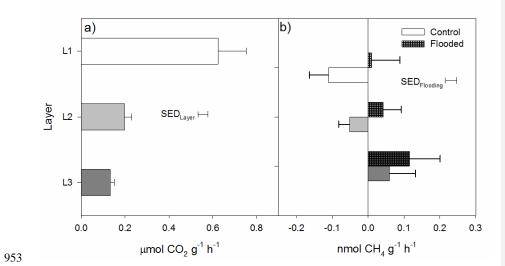
- 938 Figure 6. Relationship between peat functional organic chemistry and microbial biomarkers
- 939 relating to fungal and bacterial biomass at the two study areas and across the three peat
- 940 depths. a) Relationship between alkyl concentrations and fungal to bacterial ratios in the peat
- 941 (F<sub>2,44</sub> = 10.27, P < 0.001,  $\sigma^2$  = 30), b) relationship between aromatic concentrations and
- 942 fungal to bacterial ratios in the peat  $(F_{2,44} = 6.84, P < 0.001, \sigma^2 = 24)$ , c) relationship between
- carboxyl concentrations and bacterial biomass in the peat  $(F_{1,22} = 6.70, P < 0.05, \sigma^2 = 21)$  and
- 944 d) relationship between phenolics concentrations and gram positive bacterial biomass in the
- 945 peat ( $F_{2.46} = 6.84$ , P < 0.01,  $\sigma^2 = 20$ ).

**Figures 1-6** 

948 Figure 1



951 Figure 2



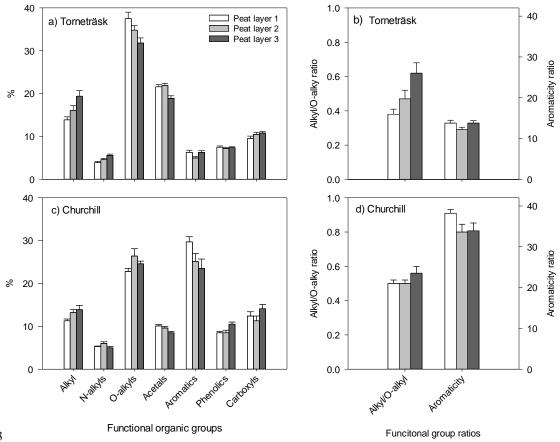
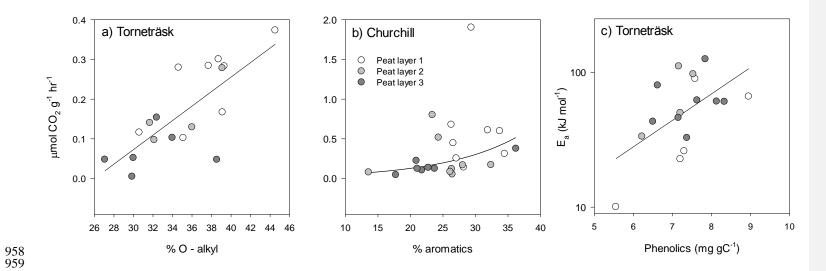
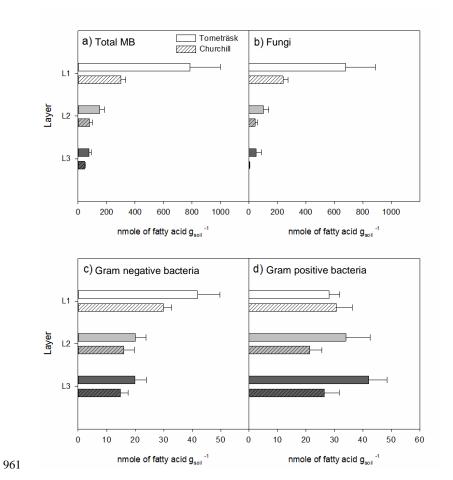


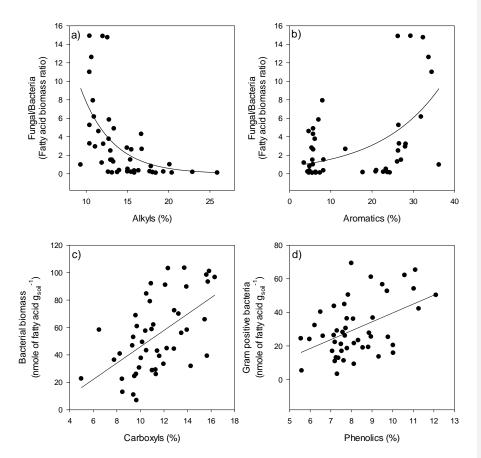
Figure 3 957 Figure 4



## 960 Figure 5



963 Figure 6



Supplementary information 1. Dominant plant species at the Torneträsk and Churchill peatlands. Species found in wetter areas are *italicised*.

Area	Moss	Deciduous shrub	Herbaceous	Evergreen shrub	Graminoids	Lichen
Torneträsk	Sphagnum fuscum	Betula nana	Rubus chamaemorus	Empetrum nigrum	Eriophorum angustifolium	Cladonia rangiferina
	Polytricum sp.	Salix lanata	Pinguicula vulgaris	Ledum palustre	Carex acutiformis	Cladonia coccifera
	Scorpidium scorpioides	Salix phylicifolia		Andromeda polifolia	Eriophorum vaginatum	Cladonia pontentosa
	Racomitrium lanuginosum			Vaccinium vitis-ideae		Cladonia cervicornis
	Sphagnum cuspidatum			Vaccinium uliginosum		
	Sphagnum auriculatum			Vaccinium oxycoccus		
	Sphagnum palustre					
Churchill	Dicranum elongatum	Betula gladulosa	Rubus chameomorus	Empetrum nigrum	Deschampsia flexuosa	Cladina stellaria
	Sphagnum fuscum	Salix arctophila	Pinguicula vulgaris	Ledum decumbens	Calamagrostis sp.	Cladina rangifera
		Salix lanata	Saxifraga aizodies	Andromeda polyfolia	Carex scirpoidea	Flavocetraria nivalis Flavocetraria
			Potentilla palustris	Vaccinium vitis-ideae	Carex vaginatum	cuculata
			Tofieldia pusilla	Rhodedendron lapponica	Carex capillaris	Bryoria nitidula
				Picea glauca		
				Arctostophalus sp.		

Area	Site no	Site name	Eastinga	Northinga	Elevation (m absl)	Active layer depth (cm)	Layer <sup>b</sup>	Bulk density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	C (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	N (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	C:N	Moisture content (% dry weight)
		Abisko										
Torneträsk	1	Research station	7588331	1623701	343	49.3	1	0.03	44.0	0.6	75.1	777.2
							2	0.06	46.4	1.1	43.9	594.4
		Kursflaket					3	0.09	48.6	1.6	30.0	372.6
	2	(Abisko östra)	7587485	1626340	350	46.5	1	0.05	48.5	0.8	62.2	474.7
		(					2	0.05	47.4	1.3	36.0	495.2
							3	0.09	46.9	1.8	26.6	456.7
		Kärtosape					J	0.07	.0.5	1.0	20.0	
	3	(Mellanflaket)	7586903	1628129	390	51.3	1	0.06	48.9	1.3	37.8	287.6
							2	0.11	50.1	1.3	37.5	247.2
							3	0.14	41.8	1.4	29.1	227.5
	4	Storflaket	7588147	1633139	350	49.0	1	0.07	48.7	0.9	51.4	358.7
							2	0.08	46.8	1.9	24.0	390.2
							3	0.07	48.5	1.6	30.9	526.3
	5	Stordalen väst	7588147	1633139	350	50.0	1	0.03	47.6	0.6	77.2	519.8
							2	0.08	49.6	1.9	25.8	421.9
							3	0.12	46.9	2.3	20.4	350.5
	6	Stordalen IBP	7588605	1633727	354	51.9	1	0.04	47.4	0.6	82.3	449.5
							2	0.06	53.1	1.0	50.6	439.8
							3	0.08	49.2	1.9	25.9	416.5
	_	Narkervare										
	7	(Torneträsk st.)	7575403	1663072	355	49.8	1	0.04	50.2	1.0	49.8	396.0
							2	0.07	49.4	1.2	42.6	426.3
							3	0.09	54.2	1.5	37.3	348.2
	8	Stenbacken	7572484	1664837	411	53.1	1	0.06	47.4	0.8	62.4	385.4

							2	0.06	48.0	1.3	36.8	449.5
							3	0.09	49.5	1.8	28.1	356.9
			15V	UTM								
Churchill	1	PPD	0453504	6510605	15.9	37.3	1	0.07	44.2	1.2	35.4	275.3
							2	0.11	44.0	1.6	27.7	286.1
							3	0.13	33.0	3.6	9.2	226.7
	2		15V	UTM	15.0	25.2		0.06	40.0	1.0	20.2	207.0
	2		0451568	6510026	15.9	25.3	1	0.06	40.0	1.0	39.2	387.0
							2	0.09	42.5	1.2	35.2	401.0
			1537	1.1773.4			*	*	*	*	*	*
	3		15V 0451423	UTM 6509167	20.1	31.0	1	0.05	40.4	0.7	58.1	479.9
	3		0431423	0307107	20.1	31.0	2	0.09	40.1	1.9	21.0	509.8
							3	0.09	40.1	2.5	16.5	453.3
			15V	UTM			3	0.08	40.8	2.3	10.3	433.3
	4		0451423	6509167	20.1	30.2	1	0.06	43.2	1.3	34.1	284.3
							2	0.08	40.5	2.0	20.0	380.8
							3	0.08	40.3	2.0	20.4	396.6
			15V	UTM								
	6		0451283	6508919	22	30.0	1	0.06	40.4	0.7	58.6	325.8
							2	0.10	43.0	1.0	42.8	324.3
							3	0.08	41.9	2.2	18.9	390.8
	0		15V	UTM	22	20.2		0.00	20.2	0.4	00.5	1050 1
	8		0452519	6499496	33	29.3	1	0.02	38.3	0.4	99.7	1079.1
							2	0.04	36.8	0.3	128.8	1121.2
			1537	1.1773.4			3	0.03	39.2	0.4	107.9	1113.9
	9		15V 0452544	UTM 6499323	33.3	29.7	1	0.04	41.4	1.1	38.8	350.7
			0432344	0477323	33.3	27.1		0.07	43.0	1.0	42.8	393.7
							2					
			15V	UTM			3	0.10	31.5	1.4	22.9	223.5
	10	Twin lakes	0451736	6498165	35.4	37.3	1	0.06	40.6	0.6	70.0	413.1
							2	0.06	30.6	0.6	52.3	485.3

								3	0.	11	40	0.9	1.3	2.2	4	10.2
 •	•															

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>The coordinates for the Torneträsk site are in RT 90 (Swedish grid), while the coordinates for the Churchill sites are in UTM

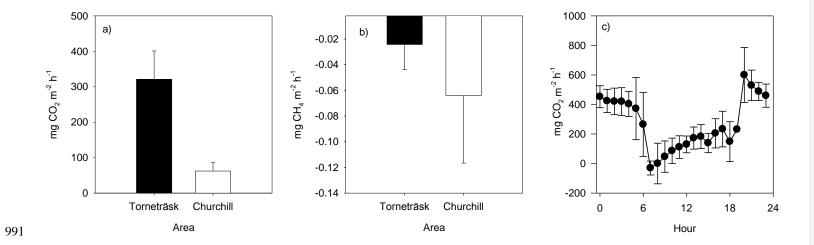
970 bThe peat layers are 1) surface peat, 2) half way through the active layer, 3) just above the permafrost table.

972 973 Supplementary information 3. 974 975 CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> flux measurement in the field 976 At each peatland in situ gas exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> in three subplots ca. 4 m apart was measured on 977 three separate days over a two week period in July 2008 and Aug 2009, in Torneträsk and 978 Churchill, respectively. CO2 fluxes were measured over 10 minutes using an EGM-4 Infra 979 Red Gas Analyzer with a 30 cm diameter cuvette (PP Systems, Hitchin, UK - see Sjögersten 980 et al. (2010) for details) between 10:00 and 17:00. At a subset of peatlands (n = 3) in 981 Churchill we recorded CO<sub>2</sub> measurement over one 24 h period collecting reading each hour. 982 Methane fluxes from each plot were estimated in parallel with CO<sub>2</sub> measurements (i.e. 983 sampling on three separate days from each peatland in between 10:00 and 17:00) using the 984 closed chamber technique with four samples taken at 15 minute intervals and injected into evacuated glass vials for later analysis of CH<sub>4</sub> in the lab using a Gas Chromatograph (GC) 985 986 (Sjögersten et al., 2011). Positive values of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes represent an efflux to the 987 atmosphere.

988

Formatted: Font: Not Italic

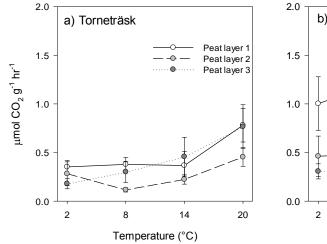
## Supplementary information 4

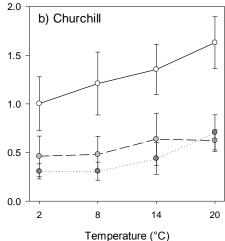


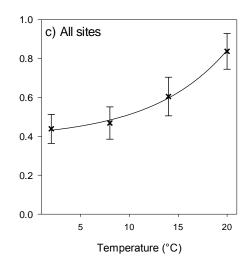
Supplementary information 4. a)  $CO_2$  and (b)  $CH_4$  fluxes *in situ* at Torneträsk and Churchill, respectively. Mean and SE are shown, each data point is based on three sub samples per site, n = 8, collected at three occasions in July and August, at Torneträsk and Churchill, respectively. Additionally diurnal variation in  $CO_2$  fluxes c) were recorded at three sites in August in Churchill.  $CO_2$  fluxes (a) differed between Torneträsk and Churchill,  $F_{1,38} = 15.16$ , P < 0.001) but not for the  $CH_4$  fluxes (b)  $F_{1,28} = 0.58$ , P < 0.4).

## Supplementary information 5

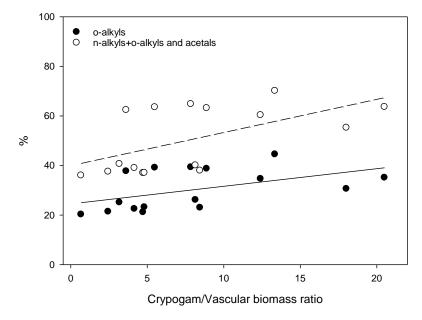








Supplementary information 5. Temperature response curves of optimised peat from three layers (L1-3) in the active layer in a) Torneträsk and b) Churchill (means  $\pm$  SE are shown, n = 8; overall temperature effect for all layers:  $F_{3,159} = 6.02$ , P < 0.001; difference between areas:  $F_{1,14} = 7.00$ , P < 0.05), c) modelled overall relationship between temperature and  $CO_2$  release ( $CO_2 = 0.386 + 0.035 \times (1.137^T)$ ;  $F_{2,179} = 6.68 P < 0.01$ ) for all sites (i.e. both Churchill and Torneträsk) and peat depth combined.



Supplementary information 6. Relationships between the crypogam/vascular biomass ratio and concentration of o-alkyls (%) and combined carbohydrate type compounds (n-alkyls+o-alkyls and acetals). Statistics are reported in the result section.