

The uncertain climate footprint of wetlands under human pressure

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Significant climate risks are associated with a positive carbon-temperature feedback in northern latitude carbon-rich ecosystems, making an accurate analysis of human impacts on the net greenhouse gas balance of wetlands a priority. Here, we provide a coherent assessment of the climate footprint of a network of wetland sites based on simultaneous and quasi-continuous ecosystem observations of CO2 and CH4 fluxes. Experimental areas are located both in natural and in managed wetlands and cover a wide range of climatic regions, ecosystem types, and management practices. Based on direct observations we predict that sustained CH4 emissions in natural ecosystems are in the long term (i.e., several centuries) typically offset by CO2 uptake, although with large spatiotemporal variability. Using a space-for-time analogy across ecological and climatic gradients, we represent the chronosequence from natural to managed conditions to quantify the "cost" of CH₄ emissions for the benefit of net carbon sequestration. With a sustained pulseresponse radiative forcing model, we found a significant increase in atmospheric forcing due to land management, in particular for wetland converted to cropland. Our results quantify the role of human activities on the climate footprint of northern wetlands and call for development of active mitigation strategies for managed wetlands and new guidelines of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) accounting for both sustained CH4 emissions and cumulative CO2 exchange.

wetland conversion | methane | radiative forcing | carbon dioxide

or their ability to simultaneously sequester CO₂ and emit CH₄, wetlands are unique ecosystems that may potentially generate large negative climate feedbacks over centuries to millennia (1) and positive feedbacks over years to several centuries (2). Wetlands are among the major biogenic sources of

CH₄, contributing to about 30% of the global CH₄ total emissions (3), and are presumed to be a primary driver of interannual variations in the atmospheric CH₄ growth rate (4, 5). Meanwhile, peatlands, the main subclass of wetland ecosystems, cover 3% of the Earth's surface and are known to store large quantities of carbon (about 500 \pm 100 Gt C) (6, 7).

The controversial climate footprint of wetlands is due to the difference in atmospheric lifetimes and the generally opposite directions of $\rm CO_2$ and $\rm CH_4$ exchanges, which leads to an uncertain sign of the net radiative budget. Wetlands in fact have a great

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Significance

Wetlands are unique ecosystems because they are in general sinks for carbon dioxide and sources of methane. Their climate footprint therefore depends on the relative sign and magnitude of the land–atmosphere exchange of these two major greenhouse gases. This work presents a synthesis of simultaneous measurements of carbon dioxide and methane fluxes to assess the radiative forcing of natural wetlands converted to agricultural or forested land. The net climate impact of wetlands is strongly dependent on whether they are natural or managed. Here we show that the conversion of natural wetlands produces a significant increase of the atmospheric radiative forcing. The findings suggest that management plans for these complex ecosystems should carefully account for the potential biogeochemical effects on climate.

potential to preserve the carbon sequestration capacity because near water-logged conditions reduce or inhibit microbial respiration, promoting meanwhile $\mathrm{CH_4}$ production that may partially or completely counteract carbon uptake. Potential variations of the $\mathrm{CO_2/CH_4}$ stoichiometry in wetlands exposed to climate and landuse change require the development of mitigation-oriented management strategies to avoid large climatic impacts.

The current and future contribution of wetlands to the global greenhouse gas (GHG) budget is still uncertain because of our limited knowledge of the combined and synergistic response of CH₄ and CO₂ land-atmosphere exchange to environmental variability (8, 9) and land-use change (e.g., wetland restoration, drainage for forestry, agriculture, or peat mining) (9, 10). Fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ from natural wetlands show large spatiotemporal variations (11, 12), arising from environmental interactions controlling the production, transport, consumption, and release of CH₄ (13, 14) as well as the dynamic balance between photosynthetic and respiratory processes that regulate the net accumulation of carbon in biomass and soil. Environmental factors such as variations in air and soil temperature, water table, and substrate availability for methanogenesis lead to a high spatial and temporal variation of CH₄ emissions (15–17). The magnitude of emissions is also controlled by the balance between CH₄ production and oxidation rates and by transport pathways: diffusion (18), ebullition (19), and aerenchyma transport (20).

Climate change influences the GHG balance of wetlands through thawing of the near-surface permafrost (21, 22) and thaw lakes (23), increased nitrogen availability due to accelerated decomposition of organic matter (24), and modification of the water tables with consequent shifts in CH_4 emissions (1, 25). A review of carbon budgets of global peatlands concluded that these ecosystems may remain a small but persistent sink that builds a large C pool, reducing the atmospheric CO₂ burden, whereas the stimulation of CH₄ emissions induced by climate warming may be locally tempered or enhanced by drying or wetting (26). The climate footprint of wetlands can also be affected by anthropogenic activities such as the conversion of natural ecosystems to agricultural or forested land (10, 27). Draining peatlands for forestry may lead to a C loss and reduced CH₄ emissions (10, 26), whereas land use for agriculture typically reduces the CH_4 emissions and increases N_2O emissions (26).

Several studies have analyzed the impact of northern peatlands on the Earth's radiative budget either by computing the radiative forcing (RF) of sustained CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes (2) or by multiplying the annual ecosystem exchange of CO₂ and CH₄ with the global warming potentials of the two gases (28–30). However, although this latter approach is useful for comparison, its appropriateness in computing the actual RF has been questioned (31–33). An alternative approach for assessing the impact of peatland draining/drying on the RF has been applied by driving an atmospheric composition and RF model with pre- and post-drainage measured fluxes of CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O (34).

Here, we ask, what is the climate cost of CH₄ emissions compared with the benefit of net carbon sequestration? We assessed this question, using data from a network of wetland observational sites where direct and quasi-continuous CO₂ and CH₄ chamber and eddy covariance measurements are performed. Using the space for time analogy, flux observations at sites with contrasting land cover are combined with a sustained pulse–response model to predict the potential future RF of natural wetlands converted to agricultural or forested land.

Results and Discussion

As the land-atmosphere fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂ in wetlands can be opposite in sign and very different in magnitude, their net impact on the climate system is difficult to assess and predict. In particular, CH₄ emissions from wetlands are continuous and thus add a positive term to the radiative balance (31) that can be partially or totally offset by a sustained carbon sequestration (35). The availability of consistent and simultaneous measurements of ecosystem CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes provides an opportunity to address these issues, using direct observations collected at 29 both natural and managed wetlands located in the Northern Hemisphere (Fig. 1A). Details on site locations, climate, vegetation type, measurement techniques, and yearly/seasonal GHG budgets are reported in SI Text, Site Analysis and SI Text, Measurement Techniques and Gap-Filling Methods (Tables S1–S5).

The trade-off between CH₄ net emission and CO₂ net sequestration in wetlands is evident in Fig. 1B, where most sites are sources of CH₄ (positive ecosystem fluxes) and CO₂ sinks (negative values of net ecosystem exchange, NEE). Given that CH₄ has a relatively short lifetime in the atmosphere (~10 y) compared to CO₂, the radiative balance of these two gases depends on the timeframe of the analysis. As an example of this dependence, the two red-blue equilibrium lines in Fig. 1B represent the ratio of sustained CO2 and CH4 fluxes that would result in a zero net cumulative radiative balance over 20 y and 100 y. The lines were simulated with a sustained pulse–response model (27) and used in this study also to calculate the RF of management options. The model generates the following flux ratios: –31.3 g and –19.2 g CO₂-C·m⁻²·y⁻¹ per gram CH₄-C·m⁻²·y⁻¹ for 20 y and 100 y, respectively. This implies that a continuous emission of 1 g CH₄-C·m⁻²·y⁻¹ and uptake of 31.3 g CO₂-C·m⁻²·y⁻¹ would have a positive cumulative RF (warming) for the first 20 y and a negative cumulative RF (cooling) after that. Sites that fall on the right side of the equilibrium lines have a positive radiative budget and those on the left side have a negative radiative budget for the specified 20-y or 100-y timeframe (Fig. 1B). Under the current climate, 59% of arctic and boreal sites' and 60% of temperate sites' observations have a positive radiative balance compared with both 20-y and 100-y equilibrium lines. All but one of the forested wetlands [arctic/boreal (AB)5, AB7, temperate (T)9, and T11] currently have a negative net radiative balance owing to their considerable CO₂ uptake and relatively low CH₄ emissions (Fig. 1B and Fig. S1). Sites located between the two lines have a positive or negative radiative budget, depending on the time span of the analysis (e.g., AB9, AB4, and T8, Fig. 1B).

Changes in the water level in wetlands substantially alter the ratio of CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes. Recent warming and drying in the Arctic has led to increased CO₂ losses from the soil, in some cases switching arctic regions from a long-term carbon sink to a carbon source (36). In other cases, the drying of arctic and boreal wetlands reduces CH₄ emission without generating larger CO₂ emissions, owing to the compensation between accelerated decomposition of organic matter and an increase in net primary productivity (NPP) (37–39). As an example of management impacts, data show that the CO₂ and CH₄ emissions of the site AB3a dropped toward a near zero net radiative budget one year

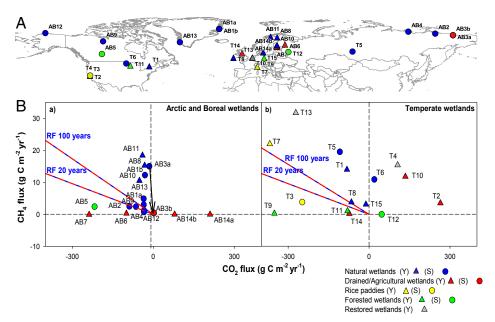


Fig. 1. (A) Global distribution of the 29 measurement sites involved in the present analysis. Triangles represent sites with annual budgets (Y) and circles represent sites with growing season budgets (S). Site IDs and description are reported in SI Text, Site Analysis and Tables S1 and S2. (B) CH_4 vs. CO_2 flux (in grams $C \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$) for arctic/boreal and temperate wetlands relative to the modeled RF equilibrium lines. The two blue–red equilibrium lines represent the ratio of sustained CO_2 and CH_4 fluxes (grams $CO_2 \cdot C \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$) per gram $CH_4 \cdot C \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$) that would result in a zero cumulative RF over the period indicated for the line (20 y and 100 y). The slope of the line depends on the constant CO_2 uptake rate that would be needed for compensating the positive RF of a unit CH_4 emission at a fixed changing time. The arrow pointing down (AB3a to AB3b) indicates the carbon flux change at the specific site after a drainage experiment.

after drainage, whereas sites that were drained a long time ago, such as AB6 and AB7, have large carbon uptake rates (Fig. 1).

Different responses of CH₄ and CO₂ budgets at drained temperate wetlands compared with boreal or arctic wetlands mainly occur due to management activities. At these sites draining for agricultural use suppresses CH₄ emissions and enhances CO₂ efflux owing to accelerated peat degradation, exploitation through grazing, and carbon export (T2, T10, and T14). Conversely, rewetted former agricultural areas or restored wetlands typically emit CH₄ (T13) at a rate that in the short term is not offset by the CO₂ sink (T4). Although most of the studied temperate wetlands have a positive radiative budget, natural forested wetlands show significant carbon uptake driven by high rates of photosynthesis that offsets ecosystem respiration (T9 and T11). The long-term CH₄ and CO₂ balance of these ecosystems thus ultimately depends on the fate of the carbon stored in the trees.

At temperate latitudes, it is interesting to note that the two rice paddies (T3 and T7) that in general are known as major contributors to atmospheric CH₄ (5% of the total emissions and about 10% of the anthropogenic emissions) (3) are also characterized by large CO₂ uptake. However, the net GHG budget of this crop is further complicated by significant carbon imports (fertilization) and exports (harvest and dissolved organic carbon). Based on site observations, carbon losses due to harvest account for 67% and 70% of net ecosystem exchange at T3 (40) and T7, respectively, so that the net GHG balance from these ecosystems is strongly influenced by the carbon exports.

To quantify the effect of ecosystem management on the net climate impact of multiple GHG fluxes, we applied an analytical approach based on the concept of radiative forcing. RF is a widely used metric in climate change research to quantify the magnitude of an externally imposed perturbation to the incoming long-wave radiative component of the Earth's atmospheric energy budget (41). Two types of human perturbations were considered: the conversion of natural wetlands to agricultural land and the conversion of natural forested wetlands to managed forested wetlands. Natural wetlands with full annual GHG budget were used as reference and

paired in all possible combinations to managed sites (*SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations* and Table S6). Based on the difference between natural and perturbed ecosystems, we calculated the net RF due to CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes for 100 y, using a sustained pulseresponse model (27) (*SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations*). The contribution of N₂O fluxes to the RF was accounted for only in agricultural sites (AB6, AB14a,b, T10, and T14) where significant emissions of this GHG can be observed (3).

Losses of carbon due to harvest and natural disturbances (e.g., mainly fires, wind throw, and pests) were also taken into account in the RF calculation, either in the form of annual harvest (for agricultural land) or after each rotation for wood harvest, and assumed every 100 y for natural disturbances in forested wetlands (42-44). It was assumed that all of the removed biomass was emitted into the atmosphere as CO₂ during the same year. The results of the RF simulations (Fig. 2) are thus dependent on the ecosystem and management type. Results show that at all timescales the net effect of GHG emissions in arctic and boreal natural wetlands converted into agricultural sites (Fig. 24) is a large positive RF, whereas the conversion of drained wetlands into energy crops (AB6) results in a minor negative RF for the 100-y simulations. The temperate wetlands (Fig. 2B) that were converted into agriculture sites showed, in general, a positive RF with a large spread among sites induced by management intensity [e.g., intensive (T10) vs. extensive (T14) grazing]. Given that the carbon balance of forest ecosystems largely depends on the fraction of harvested biomass, we carried out an uncertainty analysis by perturbing the harvest rate of the accumulated NPP according to two Gaussian distributions for natural (50 \pm 10%, observed harvest rate at AB7) and managed (67 \pm 10%) (45) sites, respectively (SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations). To evaluate the uncertainty generated by our assumptions, NPP was estimated with two alternative methodologies: (i) applying average ratios of NPP/gross primary productivity derived from the partitioning of the observed NEE (46), based on a recent meta-analysis (NPP/GPP = 0.39 and 0.49 for boreal and temperate forests, respectively) (47), and (ii) summing the observed NEE to the soil respiration rates

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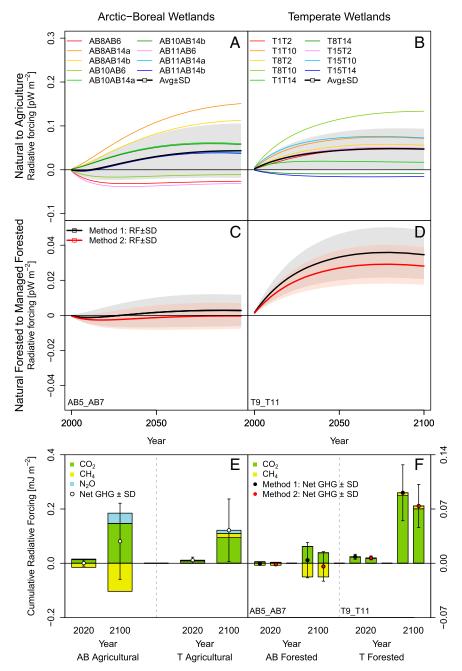


Fig. 2. Trends of radiative forcing (RF, period 2000–2100) for paired sites and ecosystem types. (A and B) Net RF for CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O in natural wetlands converted to agricultural land. (C and D) Net RF for the conversion of natural forested wetland to managed forests (AB5 \rightarrow AB7 and T9 \rightarrow T11). For each of the two pairs an uncertainty analysis on the effect of the harvest rate is presented. (E and E) Cumulative RF of individual gases at 20 y and 100 y for all site pairs, with their net RF (circles E SD). The forcing units refer to the mean global impact of 1 m² of wetland area (SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations). Site IDs can be found in SI Text, Site Analysis and Tables S1 and S2.

reported in the *IPCC Wetland Supplement* for natural and managed wetlands (48).

Results for the boreal site pair (AB5 \rightarrow AB7) show that the confidence intervals cross the x axis and therefore the ultimate sign of the RF depends on the harvest rate. In addition, with both methods used for the calculation of NPP, at average harvest rates the RF is not statistically different from zero (Fig. 2C). In contrast, for the temperate site pair (T9 \rightarrow T11) RF is positive, independently of the management intensity and of the applied methodology (Fig. 2D). Our analysis demonstrates that, to assess the RF of wetland management, both CH₄ fluxes and the

concomitant changes in CO_2 emissions have to be accounted for. This is especially true at the decadal timescales for boreal wetlands converted to forest or agricultural land (Fig. 2 E and F).

Conclusions

The recent availability of simultaneous and continuous ecosystem observations of CH_4 and CO_2 fluxes in wetlands provides fundamental insights into the climate footprint of these ecosystems to support the development of sustainable mitigation strategies based on ecosystem management. Careful accounting of both CO_2 and CH_4 fluxes (and N_2O fluxes where significant) is essential for an

accurate calculation of the climate impact of wetlands. We also stress the importance of direct and quasi-continuous chamber or eddy covariance flux measurements over annual timescales for the observation of ecosystem responses to environmental drivers and management (e.g., flooding, drainage, and land use change) that may be missed with intermittent manual chamber measurements.

The net GHG budget of these ecosystems is spatially and temporally variable in sign and magnitude due to the generally opposite direction of CH₄ (emission) and CO₂ (uptake) exchange and, therefore, can be easily altered by both natural and anthropogenic perturbations (SI Text, Site Analysis and Table S3). Management and land use conversions in particular play a critical role in determining the future GHG balance of these ecosystems. Our results prove that management intensity strongly influences the net climate footprint of wetlands and in particular the conversion of natural ecosystems to agricultural land ultimately leads to strong positive RF. These considerations suggest that future releases of GHG inventories based on IPCC guidelines for wetlands should indeed address the relationship between the fluxes of CH₄ and CO₂, the management intensity, and the land use/land cover change on the net GHG balance as well as on the RF of these complex ecosystems.

Materials and Methods

This study is based on measurements of net ecosystem exchange of CO2 and CH₄ trace gas exchange performed with eddy covariance and/or chamber methods (SI Text, Site Analysis and Tables S1 and S2). Most of the included study sites are part of FLUXNET, an international network of sites where energy and GHG fluxes are continuously monitored with a standardized methodology (49). The RF due to wetlands management was calculated for CO₂, CH₄, and, where significant (agricultural sites AB6, AB14a,b, T10, and T14), N₂O fluxes, using a sustained pulse-response model (27). Annual concentration pulses were derived from the flux differences between pristine wetlands, taken as reference, and wetlands converted to either cropland or forests.

Natural-managed site pairs were defined for all possible combinations of similar ecosystem types with available annual CO2 and CH4 budgets within each climatic or management-related category (arctic/boreal or temperate regions, cropland or forest; SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations and Table S6). These site pairs were selected to represent plausible and representative wetland conversions, and thus part of the sites were excluded from this analysis (e.g., rice fields). In the simple pulse-response RF model used here

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were derived by integrating the effect of a series of consecutive annual mass pulses that correspond to the mean annual balances of these gases (27) (SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations). Different radiative efficiencies and atmospheric residence times of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O were taken into account, as well as the annual variation of their background concentrations. RF was calculated for a 100-y period starting from 2000, assuming that the background concentrations increase as in the A2 scenario of the Special Report on Emissions Scenarios (SRES). The RF methodology is described in detail in SI Text, Radiative Forcing Calculations. The data reported in this paper are tabulated in SI Text and part is archived in the FLUXNET database and/or published in peer-review articles as shown in SI Text references.

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Supporting Information

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SI Text

Site Analysis

This study is based on measurements of CO₂ (NEE) and CH₄ (plus N₂O for agricultural sites where significant emissions can be observed) (1) trace gas exchange performed with eddy covariance and/or chamber methods. Most of the included study sites are part of FLUXNET, an international network of sites where energy and greenhouse gas fluxes are continuously monitored with a standardized methodology (2). Fig. S1 presents the CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes, expressed in C units for each of the sites, whose main characteristics are summarized in Tables S1 and S2 and divided into ecosystem types [i.e., arctic/boreal (AB) and temperate (T) wetlands]. Here, negative values indicate carbon uptake, whereas positive values indicate carbon release by the system. The average CH₄ and CO₂ flux values shown in Table S1 are annual/seasonal (growing season) cumulative sums; existing gaps (hourly to daily, mainly for AB sites) were filled by the different techniques detailed in Tables S4 and S5 to estimate the cumulative seasonal totals.

Combined eddy covariance measurements of CO2 and CH4 ecosystem exchange have become more common during the past 5 y. This study represents to our knowledge the first large-scale synthesis of these observations in wetlands. Due to the harsh winter, measurements in the arctic and boreal regions mainly refer to the growing season whereas for temperate regions annual measurements are mostly available. For northern wetlands most of the CH₄ emissions occur during the growing season and are mainly explained by water table level variability (3-5). In a southern boreal Finnish fen, growing season CH₄ emissions accounted for $\sim 91\%$ of the total annual emissions (6, 7) whereas other studies (8) estimated that winter CH₄ emissions account for 10-22% of the total annual emissions, depending on the ecosystem type (bog and fen, respectively). It was also observed that CH₄ emissions during winter are attributed to physical processes during soil freezing rather than microbial activity (9). Because winter CO₂ emissions can be substantial (10, 11), they cannot be ignored in the GHG budget of a site. Therefore, we use only sites reporting annual budgets for both CO₂ and CH₄ in the RF analysis. Sites reporting growing season fluxes are shown in Fig. 1 A and B with different symbols (Tables S1–S3).

Measurement Techniques and Gap-Filling Methods

Tables S4 and S5 show site-specific measurement techniques and instrumentation for CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes and site-specific gap-filling methods, respectively.

Radiative Forcing Calculations

The radiative forcing (RF) was calculated for CO₂, CH₄, and, where significant (sites AB6, AB14a,b, T10, and T14), N₂O fluxes, using a sustained pulse–response model (12). Annual concentration pulses were derived from the flux differences between natural wetlands, taken as reference, and wetlands converted to either agriculture or forestry. Natural-managed site pairs were defined for all possible combinations of similar ecosystem types with available annual CO₂ and CH₄ budgets within each climatic or management-related category (arctic/boreal or temperate regions; agriculture or forestry). These site pairs were selected to represent plausible and representative wetland conversions, and thus parts of the sites were excluded from this analysis (e.g., rice fields).

For each agricultural site, we first determined the annual net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB), as follows:

NECB = -net ecosystem exchange(NEE) + manure-CO₂(CH₄ oxid.) - dissolved organic carbon(DOC) - harvest.

CO₂(CH₄ oxid.) represents the CO₂ flux produced from the oxidation of CH₄ in the atmosphere. The carbon removal by harvest was taken into account for all sites by assuming that all of the removed biomass is emitted into the atmosphere as CO₂ during the same year. The carbon import with manure was included for one site (T10). Management-related changes in the DOC fluxes could not be estimated, because DOC data are not available for most of the sites. In general, direct measurements of the DOC loss after peatland drainage are scarce. In the recent IPCC guidelines for greenhouse gas inventories (13), values of ~10 g and 30 g C·m⁻²·y⁻¹ for boreal and temperate peatlands, respectively, are recommended for the DOC loss due to drainage. Thus, it seems clear that, on average, the DOC loss following from peatland drainage and management is much smaller than the carbon released directly to the atmosphere as CO2 (on average 400 g C·m⁻²·y⁻¹, Table S6). Hence we assumed that DOC change equals zero. This conservative assumption leads to a slight underestimation of the management-induced RF. For the reference scenarios, we used data from three arctic/boreal sites (AB8, AB10, and AB11) and three temperate sites (T1, T8, and T15). The annual gas balance of these sites was subtracted from the corresponding balances of the managed site (AB6, AB14a, AB14b, T2, T10, and T14). The RF effect of management was estimated separately for CO₂ (NECB), CH₄, and N₂O. For N_2O we used reported fluxes where significant (AB8 \rightarrow AB6, AB8 \rightarrow AB14a, AB8 \rightarrow AB14b, T1 \rightarrow T14, and T15 \rightarrow T14) and, in addition, assumed the N₂O flux in the natural T8 site to equal zero (in the T8 \rightarrow T10 and T8 \rightarrow T14 site pairs).

For the forest-covered sites (AB5, AB7, T9, and T11), the average annual NECB was estimated from the NEE dynamics over a rotation cycle. As only a few years of measurements for a middle-aged forest are available at each site, it was necessary to prescribe a generic shape for the NEE dynamics that is applied for all sites. The actual NEE profile at a certain site was scaled from this generic function according to the measured NEE. In addition to NEE, heterotrophic soil respiration ($R_{\rm soil}$) was estimated as described below.

The NEE dynamics were assumed to start from NEE = R_{soil} and decrease linearly for 15 y, after which the maximum (absolute) NEE (NEE_{max}) is reached (14, 15). The NEE_{max} level is maintained for 60 y, after which the net primary production $(NPP = -NEE + R_{soil})$ is assumed to decrease (14–16) with a time constant of 300 y (16, 17). For managed sites losses due to harvest were set to $67 \pm 10\%$ of the accumulated NPP (18), after each rotation period of 70 y and 80 y at T11 and AB7, respectively. Disturbances (fire, windthrow, pest outbreaks, diseases) were simulated at the natural sites AB5 and T9 every 100 y by removing $50 \pm 10\%$ of the accumulated NPP (19–21). After the harvest, NEE returned to the R_{soil} value, whereas after natural disturbance NPP was assumed to decrease by 50% and NEE changed accordingly. In each case, the amount of carbon removed by harvest or disturbance was assumed to be instantaneously released into the atmosphere.

The R_{soil} of forest-covered sites was estimated with two alternative methods: (i) calculated from the carbon budget of each site and (ii) based on the *IPCC Wetland Supplement* (13). In the former method, NPP was assumed to be 39% and 49% of GPP (derived from the partitioning of NEE) at the boreal and temperate sites, respectively (16, 17), and the heterotrophic respiration is calculated as $R_{soil} = \text{NPP} + \text{NEE}$. In the second method, R_{soil} for the temperate sites was fixed at 950 g $CO_2 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$, whereas the average of the nutrient-poor (91.5 g $CO_2 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$) and nutrient-rich (340.4 g $CO_2 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$) sites was used for the boreal sites (215 g $CO_2 \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1}$) (13). With both methods, R_{soil} was assumed to remain constant during the whole rotation.

The mean NECB was finally calculated by averaging the resulting C balance over the full rotation of the forest. The mean NECB of the natural sites was subtracted from that of the corresponding managed sites and this difference was then assumed to be fixed from/released to the atmosphere each year. To assess the uncertainty related to our assumptions on the harvest rate, we calculated the RF due to management, using a Gaussian distribution for the fraction of harvested NPP (67 \pm 10% and 50 \pm

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10% for the managed and natural forested sites, respectively). From this distribution, the RF of 20 randomly sampled values was calculated for both site pairs and ensemble statistics are shown in Fig. 2 C and D.

In the simple pulse-response RF model used here the perturbations to the tropospheric concentrations of CO₂, CH₄, and N2O were derived by integrating the effect of a series of consecutive annual mass pulses that correspond to the times series of annual balances of these gases (22). Different radiative efficiencies and atmospheric residence times of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O were taken into account, as well as the annual variation of their background concentrations. RF was calculated for a 100-y period starting from 2000, assuming that the background concentrations increase as in the SRES A2 scenario. The RF calculations are based on data of measured mass flux densities (g·m⁻²·s⁻¹) and thus represent the effect of the sustained emission/uptake per square meter of peatland. The resulting RF (W·m⁻² = J·m⁻²·s⁻¹) is expressed as the globally averaged energy flux density and thus equals the energy flux per square meter of the Earth's surface. Positive (negative) RF indicates a warming (cooling) impact on climate.

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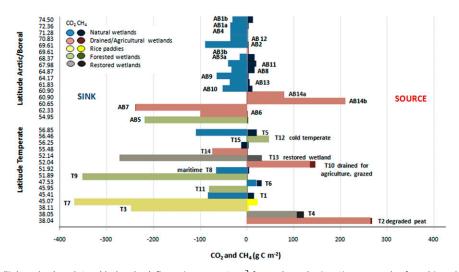


Fig. S1. CO_2 (light colors) and CH_4 (dark colors) fluxes in grams $C \cdot m^{-2}$ for each study site. Site IDs can be found in Tables S1 and S2.

Table S1. Main characteristics of the study sites for arctic/boreal (AB) wetlands

Avg. CH ₄ flux, g flux, g CO ₂ eq·m ⁻² , CH ₄ ·m ⁻² 100 y	4.0 (S) 100	16.3 (S) 407.5	3.3 (5) 82.5	20 (5) 500	0.6 (S) 15		1.6 (S) 40.3	3.2 (5) 80			0.4 (Y) 9.3		-0.1 (Y) -3	20.3 (Y) 507.5	3.2 (S) 80	12.6 (S) 350 14 (Y)	24.5 (Y) 612.5		_	-0.05 (Y) -1.3	-0.03 (Y) -0.8
Avg. CO ₂ flux, g CO ₂ ·m ⁻²	-129 (S)	-112 (S)	-324 (S)	-53 (S)	8 (S)		-126 (S)	–693 (Y)		(S) 96 <i>L</i> -	–364 (Y)		-870 (Y)	–117 (Y)	-234 (S)	-188 (Y)	-146 (Y)	-125 (S)	-130 (S)	//1 (Y)	290 (Y)
Mean P, mm	26	62	92	200	200		137	504			699		658	269	142	713	300	14	397	/19	502
Mean T, °C	3.4	3.6	6.3	-7.8	-7.8		-14.7	2.1			2.1		ιν	-0.1	12	3.3	-0.7	5.4	8. 6	5.9	5.8
WTD,	-0.9	9-	2.3	7.4	-9.5		4	-65			-65		-40	7	-5	-15	-12	4.3	5.8	08-	-80
Measurement period	June 2–August 26, 1997	June 23-August 25, 2008	2009 (growing season) Average 2007–2009	(growing season) July-October 2002–2004	July-October 2005		June 11–September 3,	Y, average 2004–2009		S, late May–late September 2007	Average 2004–2007		2005	2006–2008	July–August 2008	March 2005–February 2006 (CH ₄) and 2005 CO ₂	2006–2007	June 12-August 31, 2007	May 14-October 11, 2010	October 2000–September 2001	October 2001–September 2002
Vegetation type	E, SA, O	E, SA, O	E, S, C, B, O	C, E, B, O			C, SA, O	T, S, O			Reed	canary grass	T, E, S, B	s, sA, o	E,S	E, C, S, O	C, S, E, O	C, E, O	S, E, O	Spring barley	Forage grass
Ecosystem type/characteristics	Natural wetland (fen)	Natural wetland (fen)	Natural wetland	(tundra) Natural wetland	(tundra) Drained wetland	experiment drained in late 2004	Natural wetland	Treed wetland	(moderately rich treed fen)		Drained wetland	(cutaway peatland, drained in 1981)	Drained treed wetland (dwarf- shrub pine bog, drained in 1969)	Natural wetland (mire/sedge fen)	Natural wetland (sedge fen tundra)	Natural wetland (fen)	Natural wetland (mire)	Natural wetland	Natural wetland (fen)	Drained peatland	Drained peatland
Climate	High arctic	High arctic	High arctic	High arctic			High arctic	Boreal	continental		Boreal		Boreal	Boreal	Low arctic	Boreal	High arctic	High arctic	High arctic	Boreal	Boreal
Coordinates	74° 30′ N, 21° 00′ W	74° 30′ N, 21° 00′ W	70° 49′ N, 147° 29′ E	69° 36′ N, 161° 20′ E			72° 22′ N, 126° 30′ E	54° 57′ N, 112° 28′ W			62° 19′ N, 30° 17′ E		60° 39′ N, 24° 21′ E	68° 00′ N, 24° 13′ E	64° 52′ N, 111° 34′ W	61° 50′ N, 24° 12′ E	68° 22′ N, 19° 03′ E	71° 17′ N, 156° 35′ W	64° 07′ N 51° 23′ W	60° 54′ N, 23° 31′ E	60° 54′ N, 23° 31′ E
Site name, location	Zackenberg, Greenland	Zackenberg, Greenland	Kytalyk, Russia	Cherskii, Russia	Cherskii, Russia		Lena Delta, Russia	Western peatland	of FLUXNET– Canada Research Network, Canada		Linnansuo, Finland		Kalevansuo, Finland	Lompolojänkkä, Finland	Daring Lake, Canada	Siikaneva, Finland	Stordalen, Sweden	Barrow, AK	Nuuk, Greenland	Jokioinen, Finland	Jokioinen, Finland
Arctic/ boreal	AB1a*	AB1b*	AB2*	AB3a⁺	AB3b ⁺		AB4	AB5			AB6		AB7	AB8	AB9*	AB10	AB11	AB12*	AB13*	AB14a	AB14b

P, precipitation; S, seasonal estimates; T, air temperature; WTD, water table depth; Y, yearly estimates. B, Betula spp.; C, Carex spp.; E, Eriophorum spp.; S, Sphagnum spp.; SA, Salix spp.; T, trees spp., Picea mariana and Larix laricina (ABS) and Pinus sylvestris (ABG). O, others: Dupontia psilosantha (AB1a,b); Sedges (AB2); Potentilla palustris, Calamagrostis sp. (AB3); Drepanocladus revolvens, Meesia triquetra,

Aulacomnium turgidum, Dryas octopetala, Astragalus frigidus, Hylocomium splendens, Timmia austriaca (AB4); (shrub) Betula pumila; (herbs) Carex spp., Menyanthes trifoliate, Triglochin maritime; (mosses) alustre, Drepanocladus aduncus, Pleurozium schreberi, Sphagnum spp. (ABS) Ledum palustre, Vaccinium uliginosum, V. vitis-idaea, V. myrtillus, Empetrum nigrum, Calluna vulgaris, Rubus chamaemorus, Pleurozium schreberi, Dicranum polysetum, Aulacomnium palustre, and Polytrichum strictum (ABT); vascular plants, aerenchymatous species (AB8); Eriophorum spp. (75%), Sphagnum (100%

ground cover) (AB9); Russow ex C.E.O. Jensen, S. majus (Russow), C. limosa L. (AB10); woody herbaceous (AB11); dupontia (AB13); Calluna vulgaris, Erica tetralix (AB14).
*Seasonal mean T and mean P for the measured period only. If not mentioned otherwise, T, P, and WTD are values referring to the mean seasonal or yearly measurements.
†Thirty-year long-term mean for temperature records. Negative values refer to water table below surface and positive values refer to above surface.

Table S2. Main characteristics of the study sites for temperate (T) wetlands

Temperate	Site name, location	Coordinates	Climate	Ecosystem type	Vegetation type	Measurement period	WTD, r	Mean T	Mean P, mm	Avg. CO ₂ , flux, g CO ₂ ·m ⁻²	Avg. CH ₄ flux, g C CH ₄ ·m ⁻²	Avg. CH ₄ flux, g CO ₂ eq·m ⁻² , 100 y
1	Mer Bleue,	45° 24′ N, 75° 31′ W	Temperate	Natural wetland	S, E, O	Average 2009–2010	-35	6.4	758	–301 (Y)	10.5 (Y)	350
2	Sherman Island, CA	38° 2′ N, 121° 45′ W Temperate	Temperate	Common or pair, boy, considered wetland (peatland pasture-grazed peat, top layer degraded)	0	April 5-end 2007 Average 2007–2009 and 2010 for CO ₂ and January 1- September 25, 2010	-53.5	15.3	282	(X) 896	4.7 (S)	112.5
T3	Twitchell Island, CA	38° 6′ N, 121° 39′ W Temperate	Temperate	Rice paddy	Oryza sativa	for CH ₄ April 4–end 2010	-12.2	15.2	394	(S) 906-	5.1 (S)	127.5
T4	Mayberry Slough, CA	38° 2′ N, 121° 45′ W Temperate	Temperate	Restored wetland (at the end of 2010)	0	October 14, 2010– October 14, 2011	50.9	14.8	394	388 (Y)	21 (Y)	525
T5	Plotnikovo, Russia	56° 51′ N, 82° 58′ E	Temperate	Natural wetland	C, E, O	May 10–September 16, 1999 (growing season)	-0.2	14.5	105	–396 (S)	26 (S)	650
T6	Bog Lake peatland, United States	47° 32′ N, 93° 28′ W	Temperate continental	Natural wetland (open ombrotrophic bog)	C, S	May 20–October 12, 1991, 1992 for CO ₂ 1991 and 1992 for CH,	-1.5	13.6	553	72 (S)	14.5 (Y)	362.5
17	Castellaro, Italy	45° 04′ N, 8° 4′′ E	Temperate	Rice paddy	O. sativa	2009–2010 for CO ₂ April 9, 2009–end 2010 for CH,	8.6	12.6	847	–1,346 (Y)	29 (Y)	725
T8	Glencar, Ireland	51° 55′ N, 9° 55′ W	Temperate maritime	(Relatively) Natural wetland (Atlantic blanket bog)	s, o	Average 2003–2005 and 2008	-3.5	10.4	2,541	–239 (Y)	5.1 (Y)	113
T9	Spreewald, Germany	51°53′ N, 14°02′ E	Suboceanic/ Subcontinental/ Temperate	Treed wetland	⊢	Average 2010–2013 for CO ₂ , April 8– May 23, 2011 for CH ₄	-0.1	11.1	481	–1,285 (Y)	0.3 (S)	8.9
T10	Oukoop, The Netherlands	52° 02′ N, 4° 46′ E	Temperate	Drained wetland (peat meadow, drained for agriculture, grazed)	0	2005, CO ₂ Average 2006–2008, CH ₄	-42.5	10.9	863	493 (Y)	15.7 (Y)	392.5
111	Park Falls, WI, WLEF–United States	45° 57' N, 90° 16' W Mixed temperate/ boreal		Mixed forest/wetland landscape	T, 0	Average 2011–2012	N/A	5.7	245	–292 (Y)	1.04 (Y)	24.3
T12	Fyodorovskoye (Ru-Fyo), Russia	56° 27′ N, 32° 55′ E	Temperate continental	Natural forest wetland (spruce forest)	T, S	April 11–October 15, 2009 March 27–October 27, 2010 April 30–December 24, 2011	-19.1	5.1	868	172 (S)	-0.02 (S)	-0.5
T13	Horstermeer, The Netherlands	52° 8′ N, 5° 2′ E	Temperate	Restored wetland (peat meadow)	0	2005–2006	-5	8.6	797	–994 (Y)	42.2 (Y)	1,055

Table S2. Cont.

CH⁴	g,	·m ⁻² ,	λ	6.7	7
Avg.	flux	CO_2eq	100		77
	Avg. CH₄	flux, g	$\mathrm{CH_{4}\cdot m^{-2}}$	0.3 (Y)	-42 (Y) 4.1 (Y)
	Avg. CO ₂ Avg. CH ₄ flux, g	flux, g	$CO_2 \cdot m^{-2}$	-12.7 7.4 1,100 -267 (Y) 0.3 (Y)	-42 (Y)
		Mean	cm T, °C P, mm	1,100	692
		WTD, Mean Mean	J, °C	7.4	8.5
		WTD,	сш	-12.7	0
			Measurement period	Average 2007–2010	Average 2007–2009
		Vegetation	type	S, E, O	S, E, O
			Ecosystem type	Acid moorland	(drained 100 y ago) Natural wetland (ombrotrophic bog)
			4)		
			Climate	Temperate	Temperate
			Coordinates Climate	55° 47′ N, 03° 14′ W Temperate	56° 15' N 13° 33' E Temperate
		Site name,)	Auchencorth 55° 47′ N, 03° 14′ W Temperate	Moss, Scotland Fäjemyr, Sweden 56° 15′ N 13° 33′ E Temperate

T, P, and water table depth (WTD) are values referring to the mean seasonal or yearly measurements. S, seasonal estimates, P, yearly estimates. Negative values refer to water table below surface whereas positive values refer to above surface. B, Betula spp.; C, Carex spp.; E, Eriophorum spp.; S, Sphagnum spp.; SA, Salix spp.; T, trees spp., Alnus glutinosa (T9), sugar maple, aspen (T11), spruce (T12). O, Others: Maianthemum trifolium, Hordeum murinum (T2); Schoenoplectus acutus, Typha latifolia (T4); Menyanthes trifoliate, horse-tail Equisetum fluviatile (T5); Molinia caerulea, Ericaceae, sedges, brown mosses (T8); Lolium perenne, Poa trivialis (T10); alder-willow shrub, ericaceous bogs, and sedge fens (T11); Vaccinium myrtillus and V. vitis idaea (T12); Holcus lanatus, Phalaris arundinacea, Glyceria fluitanus, Equisetum palustre, fluviatile, Phragmites australis, Typha latifolia (T13); Juncacea, Cyperaceae, Calluna vulgaris (T14); C. vulgaris, Erica tetralix (T15). Note that the sites were classified into AB and T wetlands following the expert judgment of each site primary investigator.

Table S3. Annual CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes for the AB and T sites with available data from multiple years

Site ID	Site name, location	Coordinates	Period	g CO ₂ ·m ⁻² ·y ⁻¹	g CH ₄ ·m ⁻² ·y ⁻¹	Refs
Arctic/boreal						
AB2	Kytalyk, Russia	70° 49′ N,	2007	-300.12 ± 100.65*	6.30*	(1)
	, . , ,	147° 29′ E	2008	-324.27*	4.00*	` '
			2009	-347.33*	2.90*	
AB3a*	Cherskii, Russia	69° 36′ N,	2002	-193.98*	26.6 ± 19.95*	(2)
Absa	Cherskii, Russia	-				(2)
		161° 20′ E,	2003	54.90*	26.6 ± 14.63*	
			2004	14.64/–40.26*	31.92 ± 25.27*	
			2005	29.28*	0.79 ± 1.59*	,_,
AB5	Western peatland of FLUXNET–Canada	54° 57′ N,	2004	-535		(3)
	Research Network, Canada	112° 28′ W	2005	-986		(4)
			2006	-64		
			2007	-620 (-796*)	3.20*	
			2008	-814		
			2009	-561		
AB6	Linnansuo, Finland	62° 19′ N,	2004	-773.72	0.58 ± 0.28	(5)
ABO	Elimansao, rimana	30° 17′ E	2005	-31.84	0.62 ± 0.25	(3)
		30 17 L				
			2006	-188.49	0.16 ± 0.30	
			2007	-463.35	0.14 ± 0.29	
AB8	Lompolojänkkä, Finland	68° 00′ N,	2006	-12	17	(6)
		24° 13′ E	2007	-123	23	
			2008	-216	21	
AB11	Stordalen, Sweden	68° 22′ N,	2006	-146	24.50	(7)
	•	19° 03′ E	2007		29.50	. ,
Temperate						
T1	Mer Bleue, Canada	45° 24′ N,	2009	-399	11.60	(8)
11	Wei Biede, Carlada					
	61 11 1 64	75° 31′ W	2010	-201	9.40	(9)
T2	Sherman Island, CA	38° 2′ N,	2007	644.16*	4.90*	(10
		121° 45′ W	2008	592.92	2.70	
			2009	1,588.44	2.80	
			2010	1,046.76	3.90	
T7	Castellaro, Italy	45° 04′ N,	2009	-1,316.77	37.14	(11
	, ,	8° 43′ E	2010	-1,374.47	21.03	(12
T8	Glencar, Ireland	51° 55′ N,	2003	-244.48 ± 19.03	5.05 ± 2.12	(13
10	dierical, ireland	-				(13
		9° 55′ W	2004	-245.95 ± 10.98	4.78 ± 2.12	
			2005	-307.44 ± 17.56	5.98 ± 2.52	
			2008	-156.28 ± 17.2	4.78 ± 2.12	
Т9	Spreewald, Germany	51° 53′ N,	2010	-1,324.92		(14
		14° 02′ E	2011	-1,555.50		
			2012	-1,291.98	0.30*	
			2013	-966.24		
T10	Oukoop, The Netherlands	52° 02′ N,	2005	493		(15
	Cancella recording	4° 46′ E	2006		19.40	(16
		4 40 L				(10
			2007		14.00	
			2008		13.80	
T11	Park Falls, WI, WLEF–United States	45° 57′ N,	1997	22.2688		(17
		90° 16′ W	1998	53.0031		(18
			1999	81.4158		
			2000	70.1942		
			2001	137.487		
			2002	71.9335		
			2003	59.6953		
			2003			
				79.5593		
			2005	5.04275		
			2006	-98.7249		
			2007	-94.578		
			2008	-109.696		
			2009	-44.0794		
			2010	41.596		
			2011	-58.3582	1.215	
			2011		0.879	
				-101.423	0.079	
T42	- 1	F.C. 2-:	2013	19.589		,
T12	Fyodorovskoye (Ru-Fyo), Russia	56° 27′ N,	2009	-92	-0.01	(19
		32° 55′ E	2010	436	-0.02	
			2011	172	-0.02	

Table S3. Cont.

Site ID	Site name, location	Coordinates	Period	g $CO_2 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$	$g \ CH_4 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$	Refs.
T13	Horstermeer, The Netherlands	52° 8′ N,	2005	-1,138.26 (±212.28)	41.58 (±27.13)	(20)
		5° 2′ E	2006	-849.12 (±212.28)	42.91 (±28.03)	
T14	Auchencorth Moss, Scotland	55° 47′ N,	2007	-498	0.37	(21)
		03° 14′ W	2008	-300	0.43	
			2009	-145	0.27	
			2010	-125	-0.02	
T15	Fäjemyr, Sweden	56° 15′ N,	2007	-107.7 ± 28.1	5.45	(22)
		13° 33′ E	2008	86.4 ± 29.1	3.05	
			2009	-106.1 ± 16.3	3.85	

^{*}The values are for the growing season only.

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Table S4. Site-specific measurement techniques and instrumentation for ${\rm CO_2}$ and ${\rm CH_4}$ fluxes

Site ID	Site name	Measurement technique, CO ₂ fluxes	Measurement technique, CH ₄ fluxes	Refs.
AB1a	Zackenberg	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Eddy covariance (TDL)	(1)
AB1b	Zackenberg	Autochambers (PP systems SBA-4)	Autochambers (LGR FMA)	(2)
AB2	Kytalyk	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Eddy covariance (DLT-100 CH ₄ analyzer)	(3)
			Flux chambers (INNOVA 1412)	(4)
4B3	Cherskii	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262, LICOR 7500)	Static soil chambers	(5)
				(6)
4B4	Samoylov, Lena	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Eddy covariance (Campbell TDL)	(7)
	River Delta	Closed dynamic chambers (INNOVA 1412	Closed dynamic chambers (INNOVA 1412	(8)
		Photoacoustic IR Gas Spectrometer)	Photoacoustic IR gas spectrometer)	
				(9)
				(10)
AB5	Western peatland of	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Eddy covariance (Campbell Tunable Diode	(11)
	Fluxnet–Canada		laser spectrometer; TGA100A)	(12)
	Research Network			(13)
				(14)
				(15)
				(16)
AB6	Linnansuo	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Static chambers	(17)
				(18)
				(19)
AB7	Kalevansuo	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Static manual chambers and laboratory	(20)
			gas chromatograph	
AB8	Lompolojänkkä	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Eddy covariance (LGR CH ₄)	(21)
4B9	Daring Lake	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Static Chambers (manual)	(22)
AB10	Siikaneva	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Eddy covariance (TDL, TGA-100; Campbell Scientific)	(23)
		,		(24)
AB11	Stordalen	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Eddy covariance (TDL Aerodyne Res).	(25)
AB12	Barrow	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Eddy covariance (DLT-100 CH ₄ analyzer; Los Gatos)	(26)
AB13	Nuuk	Autochambers (PP systems SBA-4)	Autochambers (LGR FMA)	(2)
4B14a	Jokioinen	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Static manual chambers (laboratory	(27)
		,	gas chromatograph)	(28)
			3	(29)
AB14b	Jokioinen	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Static manual chambers (laboratory	(27–29
			gas chromatograph)	
⁻ 1	Mer Bleue	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Autochambers	(30)
				(31)
Γ2	Sherman Island	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	LGR TDL (DLT-100 FMA)	(32)
Г3	Twitchell Island	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	LGR TDL spectrometer (DLT-100 FMA)	(32)
Γ4	Mayberry Slough	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7700)	(32)
Г5	Plotnikovo	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Eddy covariance (TDL)	(33)
Г6	Bog Lake peatland, United States	Eddy covariance (TDLS and LICOR 6251)	Eddy covariance (TDLS and LICOR 6251)	(34)
				(35)
Γ7	Castellaro	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Static chambers and eddy covariance	(36)
8	Glencar	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Static chambers and laboratory gas chromatograph	(37–47
9	Spreewald	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Eddy covariance (Los Gatos FGGA)	_
Γ10	Oukoop	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Static chambers	(48)
			Eddy covariance (QCL TILDAS_76 aerodyne	(49)

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Site ID	Site name	Measurement technique, CO ₂ fluxes	Measurement technique, CH ₄ fluxes	Refs.
,				(50)
T11	Park Falls, WI, WLEF	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Eddy covariance	(51)
T12	Fyodorovskoye (Ru-Fyo)	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Static chambers and laboratory gas chromatograph	(52)
T13	Horstermeer	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7500)	Flux chambers (Photo Acoustic Field Gas Monitor INNOVA 1312)	(53)
T14	Auchencorth Moss	Eddy covariance (LICOR 7000)	Static chambers	(54)
T15	Fäjemyr	Eddy covariance (LICOR 6262)	Autochambers (LGR FMA)	(55) (2)

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Table S5. Site-specific gap-filling methods

Site ID	Site name	Gap-filling CO ₂	Gap-filling CH₄	Refs.
AB1a	Zackenberg	Collatz model and Q_{10} function for Rs	Q ₁₀ and water table	(1)
AB1b	Zackenberg	Linear interpolation	Linear interpolation	(2)
AB2	Kytalyk	As per Reichstein et al. (4)	· <u> </u>	(3)
AB3a,b	Cherskii	Temperature response (Reco) and	Mean seasonal averaging	(4)
•		light response (GPP)	3 3	(5)
AB4	Samoylov, Lena	Light response and temperature response	Daily averages, no gap filling	(6)
	River Delta	as per Runkle et al. (8)	, , , , , ,	(7)
		, , ,		(8)
AB5	Western peatland of	_	FCRN standard procedure	(9)
	FLUXNET–Canada Research Network		·	(10)
AB6	Linnansuo	As per Reichstein et al. (4)	Linear interpolation	(11)
		` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` ` `	•	(12)
				(4)
AB7	Kalevansuo	Temperature response, radiation response	Interpolation between each chamber	(13)
	. ture various	. c.i.peratare response, radiation response	measurement	()
AB8	Lompolojänkkä	Temperature response, radiation response, averaging in winter	Temperature response, averaging	(14)
AB9	Daring Lake	Linear interpolation and empirical modeling	Average, no gap filling	(15)
				(16)
AB10	Siikaneva	Empirical modeling	Linear interpolation, temperature regression	(17)
				(18)
AB11	Stordalen	Air temperature and light response	Temperature response	(19)
				(20)
				(21)
AB12	Barrow	Linear interpolation	_	(22)
		·		(21)
AB13	Nuuk	Linear interpolation	Linear interpolation	_
AB14a	Jokioinen	Temperature plus radiation response for	Linear interpolation for the chamber data	(23)
		the EC data		(24)
AB14b	Jokioinen	Temperature plus radiation response for	Linear interpolation for the chamber data	(23)
		the EC data		(24)
T1	Mer Bleue	Nonlinear regression with seasonal adjustment	Linear regression of log10 flux	(25)
				(26)
T2	Sherman Island	Neural networks	Neural networks	(27)
T3	Twitchell Island	Neural networks	Neural networks	(27)
T4	Mayberry Slough	Neural networks	Neural networks	(27)
	mayberry stough	near networks	Neural Networks	(27)
T5	Plotnikovo	Linear regression	Linear regression	(28)
Т6	Bog Lake peatland, United States	See refs. for procedure	Linear integration	(29)
	Officed States			(30)
T7	Castellaro	Yes, Look-up tables	Yes, Look-up tables	(31)
T8	Glencar	Temperature response, radiation response	Nonlinear regression	(32–42)
Т9	Spreewald	Temperature response, radiation response	-	(4)
T10	Oukoop	Dual-modeling approach	Empirical multivariate regression model	(43) (44)
				(45)
				(21)
T11	Park Falls, WI, WLEF	Nighttime moving-window regression	Simple exponential temperature model and linear interpolation to daily NEE	(46)

Site ID	Site name	Gap-filling CO ₂	Gap-filling CH₄	Refs.
				(47)
T12	Fyodorovskoye (Ru-FYO)	Yes	_	(48) (49)
T13	Horstermeer	Yes	_	(50)
T14	Auchencorth Moss	Yes	_	(21) (51)
T15	Fäjemyr	Neural networks	_	(52)

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Table S6. Multiple paired sites for radiative forcing calculations

RF runs (1)	Reference site	Site type	Managed site	Site type	ΔNECB, M-R	ΔCH_{4} , M–R	ΔN ₂ O, M–R
Natural to a	griculture, AB						
1	AB8	Natural fen →	AB6	Energy crop	214	-19.9	-0.06
2	AB8	Natural fen →	AB14a	Barley	2,066	-20.4	4.6
3	AB8	Natural fen →	AB14b	Grass	2,010	-20.3	3.0
4	AB10	Natural fen →	AB6	Energy crop	300	-13.6	_
5	AB10	Natural fen →	AB14a	Barley	2,152	-14.1	_
6	AB10	Natural fen →	AB14b	Grass	2,096	-14.0	_
7	AB11	Natural mire →	AB6	Energy crop	229	-24.1	_
8	AB11	Natural mire →	AB14a	Barley	2,081	-24.5	_
9	AB11	Natural mire →	AB14b	Grass	2,026	-24.5	_
Natural to a	griculture, T						
1	T1	Natural bog →	T2	Pasture	1,490	-9.8	
2	T1	Natural bog →	T10	Peat meadow	1,631	5.2	_
3	T1	Natural bog →	T14	Acid moorland	5	10.2	
4	T8	(Relatively) Natural bog →	T2	Pasture	1,446	-3.8	
5	T8	(Relatively) Natural bog →	T10	Peat meadow	1,556	11.2	2.4
6	T8	(Relatively) Natural bog →	T14	Acid moorland	-40	-4.2	0.003
7	T15	Natural bog →	T2	Pasture	1,250	-3.4	
8	T15	Natural bog →	T10	Peat meadow	1,390	11.6	
9	T15	Natural bog →	T14	Acid moorland	-235	-3.8	
Natural fore	ested to managed	forested, AB and T					
1	AB5	Treed fen →	AB7	Drained wetland	217*	-3.3	_
				pine bog	150 [†]		
2	Т9	Treed wetland →	T11	Mixed forest/wetland landscape	881* 713 [†]	0.7	_

The difference in fluxes $\Delta NECB$, ΔCH_{4r} , and ΔN_2O between managed (M) and reference (R) sites has been expressed as grams CO_2 , CH_{4r} , or $N_2O \cdot m^{-2} \cdot y^{-1}$, respectively.

^{*} R_{soil} calculated with method i (carbon budget at sites).

[†]R_{soil} calculated with method *ii* [*IPCC Wetland Supplement* values (2)].

^{1.} Lohila A, et al. (2010) Forestation of boreal peatlands: Impacts of changing albedo and greenhouse gas fluxes on radiative forcing. J Geophys Res 115:G04011.

^{2.} IPCC 2014, 2013 Supplement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Wetlands, eds Hiraishi T, et al. (IPCC, Geneva, Switzerland).