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Title: Drivers of Holocene peatland carbon accumulation across a climate gradient in northeastern North America

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Corresponding Author: Prof. Dan Charman,

Corresponding Author's Institution: University of Exeter

First Author: Dan Charman

Order of Authors: Dan Charman; Matthew J Amesbury; William Hinchliffe; Paul D Hughes; Gunnar Mallon; William H Blake; Tim J Daley; Angela V Gallego-Sala; Dmitri Mauquoy

Abstract: Peatlands are an important component of the Holocene global carbon (C) cycle and the rate of C sequestration and storage is driven by the balance between net primary productivity and decay. A number of studies now suggest that climate is a key driver of peatland C accumulation at large spatial scales and over long timescales, with warmer conditions associated with higher rates of C accumulation. However, other factors are also likely to play a significant role in determining local carbon accumulation rates and these may modify past, present and future peatland carbon sequestration. Here, we test the importance of climate as a driver of C accumulation, compared with hydrological change, fire, nitrogen content and vegetation type, from records of C accumulation at three sites in northeastern North America, across the N-S climate gradient of raised bog distribution. Radiocarbon age models, bulk density values and %C measurements from each site are used to construct C accumulation histories commencing between 11200 and 8000 cal. years BP. The relationship between C accumulation and environmental variables (past water table depth, fire, peat forming vegetation and nitrogen content) is assessed with linear and multivariate regression analyses. Differences in long-term rates of carbon accumulation between sites support the contention that a warmer climate with longer growing seasons results in faster rates of long-term carbon accumulation. However, mid-late Holocene accumulation rates show divergent trends, decreasing in the north but rising in the south. We hypothesise that sites close to the moisture threshold for raised bog distribution increased their growth rate in response to a cooler climate with lower evapotranspiration in the late Holocene, but net primary productivity declined over the same period in northern areas causing a decrease in C accumulation. There was no clear relationship between C accumulation and hydrological change, vegetation, nitrogen content or fire, but early successional stages of peatland growth had faster rates of C accumulation even though temperatures were probably lower at the time. We conclude that climate is the most important driver of peatland accumulation rates over millennial timescales, but that successional vegetation change is a significant additional influence. Whilst the majority of northern peatlands are likely to increase C accumulation rates under future warmer climates, those at the southern limit of distribution may show reduced rates. However, early succession peatlands that develop under future warming at the northern limits of peatland distribution are likely to have high rates of C accumulation and will compensate for some of the losses elsewhere.

1 **Drivers of Holocene peatland carbon accumulation across a climate**
2 **gradient in northeastern North America**

3

4 Dan J. Charman*¹, Matthew J. Amesbury¹, William Hinchliffe¹, Paul D. M. Hughes², Gunnar Mallon³,
5 William H. Blake⁴, Tim J. Daley⁴, Angela V. Gallego-Sala¹, and Dmitri Mauquoy⁵.

6

7 ¹ Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Amory Building,
8 Rennes Drive, Exeter, EX4 4RJ, UK.

9 ² Geography and Environment, University of Southampton, University Road, Highfield, Southampton,
10 Hampshire, SO17 1BJ, UK.

11 ³ Department of Geography, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2TN, UK.

12 ⁴ School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, Plymouth University, Drake Circus,
13 Plymouth, Devon, PL4 8AA

14 ⁵ School of Geosciences, University of Aberdeen, St. Mary's Building, Elphinstone Road, Aberdeen,
15 AB24 3UF, UK.

16

17 * Corresponding author: d.j.charman@exeter.ac.uk

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20 **Abstract**

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23 number of studies now suggest that climate is a key driver of peatland C accumulation at large
24 spatial scales and over long timescales, with warmer conditions associated with higher rates of C
25 accumulation. However, other factors are also likely to play a significant role in determining local
26 carbon accumulation rates and these may modify past, present and future peatland carbon
27 sequestration. Here, we test the importance of climate as a driver of C accumulation, compared with
28 hydrological change, fire, nitrogen content and vegetation type, from records of C accumulation at
29 three sites in northeastern North America, across the N-S climate gradient of raised bog distribution.
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32 relationship between C accumulation and environmental variables (past water table depth, fire, peat
33 forming vegetation and nitrogen content) is assessed with linear and multivariate regression
34 analyses. Differences in long-term rates of carbon accumulation between sites support the
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36 carbon accumulation. However, mid-late Holocene accumulation rates show divergent trends,
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38 threshold for raised bog distribution increased their growth rate in response to a cooler climate with
39 lower evapotranspiration in the late Holocene, but net primary productivity declined over the same
40 period in northern areas causing a decrease in C accumulation. There was no clear relationship
41 between C accumulation and hydrological change, vegetation, nitrogen content or fire, but early
42 successional stages of peatland growth had faster rates of C accumulation even though
43 temperatures were probably lower at the time. We conclude that climate is the most important
44 driver of peatland accumulation rates over millennial timescales, but that successional vegetation
45 change is a significant additional influence. Whilst the majority of northern peatlands are likely to

46 increase C accumulation rates under future warmer climates, those at the southern limit of
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49 accumulation and will compensate for some of the losses elsewhere.

50 **Key words:** peatland, carbon accumulation, climate, vegetation, Holocene

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Peatlands play a significant role in the global carbon cycle and may become either enhanced carbon
54 sinks or sources under future climate change. They store approximately one third of the global
55 organic soil carbon pool (Gorham, 1991; Batjes, 1996) with 500 ± 100 Gt C stored in northern
56 peatlands (Gorham *et al.*, 2012; Yu, 2012). Despite this, peatland carbon accumulation is not
57 currently represented in global climate models (Limpens *et al.*, 2008) and there is uncertainty over
58 the direction of any potential carbon cycle feedback under future climate scenarios (Bergeron *et al.*,
59 2010; Frohking *et al.*, 2011). Recent research suggests a small negative feedback from northern
60 peatlands in response to enhanced net primary productivity (NPP; Charman *et al.*, 2013), in contrast
61 to the view that higher temperatures may enhance decay and lead to a positive feedback (Dorrepaal
62 *et al.*, 2009). Changes in Holocene peatland carbon accumulation also support the contention that
63 temperature drives carbon accumulation rates at millennial timescales over northern peatlands as a
64 whole (Yu *et al.*, 2009; 2010, Loisel *et al.*, 2014, Yu *et al.*, 2014a) and at regional scales (e.g. Jones
65 and Yu, 2010, Garneau *et al.*, 2014, Zhao *et al.*, 2014). On sub-millennial timescales, the Medieval
66 Climate Anomaly and Little Ice Age also appear to have affected peatland carbon accumulation rates
67 (e.g. Loisel and Garneau, 2010, Charman *et al.*, 2013), although these higher frequency changes are
68 not easily detectable due to dating resolution and the effect of incomplete decay in very recent peat
69 deposits.

70 Higher temperatures may lead to greater NPP and enhanced peat accumulation. However, it is not
71 simply annual average temperature which controls NPP, but growing season length (Lund *et al.*,
72 2010), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and cloudiness (Loisel *et al.*, 2012; Charman *et al.*,
73 2013). In addition, the NPP of peatland plants can be affected and limited by a range of autogenic
74 and allogenic factors including hydrological conditions, nutrient availability, fire and the mix of plant
75 species present (e.g. van Bellen *et al.*, 2011), all of which may affect future carbon accumulation.

76 Projections of 21st century precipitation are less certain than those for temperature (Bergeron *et al.*,
77 2010), but increased precipitation is expected over large areas of the northern peatland domain
78 (Kirtman *et al.*, 2013). Consequent changes in hydrological conditions may lead to increased carbon
79 accumulation when moisture stresses are a limiting factor, but where moisture conditions are
80 adequate for plant growth and the suppression of decay, further increases in wetness are likely to be
81 of secondary importance to temperature and PAR over the growing season (Bubier *et al.*, 2003;
82 Charman *et al.*, 2013).

83 Nutrient availability can be a major limiting factor on plant NPP and decay. Nitrogen deposition rates
84 have risen sharply during the last century and are likely to remain high in the near future due to
85 industrial and agricultural activities (Bragazza *et al.*, 2006). *Sphagnum* mosses are effective at
86 utilizing available nutrients and restricting mineralization, limiting the ability of vascular plants to
87 compete (Malmer and Wallen, 2004). However, high nitrogen deposition can remove nutrient
88 limitations on the growth of vascular plants allowing them to successfully compete with *Sphagnum*,
89 resulting in increased decay rates (Bragazza *et al.*, 2006; Bragazza *et al.*, 2012). Nitrogen content in
90 peat reflects a combination of dominant source plant material, nutrient status and atmospheric
91 nitrogen deposition.

92 Fire occurrence is projected to increase in boreal regions over the next century (Pitkänen *et al.*,
93 1999; Bergeron *et al.*, 2010). Frequent or more severe fire events could lead to a decline in carbon
94 accumulation (Kuhry, 1994; Pitkänen *et al.*, 1999; Wieder *et al.*, 2009), though van Bellen *et al.*

95 (2012) did not find a clear correlation between Holocene peatland fire regimes and carbon
96 accumulation in Québec. Fire events can also affect carbon accumulation by providing the
97 circumstances for vegetation change if different species rapidly colonise a site following a fire,
98 replacing pre-existing species (Pitkänen *et al.*, 1999).

99 Dominant plant types are largely determined by climate but major changes in vegetation type may
100 produce significant changes in carbon accumulation rates (e.g. van Bellen *et al.*, 2011; Loisel and Yu,
101 2013). However, potential differences in rates of peatland carbon accumulation driven by changes in
102 species composition have received relatively little attention, excepting the broad consensus that
103 there is likely to be a contrast between *Sphagnum* and vascular plants, with lower bulk density,
104 lower C content and higher C:N ratios in *Sphagnum* peat (e.g. Loisel *et al.*, 2014). More intensive
105 research on the interactions between climate, local environmental change and species composition
106 is needed (e.g. Hughes *et al.*, 2013). If factors such as enhanced nitrogen deposition or changing
107 hydrological conditions led to a competitive advantage for other vegetation types at the expense of
108 *Sphagnum*, then future carbon accumulation rates could be significantly affected.

109 The interaction of environmental factors with changing climate will determine future peatland
110 carbon accumulation rates and the strength of any peatland carbon source or sink. Determining the
111 roles and relative strength of each of these variables remains an important research goal. Here, we
112 investigate the relationship between peat carbon accumulation rates and climate, water table depth
113 (WTD), nitrogen content, fire occurrence and plant species composition at three well-dated raised
114 bogs in eastern North America, providing an assessment of the relative roles of autogenic and
115 allogenic factors on rates of peatland carbon accumulation.

116

117 **2. Study sites and methods**

118 Cores were taken from three undisturbed lowland ombrotrophic bogs: Burnt Village Bog,
119 Newfoundland (BVB); Petite Bog, Nova Scotia (PTB) and Sidney Bog, Maine (SYB) (Figure 1, Table 1).
120 These sites represent the extremes of raised bog distribution in eastern North America, from the
121 southern limit in Maine to the northern limit in northern Newfoundland. Mean summer (JJA)
122 temperatures range from 11.4°C at BVB to 17.9°C at SYB, whereas total summer precipitation is
123 more consistent across sites with the highest value of 101 mm at SYB (Table 1).

124 Contiguous samples of known volume (4 cm³) were extracted from the cores at 2 cm resolution,
125 freeze-dried and re-weighed to enable calculation of bulk density. Percentage carbon and nitrogen
126 content by mass were measured on homogeneous ground and weighed sub-samples of 4–5 mg.
127 Repeat measurements were taken for some bulk density (n=117) and C/N (n=122) samples and the
128 difference between them used to provide an observational error interval within which 95% of
129 samples fell. Age-depth models for all cores (Figure 2) were constructed using the R package BACON
130 (Blaauw and Christen, 2011), with approximately 30 radiocarbon dates per site (Supplementary
131 Table 1). Hand-picked and cleaned *Sphagnum* stems and leaves were dated wherever possible, with
132 other samples consisting of above-ground ericaceous or monocotyledon plant remains. In addition,
133 recent peat accumulation was modelled using short-lived radioisotopes ²¹⁰Pb and ¹³⁷Cs
134 (Supplementary Table 2), using gamma spectrometry and a constant rate of supply (CRS) model
135 (Appleby and Oldfield, 1978). Ages from the CRS models were also included in the BACON age-depth
136 modelling. Carbon accumulation histories for each site were constructed using the weighted mean
137 dates from each model based on millions of iterations, with >1000 iterations remaining in the final
138 models in each case.

139

140 Testate amoeba-based reconstructed depth to water table profiles were produced at 4 cm
141 resolution using the regional transfer function of Amesbury *et al.* (2013). Estimates of vegetation
142 species composition and fire histories were produced for the same depths using standard techniques

143 (Barber *et al.*, 1994). Only a subset of these data was used here; plant macrofossils were grouped
144 into major peatland vegetation types; Ericaceae, monocotyledons and bryophytes (almost entirely
145 *Sphagnum*) to estimate percentage abundances for each vegetation component. Percentage
146 occurrence of charred remains at SYB and charred remains and charcoal at PTB were used to
147 estimate relative changes in fire, but no equivalent data were available for BVB.

148 The pollen-based record of North American July temperature anomalies of Viau *et al.* (2006) was
149 used to provide a regional climate record. The continental scale of this record means it will not
150 necessarily reflect local temperature changes, but it does permit comparison between major
151 changes in temperature and carbon accumulation over millennial timescales. It is more robust than
152 individual local records, although in practice the long terms trends are very similar (e.g. Hausmann *et*
153 *al.*, 2011; Muller *et al.*, 2003). As a record of summer temperature it is likely to be correlated with
154 growing season length but does not reflect changes in PAR, which has recently been suggested to be
155 an important climatic driver determining peatland carbon accumulation (Loisel *et al.*, 2012; Charman
156 *et al.*, 2013). A further assessment of climate effects on accumulation was made by comparing the
157 differences between sites in relation to their different climatic settings (Table 1).

158 Linear regression analyses of the relationships between carbon accumulation and site-specific
159 palaeoenvironmental data were carried out on individual sample intervals to test the relative
160 importance of each variable in determining carbon accumulation. To ensure a statistically robust
161 approach, we then used R (R Development Core Team, 2014) to build multivariate linear models
162 using stepwise regression (using the Akaike Information Criterion to choose the most parsimonious
163 model) for the dataset as a whole and by site, for both individual sample intervals and over 500 year
164 averages. Two sample, two tailed t-tests were carried out using the carbon accumulation data
165 corresponding to the extreme quartiles for each variable to further test the relationship between
166 different environmental extremes and carbon accumulation rates.

167

168 **3. Results**

169 **3.1. Carbon accumulation at individual sites**

170 Bulk density and carbon content varied moderately between the sites (Figures 3 – 5 A and B). BVB
171 had the highest average bulk density (0.14 g cm^{-3} , SD = 0.297) but the lowest mean carbon content
172 (45.97%, SD = 9.17). SYB had the highest mean carbon content (48.96 %, SD = 8.3) and mean bulk
173 density of 0.12 g cm^{-3} (SD = 0.146). PTB had a similar mean carbon content (48.76 %, SD = 1.92) but a
174 distinctly lower mean bulk density (0.065 g cm^{-3} , SD = 0.019). Carbon accumulation rates vary down
175 core but are within the range generally observed in northern peatlands (e.g. Loisel *et al.*, 2014;
176 Figures 3 – 4E). Average carbon accumulation rate over the entire profile was highest at SYB ($45 \pm$
177 $3.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (95% confidence interval)), followed by PTB ($31 \pm 1.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and BVB (28.5 ± 1.6
178 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), generally higher than the mean for northern peatlands of $22.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Loisel *et al.*,
179 2014).

180 To summarise longer-term patterns of carbon accumulation we summed 500 year periods for each
181 site (Figure 6). At SYB, carbon accumulation peaked in the early Holocene around 9000 cal. BP then
182 declined gradually until around 5000 cal. BP. Since then, carbon accumulation has gradually
183 increased with notable peaks around 3700 cal. BP, 2500 cal. BP, 750 cal. BP and over the past 200
184 years (Figure 5E). At PTB, peat formation began over 11,000 cal. years BP. There was an early
185 Holocene peak in carbon accumulation around 10,000 – 9000 cal. BP before it declined to a
186 minimum around 8000 cal. BP. Carbon accumulation recovered to higher values after approximately
187 6000 cal. BP with a long-term peak at around 3000 cal. BP, before declining again to a new minimum
188 around 2000 cal. BP. Higher carbon accumulation over the past 1500 years included prominent
189 peaks around 1400 cal. BP and 600 cal. BP. There has been a local increase in carbon accumulation
190 over the past century (Figure 4E). At BVB, long-term carbon accumulation also peaked in the early
191 stages of development around 8000 to 7000 cal. BP, followed by a steady decline until around 3000

192 cal. BP. Since then carbon accumulation has recovered somewhat with an increase over the last
193 century, but this does not reach the values recorded in the first half of the Holocene (Figure 3E).

194 To examine long-term total carbon accumulation across the spatial climate gradient, we calculated
195 total carbon accumulation for the past 2000, 4000, 6000 and 8000 years, the time intervals for which
196 data were available at all the sites (Table 2). Results show that SYB is the largest carbon store over
197 the past 8000 years with a total of 296.9 Kg C m⁻², compared to 188.6 and 192 Kg C m⁻² for PTB and
198 BVB respectively. However, there is a much more consistent north – south gradient evident for the
199 last 4000 years, such that SYB > PTB > BVB for this whole period and for both sub periods, with more
200 than three times the C accumulation at SYB than BVB over the last 2000 years. The total 8000 year C
201 accumulation at PTB is significantly reduced by the very slow accumulation in the period 8000 –
202 6000 cal. BP, and BVB accumulated as fast or faster than the more southern sites between 8000 and
203 4000 cal years BP, but more slowly in the last 4000 years.

204

205 **3.2. Carbon accumulation and Holocene temperature change**

206 There are no clear and consistent relationships between the temperature reconstruction of Viau *et*
207 *al.* (2006) and C accumulation at all three sites (Table 3), though significant weak negative
208 correlations are observed with C accumulation at BVB and SYB. However, at all sites there were
209 significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between C accumulation values corresponding to the extreme
210 quartiles of the temperature reconstruction, with lower C accumulation corresponding to the higher
211 temperature quartile (Table 4). The highest rates of C accumulation are observed in the early
212 Holocene at SYB and PTB, before the Holocene Thermal Maximum. The rates at both these sites
213 decline rapidly after 9000 cal yr BP, before rising again after 6500 cal yr BP (PTB) and 5000 cal yr BP
214 (SYB). Meanwhile, BVB shows rapid initial accumulation from 8000 cal yr BP, followed by a gradual
215 decline over the mid Holocene. The long-term trends are divergent for the mid-late Holocene since
216 around 5000 cal yr BP, when temperature declined steadily. There is a downward trend in

217 accumulation at BVB and an upward trend in SYB over this period, perhaps reflecting a differential
218 regional response at these sites at opposite ends of the spatial climate gradient.

219

220 **3.3. Carbon accumulation and environmental variables**

221 Summary proxy data are shown in Figures 3 – 5, shown as reconstructed depth to water table and
222 relative proportions of major plant macrofossil groups. The discussion below focuses on the
223 relationship between these variables and carbon accumulation (Tables 3 and 4).

224

225 *3.3.1. Water table depth*

226 There was a weak but significant positive correlations between WTD and C accumulation at SYB
227 (Table 3), suggesting faster C accumulation during drier than wetter periods. At all sites, there were
228 no significant differences between C accumulation values associated with the upper and lower
229 quartiles of WTD values (Table 4).

230

231 *3.3.2. Nitrogen*

232 There was a weak but significant positive correlation between %N and C accumulation at BVB, but
233 no statistically significant relationships at other sites (Table 3). Furthermore, at BVB and SYB, C
234 accumulation rates associated with the extreme quartiles of %N values were significantly different
235 (at BVB $p < 0.001$; at SYB $p = 0.04$, Table 4). However, short-term changes often appear to suggest
236 contradictory relationships. At BVB an increase in carbon accumulation rates at *ca.* 3000 cal. BP
237 occurs synchronously with increasing nitrogen levels (Figure 3) whereas at PTB a period of low C
238 accumulation from *ca.* 8000 – 6000 cal. BP saw a rise in nitrogen levels (Figure 4).

239

240 *3.3.3. Fire*

241 There was a weak positive but significant correlation between charred remains and C accumulation
242 per year at PTB (Table 3). A two-tailed, two-sample t-test of C accumulation values corresponding to

243 the extreme quartiles for charred remains at SYB was not significant (Table 4). However, due to the
244 nature of the charred remains and charcoal records at PTB, which were dominated by zero values
245 with infrequent peaks of fire activity (an average of only 6% of samples had an occurrence of charred
246 remains/charcoal, Figure 4), upper and lower quartiles both calculated as 0 and so t-tests were not
247 carried out on these data.

248

249 *3.3.4. Vegetation type*

250 There were statistically significant correlations between C accumulation and vegetation type at BVB
251 and PTB. At BVB, bryophyte cover was significantly negatively correlated with C accumulation ($r = -$
252 0.473 , $p = 0.001$) and at PTB, there was a weak but significant positive correlation between Ericaceae
253 and C accumulation ($r = 0.141$, $p = 0.041$). Both of these relationships were supported by two-
254 sample, two-tailed t-tests of C accumulation values for the upper and lower quartiles of vegetation
255 cover (Table 4). At BVB, low bryophyte cover was associated with significantly higher accumulation
256 rates (mean $38.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than high bryophyte cover (mean $21.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p < 0.001$). This
257 effect is likely related to the switch from fen to bog vegetation that occurred around 6500 cal. BP
258 (Figure 3), with higher C accumulation rates occurring in the first 1500 years of the BVB record
259 (Figure 6). At PTB, low Ericaceae cover was associated with significantly lower C accumulation rates
260 (mean $27.8 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) than high Ericaceae cover (mean $35.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $p = 0.01$). In addition, there
261 was a significant difference between C accumulation rates associated with the extreme quartiles of
262 monocot cover at BVB (Table 4), but this was not supported by a significant correlation between the
263 two time series (Table 3).

264

265 *3.3.5. Multivariate modelling*

266 The often weak and sometimes contradictory relationships between individual variables and C
267 accumulation suggest that there is no single over-riding environmental factor that is driving peat
268 accumulation at the sites throughout the Holocene. The relationships are therefore presumably

269 multivariate or not captured by the data collected. Multivariate modelling was therefore carried out
270 on the carbon accumulation data for individual sites and for all site data combined. In addition,
271 broad scale patterns of C accumulation were explored with the same approach to data binned in 500
272 year intervals (Table 5). The variation in carbon accumulation per year across all sites was best
273 described by a linear model that combined the variables Ericaceae ($p = 0.0001$), temperature ($p =$
274 0.0004), bryophytes ($p = 0.007$) and %N ($p = 0.08$), but which had an adjusted R^2 of only 0.14 ($p <$
275 0.001). When the data were subdivided by site, only %N emerged as an explanatory variable at all
276 sites, but was often non-significant (Table 5). The variation in 500 year averaged C accumulation was
277 best described by a linear model with an adjusted R^2 of 0.18 ($p = 0.005$) that combined the variables
278 of water table depth ($p < 0.001$), Ericaceae ($p = 0.05$) and %N ($p = 0.06$). When the 500 year averaged
279 data was divided by site, bryophyte cover and water table depth were explanatory variables for all
280 sites, although inter-site differences existed for all models and the direction of the relationships with
281 significant variables also differed between sites (Table 5).

282

283 **4. Discussion**

284 Determining the relationship between climate variability and carbon accumulation is a key problem
285 in understanding the Holocene terrestrial carbon cycle and in predicting changes in northern
286 peatland carbon sequestration and storage under future climate scenarios. Whilst a number of
287 models suggest decreased accumulation rates due to increased decay rates driven by rising
288 temperatures (Ise *et al.* 2008, Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009), empirical data on centennial-millennial scale
289 peatland carbon accumulation now suggest that periods of warmer climate generally led to higher
290 rates of carbon accumulation, presumably due to higher NPP more than compensating for increased
291 decay (Yu *et al.*, 2012). This appears to be the case for northern peatlands at a broad geographical
292 scale in response to precession-driven multi-millennial climate change during the Holocene (Yu *et*
293 *al.*, 2010; Loisel *et al.*, 2014) and also over shorter sub-millennial periods such as the Medieval

294 Climate Anomaly to Little Ice Age transition in the last millennium (Charman *et al.*, 2013). It is also
295 likely that the most important influence of temperature is through mean summer and maximum
296 summer temperature and growing season length, rather than through annual average temperature,
297 because during the months when temperatures are below zero, both productivity and decay are
298 likely to be negligible compared to the main growing season. Furthermore, relationships with broad
299 temperature trends probably incorporate and are modified by other climate variables, particularly
300 PAR as a key driver of NPP (Loisel *et al.*, 2012, Charman *et al.*, 2013). The data presented here
301 provide two tests of the temperature-peat accumulation hypotheses via; 1) spatial comparisons of
302 total accumulated carbon, and 2) temporal trends in C accumulation associated with precession-
303 driven multi-millennial temperature changes.

304

305 **4.1. Spatial patterns of accumulated carbon**

306 The total carbon accumulated over the last 8000 years for the sites is only partly consistent with the
307 hypothesis that higher temperatures lead to higher carbon accumulation rates (Table 2). Climate
308 data show that summer temperatures are around 6°C lower at BVB compared to PTB and SYB and
309 that GDD0 and PAR0 are 30 – 40 % lower (Table 1). This climate gradient is associated with a general
310 increase in carbon accumulation rates from north to south (Table 2). This broad relationship is
311 similar to spatial patterns that have been found for regions such as western Siberia (Beilman *et al.*,
312 2009) and for northern peatlands in their entirety (Charman *et al.*, 2013) for total carbon
313 accumulated over the last 1000 – 2000 years. However, comparing 2000 year intervals (Table 2),
314 shows that this spatial relationship holds true for only the last 4000 years, breaking down for the
315 intervals 6000 – 4000 and 8000 – 6000 years ago. Over the whole 8000 year period, the
316 northernmost site at Burnt Village Bog in Newfoundland accumulated only 65% of the southernmost
317 site Sidney Bog in Maine, but a similar amount to Petite Bog (BVB = 193.2 Kg C m⁻², PTB = 188.6 Kg C
318 m⁻²). However, total C accumulation at PTB is limited by extremely slow rates from 8000 – 6000 cal.
319 BP when BVB was experiencing its highest rates. These results suggest either a different spatial

320 pattern in climate or other more dominant drivers of peat accumulation rates for these earlier
321 periods, which we explore below.

322 Accumulation rates are high for all sites during their earliest stages of development (Figures 3 – 6).
323 These periods are also characterised by high %N (Figures 3 – 5C) and peat dominated by vascular
324 plants, usually sedges, indicating these are the minerotrophic phases before the formation of the
325 *Sphagnum* dominated raised bog peat (Figures 3 – 5). The fen phase as indicated by the vegetation
326 composition and %N finishes at different times, apparently unrelated to climatic setting; *ca.* 6500
327 cal. BP at BVB, *ca.* 8500 cal. BP at SYB and *ca.* 9500 cal. BP at PTB. These early phases of high C
328 accumulation occur before the main Holocene Thermal Maximum and therefore they appear to be
329 locally controlled, probably driven by topographically and hydrologically determined rates of peat
330 initiation and groundwater influence. The generally high rate of accumulation in vascular plant peats
331 during the colder climate conditions of the early Holocene suggests that NPP was relatively high and
332 decay rates were low, perhaps also related to the stronger seasonality in climate associated with the
333 precessional difference in orbital forcing. Some later periods also show enhanced N levels but these
334 are not associated with clear changes in C accumulation rates or vegetation composition changes.
335 For example, the record of the last 1000 years at BVB (Figure 3) suggests that changes of up to +2
336 %N induced no significant change in longer-term vegetation or carbon accumulation rates. This is in
337 contrast to short-term nutrient addition studies (e.g. Bragazza *et al.*, 2012) where higher carbon
338 uptake was associated with N addition, albeit at higher rates of addition. Turunen *et al.* (2004) also
339 report that anthropogenically enhanced atmospheric N supply is associated with higher recent C
340 accumulation in eastern North America but we see no clear evidence of this recent effect in our
341 cores.

342 Later periods with relatively high nitrogen content also occur at PTB during a period of very low
343 carbon accumulation *ca.* 8000 – 6500 cal. BP and over the last 1000 years at BVB and to a lesser
344 extent at SYB. The period of very low C accumulation at PTB is associated with a dry bog surface and
345 fire, as indicated by a major charcoal peak at this time (Figure 4). The higher %N values are probably

346 a result of fire and mineralisation yielding higher N availability and the dominance of vascular plants.
347 Whilst very large fire events may have had a significant influence on peat accumulation, van Bellen
348 *et al.* (2012) have suggested that there is rather little correspondence between long-term fire
349 frequency and C accumulation rates in northern peatlands in Québec. However, there is
350 considerable variability between studies; for example Pitkänen *et al.* (1999) found that charcoal
351 abundance was associated with an overall decrease in carbon accumulation in Finnish mires.

352 The spatial patterns of total peat accumulation therefore support the hypothesis of a positive
353 relationship between temperature and related variables, and peat growth, but also show that this
354 only holds true for the ombrotrophic phases of peatland development. In earlier peatland
355 development, local influences on peatland geochemistry, hydrology and vegetation modify the
356 spatial relationships with climate, assuming the spatial climate relationships between sites remained
357 similar over time.

358

359 **4.2. Carbon accumulation trends over the Holocene**

360 Peat accumulation is expected to be higher during the mid-Holocene Thermal Maximum than during
361 the later Holocene as precession-forced cooling occurred, as suggested by overall patterns of
362 northern peatlands over larger spatial scales (Yu *et al.*, 2010; Loisel *et al.*, 2014). However, only BVB
363 shows this long-term trend more typical of northern hemisphere peatlands. SYB shows an increasing
364 trend in C accumulation through the late Holocene and PTB also shows a generally increasing but
365 more gradual trend, albeit with some short-term variability (Figure 6). We attribute this difference to
366 different initial climate states for the sites.

367 SYB is at the southern limit of raised peatland development today, which is determined by moisture
368 balance (Davis and Anderson, 2001). During the Holocene Thermal Maximum, it would have been
369 even warmer than it is today and thus probably sub-optimal for peat growth in southern Maine.
370 Cooler temperatures during the later Holocene may therefore have improved the potential for a

371 positive water balance and pushed this region further away from a limiting moisture threshold,
372 especially if there was also increased precipitation. The moisture index (MI) for the site today is 1.68
373 (Table 1), only just above the threshold for peat growth found for 90 northern hemisphere sites
374 (Charman *et al.*, 2013). PTB is further away from the geographical limit of modern peatland
375 distribution in eastern North America, but the climate data suggest it is still very close to this
376 moisture threshold (MI = 2.04). BVB is well within the moisture limit for peat growth (MI = 2.63) and
377 even with higher evapotranspiration, is unlikely to have been at a growth limit in the mid-Holocene,
378 such that a higher temperature and longer growth season had a positive effect on peat
379 accumulation. The contrasting long-term trends in C accumulation can thus be explained by these
380 differing initial climate states, particularly in relation to moisture status as a limiting variable.

381 Linear regressions and multivariate modelling of the relationships between carbon accumulation and
382 environmental variables did not reveal any consistent, significant correlations. Early phases of peat
383 accumulation appear to have been influenced by local environmental factors to a much greater
384 extent, especially during fen peat development and early stage succession (Holmquist and
385 Macdonald, 2014). There is also evidence that at particular sites, over particular time periods, such
386 as at PTB from 8000 – 6000 cal. BP, autogenic factors may have been an important driver of carbon
387 accumulation rates. However, the overall conclusion from spatial and temporal comparisons
388 between peat accumulation, climatic and palaeoenvironmental data is that some of the largest
389 differences in C accumulation can be explained by climate, especially during the mid-late Holocene.

390

391 **4.3. Implications for future peatland carbon accumulation**

392 Future climate change will lead to a shift of bioclimate zones suitable for peat formation (Gallego-
393 Sala *et al.*, 2010, Gallego-Sala and Prentice, 2012). Some areas that are currently suitable for peat
394 growth will be too warm and/or dry for continued peat growth in mid northern latitudes, perhaps
395 including peatlands in the southern part of eastern North America. However, many areas of
396 northern peatlands will remain within a bioclimate zone suitable for continued growth, especially

397 given the likelihood of increased warm season precipitation alongside increased temperature that
398 would extend the growing season (Kirtman *et al.*, 2013). The data presented here largely support the
399 hypothesis that warmer climates with longer growing seasons support faster peat C accumulation
400 (Yu *et al.*, 2012; Charman *et al.*, 2013). We would therefore expect that under a future warmer
401 climate, the majority of northern peatlands will increase C accumulation rates, unless critically low
402 moisture limits are reached. It is notable that the long-term, broad-scale spatial and temporal
403 differences in C accumulation appear to be largely independent of differences in other
404 environmental variables such as vegetation, hydrology and perhaps fire. This is in contrast to
405 suggestions from modelling (Ise *et al.* 2008, Dorrepaal *et al.*, 2009) and short-term experiments (e.g.
406 Bragazza *et al.*, 2012) that suggest significant implications for future peatland C balance from
407 changes in decay rates, N deposition and other factors.

408 For areas that are currently at the southern or northern limit of peat growth, response to future
409 climate change may be more variable. In northern areas, longer growing seasons, higher summer
410 temperatures and increased summer precipitation may result in initiation of new peatlands. Our
411 data suggest that the early successional stages accumulate relatively rapidly, so these peatlands may
412 sequester significant amounts of carbon. This is supported by data from peatlands dominated by
413 sedge communities throughout the Holocene (Yu *et al.*, 2014b), and the shifts between
414 ombrotrophic and minerotrophic systems also have important implications for methane emissions
415 (Packalen and Finkelstein, 2014). For peatlands at the modern southern limit of peatland occurrence,
416 warmer temperatures and the potential for reduced summer precipitation are likely to push
417 peatlands below the moisture threshold where they can benefit from increased growing season
418 length, such that peat accumulation rates will decrease or cease, with the potential for a negative C
419 balance. The lower mid-Holocene accumulation rates of the two southernmost sites (SYB in Maine
420 and PTB in Nova Scotia) suggest that reduced accumulation rates have occurred in the past when
421 temperatures were only slightly higher than present north of 30° N (Marcott *et al.*, 2013).

422 Past changes are only a guide to the longer term future of northern peatlands and the range of
423 climate and environmental conditions they have been exposed to in the past may be too limited for
424 projection by analogy. However, the growing body of palaeoenvironmental literature suggests that
425 the peatland-climate link warrants further consideration of long-term response to climate and the
426 interaction with successional change.

427

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434

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Figure captions

Figure 1: Site location map.

Figure 2: Age-depth models for all sites, constructed using the R package, Bacon. See section 2 for further details. L – R: Burnt Village Bog, Newfoundland; Petite Bog, Nova Scotia; Sidney Bog, Maine.

Figure 3: Physical properties and proxy data for Burnt Village Bog, Newfoundland. L – R: Bulk density; %C; %N; C:N ratio; C accumulation rate per year; testate-amoeba reconstructed depth to water table; summary plant macrofossil composition (red = Ericaceae, blue = monocots, green = bryophytes). See section 2 for further details.

Figure 4: Physical properties and proxy data for Petite Bog, Nova Scotia. L – R: Bulk density; %C; %N; C:N ratio; C accumulation rate per year; testate-amoeba reconstructed depth to water table; summary plant macrofossil composition (red = Ericaceae, blue = monocots, green = bryophytes); % charcoal. See section 2 for further details.

Figure 5: Physical properties and proxy data for Sidney Bog, Maine. L – R: Bulk density; %C; %N; C:N ratio; C accumulation rate per year; testate-amoeba reconstructed depth to water table; summary plant macrofossil composition (red = Ericaceae, blue = monocots, green = bryophytes); % charred remains. See section 2 for further details.

Figure 6: Long-term carbon accumulation rates (500 year mean values) for all three sites with \pm 95% confidence intervals. Grey line = Burnt Village Bog, Newfoundland; Black line with open circles = Petite Bog, Nova Scotia; black line with closed circles = Sidney Bog, Maine.

Site name	Location	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Elevation (m)	Total core depth (cm)	Number of ¹⁴ C dates	Peat basal age (cal. years BP)	Mean JJA temp (°C)	JJA precip. (mm)	PAR0	GDD0	P/Eq moisture index
Burnt Village Bog	Newfoundland, Canada	51° 7.562	55° 55.645	28	575	26	8240 (545)	11.4	90	5370	1602	2.63
Petite Bog	Nova Scotia, Canada	45° 8.659	63° 56.219	50	868	32	11280 (856)	17.2	93	7369	2880	2.04
Sidney Bog	Maine, USA	44° 23.274	69° 47.260	24	750	31	9540 (725)	17.9	101	8079	2956	1.68

Table 1: Site data. Total core depth includes non-peat basal sediments. Basal age is the weighted mean age from the output of the BACON age-depth model, rounded to the nearest 10 years with depth of the dated sample in cm in parentheses. Climate data is extracted from the relevant 0.5 x 0.5° grid cell of the CLIMATE 2.2 dataset (Kaplan *et al.*, 2003). PAR0, GDD0 and the P/Eq moisture index are calculated *sensu* Charman *et al.* (2013).

	Burnt Village Bog		Petite Bog		Sidney Bog	
	Cumulative	2000 yr interval	Cumulative	2000 yr interval	Cumulative	2000 yr interval
Past 2000 years	31.1	31.1	58.6	58.6	103.6	103.6
Past 4000 years	60.3	29.1	118.7	60.2	184.9	81.3
Past 6000 years	120.3	60.1	171.7	53	229.8	44.9
Past 8000 years	192	71.7	188.6	16.8	296.9	67.2

Table 2: Total carbon accumulation (Kg C m⁻²) for all three sites for 2000 year intervals and cumulative C over the past 8000 years.

Site name	North American summer temperature	Reconstructed water table	% N	Bryophytes	Ericaceae	Monocots	Charred remains	Charcoal
Burnt Village Bog	-0.225 (0.009)	0.128	0.276 (0.001)	-0.473 (0.001)	0.007	0.153 (0.075)	-	-
Petite Bog	-0.056	-0.027	-0.021	0.100	0.141 (0.041)	-0.122 (0.076)	0.178 (0.009)	0.040
Sidney Bog	-0.177 (0.019)	0.170 (0.032)	0.011	0.098	0.020	-0.083	-0.097	-

Table 3: Correlation coefficients (r values) between carbon accumulation per year and climate/environmental variables for all sites. All p values < 0.1 are shown in parentheses, with significant relationships with p values (<0.05) also shown in bold.

Site name	North American summer temperature	Reconstructed water table	% N	Bryophytes	Ericaceae	Monocots	Charred remains	Charcoal
Burnt Village Bog	L 31.7, H 24.6 (0.02)	L 21.8, H 26.3	L 26.3, H 36.9 (<0.001)	L 38.6, H 21.6 (<0.001)	L 35.9, H 30.7	L 24.3, H 35.4 (0.001)	-	-
Petite Bog	L 32.2, H 28.1 (0.04)	L 27, H 27.8	L 28.9, H 30.4	L 28.1, H 28.7	L 27.8, H 35.4 (0.01)	L 33.2, H 29.2	-	-
Sidney Bog	L 47.8, H 37 (0.007)	L 44.6, H 58.7	L 42.2, H 51.1 (0.04)	L 38.8, H 42.3	L 42.2, H 50.3	L 40, H 38.8	L 45.9, H 37.7	-

Table 4: Low (L) and high (H) mean carbon accumulation rates ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) associated with the extreme quartiles of climate/environmental variables. All significant p values < 0.05 from two-tailed, two-sample t-tests assuming homoscedascity are shown in parentheses are shown in bold. No test for charred remains and charcoal values was possible at PTB, due to a high proportion of zero values.

Carbon accumulation per year					Carbon accumulation 500 year averages				
	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>		<i>Adj. R</i> ²	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>
All sites combined	0.14	16.37	< 0.001		All sites combined	0.18	4.76	0.005	
<i>Ericaceae</i>			0.0001	3.88	<i>WTD</i>			< 0.001	-3.61
<i>Viau temperature</i>			0.0004	-3.51	<i>Ericaceae</i>			0.05	1.99
<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.007	2.68	<i>%N</i>			0.06	-1.91
<i>%N</i>			0.08	9.88	Burnt Village Bog	0.74	7.9	0.009	
Burnt Village Bog	0.24	6.922	< 0.001		<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.002	-4.85
<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.003	-3.01	<i>WTD</i>			0.006	-3.83
<i>Monocots</i>			0.034	-2.15	<i>%N</i>			0.04	-2.59
<i>%N</i>			0.11	-1.59	<i>Ericaceae</i>			0.04	-2.46
<i>WTD</i>			0.12	1.56	<i>Monocots</i>			0.05	2.39
Petite Bog	0.05	2.686	0.016		Petite Bog	0.48	7.48	0.002	
<i>Viau temperature</i>			0.01	-2.42	<i>WTD</i>			0.001	-3.77
<i>Monocots</i>			0.02	-2.27	<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.005	3.24
<i>%N</i>			0.16	1.381	<i>Ericaceae</i>			0.116	1.65
<i>WTD</i>			0.33	-0.97	Sidney Bog	0.45	5.44	0.01	
Sidney Bog	0.12	4.283	< 0.001		<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.001	3.92
<i>Bryophytes</i>			0.002	3.23	<i>Monocots</i>			0.008	3.13
<i>%N</i>			0.03	2.19	<i>WTD</i>			0.17	1.44
<i>Ericaceae</i>			0.09	1.71					
<i>Viau temperature</i>			0.12	-1.54					

Table 5: Summary of results from multivariate linear modelling of relationships between carbon accumulation and environmental variables for all sites combined and for individual sites.

Figure 1

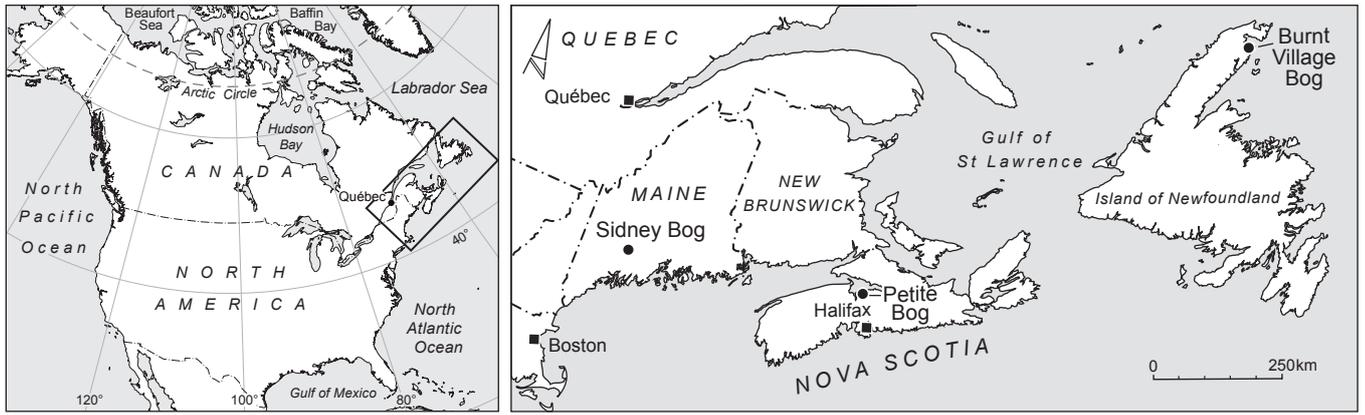


Figure 2

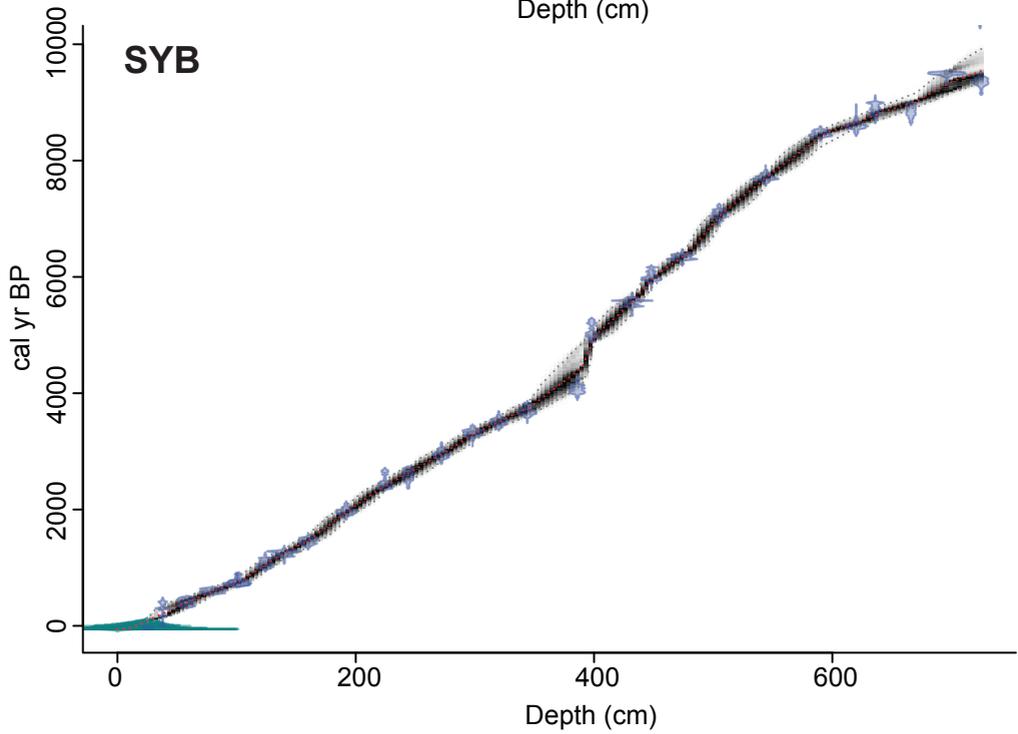
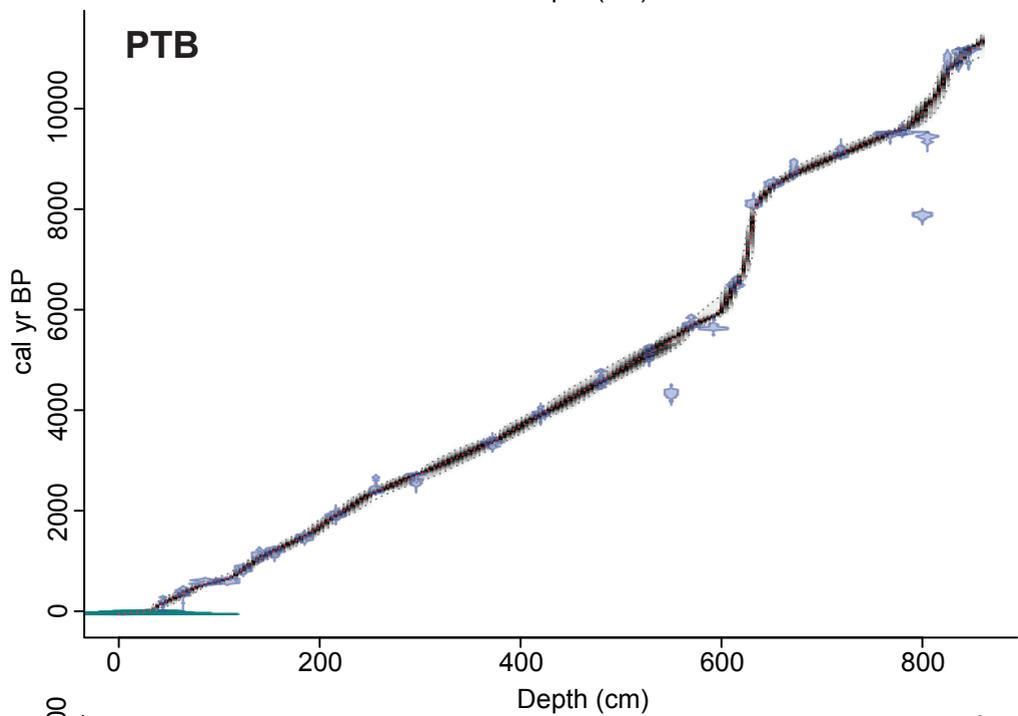
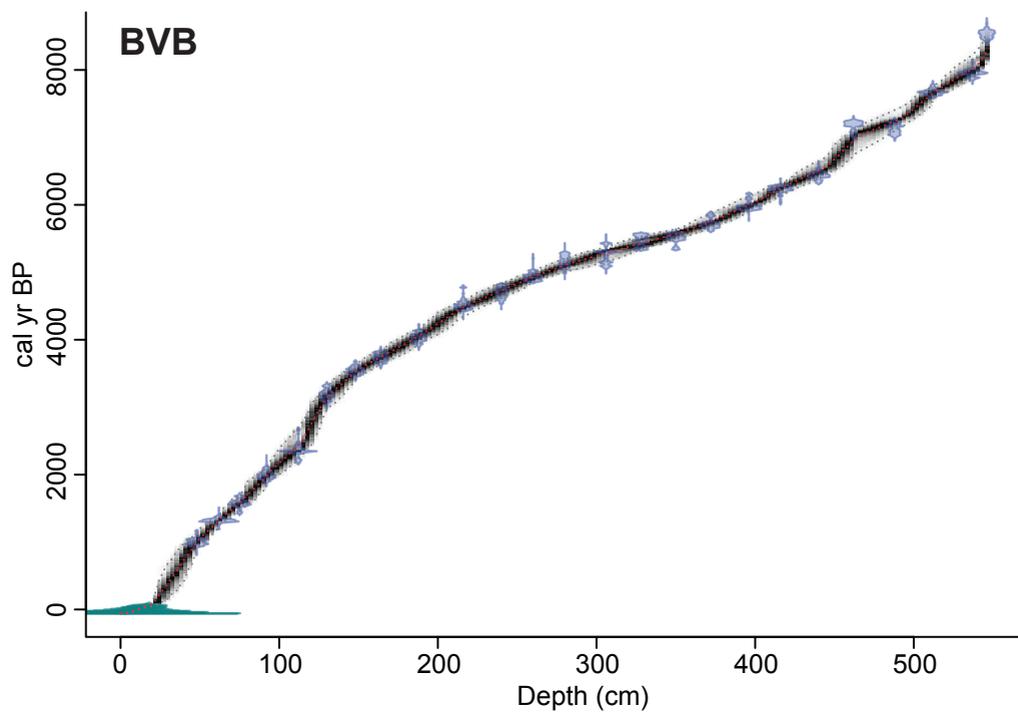


Figure 3

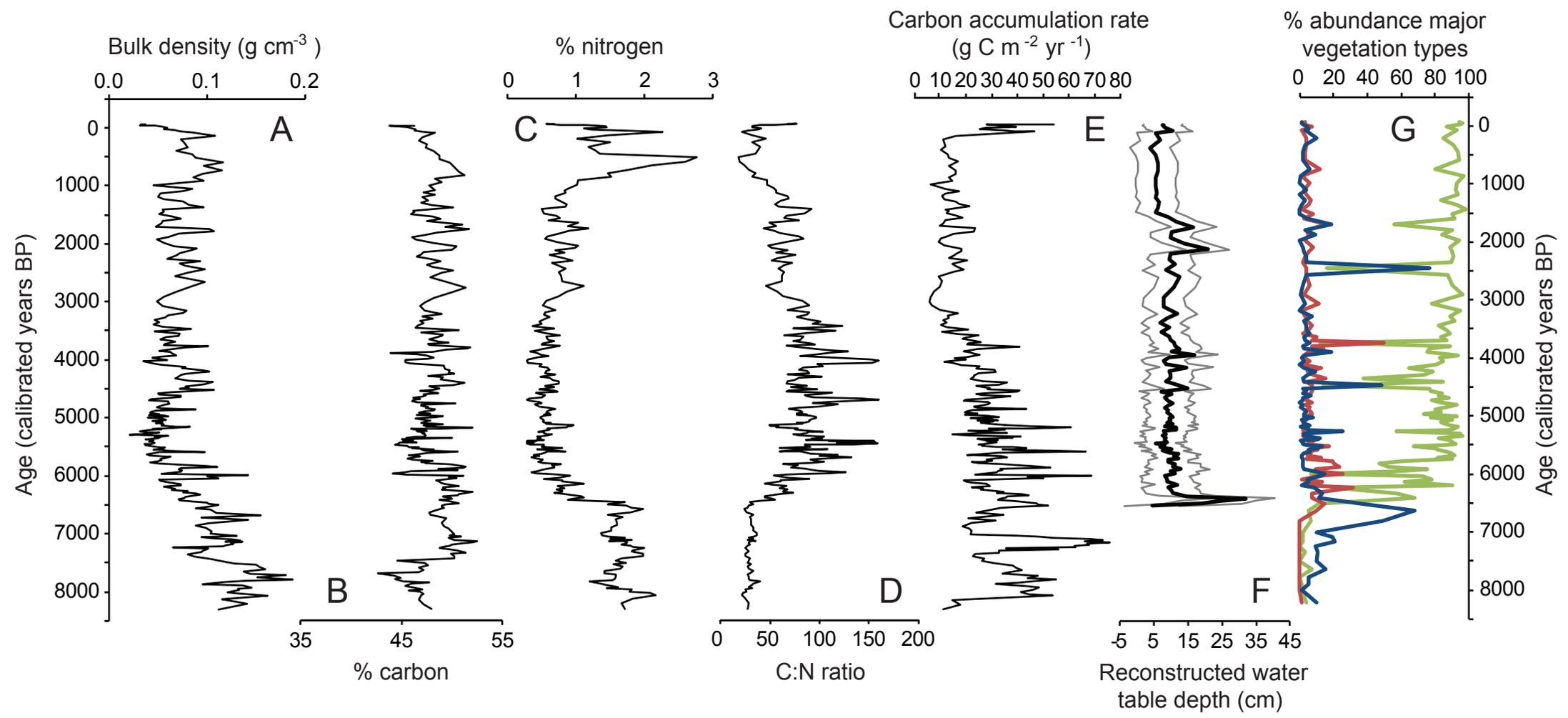


Figure 4

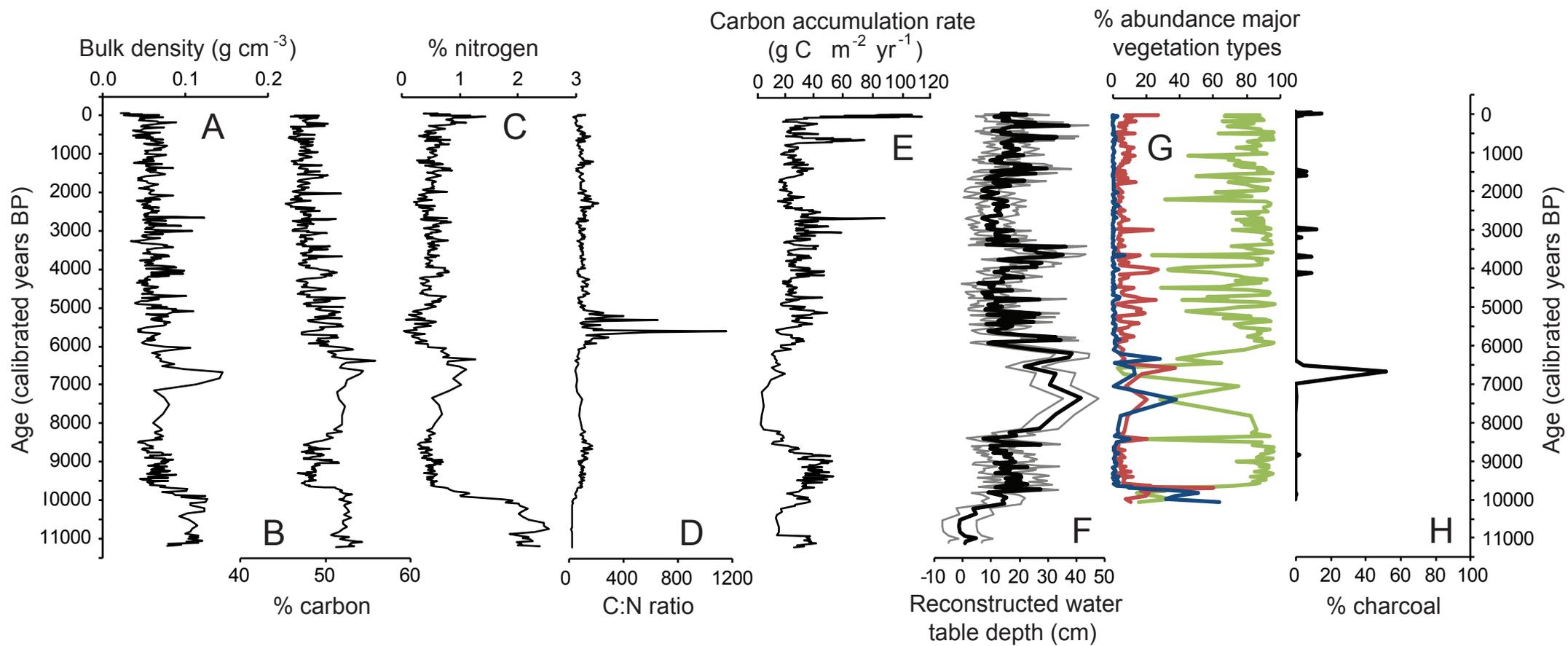


Figure 5

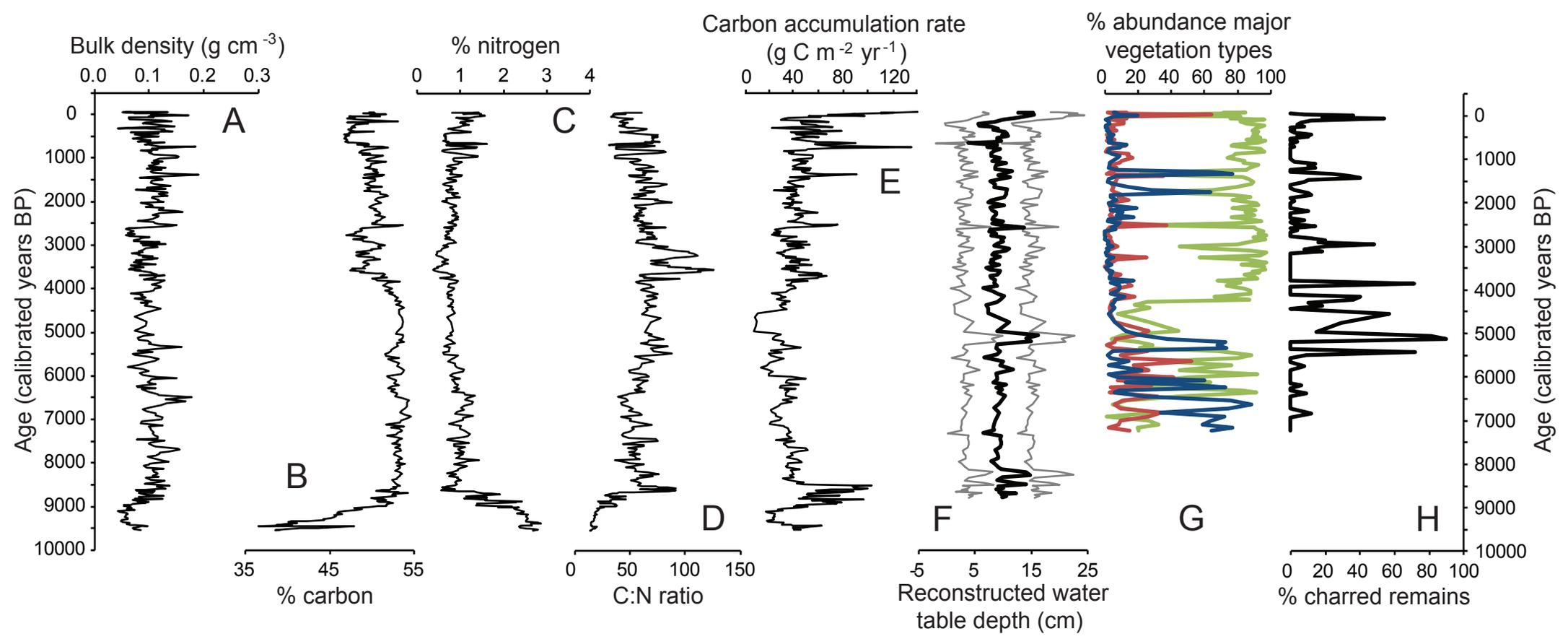
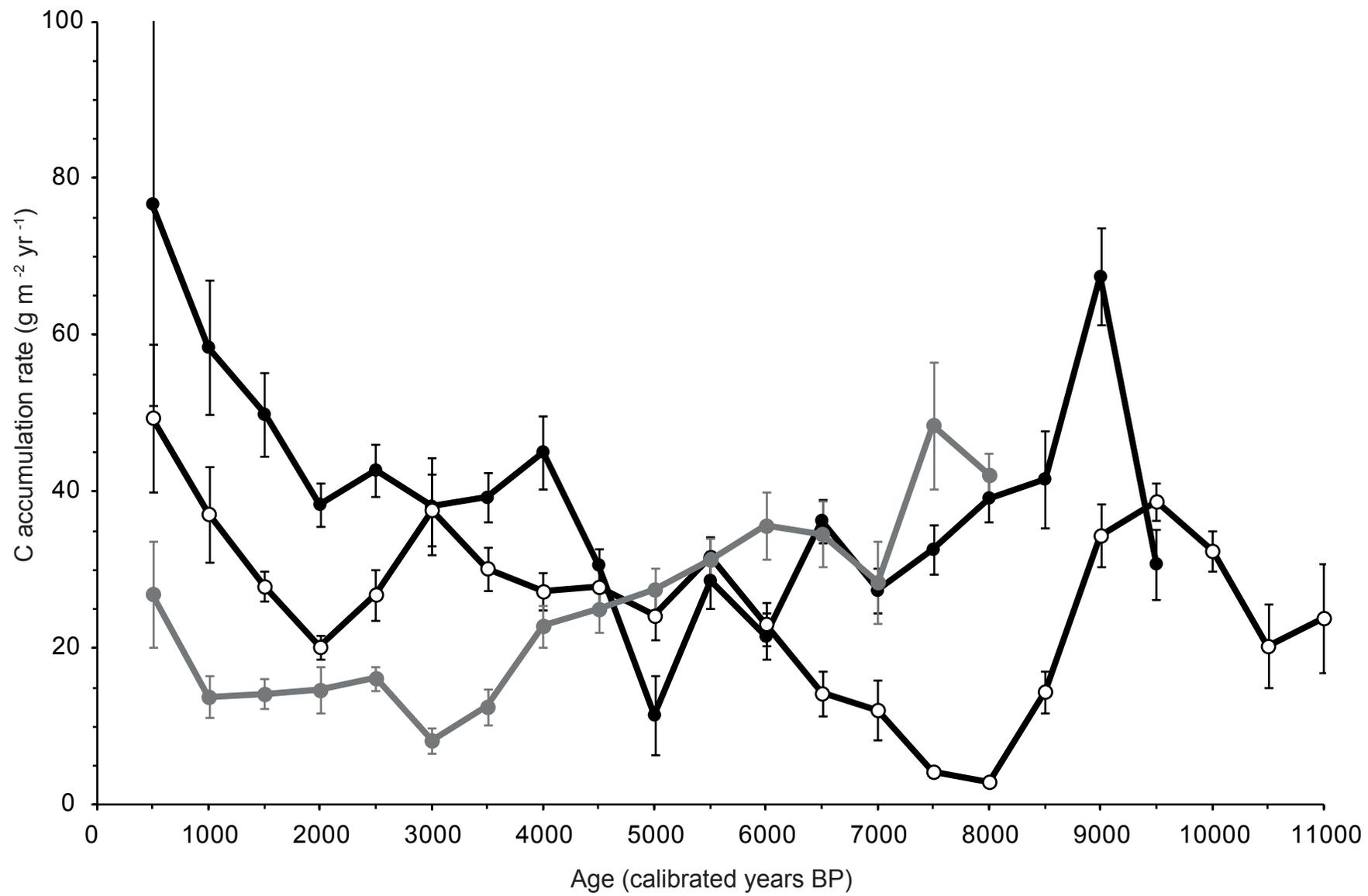


Figure 6



Supplementary Data

[Click here to download Supplementary Data: Supplementary Tables R2.docx](#)