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2 Running head: Recent boreal peatland-climate feedback

3 **Decreased carbon accumulation feedback driven by climate-**
4 **induced drying of two southern boreal bogs over recent centuries**

5 Hui Zhang^{1,2,3*}, Minna Väiliranta^{2,3}, Sanna Piilo^{2,3}, Matthew J. Amesbury^{2,4}, Marco A. Aquino-
6 López⁵, Thomas P. Roland⁴, Susanna Salminen-Paatero⁶, Jussi Paatero⁷, Annalea Lohila^{1,7},
7 Eeva-Stiina Tuittila⁸

8 ¹Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research (INAR), Department of Physics, P.O.
9 Box 68 (Pietari Kalmin katu 5), University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

10 ²Environmental Change Research Unit (ECRU), Ecosystems and Environment Research
11 Programme, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

12 ³Helsinki Institute of Sustainability Science (HELSUS), Helsinki, Finland

13 ⁴Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, UK

14 ⁵Arts and Humanities Institute, Maynooth University, Maynooth, Ireland

15 ⁶Department of Chemistry, Radiochemistry, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

16 ⁷Finnish Meteorological Institute, Helsinki, Finland

17 ⁸School of Forest Sciences, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu, Finland

18 *Correspondence to: Hui Zhang, +358413690427, hui.zhang@helsinki.fi

19 Hui Zhang: ORCID: 0000-0002-3758-5722,

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23 **Abstract**

24 Northern boreal peatlands are important ecosystems in modulating global biogeochemical
25 cycles, yet their biological communities and related carbon dynamics are highly sensitive to
26 changes in climate. Despite this, the strength and recent direction of these feedbacks are still
27 unclear. The response of boreal peatlands to climate warming has received relatively little
28 attention compared with other northern peatland types, despite forming a large northern
29 hemisphere-wide ecosystem. Here we studied the response of two ombrotrophic boreal
30 peatlands to climate variability over the last *c.* 200 years for which local meteorological data
31 are available. We used remains from plants and testate amoebae to study historical changes in
32 peatland biological communities. These data were supplemented by peat property (bulk density,
33 carbon and nitrogen content), ^{14}C , ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs analyses and were used to infer changes in
34 peatland hydrology and carbon dynamics. In total, six peat cores, three per study site, were
35 studied that represent different microhabitats: low hummock, high lawn and low lawn. The data
36 show a consistent drying trend over recent centuries, represented mainly as a change from wet
37 habitat *Sphagnum* spp. to dry habitat *S. fuscum*. Summer temperature and precipitation
38 appeared to be important drivers shaping peatland community and surface moisture conditions.
39 Data from the driest microhabitat studied, low hummock, revealed a clear and strong negative
40 linear correlation ($R^2 = 0.5031$, $p < 0.001$) between carbon accumulation rate and peat surface
41 moisture conditions: under dry conditions, less carbon was accumulated. This suggests that at
42 the dry end of the moisture gradient, availability of water regulates carbon accumulation. It can
43 be further linked to the decreased abundance of mixotrophic testate amoebae under drier
44 conditions ($R^2 = 0.4207$, $p < 0.001$). Our study implies that if effective precipitation decreases
45 in the future, the carbon uptake capacity of boreal bogs may be threatened.

46 **Introduction**

47 Peatlands play a key role in global biogeochemical cycling by fixing atmospheric CO₂ through
48 plant photosynthesis and releasing CO₂ and CH₄ through decomposition. Peatland biological
49 communities (plants and microbes) are strongly controlled by temperature and hydrology,
50 which affect peatland carbon (C) sequestration and sink potential (Jassey et al., 2015; Laine et
51 al., 2019; McPartland et al., 2019; Riutta et al., 2007). Bog plant communities dominated by
52 *Sphagna* are sensitive to environmental change, especially during the growing season (Loisel,
53 Gallego-Sala, & Yu, 2012), and plant functional type successions may even occur under climate
54 change, which could impact peatland carbon sink capacity (Loisel et al., 2014). Likewise,
55 testate amoebae, the dominant group of protozoa in peatlands, play an important role in nutrient
56 and carbon cycling (Gilbert, Amblard, Bourdier, & Francez, 1998). In particular, mixotrophic
57 testate amoebae (MTA), which partly rely on photosynthesis, contribute to carbon sequestration
58 in *Sphagnum* peatlands (Lara and Gomaa, 2017). Due to their sensitivity to hydrology
59 (Charman, Hendon, & Woodland, 2000), climate change may alter the abundance of
60 mixotrophic testate amoebae in *Sphagnum* peatlands, and thus carbon uptake. Despite their
61 small size and biomass, it has been shown that a 50% decrease in the biomass of MTA can be
62 linked to a significant reduction of net C uptake (-13%) of the entire *Sphagnum* bryosphere
63 (Jassey et al., 2015).

64 Whilst global scale warming is projected to continue, precipitation patterns remain more
65 regionally variable (Collins et al., 2013). The climate model intercomparison project (CMIP5)
66 under an RCP8.5 scenario predicts warmer and wetter climate for Fennoscandia (Collins et al.,
67 2013). However, these predictions cannot be directly applied to infer peatland hydrological

68 conditions, which are ecohydrologically complex due to the synchronous forcing of
69 precipitation, evapotranspiration and runoff (Wu, Kutzbach, Jager, Wille, & Wilmking, 2010;
70 Zhang et al., 2018a), supplemented by autogenically-driven successional processes (Tuittila,
71 Väiliranta, Laine, & Korhola, 2007).

72 Millennial-scale peat proxy studies from southern Finland have shown dynamic community
73 variations, with variations both between plant functional types and within *Sphagnum* spp.
74 (Tuittila et al., 2007; Väiliranta et al., 2007, 2012). However, to date, there is a lack of studies
75 on more recent peatland dynamics in southern Finland and their response to recent climate
76 change, such as post Little Ice Age (LIA; ca. AD 1400-1850) warming or human-induced
77 warming since the late 1900s. Tree ring-based climate reconstructions (Helama et al., 2014)
78 and instrumental measurements from southern Finland suggest a clear increase in summer
79 temperatures since the LIA, with cooler and wetter summers during the LIA giving way to
80 increasingly warmer summer temperatures towards the end of the 20th century (Helama,
81 Meriläinen, & Tuomenvirta, 2009; Luoto & Helama, 2010). Experimental studies applying
82 open top chambers or mesocosms that started in the 2000s provide empirical short-term
83 simulation data of peatland responses to different climate conditions (Dieleman, Branfireun,
84 McLaughlin, & Lindo, 2015; Mäkiranta et al., 2018; Ward et al., 2013; Weltzin, Bridgham,
85 Pastor, Chen, & Harth, 2003; Wiedermann, Nordin, Gunnarsson, Nilsson, & Ericson, 2007). A
86 very recent experimental study of plant community response to a 15 year-long water-table
87 drawdown suggested that fen vegetation is less resilient to water level changes, with these
88 communities experiencing clear species turnover, while bog vegetation appeared to be more
89 resistant (Kokkonen et al., 2019). Considering this potentially slower response time of bog
90 vegetation to changes in the environment, there is a need for studies which capture longer time

91 periods than allowed by field experiments. Aerial photographs offer decadal-scale opportunity
92 to observe changes in peatland environments but mainly at a landscape scale (Jauhiainen,
93 Holopainen, & Rasinmäki, 2007; Tahvanainen, 2011). Only the most modern remote sensing
94 techniques are accurate enough to investigate small-scale changes in vegetation type
95 composition (e.g., vascular plants, mosses) over a few decades (Mikola et al., 2018). Proxy-
96 based analysis of peat profiles has the potential to provide accurate and long-term perspectives
97 on peatland dynamics over centuries, but so far, in the boreal climate zone it has only been
98 recently applied to permafrost peatlands in western Canada (Magnan et al., 2018; Piilo et al.,
99 2019; van Bellen et al., 2018). In short, there is a clear gap in understanding the responses and
100 feedbacks of boreal bogs to on-going warming over timescales (i.e. decadal to centennial)
101 relevant to contemporary and future climate and environmental change scenarios.

102 The links between vegetation, moisture conditions and climate are vital in understanding past,
103 and in modelling future, peatland carbon dynamics (Frolking et al., 2010; Strack, Waddington,
104 Rochefort, & Tuittila, 2006). Currently, large uncertainties remain in models of peatland
105 dynamics due to a lack of quantitative understanding on peatland vegetation successions on
106 decadal to centennial time scales. This study aims to quantifiably test whether changes in plant
107 and testate amoeba communities, as well as carbon accumulation, are related to local climate
108 variation over the past 200-300 years – a period that captures both post-LIA and post-industrial
109 climate warming. More specifically, we aim to 1) reconstruct changes in peatland vegetation,
110 hydrology and carbon dynamics over the past 200–300 years; 2) link the detected changes in
111 peatland dynamics to measured climate parameters, namely summer temperature and
112 precipitation; 3) determine the vegetation-hydroclimate-carbon dynamic feedbacks in boreal
113 peatlands. To address the microtopographically heterogeneous nature of bogs, we examined

114 three different microhabitats at each study site. This experimental design enabled habitat-to-
115 habitat and site-to-site comparisons and provides the first high-resolution centennial-scale
116 multiproxy study for northern boreal bogs in which replicated ^{210}Pb and ^{14}C -dated peat records
117 encompassing different microhabitats are presented.

118

119 **Material and methods**

120 *Study sites and sampling*

121 The two study sites, Siikaneva (61.83650°N, 24.17262° E) and Lakkasuo (61.78625° N,
122 24.30908° E), are located in southern Finland (Figure 1), *c.* 6 km from one another and in
123 separate hydrological catchments. Based on the 30-year averages (1981–2010) from the nearest
124 weather station, Juupajoki-Hyytiälä (61.8456° N, 24°29'06" E), the mean annual temperature of
125 the area is 4.2 °C and mean annual precipitation is 711 mm (Pirinen et al., 2012).

126 The Siikaneva peatland complex, which is surrounded mainly by boreal forest (Figure 1a),
127 contains both fen and bog areas. The studied peat cores were collected within the bog area,
128 which hosts a well-pronounced microtopography represented by open-water pools, bare peat
129 surfaces, hollows and higher and drier lawns and hummocks (Korrensalo et al., 2018). The bog
130 surface is covered by *Sphagnum* mosses, except in the ponds and bare peat surfaces. *Sphagnum*
131 *fuscum* and *S. rubellum* grow on hummocks, where vascular plant vegetation is dominated by
132 dwarf shrubs, such as *Andromeda polifolia*, *Calluna vulgaris* and *Empetrum nigrum*.
133 *Eriophorum vaginatum* is also found on hummocks and is common on lawns, where the moss
134 layer is dominated by *S. magellanicum* and *S. rubellum*. Wet hollows are dominated by *S.*

135 *cuspidatum* and *S. majus*, *Carex limosa*, *Rhynchospora alba* and *Scheuchzeria palustris*.

136 Lakkasuo peatland is an eccentric raised peatland complex surrounded by boreal forests (Figure
137 1b). The sampled bog area is a mosaic of ecohydrological gradients from dry hummocks, to
138 intermediate lawns and wet hollows (Andersen et al., 2011). The habitat-specific vegetation
139 features are similar to those at Siikaneva.

140 Samples were collected in October 2016 using a 60-cm long box corer from the transition zone
141 between hummock and hollow, the extreme ends of moisture gradient, because the transition
142 zone is most sensitive to changing environmental conditions (De Vleeschouwer, Chambers, &
143 Swindles, 2010). At each site, we collected three peat cores along a moisture gradient within
144 the transition zone: from low hummock (LH), high lawn (HL) and low lawn (LL) (Figure 1c,
145 Table 1). Water-table depth (WTD, cm) at each sampling point was measured and dominant
146 vegetation of the coring point was surveyed (Table 1). Individual cores were wrapped in plastic
147 and transported to the laboratory in sealed PVC tubes and stored in a freezer. The cores were
148 later defrosted and sub-sampled in 1-cm thick slices for further analyses. In addition, a survey
149 of surface vegetation and WTD (measured over the 2016 growing season) was also carried out
150 at both sites. In total, 19 plots were investigated, covering the main variations in vegetation.

151

152 *Chronology*

153 Radiocarbon (^{14}C), lead (^{210}Pb) and caesium (^{137}Cs) dating methods were used to establish the
154 chronologies. In total, six basal bulk peat samples, which represent equally good dating
155 materials as picked plant remains, especially for *Sphagnum* bogs (Holmquist et al., 2016), were

156 sent to Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory (Poznan, Poland) for ^{14}C dating. Roots and rootlets
157 were picked out and discarded to avoid contamination. The chemical pre-treatment followed
158 the standard acid-base acid method for peat samples (coded as WW) (Brock, Higham,
159 Ditchfield, & Ramsey, 2010). The chronology of the top part of each core (*c.* 40 cm) was
160 determined primarily with ^{210}Pb dating. The ^{210}Pb dating samples were treated at the University
161 of Exeter, UK (cores SLH, SHL, LLH and LHL) and University of Helsinki, Finland (cores
162 SLL and LLL). A dry *c.* 0.2-0.5 g subsample from each 1-cm or 2-cm interval was analysed for
163 ^{210}Pb activity after spiking with a ^{209}Po yield tracer; see Kelly et al. (2017) and Estop-Aragonés
164 et al. (2018) for detailed procedure. The alpha spectrometry counting was conducted at the
165 University of Exeter for all the cores. Additionally, caesium (^{137}Cs) dating with γ spectrometry,
166 which provides date “markers”, was applied on single core SLH at the Finnish Meteorological
167 Institute to validate the ^{210}Pb results (Arnaud et al., 2006; Jeter 2000). The ^{137}Cs -peak,
168 indicating 1986 AD (when the Chernobyl disaster occurred), was used as a date maker and
169 integrated into the age-depth model of SLH.

170 Age-depth models were developed using *Plum* (Aquino-López et al., 2018) in R version 3.6.0
171 (R Core Team, 2019). ^{14}C ages were calibrated using the IntCal13 calibration curve (Reimer et
172 al., 2013). Total ^{210}Pb data (Bq/Kg) were inputted in *Plum* and the number of samples which
173 *Plum* used was determined by the pre-analysis within the software with exception of those cases
174 where equilibrium was reached in the three or less deepest samples (LLH, LHL, SHL and SLL).
175 *Plum* is capable of integrating ^{210}Pb and radiocarbon dates into a single chronology by avoiding
176 remodelling of the ^{210}Pb , resulting in an unbiased chronology. This study represents the first
177 application of *Plum* that integrates both ^{14}C and ^{210}Pb .

178

179 *Proxy analyses*

180 Plant macrofossil analysis was undertaken for all six cores at 1- to 2-cm resolution. For the four
181 cores characterised as low hummock and high lawn ecotones, where the plant records indicated
182 changes in hydrology, we also conducted testate amoeba analysis as we expected these changes
183 to be more reliably visible in testate amoeba records (Gałka, Tobolski, Górska & Lamentowicz,
184 2017; Väiliranta et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018a). Testate amoeba analysis was first performed
185 at 4-cm resolution, but in cases where prominent changes occurred, the resolution was increased
186 to 2-cm. The lower resolution was sufficient where the proxy-based WTD reconstruction was
187 used as an environmental variable in explaining carbon accumulation patterns, as carbon
188 accumulation rate calculations were completed at 4-cm resolution and were therefore
189 comparable with the testate amoeba results.

190 Plant macrofossil analysis was performed following Väiliranta et al. (2007). Volumetric samples
191 (*c.* 5 cm³) were gently rinsed under running water using a 140- μ m sieve. No chemical treatment
192 was applied. Remains retained on the sieve were identified. Proportions of different plant types
193 and unidentifiable organic matter (UOM) were estimated with the aid of a scale paper under a
194 petri dish using a stereomicroscope at the magnification of 10 – 40. Further identification to
195 species level was carried out using a high-power light microscope at the magnification of 100
196 – 200. Plant-based WTD reconstruction was carried out using the modern vegetation survey
197 data from the Siikaneva and Lakkasuo sites based on a weighted average approach; transfer
198 function development followed the methods described in Zhang et al. (2017).

199 Processing of testate amoeba samples followed a modified version of the standard method
200 (Booth, Lamentowicz & Charman, 2010). Samples were boiled in distilled water for 15 min
201 and stirred occasionally. The samples were then sieved with a 300- μm mesh and back sieved
202 with a 15- μm mesh. Materials retained on the 15- μm sieve were centrifuged at 3000 r.p.m. for
203 5 min. At least 100 individual shells for each sample were counted and identified to species or
204 “type” level under a light microscope at the magnification of 200 – 400. Taxonomy followed
205 Charman et al. (2000), supplemented with online sources (Siemensma, 2019). Testate amoeba-
206 based WTD reconstructions were performed using the transfer function developed by
207 Amesbury et al. (2016). Absolute WTD values (the larger the values the drier the conditions)
208 were normalized to z scores over the length of each core (Swindles et al., 2015). $Z > 0$ indicates
209 drier conditions than the sequence’s average, $z < 0$ indicates conditions wetter than average.
210 We calculated the total proportion of mixotrophic testate amoeba taxa (here *Amphitrema*
211 *wrightianum*, *Archerella flavum*, *Heleopera sphagni*, *Hyalosphenia papilio*, *Placocista spinosa*)
212 that contribute to carbon cycling in peatlands (Jassey et al., 2015).

213 A LOESS smoothing function with a span-value (degree of smoothing) setting of 0.5 was
214 applied to the compiled proxy-wise WTD (z scores) dataset to explore the overall hydrological
215 changes reflected on different proxies. The analysis was completed using the function `loess ()`
216 in R version 3.6.0.

217

218 *Peat property analyses and carbon accumulation*

219 Contiguous samples of known volume (5 cm³) were extracted from the cores at 1-cm resolution

220 and freeze-dried. Samples were then weighed to enable calculation of bulk density (g cm^{-3}),
221 which was done by dividing the dry peat weight (g) by the wet peat volume (cm^3). Percentage
222 of carbon and nitrogen content by mass was measured at every 4 cm on homogenously ground
223 sub-samples using a Micro Cube Elemental Vario CNS-analyzer at the University of Helsinki,
224 Finland. Carbon-to-nitrogen mass ratios (C/N) were calculated from C and N content data.

225 Vertical growth rates for each peat core were calculated based on the mean age estimates
226 derived from the age-depth models. Apparent carbon accumulation rate (ACAR; $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$)
227 was calculated by multiplying the bulk density of a depth-specific increment by its C content
228 and by the accumulation rate. Peat decay modelling (Clymo, 1984) was used to derive the
229 allogenic impacts-forced carbon accumulation variations (Zhang et al., 2018b). The Clymo
230 model (1984) was first applied on the cumulative peat mass (bulk density) data to derive peat
231 addition rate (p) and peat decay coefficient (α) using the curve fitting
232 method. After which the derived parameters p , α and carbon content were
233 used to calculate carbon accumulation rate (CAR) under constant
234 conditions (autogenic accumulation). The difference (presented
235 as CAR z scores) between ACAR and CAR are therefore interpreted
236 to be driven by allogenic forcing.

237

238 *Environmental drivers on carbon accumulation*

239 To address the environmental controls on carbon accumulation
240 patterns, linear regression analysis (95% confidence intervals

241 displayed) was applied to carbon accumulation rates and
242 potential environmental variables. The environmental variables
243 included reconstructed WTD z scores from testate amoebae for
244 cores SLH, SHL, LLH and LHL, and from plant macrofossils for
245 cores SLL and LLL; measured July–August temperature (thereafter
246 referred to as summer temperature) data (1829–2016) from the
247 Finnish Meteorological Institute; mixotrophic testate amoeba
248 proportion for SLH, SHL, LLH and LHL. The analyses were first
249 applied for individual cores and when this suggested that cores
250 from the same habitat had similar patterns, habitat-specific
251 analyses were performed and used for further discussions. The
252 analysis was carried out using the `lm()` function in R version 3.6.0.

253

254 **Results**

255 *Chronology and vertical peat growth*

256 The studied peat cores from Siikaneva were dated to *c.* 1700–1820 AD, while Lakkasuo peat
257 cores yielded basal ages of *c.* 1710–1760 AD. The ¹⁴C dating of the basal sample from core
258 SHL yielded a modern age and was detected as an outlier in the age-depth model. *Plum* uses a
259 gamma autoregressive model to construct the chronology, this model gathers information from
260 all the measurements and uses it to infer an age estimate at any depth (even when the
261 measurements are not present). In the case of SHL, *Plum* used the information from the first 40

262 cm, where ^{210}Pb was measured, to infer a trend and memory parameters which allowed the
263 model to conclude that the ^{14}C date was an outlier and then provided an age estimate given the
264 information provided by the ^{210}Pb data, although with a bigger uncertainty, therefore the
265 chronology of the section below *c.* 40 cm should be interpreted with caution. Peat accumulation
266 rates have been relatively consistent within Lakkasuo peatland during recent centuries, while
267 larger variations within individual peat cores and between different cores occurred at Siikaneva
268 site (Tables 1 and S1-3, Figure 2).

269

270 *Past vegetation succession*

271 The plant macrofossil assemblages recorded *in situ* vegetation dynamics over the past *c.* 200–
272 300 years. In all the six cores, *Sphagnum* spp. were the dominant component, occasionally
273 accompanied by other taxa such as *Eriophorum vaginatum*, *Myrica anomala* and *Ericaceae* spp.
274 (Figure 3).

275 For the driest low hummock habitat, *S. fuscum* and *S. rubellum* dominated core SLH from *c.*
276 1710–1950 AD, after this *S. fuscum* was the only abundant taxon accompanied by *Eriophorum*
277 *vaginatum* from *c.* 1980 to 2000 AD. Lakkasuo core LLH was first occupied by *S. balticum* and
278 *S. magellanicum* during *c.* 1710–1770 AD, after which *S. fuscum* became abundant.

279 For the mid-range high lawn habitat, at Siikaneva *S. rubellum* was abundant throughout the
280 whole section, with *S. balticum* present from *c.* 1820 to 2005 AD but *S. fuscum* was more
281 commonly recorded after *c.* 1990 AD. For the Lakkasuo record, the bottom sample at *c.* 1730
282 AD was dominated by *S. magellanicum*. After that, *S. balticum* was abundant with the presence

283 of *S. majus/cuspidatum* and *S. angustifolium* until c. 1960 AD. Afterwards, until the present, *S.*
284 *balticum* was accompanied by *S. fuscum*.

285 For the wettest low lawn habitat, vegetation was more variable than for the other two habitat
286 types. At first, c. 1740–1800 AD, the Siikaneva assemblage was dominated by *S. papillosum*
287 and *S. rubellum*, but then dominated by *S. cuspidatum* characteristic to wet hollows. Later the
288 habitat changed back to *S. papillosum*-dominated drier lawn (c. 1850 to 1970 AD), followed by
289 *S. rubellum*-dominated assemblage towards more recent times. The Lakkasuo assemblage was
290 initially occupied by *S. magellanicum* and *S. balticum* between c. 1810 and 1850 AD, followed
291 by *S. cuspidatum/majus* and *S. balticum*-dominated assemblages. Starting from c. 1890 AD, *S.*
292 *rubellum* became abundant.

293

294 *Reconstructed water-table depth (WTD)*

295 The plant macrofossil-based WTD transfer function had a good performance ($R^2 = 0.80$,
296 RMSEP = 4.35 cm). Model-derived tolerances around WTD optima were very narrow (1 to 3
297 cm) for species in wet habitats where water level is close to or at the moss surface, while species
298 adapted to drier habitats had larger tolerances, up to 12 cm (Figure S1).

299 In total, 40 testate amoeba taxa were detected from the four cores (Figure 3) that were used for
300 reconstructing WTD. *Archerella flavum* was dominant in all the cores, with also *Diffflugia pulex*
301 in the cores SLH, SHL and LLH, *Hyalosphenia elegans* in cores SHL and SLH, and *Alabasta*
302 *militaris* type in core SLH.

303 In core SLH, plant-based WTD showed only little variability, the range being within c. 5 cm,

304 but testate amoeba-based WTD showed more conspicuous variations, especially for the period
305 around *c.* 1840 AD in the late LIA where there is a remarkable wet to dry change (*c.* 10 cm)
306 (Figure 3). For core LLH, both proxies showed comparable WTD patterns, i.e. from wet
307 conditions before *c.* 1790 AD to dry conditions afterwards. The SHL testate amoeba record
308 suggests large moisture change towards wetter habitat conditions dated to *c.* 1940–1950 AD
309 but the plant-based WTD remained relatively stable; the assemblages were dominated by *S.*
310 *rubellum* with a large tolerance of 8 cm (Figure S1). For LHL, both reconstructions suggest a
311 wet phase between *c.* 1730 and 1830 AD and a dry period after *c.* 1960 AD. For the period
312 between them, *c.* 1830–1960 AD, plant-WTD shows more variations than testate amoeba-based
313 WTD, but both suggest medium dry conditions compared with the other two phases. For the
314 SLL record, no large hydrological changes were detected; the general conditions remained wet.
315 While the overall conditions at LLL were drier than SLL, especially after *c.* 1950 AD when the
316 water table went down, several more recent wet periods were captured.

317 In general, plant- and testate amoeba-based WTD reconstructions
318 support each other, while the latter tends to have more and/or
319 larger variations, as also suggested by previous studies (Gałka
320 et al., 2017; Väliiranta et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018a).
321 Therefore, we used testate amoeba-based WTD reconstructions for
322 linear regression analysis when available, i.e. for all the other
323 cores except low lawns where only plant-based WTD
324 reconstructions existed.

325

326 *Carbon accumulation and associations with environmental variables*

327 Peat properties varied with depth and between different records (Table 1). For all the studied
328 records, bulk density was 0.05 ± 0.01 (mean \pm SD) g cm^{-3} , carbon content was $43.01 \pm 2.34\%$,
329 while nitrogen content was $0.71 \pm 0.28\%$. Apparent carbon accumulation rates (ACAR) varied
330 considerably ($72.15 \pm 69.75 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). All the studied sections showed a rapid increase of
331 ACAR for the recent years (after 2000 AD) except the core LLL, which had relatively
332 consistent ACARs throughout (Figure 3).

333 Although CAR z scores (allogenic forcing-driven carbon accumulation rate variations) indicate
334 some core-specific features, the general pattern suggests that for low hummocks, high lawns
335 and Siikaneva low lawn the environmental changes have promoted carbon accumulation (i.e. z
336 > 0) before *c.* 1830–1850 AD and after 1980 to 2000 AD (Figure 3). But for Lakkasuo low
337 lawn, its CAR z scores only increased between the period from 1950 to 1990 AD.

338 For low hummocks there were significant correlations between all the studied environmental
339 variables and allogenic carbon accumulation variations measured as CAR z scores (Figure 4).
340 In contrast, correlations were not found for the two other habitats: high lawns and low lawns
341 (Figure S2). For low hummocks, a significant negative correlation ($R^2 = 0.5031$, $p < 0.001$) was
342 detected between CAR z scores and WTD (Figure 4a), meaning lower carbon accumulation in
343 drier conditions. The correlation between CAR z scores and summer temperature was positive
344 ($R^2 = 0.3184$, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 4b), but the correlation was weaker than between CAR z scores
345 and WTD. Abundance of mixotrophic testate amoebae were positively linked to carbon
346 accumulation ($R^2 = 0.4207$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 4c). A further investigation of the distribution

347 of mixotrophic testate amoebae in different habitats indicated that in low hummocks, the
348 abundance of mixotrophic testate amoebae was strongly linked to WTD (Figure S3; $R^2 = 0.7608$,
349 $p < 0.001$). However, in high lawns, this link was weaker, but still significant ($R^2 = 0.3006$, p
350 < 0.001).

351

352 **Discussion**

353 *Climate-driven centennial-scale bog surface drying*

354 We detected a consistent peatland surface drying, inferred from both proxies (Figures 3 and 5).
355 In general, testate amoeba records suggest a gradual drying since the 1800s, most clearly visible
356 in low hummocks and in the Lakkasuo high lawn core, while shifts in vegetation towards plant
357 communities adapted to drier microhabitat occurred either synchronously or a few decades later.
358 This drying trend is in line with another record from southern Finland, where *Sphagnum*
359 *rubellum* and *S. balticum* communities were replaced by a *S. fuscum*-dominated community at
360 around 1800 AD (Väliranta et al., 2007). At low hummocks and high lawns, the vegetation
361 change was reflected as a replacement of wet lawn *Sphagna* by dry hummock *Sphagna*, such
362 as *S. fuscum*. For low lawns, the changes were more gradual from wet hollow taxa to lawn or
363 even hummock taxa. Some previous studies have suggested that increase in *S. fuscum*
364 abundance might result from increased atmospheric nitrogen input (Vitt, Wieder, Halsey, &
365 Turetsky, 2003; Wieder et al., 2016). However, the geochemical analyses did not indicate any
366 increased nitrogen load on our peatlands. In addition, a previous study found that compared to,
367 for example, central Europe, Finland still has a markedly small nitrogen load (Dirnböck et al.,

368 2014). Therefore, our data suggest the changes in plant communities were mainly driven by
369 changes in (climate driven) hydrology.

370 Our results imply that changes in hydrology were related to changes in temperature and
371 precipitation. Most of the vegetation shifts towards drier communities occurred after the Little
372 Ice Age, which ended *c.* 1850 AD. However, we also recorded dry shifts during the latter part
373 of the LIA, as also inferred by the testate amoeba assemblages. For example, at both study sites
374 a notable shift in vegetation towards dry communities occurred *c.* 1770 AD. No measured
375 meteorological data exist for that period, but solar irradiance reconstructions have suggested
376 that around 1770 AD the irradiation level was as high as that of around 1930–1940 AD (Lean,
377 Beer, & Bradley, 1995), when measured temperatures were high. This suggests that summer
378 temperature seems to play a critical role in controlling bog vegetation communities via changes
379 in moisture conditions. Measured summer temperature records warmer than 17.3 °C (average
380 for the period 1990-2018) corresponded with each of the other drying phases. In particular, in
381 the 1940s AD several continuous warm summers followed one another, and these may have
382 contributed to the substantial successional change towards drier vegetation that we recorded.
383 The detected link between *Sphagnum* community changes and summer temperature is in line
384 with studies from Alberta, Canada, where the increase in summer temperature and consequent
385 enhanced evapotranspiration resulted in a dry shift that triggered a vegetation change towards
386 *S. fuscum* domination (Magnan et al., 2018).

387 In addition to summer temperature, summer (June-August) precipitation might be another
388 factor that controls bog moisture changes. Even though instrumental climate records showed
389 that summer precipitation since 1850 AD had been annually variable with a range of *c.* 35 to

390 345 mm (mean \pm SD: 200 \pm 65 mm) and no clear trend, most of the drying vegetation shifts
391 occurred during very dry summers (summer precipitation <100 mm). However, the same
392 vegetation shifts also happened during wet summers (>250 mm) in the past decade, for example
393 in SHL with increased proportion of *S. fuscum* and disappearing of *S. balticum*, which may
394 result from increased evapotranspiration during warm summers. These recent wet summers
395 might also explain the clear wet shifts recorded in low hummock testate amoeba data (SLH and
396 LLH) *c.* 2000 AD, which indicate a higher sensitivity of testate amoebae to environmental
397 changes than plants, as there were no clear corresponding vegetation changes towards wetter
398 communities (Väliranta et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018a). However, it should also be noted that
399 despite these recent wet shifts, conditions were still drier than the very early wet conditions
400 during mid-late 1700s at both sites (Figure 5).

401

402 *Response of carbon accumulation to climate forcing*

403 Peatland carbon accumulation is mainly controlled by vegetation composition, water table and
404 temperature. However, due to the complexity of interactions between these factors and the
405 highly heterogeneous nature of peatlands, links between peat carbon accumulation and any
406 individual environmental variables are not straightforward (e.g., Loisel and Garneau, 2010;
407 Piilo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018b). We did not observe any changes in plant functional
408 types, e.g., from *Sphagnum* to shrubs (Tuittila et al., 2012), thus we assume that the detected
409 variation in carbon accumulation rate is largely due to variations in moisture and temperature,
410 although changes in moss community might alone could still drive changes in carbon

411 accumulation due to different photosynthesis and decomposition rates at the species level
412 (Hajek, Tuittila, Ilomets, & Laiho, 2009; Kangas et al., 2014; Laine, Juurola, Hajek, & Tuittila,
413 2011; Turetsky, Crow, Evans, Vitt, & Wieder, 2008).

414 Our results suggest that the response of carbon accumulation rate to environmental changes in
415 the past varied for different habitats. For low hummocks the CAR z scores showed significant
416 linear correlations to all studied variables. In contrast, the other two habitats, high lawns and
417 low lawns yielded no significant correlations. At low hummock conditions, summer
418 temperature showed a weak linear accelerating impact ($R^2 = 0.3184$, $p < 0.01$) on carbon
419 accumulation, while WTD showed a much stronger forcing ($R^2 = 0.5031$, $p < 0.001$), with drier
420 conditions resulting in lower carbon accumulation rates. Recent experimental studies support
421 our palaeo interpretation, by suggesting that WTD is a more important forcing factor than
422 temperature alone (Laine et al., 2019; Mäkiranta et al., 2018). The different response patterns
423 of the three habitats indicate that only in low hummock habitats WTD was a limiting factor for
424 carbon accumulation, whereas for lawns, water tables were sustained high enough to enable
425 effective carbon accumulation. The influence of the limiting factor WTD on carbon
426 accumulation likely worked through changes in biological communities, for example, the
427 decreased carbon accumulation under water-limited low hummocks can be partly linked to the
428 distinct decrease of mixotrophic testate amoeba abundance in such habitats ($R^2 = 0.7608$, $p <$
429 0.001), which can significantly cause reduced carbon accumulation ($R^2 = 0.4207$, $p < 0.001$)
430 (see also Jassey et al., 2015).

431

432 *Carbon uptake capacity of boreal peatlands in the future*

433 Our results suggest that in addition to global-scale impacts of warming on peatland carbon
434 accumulation (Gallego-Sala et al., 2018), local small-scale hydrological conditions are crucial
435 in controlling carbon accumulation dynamics. Thus, including moisture as a predictor variable
436 for the future estimates of carbon dynamics is highly important. If we are to experience severe
437 droughts and consequent water level drawdowns, peatland carbon uptake capacity is threatened.
438 According to our study, Siikaneva where roughly 21% of the peatland area is covered by
439 hummocks (Korrensalo et al., 2018) has, to some extent, already decreased carbon
440 accumulation capacity due to surface drying since 1850 AD – the most severe periods occurring
441 from the 1850's to the late 1900's. If drying continues, most of the current lawn surfaces, which
442 now cover *c.* 38% of the Siikaneva peatland area (Korrensalo et al., 2018), have the potential
443 to turn to low hummock habitats; this development has already been predicted in a field
444 experimental study at Lakkasuo (Kokkonen et al., 2019). This potential habitat transition will
445 also stress mixotrophic testate amoebae, as current lawn conditions are generally more
446 appropriate habitats for most of the mixotrophic testate amoeba taxa (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018c).
447 Therefore, further drying may reduce the abundance of mixotrophic testate amoebae and
448 consequently reduce peatland C fixation. This scenario is in line with a recent model-based pan-
449 Arctic carbon accumulation prediction study that shows decreased carbon accumulation for
450 southern Finland by the end of 21st century in comparison to the accumulation rate in the 20th
451 century (Chaudhary, Miller, & Smith, 2017). Widespread drying of boreal peatlands in recent
452 centuries has been very recently recorded (Swindles et al., 2019; van Bellen et al., 2018). The
453 future climate prediction for Fennoscandia is warmer and wetter (CMIP5 under RCP8.5)

454 (Collins et al., 2013). However, and more importantly, a net effect on summer moisture balance
455 may be negative, as increased evapotranspiration may result in summer-time moisture deficit.
456 Bogs are suggested to be more resistant to drying than fens (Jaatinen, Fritze, Laine, & Laiho,
457 2007; Kokkonen et al., 2019), as they already regularly experience dry seasons/periods
458 (Thormann, Bayley, & Szumigalski, 1998). Yet, here we evidenced consistent climate-driven
459 water level variations, dry shifts and subsequent changes in biological assemblages in two
460 adjacent bogs under warmer conditions in the past. With prolonged warming and consequent
461 peat surface drying, *Sphagna* communities may be even gradually replaced by shrubs
462 (McPartland et al., 2019; Munir, Xu, Perkins, & Strack, 2014), which would have more
463 profound impacts on peatland carbon uptake capacity (Loisel et al., 2014; Munir et al., 2014).

464 In summary, the two studied southern boreal bogs with separate catchment areas consistently
465 showed shifts towards drier peatland surface conditions during recent centuries. The general
466 drying trend was reflected in both plant and testate amoeba communities. Both summer
467 temperature and precipitation, and more importantly effective moisture balance, are important
468 drivers of peatland vegetation and hydrological conditions. Our study suggests that
469 environmental forcing on carbon accumulation is most prominent for low hummock habitats.

470 In short, the drier the conditions, the less carbon accumulated. The above derived patterns reveal
471 that even though peatland carbon accumulation processes are complex, they will become more
472 predictable when some controlling factors reach their threshold levels. We preliminarily
473 conclude that carbon sink capacity of northern bogs is endangered if the future climate warming
474 results in bog moisture deficiency. Peat surface drying might lead to eventual proportional
475 decrease of lawn areas and increase the area of hummocks, although the possibly correspondent

476 decrease of hollow areas might on the other hand mitigate the carbon accumulation reduction
477 by reducing methane emissions.

478

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484

485 **Data availability**

486 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author
487 upon reasonable request.

488

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- 732

733 **Figure caption and table**

734 **FIGURE 1** Upper panel: Location of the two study sites (red stars), the base map was
 735 downloaded from the National Land Survey of Finland Topographic Database under a CC 4.0
 736 open source license. Lower panel: (a and b) Aerial photos of Siikaneva and Lakkasuo peatlands
 737 (2019 Google), red arrows show the coring points; (c) The microtopography-specific sampling
 738 design.

739

740 **FIGURE 2** Age-depth models of the studied cores developed using *Plum*. The measured
 741 unsupported ^{210}Pb activities are in green, ^{137}Cs activities (SLH) are in black and calibrated ^{14}C
 742 dates are in blue. The grey shading indicates the 95% confidence range of the age-model. The
 743 red line is the weighted mean age based on the model. The ^{137}Cs -peak indicated 1986 AD at
 744 depth 21-22 cm (in core SLH) is shown using a black star.

745

746 **FIGURE 3** Diagrams showing selected peat property (i.e. BD: bulk density; C/N: carbon
 747 nitrogen mass ratio; C%: C content; ACAR: apparent carbon accumulation rate; CAR: allogenic
 748 carbon accumulation rate), plant macrofossil and testate amoeba percentages for the studied six
 749 cores. Mixotrophic testate amoeba taxa are marked in red. Plant macrofossil- and testate
 750 amoeba-based water-table depth (WTD) reconstructions are also shown. The timing of post-
 751 Little Ice Age warming (1850 AD) is indicated using a red line. Main vegetation drying shifts
 752 are marked using blue lines.

753

754 **FIGURE 4** Linear regression analyses of allogenic carbon accumulation rate (CAR) z scores
 755 and environmental variables for low hummocks. Analyses for high lawns and low lawns are
 756 shown in Figure S2. (a) water-table depth (WTD); (b) summer temperature (T); (c) mixotrophic
 757 testate amoeba (TA) abundance. The gray shading areas represent the 95% confidence intervals.

758

759 **FIGURE 5** Summary of testate amoeba (TA)- and plant-based water-table depth (WTD)
 760 reconstructions and peatland vegetation successions in the studied cores. Only selected plants

761 are shown for each core showing the main moisture changes using colour-based WTD
 762 indications derived from Figure S1. Each drying vegetation change is indicated using a black
 763 arrow. Mean summer temperature and total summer precipitation are shown with the means for
 764 the periods before and after 2000 AD indicated using vertical lines.

765

766 **TABLE 1** Detailed description of studied peat cores. WTD: Water-table depth of the sampling
 767 point. BD: bulk density. C%: carbon content. N%: nitrogen content. PAR: peat accumulation
 768 rate.

Site	Core	WTD (cm)	Surface vegetation	Core depth (cm)	Basal age (cal yr AD)	BD (g cm ⁻³)	C%	N%	PAR (cm yr ⁻¹)
Siikaneva	**SLH	17	<i>Sphagnum fuscum</i>	57	1744 – 1644	0.06 ± 0.01	43.65±0.99	0.73±0.2 4	0.45±0.5 4
	*SHL	8	<i>S. rubellum, S. fuscum</i>	49	1770 – 1874	0.05 ± 0.01	44.28±2.78	0.58±0.1 5	0.63±0.5 7
	*SLL	3	<i>S. rubellum, S. papilosum</i>	52	1685 – 1741	0.05 ± 0.15	43.30±0.70	0.88±0.4 1	0.38±0.6 6
Lakkasuo	*LLH	10	<i>S. fuscum</i>	58	1683 – 1737	0.07 ± 0.01	43.37±3.17	0.73±0.2 9	0.27±0.2 1
	*LHL	6	<i>S. balticum, S. fuscum</i>	61	1684 – 1738	0.05 ± 0.01	40.91±0.4	0.60±0. 13	0.27±0.1 9
	*LLL	3	<i>S. rubellum, S. balticum</i>	54	1731 – 1805	0.05 ± 0.01	42.87±2.6	0.74±0. 23	0.23±0. 07

769 *Note.* *: Surface age control was based on ²¹⁰Pb dating. #: Surface age control was validated by ¹³⁷Cs dating.
 770 The basal ages were based on ¹⁴C dating except core SHL, which was modelled by *Plum*.

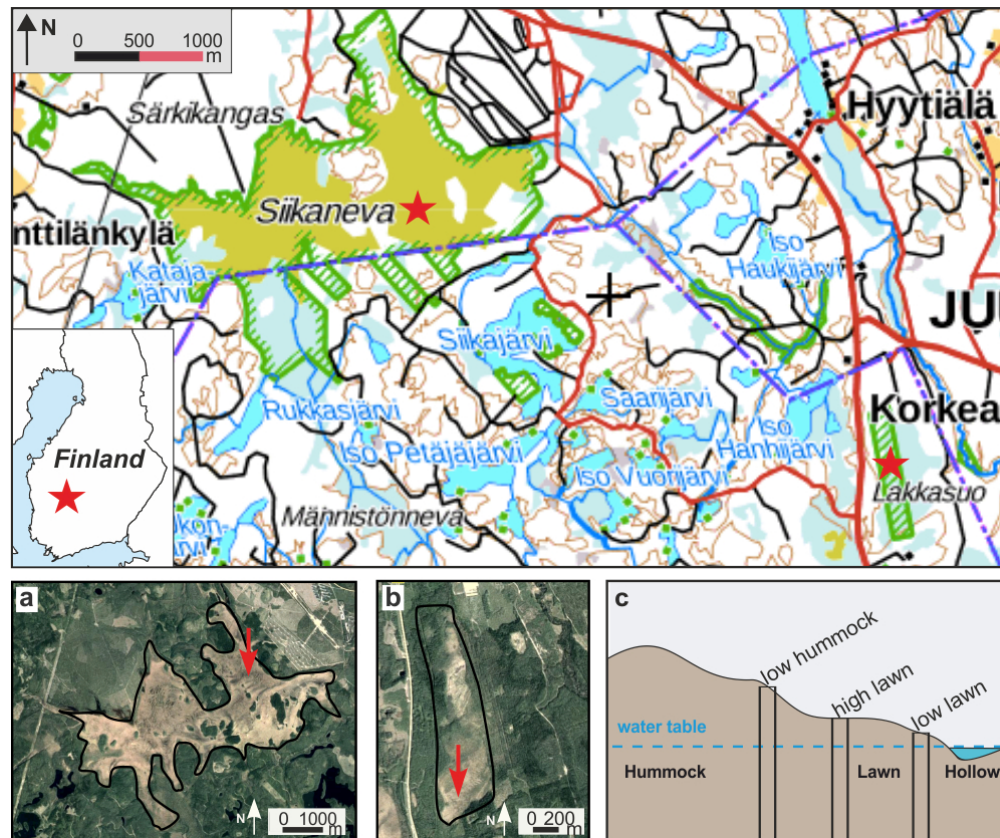


FIGURE 1 Upper panel: Location of the two study sites (red stars), the base map was downloaded from the National Land Survey of Finland Topographic Database under a CC 4.0 open source license. Lower panel: (a and b) Aerial photos of Siikaneva and Lakkasuo peatlands (2019 Google), red arrows show the coring points; (c) The microtopography-specific sampling design.

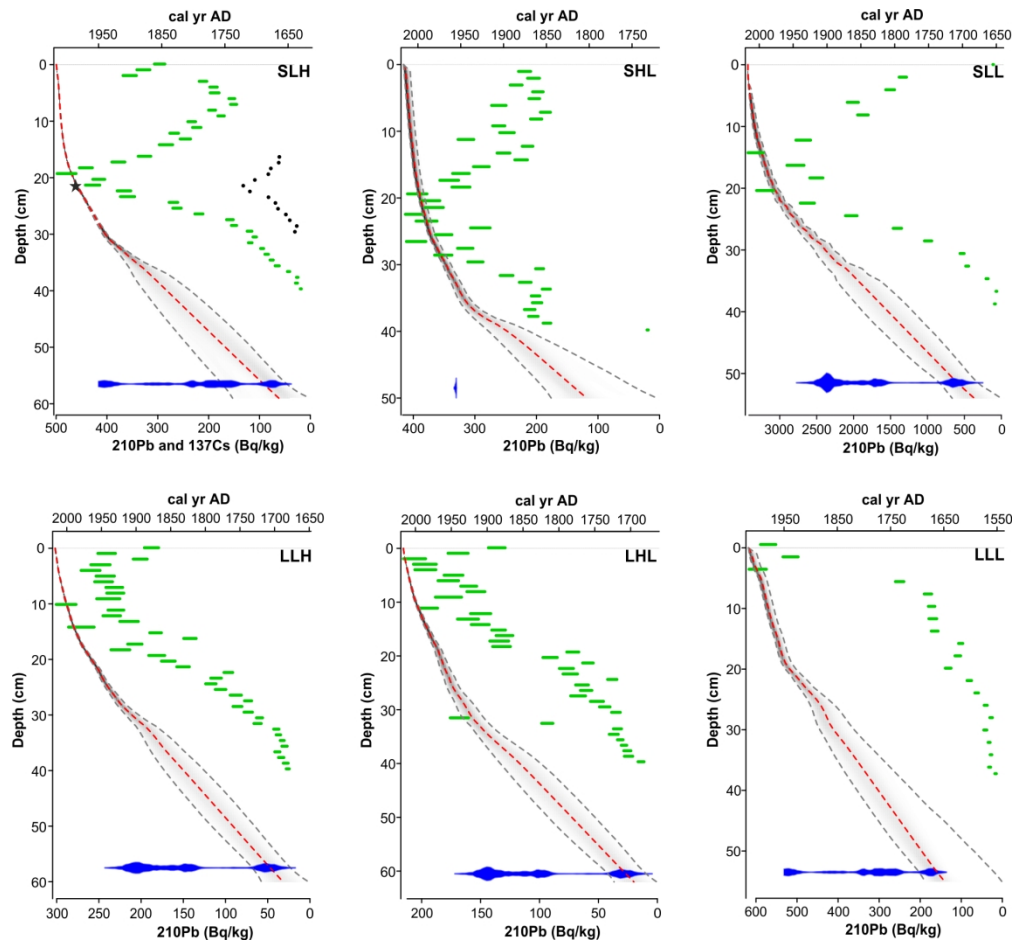


FIGURE 2 Age-depth models of the studied cores developed using Plum. The measured unsupported ^{210}Pb activities are in green, ^{137}Cs activities (SLH) are in black and calibrated ^{14}C dates are in blue. The grey shading indicates the 95% confidence range of the age-model. The red line is the weighted mean age based on the model. The ^{137}Cs -peak indicated 1986 AD at depth 21-22 cm (in core SLH) is shown using a black star.

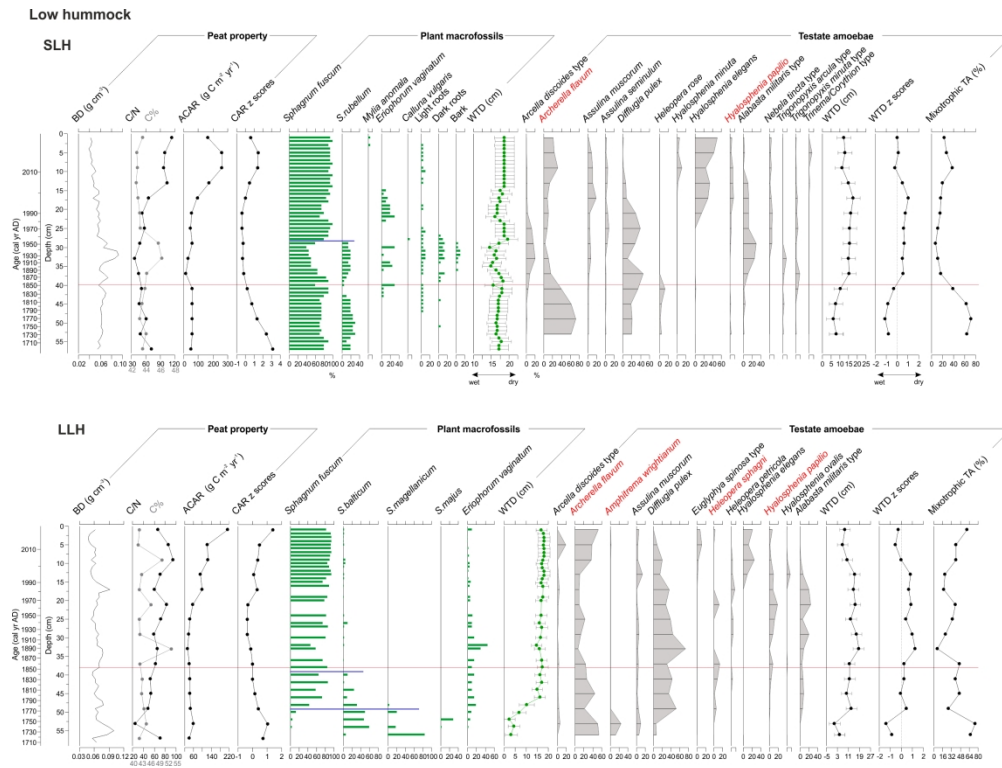
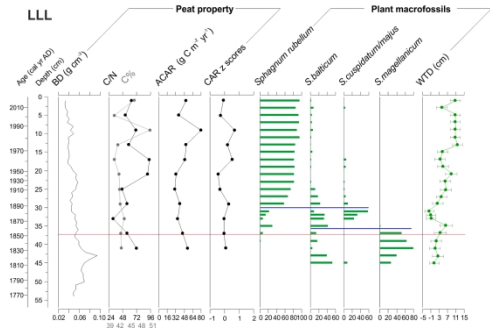
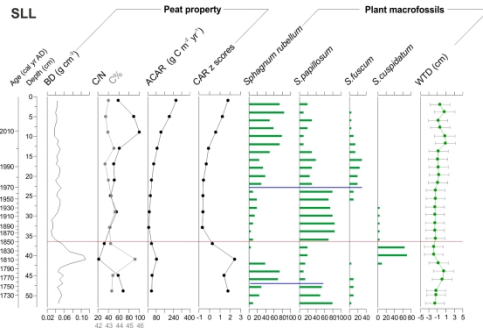


FIGURE 3 Diagrams showing selected peat property (i.e. BD: bulk density; C/N: carbon nitrogen mass ratio; C%: C content; ACAR: apparent carbon accumulation rate; CAR: allogenic carbon accumulation rate), plant macrofossil and testate amoeba percentages for the studied six cores. Mixotrophic testate amoeba taxa are marked in red. Plant macrofossil- and testate amoeba-based water-table depth (WTD) reconstructions are also shown. The timing of post-Little Ice Age warming (1850 AD) is indicated using a red line. Main vegetation drying shifts are marked using blue lines.

Low lawn



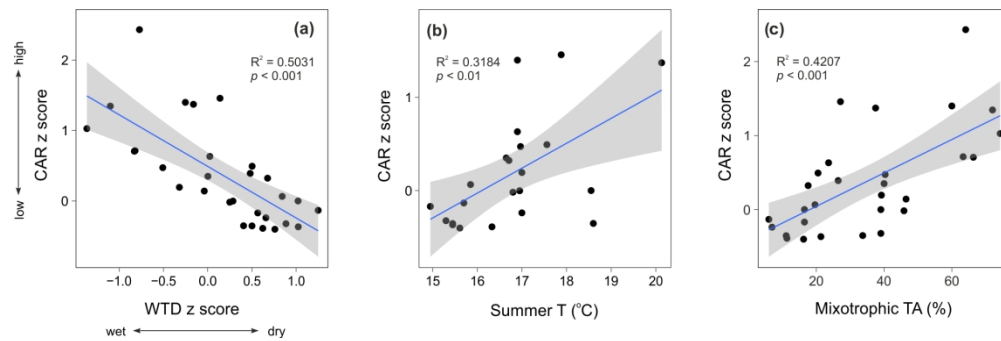


FIGURE 4 Linear regression analyses of allogenic carbon accumulation rate (CAR) z scores and environmental variables for low hummocks. Analyses for high lawns and low lawns are shown in Figure S2. (a) water-table depth (WTD); (b) summer temperature (T); (c) mixotrophic testate amoeba (TA) abundance. The gray shading areas represent the 95% confidence intervals.

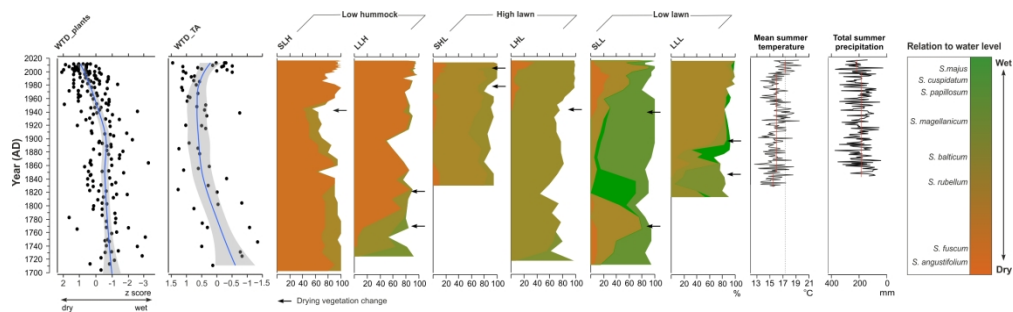


FIGURE 5 Summary of testate amoeba (TA)- and plant-based water-table depth (WTD) reconstructions and peatland vegetation successions in the studied cores. Only selected plants are shown for each core showing the main moisture changes using colour-based WTD indications derived from Figure S1. Each drying vegetation change is indicated using a black arrow. Mean summer temperature and total summer precipitation are shown with the means for the periods before and after 2000 AD indicated using vertical lines.